## HIGHLIGHTS OF ÖMIE MORPHOLOGY

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### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Ömie is the smallest member of the Koiarian Language Family of Central Papua. It is spoken by some 1000 inhabitants of the southwestern slopes of Mount Lamington and the upper reaches of the Kumusi River in the Northern District of Papua. ${ }^{1}$ This distribution corresponds to two dialects of the language which have been identified and named Asafa and Zuwadza respectively. The former, centred around Asapa village numbers approximately 800 speakers, and the latter, centred around Namanaia (or Wora) village numbers approximately 200 speakers.

This paper is concerned solely with the Asafa, or as it will be spelled hereafter, Asapa dialect. It is based on data collected under the auspices of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, much of which was contributed by one of the present authors, Mr. Randolph Upia, a native speaker from Asapa village. ${ }^{2}$

In the forthcoming description the following abbreviations will be used to identify affixes:

| ab | ablative | pf | perfect |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| al | allative | pl | plural |
| aux | auxiliary verb | po | potential |
| ben | benefactive | pr | present |
| ch | characterizer | prim | primary medial |
| des | desiderative | proj | projected aspect |
| excl | exclusive | sec | secondary medial |
| fu | future | set | setting |
| gen | general tense | sg | singular |
| imp | imperative | sp | specific |
| loc | locative | ref | direct referent |
| p | prominence | rel | relator |
| pa | past | $t$ | terminator |

2.0 PHONOLOGY 3

### 2.1 Phonemes

In transcribing Ömie the following symbols are used to represent twentytwo separate consonant and vowel phonemes the principal variants of which are shown in square brackets following each symbol:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& t[t h], k[k h], \quad ?, b, d, j[d z ̌], g, p[p], \\
& v[t, v, w], r[i ̌, r i], m, n, s[s, t s], h[h, f] \text {, } \\
& i, e, \quad \ddot{e}[\boxplus], a, \quad \ddot{0}[o], \quad \delta[o], o\left[a^{\prime}\right], u \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Following a vowel, : is used to indicate that the syllable containing that vowel is stressed.

Phonemes contrast in analogous or identical environments as follows:

| $v / / b / / m / / n$ | /i:vel net /i:bel eating |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | /i:me/ sugarcane /i:ne/ eat (imperative) |
| n//d | /?a:ne/ hit /?a:de/ branch |
| t//d | /hö:tel tree type /hö:de/ flame |
| t//s | /butie:/ knot /gusie:/ tree type |
| d//j//s | /da:je/ skin /jasje/ drum /sasse/ Light |
| d//r | /de:jel back /re:jel taboo place |
| $h / / p$ | /a:hol the man la:pol father |
| g//?//h//\# | /ga:ne/ see (imperative) /?a:ne/ hit (imperative) |
|  | /ha:nel leaf /a:ne/ tooth |
| k//g | /ka:vuë?e/ red /ga:vuë?el we are seen |
| k//? | /mökö:je/ name of bird /nugö?ö:je/ send |
| v//u//vu | /v8:nugel stop /uo:hol the hair |
|  | /vuo:he/ chew (imperative) |
| i//e//a//8//ö//u | /i:je/ tree |
|  | /e:je/ shield |
|  | /a:je/ wife's father-in-Zaw |
|  | /ô:je/ door |
|  | /ö:je/ plant |
|  | /u:je/ banana |
| e//ë//a//o | /bire:ge/ he scolds me |
|  | /birë:ge/ he scolds them |
|  | /bira:gel he scolds you |
|  | /birosgel flesh |
| 0//8 | /?iro:me/ construct /?ir8:me/ pluck |
| -//u | /i:jorel afterwards /i:jurel in the nest |
| -//Ö | /hi:rohe/ he prospers /hi:röhe/ he is to sit |

Stress is contrastive and is characterized by timing rather than intensity. Compare:
hije: grandparent hi:je sit.
Note that for some speakers $h$ and $p$ represent one phoneme. Some speakers use the allophone [h], others [p]; still others fluctuate between the two. However, some younger speakers recognize a difference and tend to pronounce $h$ in some words consistently as [p] and in others consistently as [h].

Otherwise the only other major allophonic variation is found
with the phoneme $v$ which is generally pronounced as a labiodental
fricative or lightly articulated bilabial fricative except when occurring immediately preceding a back vowel when it is pronounced more like [w] than [ b ].

### 2.2 Syllable Types

A syllable in Ömie consists of an onset, optional word initial, obligatory elsewhere, followed by an obligatory simple or complex nucleus. The following syllable types occur: (bracketed symbols indicate optional occurrence)

```
Word initial: (C)V; (C)(V)VV
Elsewhere: C(V)(V)V.
```

The distribution of phonemes within the syllable is restricted. In the following chart each of the eight ömie vowels is assigned a number. Components of syllable nuclei will be referred to by these numbers.

|  | Front | Central | Back |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| High | $2 / \mathrm{i} /$ |  | $1 / \mathrm{u} /$ |
| M1d | $7 \mathrm{~B} / \mathrm{e} /$ | $4 / \mathrm{l} /$ | $3 / 8 /$ |
| Low | $7 \mathrm{~A} / \mathrm{e} / \mathrm{l}$ | $6 / \mathrm{al}$ | $5 / \mathrm{z} /$ |

CHART 1: ÖMIE VOWELS
Simple vowel nucleus when word initial may be any vowel but 4 in the chart. ${ }^{4}$ Elsewhere it may be any vowel. Complex nuclei consist of vowels in ascending numerical sequence only. The initial vowel is never 3 or 4. In triple vowel nuclei, the final vowel is always 7A or 7B. The following chart lists examples of the only combinations of phonemes in (C)VVV syllables.

|  | uae | uaë | iae | $\boldsymbol{i a e ̈}$ | iöe | i öë |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| g | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |  |  |
| j | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |  |  |
| h | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |
| m | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |
| r | $\times$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |
| d |  |  | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |
| \# |  |  | $x$ | $x$ |  |  |
| $v$ |  |  | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ |
| n |  |  | x | x | $x$ | $x$ |
| ? |  |  |  |  | x | x |

CHART 2: CONSONANT VOWEL NUCLEAR COMBINATIONS

When the nucleus consists of two vowels the following restrictions have been found in the onset. With nucleus 1,5 , the onset is /m/, /h/ or /?/. With nucleus 2,3, the onset is one of /b,v,d,s,n/.

The consonant /k/ is rare. Apart from loan words, these are the only words recorded which contain /k/: /kinë?e/ bush spirit /kavue/ turn red /köel blood /kaejöel knife /mököje/ name of bird /kôva?iel name of bird.

Some dialects substitute /?/ for /k/ in the first three words.
Other combinations have not yet been observed: /tua/ /die/ /duô/ /suô/ /iö/.

### 3.0 MORPHOPHONEMICS

The following rules apply to affixes and clitics except for the special cases given in Sections $12.1,12.11,13.12$ and 13.3 below.
(1) Final stem vowels are reduced when an enclitic or suffix beginning with the same vowel is added.

```
papa + are > papare
uncle + genitive > uncle's
```

(2) The phoneme /e/ is reduced when /e/ and /ë/ come together in either order as a result of the addition of an enclitic or suffix.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { sis"̈ }+\frac{e}{b a d}+\text { terminator }>\text { bad } \\
\text { sue }+\quad \text { ëni }>\text { su-ëni } \\
\text { cloud }+ \text { allative }>\text { cloud-allative } \\
\text { for a cloud }
\end{gathered}
$$

(3) Final vowels of morphemes may be weak or strong. Strong vowels are /ö/, /e/, /ë/ and /a/. When another morpheme whose initial phoneme is a vowel is added, the strong vowel is retained except where rule 2 applies. The vowels /o/ and / $\delta /$ are reduced directly following a strong vowel.
sa?a-ëni
Zand-allative
for land

```
sa?a + ohuni > sa?a-huni
Zand + prominent.allative > land-prominent.allative
    for the land
```

Weak vowels are / $8 /$ and /o/. They are reduced when any vowel is added.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ?amo }+ \text { ëni }>\text { ?amëni } \\
& \text { village }+ \text { allative }>\text { for the village } \\
& \text { na-? } 8+\text { oho }>\text { na?oho } \\
& I-t o o+\text { prominence }>\text { nor } I
\end{aligned}
$$

The phonemes /i/ and /u/ on some morphemes are strong. However, if a morpheme beginning with /o/ is added, the /o/ is retained. muri-ëni muri-ohuni first.born-allative first.born-prominent.allative

On other morphemes, /i/ and /u/ are weak.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { öri + ëni >örëni } \\
& \text { road + allative > for a road }
\end{aligned}
$$

(4) Morpheme final /o/ becomes /8/ when a monosyllabic morpheme consisting of a consonant $+/ \theta /$ is added.

```
je?o + ro > je?0r0
bush + non-specific.locative > in bush country
    apo + 30 > ap8?ô
father + with > with father
```

(5) Depending on the speaker word final /o/ is frequently replaced by $/ 8 /$. This change is especially common in shouted speech contour final.

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { juvae ij-o } & >\text { juvae } \mathrm{ij}-8 \\
\text { coconut eat-let's! } & \text { Let's eat coconut. }
\end{array}
$$

(6) The Asapa dialect is distinguished from Zuwadza by the presence of -e terminator on certain classes of words and suffixes. -e is suffixed when the word or morpheme is considered independent of what follows. What is meant by independent differs according to the word or suffix class and will be discussed in the morphology.

| Zuwadza | Asapa |
| :--- | :--- |
| [a] man | a-e <br> man-t <br> man |
| [sina] skin | sino $+e>$ sin-e |
|  | skin-t |
|  | skin |
|  | sino-re |
|  | skin-on |
|  | on the skin |

```
[ba?-\varepsilon?i]
go-past(perfect?)
has gone, went has gone
    va?-ë?i-r8
    go-perfect-when
    when he went
```


### 4.0 NOUNS

Nouns are not inflected for number. Number may be signalled by other words in the same phrase or clause.

There are two classes of nouns, common and appellative.

### 4.1 Common Nouns

Common nouns, including borrowed words, are distinguished from appellative nouns by the terminator -e when they occur in isolation.
kuku-e
tobacco-t
tobacco
-e is not added (a) when suffixes or clitics are added or (b) when a morpheme to which one might otherwise expect it to be added is considered to be subordinate to a following word. Nouns in the latter category will be called dependent nouns. Examples (c) and (d) contain dependent nouns a and kuku.
(a) huono-re
bamboo-in
in the bamboo
(b) a-e sisë
man-t bad bad man
(c) a sisë
man bad
bad one
(d) kuku huon-e tobacco bamboo-t tobacco pipe

### 4.2 Appellative Nouns

Appellative nouns contrast with common nouns in that they do not have a terminator -e suffix in isolation:

```
apo father (used for address or endearment)
```

as opposed to
vavu-e father-t father (used for identification).
Proper names of people are included in the appellative class.
Appellative nouns contrast further with common nouns in that they take a genitive (gen) suffix -are, appellative locative -aro and vocative suffix - 0 . Common nouns do not take these suffixes.

```
                    apo + are > apare
                    father + genitive(gen)
                                    father's
    apo + arठ > aparठ
father + appellative.locative
        to/with father
        apo + ठ > apठ
        father + vocative
            Father:
```


### 5.0 ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are categorized as qualifiers or quantifiers.

### 5.1 Qualifiers

Qualifiers take -e terminator. Only qualifiers may function as a quality descriptive in a modified noun phrase. Unless emphasized, the qualifying adjective immediately follows the noun it modifies.
$i j-e$ böröm-e
tree-t big-t
a big tree

If emphatic, the qualifier immediately precedes the noun.

> böröm-e ij-e
> big-t tree-t
> a big tree

Qualifiers are reduced or increased in intensity by a closed set of modifiers. These are typical examples of comparison but not all of these phrases would occur with every adjective. Phrase medial qualifiers occur without -e terminator.

| bisemu böröme | böröme |
| :---: | :---: |
| only.a. Zittle big | big |
| somewhat big |  |
| börömo böröme |  |
| big big | bürömo mae |
| quite big | big true |
| börömo bëhe | truly big |
| big very | börömo börömo mae |
| very big | big big true |
| börömo bëhi mae | truly very big |
| big very true | börömo börömo bëhe |
| truly very big | big big very |

The strongest intensity is achieved by litotes.
bogo mae bogo bise?e vadu?oho
not truly not little perhaps
truly not little, no doubt about it
Adjectives are not marked to agree with the noun they modify. Some adjectives of size, however, are used only with nouns whose referent is singular, others are used only with nouns whose referent is plural.

```
a-e böröm-e
man-t big-t
    a big man
munë bise?-e
stone smaZて-t
a small stone
```

```
    a-e masij-e
    man-t big-t
    big men
    munë inin-e
stones small-t
    small stones
```


### 5.2 Quantifiers

The quantifier does not characteristically occur with -e terminator. It follows the qualifier in a modified noun phrase.
ae böröme gemu
man important one
one important man
Numerals constitute an important set of quantifiers.
gemu nio?i
one two

```
                    ëhi ni8?i ëhi gemu
            Zike.that two like.that one
                        three
                    ëhi ni0?i ëhi niofi
                            like.that two like.that two
                four
                    övo gö mine
                    hand one number
        the number of one hand; five
            övo gö mine övo gö-re gemu
        hand one number hand other-on one
    one hand and one (finger) on the other; six
            övo gö mine övo gö mine
        hand one number hand other number
                one hand, the other hand; ten
            övo gö mine övo gö mine höru gö mine
        hand one number hand other number foot one number
        one hand, the other hand, one foot; fifteen
    Other quantifiers include ahठ}0 many, ahठ}0bëhe very many,
vemino e few, gemu gemu one one 1.e. few, gö another.
    Certain quantifiers may be intensified. E.g.
                    ah8?0-bëhi mae
                    many-very truly
                            very many
```


### 6.0 MANNER WORDS

Manner words do not have -e terminator. They are of two types. Those derived from qualifiers, or homophonous with them, immediately precede the verb they modify.
muoho sisë-?i ë?e
work bad-manner he-does
He is doing the work poorly.
Other manner words, not derived from adjectives, need not be adjacent to the verb.

> burëro ?am-ëro rovadeje
> quickly village-to he.came
> He quickly came to the village.

Some stems appear to be derived from nouns.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { buru }+ \text { ëro }>\text { burëro } \\
& \text { wind }+b y>q u i c k l y \\
& u ? i+e m u>\text { ufemu } \\
& \text { smoke }+o n l y>\text { slowly } \\
& \text { darugo }+8>\text { darugô? }
\end{aligned}
$$

Others are simple stems.
saginiëri carefully, secretly
All manner words are usually preceded by the limitator ma just for slight emphasis:
ma burëro just quickly
The addition of the manner word bisemu a little immediately preceding another manner word means to some extent, rather.
bisemu burëro
a. little quickly
somewhat quickly
Manner words are intensified in irregular ways.

| burëro burëro | darugb?8 |
| :---: | :---: |
| quickly quickly | vigorously |

very quickly

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { darugo ma-ër-emu } \\
\text { vigour truly-with-only } \\
\text { very vigorously }
\end{gathered}
$$

### 7.0 TEMPORALS

Temporals are distinguished from other words in that when unmarked by a clitic, they function as a grammatical temporal indicator in a clause or noun phrase.
nasi hujeji jöho hujeji na va?ejo
my later talk
later I shall.go
my future message
Later I'll go.
Unlike nouns, adjectives, and manner words, temporals never occur with a preceding limitator ma just. This can be seen by comparing the homophonous words u?emu later and u?emu slowly.

```
            jaruvo ma u?emu juve u?emu ma burëro juvठी?ejठ
    today just slowly I.walk
Today I'm just walking slowly.
```

```
later just quickly I.will.walk
```

later just quickly I.will.walk
Later I'Zl walk quickly.

```
    Later I'Zl walk quickly.
```

Some temporals are derived by adding the suffix -?e to adjective or noun stems:
mami-? $e$
old-temporal.suffix
before, already.
In the same way temporals which constitute the diurnal subclass are derived from the nouns sisonue morning, majae sun, day, time, jenie afternoon, vö?öe evening, vahie night. Diurnal temporals include not only words, but phrases:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { sisonu-?e } \\
\text { morning-time } \\
\text { in the morning } \\
\text { jeni-?e } \\
\text { afternoon-time } \\
\text { in the afternoon }
\end{gathered}
$$

vahi-?e
night-time
at night
sisônu-?e mae [sic]
morning-time true
on in the morning

```
                        maja-?e
                                    sun-time
                                at the time from 10a.m. to noon
```

                                vö?ö-?e
                evening-time
                in the evening
            vahi ma-?e
                                    night true-time
                                    well on in the night
                                    vahi riri-?e
                                    night middle-time
                                    at midnight
    A diurnal temporal may be modified by an immediately preceding temporal.
nëri sisônu?e
tomorrow morning
The use of diurnal temporals should be compared with that of nouns. Note that mid-day is expressed by a relator-axis noun phrase, not a temporal (see Section 13.22):
maja riri-re
sun middle-setting.enclitic mid-day

Only the noun may be modified by a deictic:
di vahi-re
which (deictic) night. (noun)-setting.enclitic
which night?

# ave vahi-re <br> this night-setting <br> this night 

On the other hand, the diurnal temporal is used if a delctic is not selected:

jaruvo vahi?e<br>today night<br>tonight

Another category of temporals indicates the succession of days.
jaruvo today
nëri $18 t$ day before or after today
jiame $2 n d$ day before or after today
riome 3 rd day before or after today
riröhe 4 th day before or after today
Temporals are intensified irregularly:

| mami-?e | mami gö gö-?e |
| :---: | :---: |
| old-time | old some some-time |
| Zong ago | very long ago |
| u?emu | hujeji u?emu |
| Zater | after Zater |
|  | much Zater |

8.0 DEICTICS

Deictics are of two types: pure deictics, and locative deictics.

### 8.1 Pure Deictics

The pure deictic forms are:

| ë | that, there |
| :--- | :--- |
| ëhuno | in that area |
| ëhi | in this/that manner |
| evare | at that time |
| ëmino?e | that amount |

The pure deictics frequently function anaphorically to sum up a phrase, clause, paragraph or discour'se.

Aëro Asapa ?amo-re ë höröjadeje. the.man Asapa village-setting there came

The man arrived at Asapa village.

> Ae niô?i gemu ëmino?e rovareje.
> man 21 that.many came
> Three men, that many, came.

Ëhi ë?adeje.
like.that he.did
That's what he did. (sums up an entire discourse)
ë that, ëhi like that and evare then occur phrase initial in a modified noun phrase, manner phrase and temporal noun phrase respectively. Deictics do not occur in appellative noun phrases. The noun phrases terminate with either a prominence (p) marker or specific setting marker (sp.set) (see Section 13.0).
$\ddot{E}$ kinë?e sisë-huro rôvadeje.
that spirit bad-p.ablative he.came
That bad spirit came
$\ddot{E} h i$ ma burëro rôvadeje.
like.that just quickly he.came
He came that quickly.

Evare maja-re róvadeje.
that.time time-sp.set he.came
He came at that time.
Deictics may occur absolutely when the referent is known.
Aëro ë va?adeje
man there went
The man went there.
Evare va?adeje.
at.that.time he.went
He went at that time.

### 8.2 Locative Deictics

There are four basic locative deictics; see Chart 3: A, B, C and D. The initial /a/ wherever it occurs in the chart, is optional. In This discussion, lower case letters refer to the line in the chart, and numbers refer to the examples to follow.

| Deictic Focus | A here | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{B} \\ \text { there } \end{gathered}$ | $\stackrel{\mathrm{C}}{\text { down there }}$ | D <br> up there |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) setting (extreme) | ave | arue | anume | aruhe |
| (b) setting (proximal) | aviëre | aruëre | anumëre | a ruhëre |
| (c) this way (extreme) | aviëhi | a ruëhi | anumëhi | aruhëhi |
| (d) this way (proximal) | aviërëhi | aruërëhi | anumërëhi | aruhërëhi |
| (e) areaprominence | viënöho | ruënöho | numënöho | ruhënöho |
| (f) areaidentifier | vi ënörire | ruënörire | numënörire | ruhënörire |
| Locative Focus | A here | B there | $\stackrel{\mathrm{C}}{\text { down there }}$ | D <br> up there |
| (g) at, to (extreme) | aviae | aruae | anumiae | aruhiae |
| (h) at, to (proximal) | averiae | ar8riae | anumbiriae | aruh8̂riae |
| (i) additional (proximal) | veri?8 | r8ri38 | numb ri?8 | ruh8̂ri?8 |
| ( j ) somewhere (extreme) | aviari?ere | aruari?ere | anumiari?ere | aruhiari?ere |
| (k) somewhere (proximal) | averiari?ere | ar8riari?ere | anumôriari?ere | aruhôriari?ere |

## CHART 3: LOCATIVE DEICTICS

Each of the locative deictics may be deictic focus, (a) to (f), or locative focus, ( $g$ ) to ( $k$ ). The contrast is clear between (a) (b) and (g) (h): (a) (b) may refer to either space or time (l) (2). They frequently serve to direct the attention of the hearer to a change in setting or to the identity of a participant in a discourse (2). The locative focus deictics ( $g$ ) and (h), on the other hand, give information only about space or direction (3).
(1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ruëre vadune gö-re rue?ë?e. } \\
& \text { just. over.at. that year other-sp.set he.will. come } \\
& \text { He will come just this next year. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) Ruhe dö-re ?ano?i ?ömie bijiogoho ?ajiomamu up. at. that top-sp.set to.kizl Ömie native go.up
gagoro ?ömi-ëro hi?ihö gavajo uve mami?e after Ömie-subject sitting saw Orokaiva already
anumëre rठijomamugo just. down.at.that coming.up
(The Orokaiva)..was climbing up there to the top to kill the Omie countryman. Then the Ömie, as he was sitting, saw just down there an Orokaiva was already climbing the tree.
(3) Anumiae ?abue?ej8.
down.there I.shall.go.down I' ll go down there.

A second distinction which is made in the four locative deictics is between extreme and proximal. The proximal implies a short distance from the narrator or the participant from whose viewpoint the discourse is being presented. The extreme simply indicates direction without specific reference to distance. However, if proximal and extreme locative deictics other than those in column A are contrasted, proximal signifies near and extreme signifies far. The situation for those in column $A$ is the reverse. Extreme signifies right here and proximal signifies close to here.
aviae right here (extreme)
averiae not right here but close to here (proximal)
aruae over there (extreme)
aroriae a short distance over there (proximal)
Enclitics on locative deictics occur singly or in strings. Since their usage is specialized, it will be discussed here. Their occurrence on noun and temporal phrases will be described in Section 13.0.

Sets (a) (b) (g) (h) have already been illustrated. Enclitics or suffixes which may be isolated include - $\ddot{e}$ bound allomorph of the pure deictic $\ddot{e}(b)$, setting enclitic -re ~ $-r(b)(h)$, and locative -iae ~-ae (g) (h). Forms class (a) are unmarked.
-ëhi in that manner/way occurs in two sets of forms (c) and (d). Examples illustrate the usage first of the extreme, then the proximal form.
(1) Avi-ëhi rôvadeje.
this.here-way he.came
He came in the direction of this place here.
(2) Aviër-ëhi huhosumoromo rठ va?adeje.
near.this-way detouring come he.went
He passed by, making a detour on this side (of that object located) near here.

The extreme, (c), may refer to time or manner:
Hura bise?o-re röhu vi-ëhi rue?ë?e.
week small-on but this-way he.will.come
He will come this side of Saturday (i.e. before Saturday).

Avi-ëhi ë?adeje.
this-way he.did
He did just as $I$ am demonstrating here.
-ënöho on this part of (e) is composed of the pure deictic ë that plus area locative -nö plus the prominence marker -oho. Set (e) replaces (c) if it is sentence theme, or in a negative or information interrogative sentence (see Section 14.2).

J8v8 vi-ënöho iae aëro hije.
water this.here-area certainly man sits
There is someone on this side of the river.

Hura vi-ënöho bôgô rue?i ru-ëhi evare rue?ë?e.
week this.here-area not come there-way then he.will.come
He will not come this part of the week; towards the latter part, at that time, he will come.
-ënörire in this area (f) consists of -nö area, -ri (?), and -re setting.

Vi-ënörire jôvotre ä̈ro hije.
this.here-in.this.area water-at man sits
There is a person at the water in this area (as opposed to the water in the other area).

- 8 and, in addition, more (1):

R 8 ri- 38 va?one.
just.over. there-more go
Move over there a little or Get out of the way!
-ri?ere somewhere near, is composed of -ri (?) plus -?e characterizer, plus -re setting. It may be suffixed to an absolute (f) or relative (k) form.

```
            arua-ri?ere
        absolute. there-near
        somewhere over there
            ar8िria-ri?ere
        relative. there-near
        somewhere just a short distance over there
    The following forms may be substantivized (13.3) by adding the
prominence marker -oho. The final /e/ is reduced except in (a) forms.
    (a) ave-ho
        this-p
        this one
    (b) aviër-oho
        near.this-p
        the one in the place near here
(f) vi-ënörir-oho
        this-in.area-p
        the one in the area this way
(j) and (k) aruhoria-ri?er-oho
            just.up.there-somewhere.near-p
            the one just up there somewhere
```


### 9.0 INTERROGATIVES

```
Omie has both information and performative interrogatives. Information interrogatives are used by a narrator when a response or reaction is desired. Performative interrogatives are used by the speaker to express his own doubt or uncertainty.
rahuro rôvadeje who came (information)
Who came, \(I\) ask you?
vaduro rôvadeje
who came
(performative)
Let me think, who came?
The inclusion of information interrogatives in a clause results in the prominence marker being added to other phrases in the clause (14.2). The performative interrogative effects no changes.
```

Information interrogatives are classified as deictic, nominal and pronominal.

The deictic form is di which. It occupies the same initial position as the deictic ë in modified noun phrases (13.2). The phrase concludes with the prominence marker or specific setting marker (13.11, 13.12).


The information interrogative common noun rab-e what-t (stem rabu) what? may be modified and possessed. It takes the clitics in the same way as other common nouns (l3.l). The answer sought would range from a person to an abstract idea.

```
Nasi rabu böröm-ëro rÓvadeje?
                        my what big-subject came
What was it that was big belonging to me that came?
(May refer either to human or non-human participants.)
Rab-ëro bejadeje?
what-subject fell
What fell?
```

```
    Rab-ëni rôvaneje?
what-for did.you.come
Why did you come?
```

Rabu-?e sinöm-ëro róvadeje? what-kind cargo-subject came What sort of thing arrived?

The information interrogative pronoun rahuo who like other pronouns may not be modified or possessed. Clitics and suffixes are added to form rahu on the analogy of appellative nouns. For example

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { rahu-are } \\
\text { who-gen } \\
\text { whose? }
\end{gathered}
$$

The function of the interrogative pronoun is to inquire concerning a name. It frequently stands in apposition to a dependent noun.

> Jôv8 rahuo jie?
> river who is

What is the name of the river?

Rahu-ro róvadeje?
who-subject came
What is the name of the one who came?
Performative interrogatives are comprised of the performative noun vadee what-t what?, pronoun vaduo what name? and the verb vadë?e what does he do?. The first two occur with clitics or suffixes after the analogy of rabe and rahuo. vadë?e is composed of vad what plus ë?e do. It is conjugated like a regular verb.

Na va?oromo vadë?ej0 ?ua?ej0.
I going what.shaZZ.I.do I.shaZZ.teZZ.him
I will go and (do what?) tell him.

### 10.0 PRONOUNS

Pronouns may not be possessed or modified. They are displayed in Chart 4. Bracketed forms are of less frequent occurrence. Neutral means unmarked stem.

| Neutral |  |  | Genitive-Reflexive |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| 1 | na | n 8 ( $n$ 8́më) | nasi | n8si |
| 2 | ja | jemë | jasi | jemësi |
| 3 | hu | $\begin{aligned} & \text { jabumë } \\ & (\mathrm{j} a \mathrm{~b} u) \end{aligned}$ | hesi | jabesi |

CHART 4: PRONOUNS

The morpheme -më on $j e m e ̈$ and $j a b u m e \ddot{e}$ is the animate plural associative (l3.13) and may be added to 1 pl. form, $n$, to emphasize plurality, nómë. The abbreviated 3 pl . form sometimes occurs with ablative and comitative enclitics (13.11). It may also occur before a word with which it is closely related.
jabu- $\mathrm{CB}_{8}$ jabu ni8?i
3.pl.pronoun-comitative they two
with them they two

The intensifier -ehu occurs on na, ja, hu on other neutral pronouns. In addition to other functions (12.7, 14.12.3, 14.22(3)) -ehu on 1 and 2 persons neutral serves as emphasis in exclamations.

0 muen-ohuro na-ehu ijumevë?eje! O cousin-p.subject me-intensive has.ruined

0 , my cousin has ruined me!
The genitive pronoun is characterized by the suffix -si.

```
                                    na-si mu-e
                                    me-gen work-t
```

my work
The genitive pronoun occurs following a temporal or a noun phrase. A common noun or adjective is dependent if it immediately precedes a genitive pronoun.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { vavu hesi jöho } & \text { nëri hesi jöho } \\
\text { father his talk } & \text { tomorrow its talk } \\
\text { father's message } & \text { talk about tomorrow or the } \\
& \text { talk to be given tomorrow }
\end{array}
$$

Isolation and reflexive pronominal phrases consist of the genitive pronoun plus optional common nouns, sivue self (isolation), ?arijo?arije self (reflexive).

Na na-si sivu-e rôvठdeje. Na-si ?arijo?arij-oho mueberove. I me-gen isolation-t I.came me-gen reflexive-p I.care.for.myself I came by myself. I'm caring for myself.

Na-si ma rôvôdeje. Na-si imbdeje.
me-gen just I.came
It was my own idea that I come. I bought it for myself.
The genitive of the personal pronoun without ?arijo?arije self serves as reflexive for inanimate participants.

Ojoho hesi ëma tugorohadeje.
door of.itself just shut
The door just closed by itself.

### 11.0 PARTICLES

Particles are words which are never followed immediately by an enclitic. 5 There are three types:
(1) Modal Particles. The following is a representative list only.

```
iae certainly
io?o yes
bógô no, not
nadi don't (from a defective verb nadi?e wait)
bôgave don't-emphatic (from bôgô not and gave see;
                        it may take the medial form bôgavego op-
                        tionally)
ëma ~ ma just
nani perhaps
na yes-no interrogative
```

(2) Ejaculations
ojo?e surprise
asë?e surprise, anger, pleasure, greeting
(3) Conjunctions
röhu but, and
8 or, and, but
amo but anyway
na then (in narrative text)
dero welZ next (frequent in procedural texts)

### 12.0 VERBS AND VERB PHRASES

Verbs consist of a simple or complex stem usually followed by a unique set of suffixes. They function as predicate and normally occur clause final. Verbs may be intransitive, transitive, ditransitive, or factive.

### 12.1 Morphophonemics

Verb roots, stems, and many suffixes end in syllable onset /i, $u, m, n, g, h, ?, j, v /$. Other verb roots end in a syllable pattern consonant plus /i/ or /u/. This syllable occurring verb root final must be regarded as onset plus the first vowel of a syllable nucleus. Thus the syllable is fragmentary.

The syllable may be completed by a suffix beginning with a vowel. Otherwise the following changes occur:
(l) A final /j/ is reduced. (In the examples sg means singular; pr means present.)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{i} \mathrm{j}-\mathrm{e} \\
\text { eat-3.sg.pr } \\
\text { He eats. }
\end{gathered}
$$

```
    i-romo
eat-secondary.medial
    eating
```

> i gav-e
> eat see-3.sg.pr
> He samples the food.

The final stem /j/ is reduced in all examples except in the first. In the first example, the syllable beginning with /j/ is completed by a vowel suffix -e, 3 singular present. Verb morphemes following the analogy of $i j$ are called weak morphemes.
(2) When a verb morpheme ends in a phoneme other than /j/ or $/ v /$, the final syllable is normally completed by /o/. However, when the 1 singular future (fu) suffix -?ej8 is added, /8/ is substituted for lo/ through vowel harmony as is illustrated in the third example.
?an-e ?an-o-?ejo
hit-3.sg.pr hit-syllable.complement-l.pl.fu
he hits
we shall hit

```
    ?an-8-?ej8
hit-syllable.complement-l.sg.fu
I shall hit
```

Verb morphemes following the analogy of ?an are called strong morphemes.

When a suffix beginning with a glottal is added to a morpheme ending in a glottal, the morpheme is often not augmented by /o/ or /8/, but instead, one glottal is reduced:
va?-o-?ejo
go-syllable.complement-l.pl.fu
or more frequently:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { va-?ejo } \\
& \text { go-l.pl.fu } \\
& \text { we shall go }
\end{aligned}
$$

(3) All verb suffixes and some verb roots which end in /v/ are strong. Other verb roots are weak.
(a) rav-e

> clear-3.sg.pr
he clears
(b) ravo-?ejo
clear-l.pl.fu
we shall clear
(c)
gav-e see-3.sg.pr
he sees
(d)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { ga-?ejo } \\
\text { see-l.pl.fu } \\
\text { we shall see }
\end{gathered}
$$

Example (b) shows that rav is augmented by /o/ as was ?an in ?ano?ejo we shall hit. Thus rav is a strong morpheme. Example (d) shows that $/ v /$ is reduced before the consonant /?/, so that gav is a weak morpheme.

### 12.2 Verb Stems

Verb stems may be simple:
baeje va?e
take go
or they may be compound:

> ba-va?e
> take-go
> take away

Stems may be derived from nouns, adjectives, or from other verb roots. The most common verb stem forming suffix is $\mathbf{- v}$. When $-v$ is added, the resulting verb stem is always strong.
ëgo-v-e
tall-verb.forming.suffix-3.sg.pr
he grows tall
urejo-v-e
wild.beast-verb.forming.suffix-3.sg.pr
he acts crudely
Some stems are formed by the reduplication of the verb root:
hi-hi-v-e
$s i t-s i t-v e r b$.forming.suffix-3.sg.pr
he sits for a short time
The reflexive-reciprocal verb stem suffix or infix is -ro.
?ano-ro-v-e (root: ?an kizl)
kizて-reflexive-verb.forming.suffix-3.sg.pr
he kiZls himself

```
togo-ro-h-e (root: tugoh close)
shut-reflexive-verb.root.final.consonant-3.sg.pr
    it closes by itself
```

On some roots, the reflexive morpheme is used as a reciprocal
instead:

> biro-ro-h-ö
> find-reflexive-root.final.consonant-3.pl.pr they meet each other

Some stems contain number implicit in them. These include stems formed by the suffix -bijioh.
tutuv-e tutu-bijioh-e
run-3.sg.pr run-pl.stem-3.sg.pr
he runs they run

Other stems have roots with number implicit:
hije $\quad$ ?arije
one person sits
a few people sit

## rarome many people sit

### 12.3 Affix and Enclitic Inventory

An affix inventory is listed below. Allomorphs are not listed. Numbers indicate classes and orders of affixes. Where a form represents a person-number conjugation, the 3 singular is normally recorded to represent all persons and numbers. All imperatives are represented in the 2 singular form. A morpheme representative of a class is surrounded by angle brackets: <-amij>.

10 Stem referents
11 <-amij> direct referent
12 <-ah> benefactive
20 Adverbial
21 -anov attenuative
30 Quantitative
31 -ruom collective
32 - ?am extentive
40 Aspect
41 -növ habituative

| 50 Modal (1) |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 51 | -av | sensory |
| 60 Modal (2) |  |  |  |
|  | 61 | -hij | evidential |
|  | 62 | - ?ibej | contrafactual |
|  | 63 | - ?iro | potential |
|  | 64 | - ? ihöj | intentive |
| 70 | Active | Subject | Markers |
|  | 71 | <-o> | short form person-number |
|  | 72 | <-ade> | long form person-number |
|  | 73 | <-öhe> | projected aspect person-number |
|  | 74 | <-aje> | present tense person-number |
|  | 75 | $\langle-? a ? a j e>$ | future tense person-number |
|  | 76 | <-ne> | future imperative-number |
|  | 77 | <-e> | 1mmediate imperative-number |
| 80 | Final | markers |  |
|  | 81 | -ehu | intensifier |
|  | 82 | - aj | quotative |
| 90 | - 102 | Non-final | forms |
| 90 | Medial | tense/as | pect/mode |
|  | 91 | -nugo | cessative |
|  | 92 | -rije | primary medial contrafactual |
|  | 93 | -e | primary medial general |
|  | 94 | -? e | primary medial present |
|  | 95 | - amu | primary medial past |
|  | 96 | - ? iramu | primary medial future |
|  | 97 | - ${ }^{\text {e }}$ e | perfect |
|  | 98 | - juvo | continuative |
|  | 99 | - arume | unrealized potential |
|  | 100 | -jöro | 1 mposed will |
|  | 101 | -jöëni | circumstantial reason |
|  | 102 | - emu | durative |
| 110 | Conjunctivity |  |  |
|  | 111 | <-oho> | prominence, deictic and setting clause relators; single enclitic or enclitic string |
|  | 112 | -ëni | purposive |
|  | 113 | -ëro | ablative medial clause relator |
|  | 114 | -go | primary medial clause relator |
|  | 115 | - goro | perceptual medial clause relator |
|  | 116 | - romo | secondary medial clause relator |


| 117 | -?iro | temporal neighbourhood |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 118 | -be | distributive |

120 Closure

$$
121 \text {-vo disjunctive }{ }^{6}
$$

Affixes occur in ascending numerical order, i.e. left to right, except that 75,76 , or -0 from 71 may follow 82. Direct referent markers are either infixes, replacives or suffixes. They may even be an obligatory part of the stem. All other affixes are suffixes. There can be no co-occurrences within decades or among suffixes 91-102. The range of possible affixes per stem is 0 to 6 .

### 12.4 Stem Referents

Stem referents, Class 10 , are so called from their position in the verb. They are either suffixed directly to the verb stem or they form a part of the stem. Stem referents usually consist of a person number morpheme plus a function marker. Stem referents may be either direct (ref) or benefactive (ben).

Direct referent morphemes have many allomorphs. Verb stems are classified into five subclasses according to whether or not they take the direct referent, and according to what allomorphs of the direct referent they take.

Chart 5 displays two representative sets of allomorphs. Numbers refer to persons. $\varnothing$ stands for zero allomorph.

| Class 1 |  |  | Class 4 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural |  | Singular | Plural |
| 1 | -ev | -avu or <br> -övu | 1 | -emij | -amuij |
| 2 | -av | - ${ }^{\text {e }} \mathrm{v}$ | 2,3 | -amij | - $\mathrm{emi}^{\text {j }}$ |
| 3 | $\emptyset$ |  |  |  |  |

CHART 5: DIRECT REFERENT

Class 1 take the direct referent as suffix. The function marker is $v$.

The Class 2 function marker is g. On some verbs the direct referent Class 2 is a suffix while on others it is a replacive. The paradigm is the same as for Class l. In these examples the referent agrees in person and number with the object.

| ? an- $\square_{\text {- }}$ | ? an-eg-e |
| :---: | :---: |
| hit-3.sg.ref-1.sg.pr | hit-1.sg.ref-3.sg.pr |
| I hit him. | He hits me. |
| masuv-ø-e | mas-eg-e |
| marry-3.sg.ref-l.sg.pr | marry-1.sg.ref-3.sg.pr |
| $I$ marry him. | He marries me. |

In Class 3 verbs the final consonant of the stem serves as the function marker. The immediately preceding vowel is replaced in non3 singular forms.
ja? ih-e
bite.3.sg.ø.ref-3.sg.pr It bites him.
ja?ahu-e
bite.l.pl.ref-3.sg.pr
It is biting us.

Class 4 verbs may be further subdivided into two subclasses. Some verbs take the function marker -mije (with weak /i/) freely alternating with -m. Other verbs take -hij alternating with -h as part of the verb stem. Chart 5 displays a sample paradigm.

Of the Class 5 verbs, some occur with the Class l referent suffixes in first person only to signify a state of inability.

Na bôgô hej-ev-e.
I not hear-1.sg.ref-3.sg.pr
$I$ can't hear you.

Other verbs, such as juhuonive fear, have not been observed with a direct referent.

There is a wide range of relationships possible between the participant signalled by a direct referent, and the action or state represented by the verb. (In the examples, $a b$ means ablative, $a l$ means allative 13.1, pa means past, aux means auxiliary verb 12.8)

Direct object:
Na nah-ev-ade-je.
me search-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux
He searched for me.
Indirect object:
Nasi örire im-ev-ade-je.
me to sell-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux
He sold it to me.
Owner of participant in subject or object relation:
Nasi öv-ëro rid-emij-e.
my hand-ab emits.fragrance-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pr
$M y$ hand is fragrant.

> Nasi muoho ?aj-emij-e. my work help-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pr He is helping me in my work.

Subject of a factive clause:
Na höm-ev-ade-je.
$I$ hungry-l.sg.ref-pa-aux
$I$ was hungry.
Subject of a perfect aspect (pf) active clause:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Na-ro r8v-ë?e j-ev-e. } \\
I \text {-ab come-pf be-l.sg.ref-pr } \\
I \text { have come. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Telic relationsh1p:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Na-ni ?uv-ev-ade-je. } \\
\text { me-al call-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux } \\
\text { He called for me (to come). }
\end{gathered}
$$

The final example should be contrasted with the following:
Na-ni ?uv-eh-ade-je.
me-al call-l.sg.ben-3.sg.pa-aux
He called on my behalf. (I didn't want to call.)
This sentence is an example of the benefactive (ben). The function marker of the benefactive is $h$. Except that $h$ does not alternate with -hij, its paradigm is analogous to that of Class 4 direct referents. The benefactive may be referred to elsewhere in the clause by an allative form as in the above example or by a possessive.

> Nasi muoho bej-eh-adeje.
> my work fall-l.sg.ben-3.sg.pa
> My business failed on me.

Some verbs apparently have no benefactive forms.

### 12.5 Active Subject Markers

Active subject markers refer to the same participant as the active subject of the clause, expressed or understood. In factive clauses and certain verb phrases (12.8) the form is always 3 singular.

Unlike stem referents, active subject markers remain the same in all five verb classes. However, different sets of suffixes are selected according to the mood, tense or aspect to be signalled. Sometimes the choice of suffixes depends on whether a verb is final
or non-final. Final verbs are those which function as predicate in independent clauses. Non-final verbs occur in dependent clauses of various kinds. Where there is a choice of two forms in the paradigms in Chart 6, the bracketed forms generally occur word final. The unbracketed forms always occur if suffixes or auxiliary verbs follow. In the remainder of this paper these paradigms will be referred to by letter:

| Paradigm A Short |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Forms |  |  |
| Singular |  | Plural |
| 2 | -ane | -arije |
| 1 | -ô (-ômu <br> 1mmediate <br> desiderative) | -are <br> $(-o)$ |
| 3 | -o |  |


| Paradigm B Long Forms |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  | Plural |
| 2 | -ane | -arije |
| 1 | -ôde | -are |
| 3 | -ade |  |


| Paradigm C Projected Aspect |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  | Plural |
| 2 | -ane | -arije |
| 1 | -ode |  |
| 3 | -öhe |  |


|  | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | $\begin{gathered} - \text { anue } \\ (-\mathrm{e}) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text {-aruje } \\ (-\ddot{0}) \end{gathered}$ |
| 1,3 | $\begin{array}{r} -\mathrm{aje} \\ (-\mathrm{e}) \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text {-arue } \\ (- \text { ö }) \end{gathered}$ |


| Paradigm E Future Tense |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: |
| Singular |  | Plural |
| 2 | - ?a?anue | - ?a?aruje |
| 1 | - ?ej8 | - ?ejare <br> $(-? e j o)$ |
| 3 | $-? a ? a j e$ <br> $(-? e ̈ ? e)$ | $-? a ? a r u e$ <br> $(-? e ̈ ? \ddot{)})$ |


| Paradigm F Imp 2 Person |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |
| Plural |  |  |
| Immediate | -e <br> (-enö) | -he |
| Future | -ne | -re |

CHART 6: ACTIVE SUBJECT PARADIGMS

### 12.6 The Selection of Person and Number

Morphemes classes 10 and 70 signal person and number of certain participants in the state or action denoted by the verb. However, sometimes 3 person plural number is considered as a single group and referred to in the verb by the singular person-number markers. In
fact inanimate participants are usually referred to by the singular unless there is special attention drawn to a number of particular individual items as in the second of these two sentences:

Ije ahôobëhe huö?öjë?e-j-ø-e. Ije niô?i gemu j-ëv-e.
tree many felled-be-3.sg-pr tree two one be-3.pl-pr
Most of the trees have been felled. There are now just three trees.

In the first of these sentences there is no special emphasis on individual trees and so the verb referent marker is singular. (However, the stem of the verb itself refers to plurality.)

The quantitative suffixes (30) occurring optionally on many verbs sometimes denote plurality. -ruom (31), probably related to the verb root ruom flow in a torrent, may refer only to animate participants; - ? am (32) may refer either to animate or inanimate participants. There are further distinctions. On intransitive verbs -ruom refers to participants who are engaged in the action at the same time. - ?am refers to participants engaged in the action at different times.

Rue-ruom-ade-je.
come-collective-3.sg.pa-aux
They came in a group.
Rue-? am-ade-je.
come-extentive-3.sg.pa-aux
They came (arriving at different times).
-ruom refers to the subject of transitive verbs while - ?am refers to the object.

> Ga-ruom-are-je.
> see-collective-3.pl.pa-aux
> Many people saw it.
> Magonah-oho ga-?am-ade-je
> Heman-p see-extentive-3.sg.pa-aux
> saw many women. (He Zived promiscuous ly.)

- ?am sometimes denotes extent; ch means characterizer.

Öri ari-?e ga-?am-ade-je.
path land-ch see-extentive-3.sg.pa-aux
He had an extensive view of the landscape.

### 12.7 Mode-Tense-Aspect

Active subject suffixes help distinguish mode, tense and aspect of both active and factive clauses. In the past, present and future

Indicative, imperative and immediate desiderative, these person-number suffixes alone make distinctions. To signal other modes, they must be used with suffix sets 40,50 and/or 60.

Past indicative is signalled by paradigm B. However, in some older people's narrative texts -o, 3 person from paradigm A, is frequently used for past tense on final verbs.

To the past tense in final form is added either an auxiliary (12.8) or a performative intensifier -ehu (81). The performative intensifiers signal emotion on the part of the narrator and is equivalent to the English let me tell you.

Na iae a-ëro nah-ar-ehu.
then certainly man-ab search-3.pl.pa-intensifier
Well then, let me tell you, they searched for him.
Present and future indicative must be signalled by suffixes in paradigm $D$ and E respectively. Where there are two forms, the unbracketed suffixes may be used if special attention is drawn to the verb. Otherwise, the bracketed forms are substituted in word or verb phrase final position.

```
                                    Ae r8v-aje.
                                    person come-3.sg.pr
                        Someone's coming!
                            lae hu rôv-e.
certainly he come-3.sg.pr(abbreviated form)
    Yes, he's coming.
```

The first example is a shouted proclamation to the village of new information. The second example attaches no special emphasis to the verb. Accordingly, the abbreviated form is used.

In questions, if the present active subject marker is verb phrase final all three persons are signalled by -e in the singular and -ö in the plural. If future, the second person future imperative forms are substituted for the indicative.

Ja va?-anue.
you(sg) go-2.sg.pr(long form)
You are going.

Na ja va?-e.
Question you(sg) go-2.sg.pr(abbreviated)
Are you going?

Ja va-?a?anue.
you go-2.sg.fu.indicative You'll go.

Na ja va?o-ne.
Question you go-2.sg.fu.imp
Wiこl you go?

When the combination /?a?a/ immediately follows the phoneme /o/, one /?a/ is reduced.

```
bamo-?a?anue > bamo-?anue
put-2.sg.fu you will put
```

The future may be translated will, can, must; or it may signal customary action without regard to time.

Ja ga-?a?anue jiobo ë momorö?öj-aj-oho. you see-2.sg.fu eels there sleep(pl.root)-3.sg.pr-p

One can see eels sleeping there.

NO avoho raromo-?ejo.
we properly sit-l.pl.fu
We must behave properly.
©öho sur-ëro vae-?ë?e.
top large. leaf-ab make-3.sg.fu
They would construct the roof (of the initiation quarters) of large leaves. [Note: The first sentence in this discourse established the time as past. The rest of the description of this discontinued custom is in the future tense.]

Unlike past or present active subject forms which may be final or non-final, future forms are always final.

Imperatives (imp) may be immediate or future (paradigm F). The negative is nadi don't. Non $s p$ set means non specific setting l3.l.

Va?o-ne. Na hi?-ejo.
go-3.sg.fu.imp $I$ sit-l.sg.fu
You can go. I shall stay i1.e. Goodbye).

Sa?a-r8 hij-e!
ground-non.sp.set sit-2.sg.immediate.imp
Take a seat!
When phrase final, alternate forms of the immediate imperative singular may be used for greater urgency. Some verb stems may be shortened by removing the final consonant of the stem.
tutu (from tutuve he runs)
Run!

Alternatively the suffix \{-enö\} may be substituted for -e word final. -enö only occurs on strong stem verbs.

Bam-enö!
put-2.sg.immediate.1mp
Put it down!
Either -enö or -nö occurs on weak stems.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { hi-nö or hij-enö } \\
\text { sit-2.sg.immediate.imp } \\
\text { Sit! }
\end{gathered}
$$

In persons other than second, the desire of the speaker is expressed by some form of desiderative (des). An immediate desiderative, corresponding to the immediate imperative, is expressed by the short suffixes of paradigm $A$. When word final, a longer form of the suffix, - 0 mu, signals 1 singular. In fact, the longer form must be used if the sentence in which the verb occurs consists of a single clause.

Na juvae ij-8mu.
I coconut eat-l.sg.immediate.des
I want to eat coconut.
(The speaker uttered this as he put the coconut to his mouth.)

Juvae ij-o.
coconut eat-l.pl.immediate.des
Let's eat coconut now!
The above examples assume that the coconut is immediately available so that the immediate desiderative is selected.

It is more usual for the desiderative to occur in the final clause of a sentence containing also a medial imperative clause. This is always the case when the immediate desiderative is 3 person. In the example, prim.rel means primary medial relator (12.10).
le bojam-e-go hu ij-o.
food give-2.sg.1mp-prim.rel he eat-3.sg.immediate.des
Give him some food so he can eat right away.
The potential (po) desiderative consists of the potential form -?iro (63) plus the short person number endings:

```
Ijoho tarivo-?ir-o
trees trim-po-3.sg
I wish he'd trim the trees.
```

The negative with the third person is nadi the negative imperative.

> Nadi tarivo-?ir-o.
> neg.Imp trim-po-3.sg He must not trim them.

Since the 2 person future imperative generally functions as 2 person desiderative, the second person potential desiderative seems to occur only with the strong negative imperative bogave.

> Bơgave tarivo-?ir-ane.
> strong. negative.imp trim-po-2.sg
> You must not trim them.

Like the immediate desiderative, the potential desiderative usually occurs as the final verb in a sentence of more than a single clause. Unlike the immediate desiderative the potential desiderative does not imply immediate fulfilment is expected. In the example gen. prim. means general tense, primary medial and prim.rel means primary medial relator (12.10).

> le bojam-e-go hu i-?ir-o.
> food give-gen.prim-prim.rel he eat-po-3.sg
> Give him food so that he can eat.

The projected aspect (proj) is composed of the potential -? iro plus the projected aspect person number markers (paradigm C). In its final form, it is used as a future desiderative. The wish is not expected to be fulfilled until after an interval of time. The final form normally occurs with an auxiliary (l2.8). In the example, quo means quotative (12.11).

Uv-ade-je ëne ji-e-go ró bijioho-?ir-ठde höjo.
think-3.sg.pa-aux rain is-gen.prim-prim.rel come spear-po-l.sg aux(quo) He thought, "When it rains, I plan to come and spear (the pig)."

When non-final, the projected aspect not only serves as future desiderative, it also serves as a non-final future and future imperative. The -oho on the first word in the following example indicates the verb is non-final (12.9; 12.10).

> Va-?ir-öh-oho rue ujavu?-oho baeromo rue-?ë?e. go-po-3.pl.proj-p those initiates-p taking come-3.sg.fu
> They would go, bring those boys who were being initiated and come.

The past intentive is expressed by - ? inöj the interitive modal form (64) plus suffix set paradigm B. The modal form is really a suffix string composed of a short allomorph of the potential-?i plus the stem of a defective quotative verb höj be.

The intentive always indicates there was a thought or intention in the past which is unfulfilled.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Na ga-?ihöj-ठde-je. Röhu huro bôg } \delta \text { rôvadeje. } \\
& I \text { see-intentive-l.sg.pa-aux but he not did.come } \\
& \text { I expected to see him. However, he didn't come. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The contrafactual is expressed by the modal-?ibej plus active subject suffixes, paradigm A if final, paradigm B if non-final. Final contrafactual verbs occur as predicate in contrafactual sentences any number of which may be strung along paratactically.

```
                ?ö-ho bôg8 ba?amo-?ibej-o. \ddot{E mi-oho bठgठ i-?ibej-o.}
```

dog-p not drop-contrafactual-1.pl that game-p not eat-contrafactual-l.pl
If we had not taken the dog hunting, we would not have had that meat to eat.

The contrafactual in the second and third persons can also denote a criticism. If negative, the negative imperative nadi or the emphatic negative imperative bogave is used.

> Nadi ?ano-?ibej-ane.
> negative.imp hit-contrafactual-2.sg
> You shouldn't have hit him.

The evidential is expressed by the evidential modal suffix -nis (61) plus the suffixes paradigm A. It either signals that the event expressed by the verb is seen by the speaker, or it indicates a query as to whether the event is seen by the hearer.

## Magonah-ëro rue-hij-o.

woman-ab come-cognitive-3.sg
I see/saw a woman coming.
The sensory marker (51) is -av, or -avav for emphasis. The suffix lays emphasis on the hearing or feeling of the subject. It may cooccur with the evidential $(61+71)$, or with the present tense active suffixes (74) or with medials (94-96). In other words the event must be present time as far as the subject is concerned.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Uge rov-av-e. } \\
\text { bird come-sensory-3.sg.pr } \\
\text { A plane is coming; I hear it. }
\end{gathered}
$$

The habituative aspect -növ (41), may co-occur with any other suffix:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Va?o-növô-?ej8. } \\
\text { go-habi.tuative-l.sg.fu } \\
\text { I shall make a habit of going. }
\end{gathered}
$$

> ?ame barë-növ-ade-je.
> village finish-habituative-3.sg.pa-aux
> One village after another was destroyed.

The attenuative -anov (2l) as it were weakens the meaning of the verb. It may co-occur with any other suffix.
? inömo-? inöm-oho bahij-anov-ade-je.
things-things-p put.many-as.it.were-3.sg.pa-aux
He laid the offering down (only to take it away later).
Dahor-ëro namij-anov-ade-je.
mountain-ab stand-as.it.were-3.sg.pa-aux
A mountain of people was standing there, as it were.
(1.e. there was a vast army occupying the area.)

Of suffixes 20-50, any three may co-occur. The following example illustrates how the suffixes may be combined in a final verb to express the exact shade of meaning required:

Vi?eh-eg-anov-?am-av-e.
ache-l.sg.ref-as.it.were-extent-sensory-3.sg.pr
(11) (21) (32) (51) (74)

I (ll) definitely feel (5l)a little (2l) pain (stem) all over (32) now (74).

### 12.8 Verb Phrases

Certain modes, aspects and tenses must be expressed by verb phrases consisting of a main verb, or main verb phrase, plus an auxil1ary.

One common auxiliary verb is jie $\sim j e$ (according to the speaker), is. If the form is 3 singular and monosyllabic, it is suffixed to the main verb. Otherwise it is written separately.

### 12.81 Past, Normative and Projected Verb Phrases

The main verb may be past, present or projected. The auxiliary verb, je, generally remains 3 person present tense for all persons and numbers.

```
                                    Mami?e va?-ade-je.
                                    already go-3.sg.pa-aux
                    He already went.
                            Ja dinö?e va?-ane j-av-e?
you where go-2.sg.pa aux-2.sg.ref-3.sg.pr
                Where on earth did you go?
[In this unusual example the auxiliary agrees with the second
    person subject and indicates impatience; it is addressed to
    a ch1ld.]
```

Only when the main verb is present tense, is there a contrast between the presence and absence of the auxiliary. When the auxiliary is omitted, the tense is present. When it is written, the normative aspect is signalled. Exceptions to this rule will be described later (12.9; 12.10).

> Aviae hij-aje!
> here stay-3.sg.pr
> Here he is!
> Aviae hij-aje-je. Röhu jaruvoho b8g8-jie.
> here stay-3.sg.pr-aux but today not-is He normally lives here, but today he isn't around.

### 12.82 Perfect Verb Phrases

The auxiliary, je, agrees in person and number with the active subject. The direct referent of the auxiliary agrees with a first or second person active subject as in example (a) below. The active subject marker agrees with a third person active subject, example (b).

The main verb is a perfect medial form made up from the verb stem with the possible addition of any three suffixes 10 - 40 plus the perfect suffix -ë?e. The perfect verb phrase (pf) signals that the action took place before the time of the auxiliary but that the effects of the action are felt at the time indicated by the auxiliary.
(a)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Na-ro rov-ë?e j-ev-e. } \\
I-\mathrm{ab} \text { come-pf be-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pr } \\
I \text { have come. }
\end{gathered}
$$

(b)

Jabumë-ro rôv-ë?e ji-ö.
they-ab come-pf be-3.sg.pr
They have come.
One use of the perfect is to shift information focus away from the action itself. In the first example, the verb is past tense, so that the focus is partially on the action. In the second example, the verb is in the present perfect, and the focus shifts away from the action.

```
                    Mah-oho a-ëro ?an-ade-je.
pig-p man-ab kill-3.sg.pa-aux
Someone killed the pig (it didn't die a natural death).
            Mah-oho magonah-ëro ?an-\ddot{?}?e-j-e.
            pig-p woman-ab kill-pf-be-3.sg.pr
It is a woman who has killed the pig.
```

Instead of je-, a verb for stay, hije (one person), ?arije (a few people), rarome (many people) may occur. The phrase emphasizes the state of the person at the time of the auxiliary verb.

Na ëhi uehorov-ë?e hij-e.
I like.that think-pf stay-3.sg.pr It's on my mind constantly.

### 12.83 Aptative Auxiliary Verb Phrases

These consist of an aptative participial phrase plus the auxillary verb, je. The aptative participial phrase consists of the main verb stem, plus hesi (3 singular genitive pronoun) or varijëne (simulfactive).

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { Va?o hesi-j-e. } & \text { Va?o varijëne-j-e } \\
\text { go gen-be-3.sg.pr } & \text { go simulfactive-be-3.sg.pr } \\
\text { He is likely to go. }
\end{array}
$$

If the main verb is transitive, the same rules of agreement apply as for the auxiliary je of the perfect verb phrase (12.82). If the main verb is intransitive, the direct referent of all persons refers to the subject, which is neutral, not ablative. In example (a) below, the subject is marked with the ablative because the main verb is transitive. In (b), the subject is neutral because the main verb is intransitive.
(a) Jabumë-ro mahoho ?ano hesi ji-ö.
they-ab pig kill gen be-3.pl.pr They are likely to kill the pig.
(b) Jabumë ?amëro va?o hesi j-ëv-e.
they (neutral) to.their.village go gen be-3.pl.ref-3.sg.pr They are going to go to their village.

### 12.84 Explanatory Verb Phrase

This verb phrase serves as the predicate in an imperative explanatory clause. An imperative explanatory clause is not imperative itself, but it is so called because it must depend on an imperative clause. The verb je be functions as auxiliary of explanatory verb phrases.

The main verb of the explanatory phrase may be perfect. Or, it may be present in form. In that case, the active subject suffixes refer to the active subject of the clause. Since it is followed by an auxiliary, the tense-aspect is normative, not present. Or, the main
verb may bear an immanent future suffix -?ië?e, composed of -?i potential, plus ë?e do (see 12.86 below). The suffix does not indicate person and number.

The auxiliary verb is always present tense. As in the perfect phrase, the direct referent shows cross reference to a 1 or 2 person subject. The active subject marker shows cross reference to an active third person subject. The free subject is never marked by an ablative but by -oho prominence marker, because it always signals theme (14.2). In all persons the full form of the active subject markers must appear on the auxiliary.

> Va?-ë?e ji-aje ja-?8 va?o-ne.
> go-pf aux-3.sg.pr you-also go-2.sg.fu.imp
> He has gone, and so you also go.
> Va?-anue j-av-aje va?o-ne!
> go-2.sg.pr aux-2.sg.ref-3.sg.pr go-2.sg.fu.imp
> You normally go; therefore go!
> Asis̈̈?-oho ë va-?ië?e ji-arue boj-ëmi-ne.
> children-p there go-1mmanent.fu aux-3.pl.pr give-3.pl.ref-2.sg.fu.imp
> The children are about to go there, and so, give it to them.

### 12.85 Durative Verb Phrase

The main verb of a durative verb phrase is marked by the exclusive suffix -emu only (102). The final consonant of weak verbs is reduced:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hij + emu > hiemu } \\
& \text { sit }+ \text { excl only sit } \\
& \quad \text { only sit }
\end{aligned}
$$

The auxiliary verb is another form of the same verb.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Va?-emu va?-ade-je. } \\
\text { go-only go-3.sg.pa-aux } \\
\text { He went on without stopping. }
\end{gathered}
$$

### 12.86 Iterative and Anticipatory Verb Phrase

The main verb of the iterative and anticipatory verb phrases is the potential medial (63). This form has three allomorphs -?i~-?iro ~-?irögoro. The auxiliary of the iterative is a verb meaning stay: hije for a singular subject and ?arije for a plural subject.

A harihëro nivo-?i hij-adeje.
boy smalZ cry-po stay-3.sg.pa
The small boy cried repeatedly.
The auxiliary for the anticipatory verb phrase is ë?e do.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Na va-?irögoro ë?-e. } \\
& I \text { go-po do-3.sg.pr } \\
& I^{\prime} m \text { about to go. }
\end{aligned}
$$

When the shortest form of the potential, - ? i, is selected, the auxiliary verb is phonologically bound to the main verb. The Ömie verb phrase in the immediately previous example could take the form of a single verb,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Va-?i-ë?-e. } \\
\text { go-po-do-3.sg.pr } \\
I^{\prime} m \text { about to } g o .
\end{gathered}
$$

### 12.87 Compound Verb Phrases

These consist of two verbs: the first a verb stem including the stem referents (10) if applicable; the second verb takes any appropriate affixes:

> Baej-evo va-? ${ }^{\text {el?e. }}$
> take-l.sg.ref go-3.sg.fu
> He wizl take me away.

In this category may be included the conative, thoroughtative, distributive and dubitative verb phrases. The second verb in those compounds are gave see, try; ?avohe do properly; rive come and/ or va?e go and vadë?e what's he doing.

Conative
?u-e g-e-ne.
speak-1.sg.ref try-1.sg.ref-2.sg.fu.imp
Ask me.
Thoroughtative
Höm-evo ? avoh-e.
hungry-l.sg.ref prepare-l.sg.pr
$I$ am very hungry.
Distributive
?ame ahठ?ठbëhe jio rठ va?-e. vizlages many be come go-3.sg.pr

There are many villages scattered about.

The dubitative verb phrase requires special note. It consists of any stem plus vadë?e what is he doing, the performative interrogative. In the affirmative clause, only the potential which, in this case, refers to the present or future time, and the future forms are used:

```
                    Hu Port Moresby hi vadë-?ir-o.
he Port Moresby stay performative.interrogative-po-3.sg
                    He could be in Port Moresby.
                            Hu Port Moresby va?o vadë-?ë?e.
he Port Moresby go performative.interrogative-3.sg.fu
    Perhaps he'2l go to Port Moresby.
```

The negative occurs with the dubitative phrase in the potential to signal doubt:

Hu Port Moresby bogo hi vadë-?ir-o.
he Port Moresby not stay performative.interrogative-po-3.sg
Perhaps he isn't in Port Moresby.
The negative is used with past, perfect, present or future to signal emphatic denial.

Hu Port Moresby bठgठ va?o vadë-?ë?e.
he Port Moresby not go performative.interrogative-3.sg.fu
He'乙l not go to Port Moresby; there's no doubt about it.

### 12.9 Subordinate Verbs

Non-final verbs may be medial or subordinate. Subordinate verbs are those which function as predicate in a subordinate clause (14.1). Subordinate verbs may be past indicative, intentive, projected, present, normative, contrafactual, perfect. The subordinate verb resembles the corresponding final forms except: (l) any form of the auxiliary je $b e$ is deleted; as a result the present and normative subordinate verbs will have the same shape. (2) Paradigm B person number suffixes are substituted for paradigm A in contrafactual. (3) Certain enclitics are suffixed to the verb or, if the clause is embedded in a phrase, the enclitic occurs instead on the last word in the phrase.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { jöv-ide jö-ho } \\
\text { speak-l.sg.pa talk-p } \\
\text { the story which I have tozd }
\end{gathered}
$$

Since the subordinate clause is embedded in the noun phrase, the enclitic -oho prominence is added to jöe, the final word in the phrase.

When adding any enclitic to a verb, morphophonemic rules are analogrous to those of weak /i/ stem nouns (Section 2). The final /e/ of the verb is the terminator:

> va?-ade
> $g o-3 \cdot s g \cdot p a$
he went

va?-adi-re<br>go-3.sg.pa-sp.set where he went

va?ad-ohuro<br>go-3.sg.pa-p.ab<br>the one who went...

Subordinate verbs may be indefinite or definite. Indefinite subordinate verbs are formed from the perfect. The person and number of an active subject are unmarked in the verb. To the perfect aspect che of the following enclitics or enclitic strings is added: -r-ohuro set-p.ab; -r-oho set-p; -ohuro p.ab; -oho p.

```
va?-\ddot{?}\boldsymbol{i-r-oho}
    go-pf-set-p
    if ever (he) goes or whenever (he) goes
```

If the principal clause, that is the clause on which the subordinate clause depends, is an information interrogative -roho or -oho must occur on the subordinate verb. If the principal verb is present factive, the setting marker may not occur on the subordinate verb. Otherwise the suffixes seem to be used interchangeably. The forms with -ohuro (p.ab) (or -rohuro) (set.p.ab) are much less common and perhaps serve to emphasize the conditional relationship. The principal clause must be normative, present factive, future indicative or future imperative.

```
                        rov-ë?i-r-oho rabëni ioho bठgठ bठj-ami-ne
                \{rov-ë?-oho
\{come-pf-set-p why food not give-3.sg.ref-2.sg.fu.imp
come-pf-p
If he comes why won't you give him food?
```

Some definite subordinate clauses are embedded within a phrase or a principal clause. Others are externally related to a principal clause.

An embedded clause is affected by an information interrogative or negative principal clause in the same way a phrase performing the same function would be affected (14.22). An external subordinate clause would not be affected in the same way.

come-3.sg.pa-p.al-p not fee Z.sorry-l.sg.ref-3.sg.fu
I shall not feel sorry for the one who has come.
rôv-ad-ohuni ë-huni bogo vavaen-ego-? ${ }^{\text {enfe }}$
come-3.sg.pa-p.al that-p.al not feeZ.sorry-l.sg.ref-3.sg.fu
Because he has come, I shall not be sad.

- oho has been suffixed to rovadohuni in the first example because the principal clause is negative (14.22). Therefore rovadohuni in the first clause is an embedded subordinate clause. rovadohuni in the second clause has not been affected by the negative principal clause. Therefore it is an externally related subordinate clause.

Embedded clauses fill the same function as nouns, temporals and manner words.

The following enclitics occur: -oho prominent marker, -ohuro prominent ablative, -ohuni prominent allative; setting and locative enclitics: -re specific setting, -r8 non specific setting, -riae emphatic locative, -?e-re characterizer-setting (near), -nö area locative; bound allomorphs of manner and temporal deictics -ëhi just as and -evare then. Some of these enclitics may occur on any of the modes, tenses or aspects listed at the beginning of this section. It should be noted that the perfect aspect has its regular meaning.
kuku huono buej-ë?-oho bar8v-ade-je
tobacco bamboo burn-pf-p bring-3.sg.pa-aux
He brought the pipe on which he had burned the design.
With certain enclitics there are tense-aspect-mode restrictions -ëhi just as, -re specific setting, -riae emphatic locative, - ?ere near do not occur on the perfect. -ëhi just as may signal overlapping time only with the past tense of the subordinate verb. -r8 non
specific setting signals indefinite time when affixed to the perfect time or place with the past, and signals place only, with the present or normative. It has not been found with any other mode or tense.

In contrast to -ri, -re specific setting always signals definite location. Notice three time relationships possible when the verb is past.

> ugo bej-adi-r8 n8 rovareje
> bird falZ-3.sg.pa-non.sp.set we came
> We came sometime after the plane landed.
> ugo bej-ad-evare evare no rovareje
> bird falZ-3.sg.pa-temporal temporal.deictic we came We came at the time that the plane Zanded.
> ugo bej-ad-ëhi evare n8 r8vareje
> bird falZ-3.sg.pa-just.as temporal.deictic we came
> We came just as the plane Zanded.

Externally related subordinate clauses express reason, causal, and adversative relationships. The reason clause signalled by -ohuni, prominent allative, on the verb gives the explanations in the mind of narrator or participants for events. The causal clause, signalled by -ohuro prominent ablative on the verb, expresses the means by which another event takes place quite apart from the mind of the narrator or participant. The adversative is expressed by oho prominence marker. There is a switch in time or mood, or there is a change from statement to question involved in the contrast. If the main clause is information interrogative, -ohuni or -ohuro may not be suffixed to the subordinate verb; only -oho is permissible.
hu ?aj-amij-ad-oho rabëni bठg $\delta$ mana ?aj-amij-ane-je
he he lp-2.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-p why not back help-3.sg.ref-2.sg.pa-aux He helped you; 80 why didn't you help him in return?

There are certain restrictions regarding the tenses/aspects and modes of the verbs. An externally related definite clause may not contain a verb in the perfect aspect. Moreover, the verb in a causal clause is restricted to the present (or normative) and past tenses. The verb in a reason clause is restricted to the present (or normative) past, intentive and projected tense-aspects. Adversative has no restriction of moods or tenses beyond what has already been stipulated. When joined to the rest of the sentence subordinate clauses are often followed by a deictic, $\ddot{e}-h u n i$ that-p.al for that reason; $\ddot{e}-h u r o t h a t-$ p.ab as a result of that; or the conjunction röhu but.
?aj-emij-an-ohuni ë-huni jasi örire mae ?u-av-e
help-l.sg.ref-2.sg.pa-p.al that-p.al your hwman.locative good say-2.sg.ref-l.sg.pr Because you helped me $I$ am thanking you.

ใaj-emij-an-ohuro ë-huro muoho burëro barëj-8de-je help-l.sg.ref-2.sg.pa-p.ab that-p.ab work quickly finish-l.sg.pa-aux By reason of your help I quickly finished the work.

ใaj-ami-?ibej-ठd-oho röhu nasi muoho ahठ? $\delta \mathrm{b}$ bëhe-je help-2.sg.ref-contrafactual-l.sg-p but my work much-is I'd help you but I have a lot of work.

Subordinate verbs differ in function and distribution from medial verbs, the other type of non-final verb. Subordinate verbs focus not so much on the event represented by the verb, as on the relationship of that event to a main event. A description has already been given of the medial explanatory clause in an imperative sentence. A comparison of this medial clause with a reason subordinate clause will illustrate the difference:
a-ho Taj-amij-ë?e ji-aje ë-huni $i$ harihe boj-ami-ne man-p help-2.sg.ref-pf be-3.sg.pr that-p.al food small give-3.sg.ref-2.sg.fu. Imp The man has helped you and $s o$ give him a meal.
a-ehu laj-amij-ad-ohuni ë-huni $i$ harihe b8j-ami-ne man-intensive help-2.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-p.al that-p.al food small give-3.sg.ref-2.sg.fu.imp Because the man helped you, therefore give him a meal.

Subordinate clauses are rare in narrative and procedural texts. In such texts there must be a steady flow of events in temporal sequence. Even parenthetical information is introduced by medial clauses. However, the indefinite clause typically marks the theme at the beginning of a procedural text:
iae nô niögu ruaho-?i n-agu-ë?i-r-oho va?-arue-je
in. fact we bark. cloth wrap.around.a.skirt-po want-l.pl.ref-pf-set-p go-l.pl.pr-aux Well now, whenever (if) we want to make a bark skirt, we normally go.

Moreover, brief subordinate clauses sometimes replace nouns, particularly with a locative function.
uv-ehu va?-aji-re hu-?o ma burëro ju?ebiromo va?-o
Orokaiva-intensive go-3.sg.pr-sp.set he-too just quickly fleeing go-3.sg.pa
Where the Orokaiva was going, 7 he too quickly fled and went.
On the other hand subordinate clauses figure prominently in expositions, exhortations and dialogue in which logical argument is the order of the day.

### 12.10 Medial Verbs

There are five types of medial verbs. The medial explanatory verb phrase has already been described (12.8). The other types are: ablative and allative medials; sequential medials; non finite medials; and primary medials.
(1) Ablative and allative medial verbs are characterized by the ablative or allative enclitic without the prominence marker. These verbs occur in clauses which never depend on an imperative clause.

The following ablative and allative medial verb constructions signal purpose or reason.

Two of the suffixes uninflected for person and number are formed from the noun jöe talk, sake. -jö̈ni (l0l) circumstantial reason is composed of $j o ̈$ plus the allative -ëni for.
ja nëri va?o-jöëni rôv-8de-je
you tomorrow go-for. the.sake. of come-l.sg.pa-aux
I came because, sad to say, you are going tomorrow or $I$ came in case you should go tomorrow.
i rabe i-jöëni vëni rumo?e niav-ade-je
food what eat-for. the.sake.of fire without sleep-3.sg.pa-aux He slept without a fire, for what food was there to eat?
-jöro (100) imposed will is composed of jö plus the short form of the ablative -ro. The medial clause and the principal clause must have different subjects.
mie ?an-eho-jöro ë-huni hu iraej-ëgo rôv-8de-je
game kill-ben.l.sg-imposed.will that-p.al bring-2.pl.ref come-l.sg.pa-aux
It was for you to kill game for me that I brought you (dogs).
-ëro ablative and -ëni allative occur on the projected aspect forms (paradigm C) to represent purpose to be fulfilled after a time lapse. Only the ablative has been found in narrative texts. As will be shown later in this section the ablative occurs on other forms to interrupt the narrative time sequence and to insert background information which is logically prior. That might be its use with the projected tense; -ëro ablative might signal that the intention was prior to the event in the principal clause. On the other hand -ëni far more specifically represents purpose. In conversation -ëro and -ëni seem interchangeable. The first of these examples is from a narrative text. The clause the predicate of which is i?iröhëro with the intention of eating depends on ?anavavamu beating.

```
hej-o gumue ?an-avav-amu sisonnuv-e-go ae magu?ô
i-?ir-öh-ëro
```

hear-3.sg.pa dance beat-sensory-pa.prim morning.comes-gen.prim-prim.rel
person with.taro eat-po-proj-ab
He heard the drums beating for a dance they were having because they intended to eat a man next morning.

```
im-oho bamô-?ejô höm-ev-e-go i-?ir-ôd-ëni
    or i-?ir-ôd-ëro
```

sugar.cane-p put-l.sg.fu when. hungry-l.sg.ref-gen.prim-prim.rel eat-po-l.sg.proj or eat-po-l.sg.proj-ab

I'Zl put the sugarcane aside to eat when $I$ am hungry.
The ablative perfect medial verb phrase may be past, normative or projected. The tense aspect auxiliary verb je be is in the perfect aspect. To this is added the ablative enclitic -ëro, which indicates temporal or logical priority, to give

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { ji-ë?-ëro } \\
\text { be-pf-ab } \\
\text { having been. }
\end{gathered}
$$

If the main verb in the medial verb phrase is perfect, it optionally takes the ablative enclitic by attraction. If the main verb is any other tense or aspect, it must take the ablative. The auxiliary verb may be omitted as in the following example, where the auxiliary jië?ëro could equally well have immediately followed gavë?ëro. For the primary medials see point (4) of this section.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ?u-avu-o rôv-e-go guôjave gav-ë?-ëro rôv-e-go } \\
& \text { guôjave va?o i-ar-ëjo }
\end{aligned}
$$

say-l.pl.ref come-gen.prim-prim.rel vulturine.parrot see-pf-ab come-gen.prim prim.rel vulturine.parrot go catch-l.pl.imediate.des-quo

> He said to us, "Come" (he had seen a vulturine parrot)
> "Come, let's go catch a vulturine parrot."

If the ablative perfect medial clause is stative-equational, the verb jië?ëro often appears without an auxiliary, and the noun or adjective immediately preceding it takes an ablative by attraction.

> nasi ?am-ëro ji-ë?-ëro va-?ejô
> my village-ab be-pf-ab go-l.sg.fu
> Since it is my vizlage, I shall go to it.

Sometimes jië?ëro is omitted from stative-equational clauses without any apparent change of meaning, leaving the word that would have immediately preceded with the ablative. It is from such sentences as the above example that the ablative directional (13.11) originates.

# amu-?-ëro ë-huro masijorae-? ${ }^{\text {ë? }}$ e <br> breast-ch-ab that-p.ab grow.big-3.sg.fu <br> Being breast fed, that way they would develop. 

In that example, amu?ëro (being) with breast, could also have been rendered amu?ëro jië?ëro.

The ablative perfect construction expresses an event which begins some time before the event of the principal verb. In the normative, when subjects of the medial and principal clauses are the same, the two events are in sequence. When the subjects are different, the two events continue at the same time.

```
                    Asapa va?-aj-ëro ji-ë?-ëro ma burëro va-?ejô.
    Asapa go-l.sg.pr-ab be-pf-ab just quickly go-l.sg.fu
    I have been accustomed to go to Asapa village so that
    I shall get there quickly.
        Jôve rôv-aj-ëro ji-ë?ëro juv-oho im-oho dej-oho
            maro?ego nô ij-ö.
        water come-l.sg.pr-ab be-pf-ab bananas-p sugar.cane-p
        yams-p getting-ripe we eat-l.pl.pr
Because the river has flowed and is still flowing, we now
    have bananas, sugarcane, and yams to eat when they mature.
```

When the medial verb is perfect, it occurs with a subject which may be either the same as or different from that of the principal verb. Clauses thus formed introduce explanatory background information.

> Hij-ôde-je. Hiromo nasi vabor-ohuro im-oho
> io bam-eh-ë?e ji-ë?-ëro ij-ôde-je.
> sit-l.sg.pa-aux sitting my wife-ab.p sugar.cane-p
> cut put-l.sg.ben-pf be-pf.ab eat-l.sg.pa-aux
> I sat down. Sitting (my wife had cut and sent me sugarcane) I ate.

The perfect, past and projected tense-aspects occur in ablative perfect construction to express temporal sequence with an intervening time lapse. The subjects of the medial and principal verbs must be the same.

Je?o-re gurihi nugo-r-öh-ëro ${ }^{8}$ sisônuvo?iramu
hujeji mavorovo-? ${ }^{\text {e }} \mathrm{e}$ e.
forest-sp.set hide leave-po-3.proj-ab when.morning.wizl.come
Zater dance.in.pairs-3.sg.fu
They would leave them hidden in the forest and later, when morning would come, they would dance in pairs.
(2) Sequence Medials. At least two other constructions besides the ablative perfect signal temporal sequence. As will be apparent,
both constructions involve medial verb forms which are identical in shape to certain subordinate verbs. Moreover, as is true in subordinate clauses, means is marked by the intensive -ehu (14.1). However, unlike subordinate clauses these medial clauses are members of a clause chain. 9 As such, the verbs predict that the same subject will follow. Also, the subject may be marked by the ablative, whereas the subject of a subordinate clause may not.

Verbs of motion may be related sequentially to a following clause in a prominent motion sequence construction. The past, present (with normative significance) or projected forms may be selected. The forms are identical with the corresponding subordinate verb with enclitic -oho. The construction signals that the motion ends just when the next event begins.

> A-huro hôj-ehu va?-ad-oho va?-ad-oho va?-ad-oho va?o ?amo-re höröj-ade-je.
> man-p.ab ridge-intensive go-3.sg.pa-p go-3.sg.pa-p go-3.sg.pa-p go village-sp.set come.out-3.sg.pa-aux

The man went by means (way) of the ridge, went and went, going he came out at the village.

The overlapping sequence medial verb construction is identical in form with the manner subordinate verb with the enclitic -ëhi just as.

> Uv-ëro guruoj-ad-ëhi ?uv-o ...

Orokaivas-ab dance-3.sg.pa-just.as think-3.sg.pa
As the Orokaivas were dancing, it dawned on them that ...
(3) Non Finite Medials. Non finite medials are those verb forms without an enclitic and without a tense marker of their own. Instead they take the same tense as that of the verb on which they depend. Non finite medials are not conjugated for person and number and so do not take suffix set 70. Only where indicated in the following discussion may suffixes set 60 occur. Unless otherwise indicated, non finite medials predict the same subject. Except for suffixes which take -vo (suffix l2l), the distinguishing suffixes occur verb final.
-arume, unrealized potential (99) contrasts a potential event with an actual event. The principal clause is always a rhetorical question.

Mae hij-arume rab-ëni sisë?i-oho hij-e?
well sit-unrealized.potential what-al badly-p sit-3.sg.pr
He could be living well; why is he living poorly?
-goro, perceptual clause relator (ll5), signals the subject's feeling, hearing, seeing as the reason for his subsequent action.

Huë bae-goro rôv-ôde-je.
throat take-perceptual come-l.sg.pa-aux
I felt sorry and so I came.
l-goro i-ne.
eat-perceptual eat-2.sg.fu.imp
If you feel like eating, eat.

Ug-ohuro a-ho ga-goro huoj-ade-je.
bird-p.ab man-p see-perceptual fly.squawk-3.sg.pa-aux
The bird saw the man and therefore flew around squawking.
-be, distributive suffix (ll8), occurs on the verb when the event it represents is related to a verb of motion. The motion referred to may be either spatial or temporal.

Mu ma-emu ë?o-be rôv-ôde-je.
work good-excl do-distributive come-l.sg.pa-aux
I have been doing good work all along.

- ? i ~ - ?iro ~ - ?irögoro, potential medial (63) indicates an immanent event, or a purpose soon to be fulfilled.

```
Apo ?u-a-?irögoro ë-huni rôv-e.
```

father tell-3.sg.ref-po.medial that-p.al come-l.sg.pr
I am going to tell Father, and that's why I'm coming.

- ? i ~ - ? iro ~ - ?irögoro, temporal neighbourhood suffixes (ll7) are homophonous with potential suffixes. They indicate that the event occurs at least at approximately the same time as that of the principal verb and is antithetical to it. The subjects may be the same or different.

Bôgô ma-huro nam-?irögoro a?i Uvo bijiog-ëro muebej-ëv-ade-je. not pig-p.ab stand-temporal.neighbourhood but Orokaiva native-ab watch-3.pl.ref-3.sg.pa-aux
It was not a pig standing there, but instead there was a native Orokaiva watching them.
-ë?e, the perfect medial (97), functions concessively. In the main clause, ëma just, anyway, is expressed or implied.

Höm-ev-ë?e na ëma va?-e.
hungry-l.sg.ref-pf $I$ just go-l.sg.pr
AZthough I'm hungry I'm just going anyway.
Öre tugoroh-ë?e ëma va?arueje.
road close-pf just we.go
Although the track is overgrown, we just go anyway.


#### Abstract

Bôgô g-ev-ë?e ëma va?-ade-je. not see-l.sg.ref-pf just go-3.sg.pa-aux

He went without seeing me. -ë?i ~ -ë?iro~ $\sim$ ë?irögoro, the temporal neighbourhood perfect medial suffix string, consists of the perfect suffix, -ë?i without -e terminator, plus the temporal neighbour-hood suffix \{-?iro\}. One /?i/ syllable is reduced. The perfect element indicates an action or state previous to but with results which last up to the time of the principal verb. The temporal neighbourhood signals simultaneity of the results of the previous action and the following action. Unlike the pure temporal neighbourhood construction, the subjects must be identical in the temporal neighbourhood perfect construction.


Niav-ë-?i niv-e.
sleep-pf-temporal.neighbourhood cry-3.sg.pr
He is crying in his sleep.
-juvo, continuative suffix (98), probably related to the root juv walk, signals that the event of the medial verb continues for an extended period. The subjects of the medial and principal clauses may be the same or different.

> Uvô-?ô ?Ömi-?ô muorovo-juvo Uvo ?ame niô?i barë ?Ömie ?ame niô?i barëj-ade-je.

Orokaivas-and Ömies-and fought-continuative Orokaiva village two finish
Ömie village two finish-3.sg.pa-aux The Orokaiva people and Ömie people kept on fighting each other until two Orokaiva villages were destroyed and two ömie villages were destroyed.
-romo, ${ }^{10}$ secondary medial (116) (sec), is the most common of the non finite medials. A number of secondary medial clauses may be joined together in a closely-knit sequence, or chain.

The secondary medial indicates that there is a high degree of dependence on the last verb of the chain. Some secondary medial chains share a common subject. If this is the case, the subject must either be active throughout (example (a) below) or factive throughout, as in example (b). The event of the secondary medial verb begins prior to the verb on which it depends even though the two actions may continue simultaneously.
(a)

> A-ëro ?ö-ho ?ano-romo va?-ade-je. man-ab dog-p hit-sec go-3.sg.pa-aux A man hit the dog and went.
(b) Na vadun-ëro guôm-evo-romo be-romo ?an-eg-ade-je.

I hunger-ab die-l.sg.ref-sec fall-sec hurt-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux $I$ was very hungry and fell and hurt myself.

Sometimes a secondary medial modifies the meaning of the verb on which it depends.

> Tutuvo-romo rôv-ade-je. run-sec come-3.sg.pa-aux He came running. Ug-oho ae ga-romo ë?-e. The bird sees someone, that's what it's doing.

It is less usual for secondary medials not to have a common active or common factive subject. When the subjects are different, however, the events themselves are closely related in time. Although the events might begin in chronological sequence, what is important is that they are continuing simultaneously, and are co-terminous.

> Ene rue-romo bure rôv-ade-je.
> rain come-sec wind come-3.sg.pa-aux It was raining and the wind was blowing.

In the following chain, the first two clauses share a common subject, tugobaje whiskers. Moreover, the events of the first two clauses are continuing throughout the event of the third clause. Thus the three clauses are joined by secondary sequence markers.

Tugobaje ${ }^{\text {ll }}$ rijo?övo-romo hövohövo-romo Malakas vavaenim-ade-je.
animal. whiskers spread.out-sec turn.yelZow-sec Malakas was.sad.3.sg.ref-pa-aux
As the rays (of the setting sun) were spreading out like whiskers and were turning yellow, Malakas was feeling sad.

With the secondary medial may occur the cessative suffix -nugo after, (91) (related to the root nug leave), and the intentive - ?ihöj (64). When -?ihöj occurs, the subject of the following clause is not predicted.

Jôv-oho eguo-nugo-romo hi-nugo-romo rôv-ôde-je.
water-p wash-cessative-sec sit-cessative-sec come-l.sg.pa-aux
$I$ took a bath and after that $I$ sat and after that $I$ came.
Tuboru harih-ohuro deje i-?ihö-romo huë-re
rav-ajo.
cassowary fledgling-p.ab yam eat-intentive-sec throat-sp.set
burn-3.sg.pa.quo (12.11)
(It is said that) the young cassowary was meaning to eat yams when he burned his throat.

Before the verbs gave and heje, the suffix string -?ihö-romo is idiomatically reduced to - ?ihö or - ? $i$ with the meaning while.

> Hi-?ihö gav-o lbito bôgô vejö?-oho ö?amu.
sit-intentive see-3.pl.pa Ibito not now-p coming
As they sat there they saw Ibito was not returning when expected.
When -romo occurs on an anticipatory verb phrase (12.8), the implication is that the event that seemed immanent was not carried out.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Va-?i-ë?o-romo vônug-ôde-je. } \\
& \text { go-po-do-sec stop-l.sg.pa-aux } \\
& \text { I was going to leave but gave up the idea. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(4) Primary Medial Verbs are those verbs which optionally take the primary medial relator suffix -go (ll4). They are marked for tense, aspect or mode. Many forms are not inflected for person and number. These verbs take suffixes 92-96 instead of 60-70. Suffixes 92-94 must be followed by the suffix -go or some other relator to be discussed. After 95 and 96 the relator is optional. Such verb phrases as perfect, immanent and iterative are common.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { va?-ë?e ji-amu } \\
\text { go-pf be-prim.pa } \\
\text { had gone } \\
\text { va-?i-ë?-amu } \\
\text { go-po-do-prim.pa } \\
\text { was about to go }
\end{gathered}
$$

If the perfect auxiliary is present it is usually deleted and the relator is suffixed to the perfect suffix.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { va?-ё?e jio-?e-go }>\text { va?-ë?e-go } \\
\text { go-pf be-prim.pr-prim.rel }>\text { go-pf-prim.rel } \\
\text { has gone }
\end{gathered}
$$

In addition there are four inflected mode tenses: present and future imperative, normative, and projected. These are formed by deleting the tense/aspect auxiliary je be and adding -e general (93) plus a relator to the appropriate active subject suffix (73, 74, 76, 77). In this example -aj in rôvajego is suffix class 74:
Rôv-aj-e-go bôj-ami-?ejô.
come-3.sg.pr-gen.prim-prim.rel give-3.sg.ref-l.sg.fu Because he normally comes I shall give it to him.

The primary medial usually has a different subject from the one on which it depends. This is always the case when the verb is in the
projected aspect. Apart from the signal for change of subject, the primary medial projected aspect functions in the same way as projected purpose clauses whose verb relator is -ëni or -ëro (12.10 (1)).
Im-oho bam-ah-e ja ufemu i-?ir-an-e-go.
sugar.cane-p put-2.sg.ben-1.sg.pr you later eat-po-2.sg-gen.prim-prim.rel
I'm laying aside the sugarcane for you to eat later.
Likewise, the primary medial normative corresponds to the ablative perfect medial, normative aspect. Both give an explanation for the event in the principal clause, which is never imperative.

In contrast, however, the primary medial indicates at once both change of subject and sequence.
Paj-emij-aj-e-go ëhuni na mana ?aj-ami-?ejô.
help-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pr-gen.prim-prim.rel therefore I back help-3.sg.ref-l.sg.fu He helps me from time to time and so now $I$ will help him in return.

Primary medials other than projected or normative contrast with secondary medials. If sequence is in focus, primary medials signal change in kind of subject (active to factive or vice versa) or a change in subject identity. When the change is from factive to active subject, the secondary medial never occurs. Otherwise the rules for the secondary medial apply (12.10 (3)).

> A harih-ohuro hömo-2e-go niv-e.
> person young-p.ab hungry-pr.prim-prim.rel cry-3.sg.pr
> The baby is crying of hunger.

The verb höme be hungry is a factive verb and takes a neutral subject. a harihohuro is ablative subject of the entire chain. Since the last verb in the chain is active, the chain subject is active.

These primary medials are subject to certain mode, tense, aspect restrictions. The imperative medials must depend on a desiderative principal clause.

> Barue-n-e-go na ga-?ir-ô. bring-2.sg.1mp-gen.prim-prim.rel $I$ see-po-l.sg
> Bring it here so $I$ can see it.

Future medials must depend on a future; past medials on a past; contrafactual on a contrafactual.

> Sisônuv-amu ri?äj-ade-je.
> Morning.comes-pa.prim rise-3.sg.pa-aux
> When morning came he got up.

The present may refer either to the present or past time. If it refers to the present, it may depend on another present or on a future.

If it refers to the past, it depends on a habituative verb or iterative verb phrase (12.8), or on a past primary medial.

Sisônuvo-?e-go ri?ö-?ë?e. morning.comes-pr.prim-prim.rel rise-3.sg.fu Since day is dawning, he will get up.

Sisônuvo-?e-go ri?ö-növ-ade-je.
morning.comes-pr.prim-prim.rel rise-habituative-3.sg.pa-aux Each morning he would rise.

Gav-o sisônuvo-?e-go vavu-oho ri?öj-amu.
see-3.sg.pa morning.comes-pr.prim-prim.rel father-p rise-pa.prim He saw that when morning came his father was getting up.

The general primary medial shows no tense limitation. It may take the place of the contrafactual medial and depend on a contrafactual principal verb. Or it may depend on an imperative, desiderative, potential, projected, or normative.

Sisônuv-e-go ri?öj-arue-je.
morning.comes-gen.prim-prim.rel rise-l.pl.pr-normative.aux
When day breaks we get up.

Jenirom-e-go i-oho nemo-ne. Sisónuv-e-go i-?ir-ane-je.
afternoon.comes-gen.prim-prim.rel food-p cook-2.sg.fu.imp
morning. comes-gen.prim-prim.rel eat-po-2.sg.proj.aux
When afternoon comes cook the food. I want you to (so that you can) eat it when day dawns.

Primary medials serve as predicate in the perceptual clause of a perceptual sentence. Generally a perceptual sentence consists of the verb gave see or heje hear, feel followed by a perceptual clause. The perceptual predicate may be past, present, future, general according to the tense/aspect of the verb for see or hear. The predicate may be a perfect or anticipatory verb phrase.

Na gav-e hu rue-?e-go.
I see-3.sg.pr he come-pr.prim-prim.rel
I see him coming.
Special medial forms for gave and heje occur. Their shapes resemble those of the final form except that any tense/aspect auxiliary is deleted.

Hej-ade ug-oho rôv-av-amu...
hear-3.sg.pa bird-p come-sensory-pa.prim
He heard the plane coming and...

A sentence need not end with a perceptual clause. The clause may be joined to the subsequent clauses simply by -go primary relator (or -amu or - ? iramu without -go). Instead of -go, a non final form of gave see or heje hear may immediately follow the perceptual clause. One of two medial suffixes may occur: - goro perceptual (ll5) ga-goro see-perceptual.medial after seeing or \{-ë?i\} perfect-temporal neighbourhood (97-117) suffix string.

$$
\begin{gathered}
g a v-\ddot{e}-? \mathbf{i} \\
\text { see-perfect-temporal.neighbourhood } \\
\text { no sooner (did he) see }
\end{gathered}
$$

gavë?i (or hejë?i) signals overlapping sequence. gagoro signals that the second event begins after the first. Sometimes, instead of the gagoro or hegoro the perceptual suffix is suffixed to the primary medial form.

```
                    va?-amu ga-goro
go-pa.prim see-perceptual
    after seeing (him) go
            may be written
            va?-amu-goro
    go-pa.prim-perceptual.
```

In narratives the verbs gagoro and gavë?i often lose the meaning of see and serve purely as time relators.

A-huro va?o hij-amu gav-ë-?i röhu kinë?-ohuro rôvajo.
man-p.ab go sit-pa.prim see-pf-temporal.nelghbourhood but bush. spirit-p.ab come
No sooner had the man departed and settled down elsewhere but the bush spirit arrived on the scene.

In place of such forms as gagoro two other non final forms of gave and heje may occur: the ablative perfect, e.g.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { gav-ë?-ëro } \\
& \text { see-pf-ab }
\end{aligned}
$$

(he) saw and sometime later
and the indefinite perfect, e.g.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { gav-ë?-oho } \\
\text { see-pf-p } \\
\text { if (he) sees. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Unlike gagoro or gavë?i both retain their perceptual meaning and both control the tense of the primary medial verb they directly follow. Since they are both perfect aspect, the tense of the primary medial
must be past. The following examples show that the influence of the indefinite perfect gavë?oho over the tense of the primary medial takes precedence over that of the projected perceptual verb, ga?irane, introducing the primary medial clause.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Ga-?ir-ane ae rôv-amu gav-ë?-oho... } \\
\text { see-po-2.sg.proj man come-pa.prim see-pf-p } \\
\text { Whenever you see a man coming... } \\
\text { Ga-?ir-ane ae rôv-e ga-goro... } \\
\text { see-po-2. sg.proj man come-gen.prim see-perceptual } \\
\text { When you see a man coming... }
\end{gathered}
$$

Whereas a secondary medial never concludes a clause chain, a primary medial may do so. Thus it can bear greater information focus. In the following two examples, contrast muebej-amu watch-primary with muebe-romo watch-secondary. The former terminates the chain; the latter does not:

Ugoho ?ano?i muebej-amu gagorovo ënohuro bejevamu ?amëro rôvôdeje. bird to.kill watch-pa.prim after rain fell.on.me home I.came $I$ was keeping watch so I might kill a bird. However, rain fell on me and $I$ came home.

> Ugoho ?ano?i muebe-romo ënëro bejevamu ?amëro rôvôdeje. bird to.kill watch-sec rain fell.on.me home I.came
> I was watching in order to kill a bird and then rain fell on me so I came home.

In the second example, the secondary medial signals that the active subject (l singular) is not finished his series of actions. The clause whose subject is ëne rain is an intrusion which affects the original subject's course of action in that chain. Had the sentence ended with bejevamu fell on me, mueberomo would have been muebejamu to indicate a change of active subject.

Medial verbs not only join clauses within a sentence, but link ${ }^{12}$ sentences and paragraphs together by repeating at least part of the previous clause.

Na iae Evi birumijo. Birumij-amu na Evi guomo. then in.fact Evi he.worked.magic.against
work.magic.against-pa.prim then Evi died
Then he in fact worked magic against Evi. As a result, Evi died.

### 12.11 Quotative Markers (quo)

These are those forms which conclude a quoted sentence. Therefore, these markers are useful in delimitating a grammatical sentence in Ömie. When a quoted sentence is not embedded in a subsequent nonquotative sentence, -aj takes morpheme -o, probably from Class 71. Here, the function of -o is merely to mark finality. To mark eliptical or interrupted sentences, the quotative may be added to any word, noun, non-final verb or enclitic. In independent sentences, quotatives may be added only to those suffixes which are unbracketed in paradigms A-F.

The following morphophonemic processes operate: -aj is added to high vowels without any change.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Gav-ë-?i-ajo! } \\
\text { see-pf-temporal.ne1ghbourhood-quo } \\
\text { "(Act) while seeing!" or "Watch out!" }
\end{gathered}
$$

When added to mid vowels a of the quotative is reduced, and the mid vowel is replaced by the low vowel at the same tongue position.

Ae rôv-aje.
man come-3.sg.pr
$A$ man is coming.
Ae rov-aj-ëjo. (from rovaje + ajo)
man come-3.sg.pr-quo
"A man is coming."
Bôjemego na ij-öjo (from ij-ô +ajo)
give.me $I$ eat-l.sg.immediate.des.quo
"Give me some to eat."

Bôjamego hu ij-ajo. (from ij-o +ajo)
give he eat-3.sg.immediate.des.quo
"Give him some to eat."
When added to low vowels, a is reduced.
?amonö-jo (?amonö + ajo)
outside-quo
(He said) "Outside!"
The verb je be has an irregular 3 person present form höjo. A form of höjo must be used when it is a tense-aspect auxiliary, 12.81.

Rôv-ade-je.
come-3.sg.pa-aux
He came.

Rôv-ade höjo.
come-3.sg.pa aux.quo
"He came."
If the quoting verb is future indicative or imperative, the appropriate suffixes (75 or 76) may be added in place of -o (71) following regular morphophonemic rules (12.l).

Jej-amij-ôde hö-ne.
greet-3.sg.ref-1.sg.pa aux.quo-2.sg.imp
"Tell him I greeted him." ("Give him my greetings.")
Quotatives added to paradigm A constitute a traditional narrative past tense.

Kinë?ohuro rôv-ajo.
the.bush.spirit come-3.sg.traditional The bush spirit came (they say).

A quotative sentence may be joined to a subsequent non-quoted sentence by adding certain of the non-final suffixes already described.

Muenohuro ?uv-ajo mae ?u-ev-aj-ë-romo va?-ad-oho...
the.cousin think-3.sg.traditional true say-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pr-quo-sec go-3.sg.pa-p
The cousin thought, "He's telling me the truth", and so
he went and...
The following non-final suffixes are permissible following the quotative: temporal neighbourhood, primary and secondary medials (9396; 114-117); imposed will (100); circumstantial reason (101); and indefinite perfect $(97+111)$.

Only the verb ?uve think, shout or ?uave say may open a quote. If medial, their forms are analogous to those of gave introducing a perceptual clause, see ?ua?irane, example below. The may optionally close it. If it is chosen to have ?uve or ?uave in the same sentence immediately following the quotative, the final /j/ of the quotative is deleted (12.1).

```
    ?u-a-?ir-ane na va-?ejö ?u-av-ë?-oho...
say-3.sg.ref-po-2.sg.proj I go-1.sg.fu.quo say-3.sg.ref-pf-p
If you say "I shall go"...
```


### 13.0 NOUN AND RELATOR-AXIS PHRASES

### 13.1 Postpositives and Non-Verbal Phrases

Most postpositives are bound enclitics, but a few are free forms. They may follow any word or phrase except a particle. Their occurrence, allomorphs and function on verbs was discussed in Section 12.9.

### 13.11 Functional Enclitics

These follow nouns, pronouns or noun phrases to show their function in the clause. There are seven sets discussed below. ${ }^{13}$ Some are combined with the prominence clitic (13.12) and suffixed to deictics to mark the same semantic relationships between pairs of clauses, sentences and even higher level elements in a discourse. Bound forms in Sections 13.11 .5 to 13.11 .7 below do not occur affixed directly to neutral appellatives or pronouns.

### 13.11.1 Neutral ${ }^{14}$

Obligatory absence of a functional postpositive on noun phrases marks the neutral form. The neutral noun phrases serve as objects of transitive or ditransitive clauses, subject of factive clause types, specifier of specified descriptive clauses, comment of stativeequational clauses (14.1). The examples show the neutral form as object then as subject of a verb.

```
Mahe bijiohôdeje.
    pig I.speared
    I speared a pig.
        Ja dadivave.
    you don't.know
    You don't know.
```


### 13.11.2 Ablative (ab)

\{-ro\}: -ro ~-̈̈ro from the source of, by means of. -ëro occurs on common noun and adjective stems; -ro occurs elsewhere. One of its functions is to mark the subject of an active clause. \{-ro\} occurs as active subject marker only for clarity, or emphasis.

Rules for clarity appear to be determined by the number of participants and the way in which they are manifested within the boundaries of a discourse unit between a clause and sentence. This unit, which might be called a single participant orientation clause chain,
requires further analysis. The ablative is obligatory on pronominal subjects if there is also a neutral pronoun in the clause chain.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Na (or na-ro) ae ?anôdeje. } \\
I \text { (or } I \text {-ab) man I.hit } \\
I \text { (or } I \text { ) hit a man. } \\
\text { Na-ro hu ?anôdeje. } \\
I \text {-ab him I.hit } \\
I \text { hit him. }
\end{gathered}
$$

The ablative is obligatory on nouns if the clause chain includes a transitive or ditransitive verb.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { A-ëro ë?adeje. } \\
& \text { man-ab did } \\
& \text { A man did it. }
\end{aligned}
$$

These rules may be overriden by other considerations such as that of theme (14.2).

In other cases the ablative is optionally added for emphasis.
Ae rôvaje: A-ëro rôve.
man is.coming
Someone's coming!
man-ab is.coming
A man is coming.
In addition to its use to mark active subject, the ablative is obligatory to mark a means relationship within a clause as in the first example below. It may also indicate means relationship between clauses, or chunks on higher levels of discourse. In the second example the means relationship is expressed by ëhuro from that cause.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Hesi öv-ëro ijajeje. } \\
& \text { his hand-ab he.eats } \\
& \text { He eats by means of his own hand. (He can feed himself.) } \\
& \text { Bôgô ma mae tögömoromo ë-hu-ro bôgô aevo?ë?e. } \\
& \text { not just right exploding that-prominence-ab not will.start } \\
& \text { The engine will not explode properly and as a result will } \\
& \text { not start. } \\
& \text { A special use of the ablative on certain common nouns is termed } \\
& \text { directional ablative. The directional ablative indicates both desti- } \\
& \text { nation and basis of the journey. The basis, signalled by the ablative } \\
& \text { is the residency of the traveller, or the presence of another person } \\
& \text { he is going to join. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Hu hesi ?am-ëro va?e.
he his village-directional.ab go
He is going to his village because he lives there. (1.e. he is going home)

### 13.11.3 Allative (al)

$\{-n i\}-n i \sim-\ddot{n} \boldsymbol{i}$ for. -ëni occurs on common noun, adjective and temporal stems, -ni occurs elsewhere. -ni allative marks an underlying semantic telic or benefactive relationship. On the surface clause level, -ni marks the grammatical telic; it marks the grammatical benefactive in active clauses having an animate subject. Above clause level, -ni marks the grammatical reason or purpose.

Nër-ëni ja-ni bamahôdeje.
tomorrow-al you-al I.put.for.you
I put it aside for you for tomorrow.
Rab-ëni rôvaneje?
what-al you.came
For what (why) did you come?

Paraede sisônu?e nani nô Kôkôda va?ejo. $̈$ Ëhu-ni nani no Satade sienëro Asapa rue?ejo.

Friday morning perhaps we Kokoda will.go that-prominence-al perhaps we Saturday back Asapa will. come
Friday morning perhaps we shall go to Kokoda. For that reason perhaps we shall return to Asapa on Saturday.

### 13.11.4 Comitative

-?ô with, and may be added to noun and temporal phrases. Occurring with one of two or more noun phrases it signifies accompaniment, occurring on two or three noun phrases it signifies co-ordination.

Apô-?ô mamô-?ô va?areje.
father-and mother-and they.went
Both father and mother went.

Apo-ro mamô-?ô va?adeje.
father-ab mother-with he.went
Father went with mother.
A comitative phrase followed by the particle röromo means for, instead of.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Na-?ô röromo va?adeje. } \\
& \text { me-and for he.went } \\
& \text { He went in my place. }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 13.11.5 Setting (set) and Locative (loc)

These markers occur on noun phrases. They form part of the stem of some temporals. Setting markers may refer to either place, direction or time; locatives to place or direction. The setting marker is -r. To it may be added non-specific marker -ô (non.sp), or the specific marker -e (sp) or the emphatic locative -iae. Note the contrasting examples of non-specific as over against specific setting.

```
                    Ug-ëro dö-rô va?adeje.
bird-ab top-non.sp.set it.went
The bird flew high.
```

```
            ljo dö-re va?adeje.
        tree top-sp.set it.went
It flew right over the tree.
        Hura maja-re va?adeje.
    week day-sp.set he.went
        He went last Sunday.
    Area locative -nö (-nörire emphatic?), signals surface or region
round about.
```

                    Javu dö-nö hijadeje.
                            house top-area it.sat
                    It perched on the roof.
    
### 13.11.6 Characterizer (ch)

-?e having occurs on noun phrases which function as subjective completion in an equative clause, and substance descriptive in a modifled noun phrase.

```
        Vavu-?e a-ho.
    father-ch man-p
the man whose father is living
The characterizer enclitic occurs at the end of a compound noun phrase. A compound noun phrase consists of two closed sets of nouns combining to give the genus of which the nouns are species.
```

Jasi nu ano-?e mae jie.
your nose teeth-ch good is
Your appearance (i.e. what is characterized by nose and teeth) is attractive.

Other examples of compound noun phrases:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { dë sa?a-?e } \\
\text { excrement earth-ch } \\
\text { dirt (as in a motor) } \\
\text { ö mueno-?e } \\
\text { brother cousin-ch } \\
\text { relatives }
\end{gathered}
$$

ahi juri-? e
brother-in-law parent-in-law-ch
in laws
öri ari-?e
track land-ch
landscape; weather

ugo buruhi-?e<br>bird eagle-ch<br>feather headdress

Privative characterizer is a free form rumo?e without.
Sa?aho ijo rumo?e jie.
the. land tree without is
The land is without trees.

### 13.11.7 Analogy

This may be expressed by various clitics.
(l) Manner Deictic Bound Allomorph -ëhi like that occurs on common nouns:
Dahor-ëhi jiadeje.
mountain-like it.was
There was a big crowd like a mountain.
On temporals which indicate the succession of days, -ëhi indi-
cates that the terms are used with no reference to the present.
jiame jiam-ëhi
day after tomorrow
(2) Simulfactive Enclitics va?ëne, -ëne, varijëne. The free
on the third day.

A juvijoho Michael varijëne (or va?ëne) jie. male the.youth Michael exactly like (like) is

The youth is like Michael.

```
A juvijoho jiobo va?ëne (not varijëne) jie. male the.youth eel like (not exactly.like) is The youth resembles an eel (he is so handsome).

> Ijoho hi?ö bôrôt-ëne jiadeje.
> the.stick bamboo.knife edge-like was
> The stick was as sharp as a bamboo knife.
(3) Analogical Characterizer Enclitic -nö?e having the characteristic of, in the manner of.
Aho ijo-nö?e jie.
the.man tree-analogical.characterizer is
The man is tree-like (he is so tall).
```


### 13.12 Prominence Enclitic $(p)$-oho

```
Perhaps the basic meaning of -oho is specificity, marking something the hearer already knows or something of which the speaker wants the hearer to take special note. Apart from the exception mentioned In footnote 5, the prominence marker is never added to particles. Although the marker may occur following suffixes on appellatives and pronouns to form substantives (13.3), it never occurs directly on their neutral forms. Otherwise the prominence marker may occur at the extreme right position of a string of enclitics on any part of speech. Also after nouns, adjectives, deictics and pronouns the prominence marker may occur a second time on an enclitic string to the left of function markers.
(a) Occurrence at the extreme right position: -oho marks theme (14.2), negation and elicitation (14.3). In such cases it should be noted that -oho does not occur on locative focus forms, Chart 3 rows (g) and (h). Instead the corresponding deictic focus form in (a) and (b) is substituted for that of (g) or (h) respectively before -oho is added. -oho also occurs obligatorily following the setting marker -r when the clause subject is 2 person.
```

> Ja mu-r-oho va?aneje.
> you garden-set-p you.went
> You went to the garden.

The setting marker plus the prominence is an optional way of expressing direction from.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Mu-r-oho rôvadeje. } \\
\text { garden-set-p he.came } \\
\text { He came from the garden. }
\end{gathered}
$$

(The usual way of expressing from would be a two clause utterance of the type Being in the garden, afterward he came.)

The prominence marker on the extreme right may also form a substantive (13.3).
(b) Occurrence to the left of function markers: As has been indicated at the beginning of 13.2 appellatives and pronouns do not take -oho directly on the stem. The reason is that they are already considered "specific". Thus in talking to a child about his father either the common noun vavue plus the prominence marker might be used, or the appellative apo. The second term would be more intimate but the two would be equally specific.

```
vavu-oho or apo
father-p Father
father
```

Thus the common noun stem followed immediately by the prominence enclitic serves as vocative.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { ö-ho } \\
\text { brother-p } \\
\text { Brother! (religious context) }
\end{gathered}
$$

On noun phrases -oho is added to common noun or adjective stems to mark the conclusion of the deictic's influence:

Ë ae böröm-oho gemu.
that man important-p one
That important man only.
$\ddot{E}$ ae böröme gemu-oho.
that man important one-p That same important man.

Without a deictic, -oho occurs to draw particular attention to the phrases so marked. This is especially the case with neutrals; for they have no function marker such as the ablative to draw attention to their importance in the discourse.

Mue ravo. garden weeded She weeded the garden.

Mu-oho ravo.
garden-p weeded
She weeded the garden.

Prominence markers are useful in setting up antitheses:
Muen-oho ejahonövajo muen-oho juahaminövajo. cousin-p used.to.accept cousin-p used.to.reject
The one cousin she used to accept. The other cousin she used to reject.

A special morphophonemic rule applies when a prominence marker is followed directly by another enclitic beginning with a consonant; the final o of -oho becomes /u/.

$$
\begin{aligned}
-o h o+-r o & >-o h u-r o \\
p+a b & >p-a b
\end{aligned}
$$

From this point onwards in this paper the prominence plus the immediately following enclitic will be written in the examples as a fused form: -ohuro p.ab.

The prominence marker is not fused with setting enclitics. However, the form -ohuro (homophonous with -ohuro prominent ablative) or its allomorph -oro is substituted for enclitics indicating specific location or direction (-re or -riae or -iae) in imperative sentences. - ohuro may occur on deictics, common nouns and adjectives. -oro may occur on common nouns and adjectives.

| Jôv-ohuro valo-ne. Ave-huro rue-ne: |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| water-p.loc go-2.sg.fu.imp | this.here-p.loc come-2.sg.fu.imp |
| Go to the water. | Come here! |

The prominence marker may occur twice on a single string of enclitics.

> Muen-ohuni-oho bôgô vavaenimadeje!
> cousin-p.al-p not miss
> He did not miss his cousin!

The prominence marker -ohu to the left of the function clitic -ni indicates a specific cousin is meant. The prominence marker to the right indicates the word is part of a negative clause.

The prominent marker may occur to the left of function markers to form a substantive (13.3).

### 13.13 Number Enclitics

### 13.13.1 Dual Animate Associative -mu

This signals that the noun to which it is attached specifies one of the two animate participants. The participants may be identified by an immediately preceding plural personal pronoun or the other first participant may be identified by a preceding appellative. The animate dual associative is added only to appellative nouns. The corresponding prominence-fused form -ohumu must be substituted on common nouns. A noun with -mu must be a member of a phrase which functions as clause subject.

Nô mamô-mu niô?i-ro va?-areje.
we mother-dual.associative two-ab go-l.pl.pa
We two, including mother, went.

```
    Nô vëm-ohumu va?-areje.
    we mother-p.dual.associative go-l.pl.pa
        We, including mother, went.
        Matthias vavu-ohumu rôvareje.
        Matthias father-p.dual.associative they.came
        Matthias and father both came.
```


### 13.13.2 Plural Pronominal Associative -më

This also signals accompaniment. It may be added only to appellatives. The prominence plural associative must be added to common nouns.
mamo-më
mother-pronominal.associative mother and others with her
vëm-ohumë
mother-p.pronominal.associative mother and others with her

Mamo mother is an appellative noun and takes the pronominal associative -më; vëme mother is a common noun and takes the prominence pronominal associative -ohumë. The pronominal associative takes the same endings as do free pronouns.

Mamo-më-ro va?-areje.
mother-pronominal.associative-ab they.went Mother and her associates went.

```
mamo-më-si sa?ae
```

mother-pronominal.associative-gen Zand the land of mother and her people

### 13.13.3 Exclusive Enclitic (excl) -emu

This is a bound allomorph of gemu one, only. Since the bound forms are restricted in occurrence, gemu marks exclusiveness elsewhere. -emu follows only neutral, ablative, and setting forms of noun phrases.
?amo-r-emu hijadeje.
village-set-excl he.stayed
He did not leave the village.
Hesi ?am-ëni gemu uehorovadeje
his village-al excl he.thought
He took thought only for his village.
The form -emu is not added to appellative stems nor to any but monosyllabic free pronouns.

> na-emu
> me-excl
> only me

An emphatic variant -remu may be added to any pronominal form.
mamo-më-remu
mother-pronominal.associative-emphatic.excl
only Mother and her friends
Otherwise -remu must be prominent, -ohuremu.
E゙ mu-ohuremu uehorovadeje.
that work-p.emphatic.excl he.thought
He devoted all his attention to that work.
There is a unique ablative-exclusive fused form, -remuëremu, which occurs only on free pronouns:

> Na-remuëremu hu gavôdeje.
> I-ab.excl him I.saw
> Only $I$ saw him. (or I saw him but he didn't see me.)

### 13.2 Phrases

### 13.21 Noun Phrases

### 13.21.1 Modified Noun Phrase

This consists of a noun head plus up to three modifiers in the order to be named. Preceding the head may be deictic, genitive, qualifier or noun (the noun may be dependent or with setting, characterizer, simulfactive or analogical characterizer markers). Following the head may be a qualifier, and a quantifier.
ave nasi mu javu-oho hesi jaruvore jö-ho
this my garden house-p his present talk-p
my garden house here
his present speech

> di a sis̈̈-ho which person bad-p which bad person?

### 13.21.2 Co-ordinate Noun Phrase

This consists of a series of noun phrases. If three or fewer, -ô and may be suffixed to each phrase. Or the free conjunction $\hat{o}$ and, or may occur between each phrase. Only the context would distinguish between a collection or alternative relationship. Especially in longer lists, however, the noun phrases are arranged paratactically.

A co-ordinate noun phrase is frequently summed up by a deictic such as ëho (ë that plus -oho prominence, l3.3) or ëhi like that.

Gabriel Edward Francis ëhi va?adeje. Gabriel Edward Francis like-that went Gabriel, Edward and Francis went.

Numëre dejoroho ëho BiPi ô Stimsip jëve.
just.down.there behind those $B P$ and Steamships they.are
Those buildings down behind are BP's and Steamship's.

### 13.21.3 Apposition Noun Phrase

This consists of an item plus apposition. Both may be noun phrases. The first may be a noun, the second a pronoun to signal the person and number of the noun. The first may be a pronoun and the second a numeral.

> A ihe Beherio ?uavarehu.
> man name Beherio they.said.to.him

They said to a man named Beherio. (literally, a man name, Beherio)

```
Jeffrey na-ro va?ôdeje.
        Jeffrey I-ab went
    I, Jeffrey, went.
```


### 13.22 Relator-Axis Phrases

These consist of a noun phrase or a temporal axis followed by a postpositive relator.

```
            a-ëni
man-al
for a man
nër-ëni
tomorrow-al
for tomorrow
```

a man and nëri tomorrow are the axes and -ëni allative is the relator.

### 13.3 Substantives

Single clauses and relator-axis phrases may be semantically embedded descriptive clauses which grammatically have the same function as a noun within a clause. Substantives are formed when the prominence marker or the genitive pronoun follows deictic stems:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\ddot{\text { ë-ho }} & \ddot{\text { è hesi }} \\
\text { that-p } & \text { that its } \\
\text { that one } & \text { of that one }
\end{array}
$$

Substantives are formed also by adding prominence marker, genitive pronoun, or various types of location clitics to adjective stems, to genitives, allatives, characteristic, simulfactive and setting clitics. Manner may occur on setting clitics. The identical function suffix or clitic does not occur twice in a single substantive. For example, there may not be two genitives or setting clitics in one substantive. However, there may be a fused and unfused prominence marker in a substantive.
(a)
böröm-oho
big-p
the big one
(b)
sisë-rô
bad-non.sp.set
to/in a place where circumstances are bad
(c) Muen-ohuni-oho rue gôvari-nö ?ahajo. cousin-p.al-p there outside-surface spread The one for his cousin, he spread out with the outside surface (on the ground).
(d)

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { ?amo-r-ëhi } \\
\text { village-set-manner } \\
\text { as it is in the village }
\end{gathered}
$$

In (c) the first prominent marker -ohu indicates that the cousin is specific; the second, -oho, indicates a substantive in this context. muenohunioho should be compared with the same combination of morphemes in l3.12, final example.

When adding clitics, certain morphophonemic rules should be noted:
(l) -ri (weak /i/) is first regularly suffixed to genitive pronouns.
na-si-ri-re
me-gen-nominalizer(?)-sp.set
at my place
(2) The genitive suffix of appellative nouns, -are is composed of -ari (weak/i/)genitive plus -e terminator. Likewise the simulfactives varijëne and va?ëne are composed of a stem ending in weak /i/ + -e terminator.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Jasi amo va?ëni-re hijodeje. } \\
& \text { your village like-set I.sat } \\
& \text { I was in a village like yours. }
\end{aligned}
$$

> Mam-ari-re hije.
> mother-gen-sp.set he.sits
> He is at mother's place.
> Ap-ar-ohuro vuô?ejô.
> father-gen-p.ab I.shall.chew

By means of father's I shall chew betel-nut. (1.e. I will use father's (lime) to chew the betel-nut.)
(3) The /e/ in -?e characterizer is reduced before a prominence enclitic and retained before a setting enclitic.

Jôvô-?e-re va?adeje.
water-ch-sp.set he.went
He went to a place having water. (1.e. He went near the water.)

> Vaboro-?-ohuro rôvadeje.
> wife-ch-p.ab he.came
> The one with a wife came.

As many as two semantic clauses may be represented by a single word and enclitic string. For example, apariroho in

Ap-ari-r-oho ujuoho rôvôdeje.
father-gen-set-p take (plural) I.came
I brought the things which were at Father's place.
represents (1) things are at a place and (2) the place belongs to Father.

### 14.0 CLAUSES

### 14.1 Types

Two fundamental types of clauses may be distinguished on the basis of their grammatical subject. The subject is that element which bears on whether primary or secondary medial suffixes will occur in clause chains. It need not be the unmarked theme.

For example, it might be thought that na is subject and ijëro is grammatical means in the following sentence:

Na ij-ëro ?an-eg-ade-je.
I stick-ab hit-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux
I got hit by a stick.
That ijëro is subject is shown by the following secondary medial chain indicating same subject:

> lj-ëro beruvebi-romo ?an-eg-ade-je. stick-ab falZ-sec hit-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux $A$ stick felZ and hit me.

The two clause types are active and factive.

### 14.11 Active Clauses

These characteristically take an optional free active subject which may be marked by the ablative enclitic \{-ro\}. The active subject suffixes in the verb refer to the clause subject (except certain verb phrases l2.8).

Active clauses may be further subdivided on the basis of other characteristic participants.

### 14.11.1 Intransitive Clauses

These are characterized by the obligatory absence of an object and by the presence of an intransitive verb.

> Sigob-ëro ?ajiomajo.
> snake-ab went.up
> A snake went up.

### 14.11.2 Transitive Clauses

These are characterized by one object. If the subject and object represent human participants, the object may be either direct or indirect according to the type of verb. A direct object is always neutral. An indirect object may be neutral or, in non narrative discourse, it may optionally be expressed by an oblique phrase: noun phrase plus the human locative örire. In the following examples the oblique phrase is selected if it is ever permissible.

> A-ëro na g-ev-ade-je.
man-ab me see-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux A man $s a w$ me.

A-ëro nasi örire ?an-eg-ade-je.
man-ab my human.locative hit-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux
A man hit me.

A-ëro ?öho ?an-ade-je.
man-ab dog-p hit-3.sg.pa-aux
A man hit the dog.

### 14.11.3 Ditransitive Clauses

These contain both direct and indirect objects.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { A-ëro vavu-oho hae bôj-am-ade-je. } \\
\text { man-ab father-p betel.nut give-3.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux } \\
\text { A man gave father betel-nut. }
\end{gathered}
$$

## 14. 12 Factive Clauses

These never take a free active subject. Instead the subject if expressed is neutral. The subject is marked in the verb by the direct referent or the benefactive.

Factive clauses are subdivided into three categories.

### 14.12.1 Unspecified Animate Descriptive Clause

This is a clause which describes the experience of an animate subject. The subject is the only neutral permitted in the clause. Some animate descriptive verb phrases include an adverbial dependent noun (övo in the second example).

Na sa?a-re bej-ev-ade-je.
I ground-sp.set fall-l.sg.ref-pa-aux
I fell on the ground.

Na övo dun-eg-e.
I arm ache-l.sg.ref-pr
$I$ have an aching arm.

### 14.12.2 Specified Animate Descriptive Clause

This is characterized by two neutrals, the subject and the specifier. The specifier is inanimate unless the subject is first person and the verb is nime like or bijönime dislike.

Na ja n-eg-e.
I you want-l.sg.ref-pr
$I$ want you.
Na jôve j-ev-e.
I water be-l.sg.ref-pr
$I$ have water.

Na jôve bijön-eg-e.
$I$ water dislike-l.sg.ref-pr
$I$ don't want water.
Na mu-oho barëj-ev-e.
I work-p finish-l.sg.ref-pr I'm finished with the work.

### 14.12.3 Stative Equational Clause

This always takes a form of $\mathrm{jie} \sim \mathrm{je}$ be as predicate. If the comment is a noun phrase, a participle or an adjective, the negative is placed before the comment and either the prominence enclitic -oho or the intensive -ehu is suffixed; the difference between the two enclitics is not clear.

```
Hu bôgô ae ma-ehu ji-ø-e. he not man true-intensive be-3.sg.ref-pr
He is not a true man.
        Jôv-oho bôgô be varijën-oho ji-\emptyset-e.
        water-p not cross aptative-p be-3.sg.ref-pr
        The water is not crossible.
            Sa?a-ho ijo-?e ji-\varnothing-e.
            land-p tree-ch be-3.sg.ref-pr
        The land is with trees (the land has trees).
    Otherwise the predicate is suffixed to the negative.
            I-oho bôgô-ji-e.
            food-p not-is.3.sg.ref-pr
                There is no food.
```

The predicate may be suffixed to other expressions functioning as comment if the comment is emphatic.
I-oho ia-je.
food-p in.fact-is

There's certainly food.
l-oho iae jie.
food-p in.fact is
Yes, there is food.

The direct referent usually shows cross reference with the subject. If there is a human locative phrase, the direct referent optionally agrees with it in person and number if affirmative and obligatorily agrees with it if negative. The benefactive may occur on the verb and refer to the owner of the subject.

Sa?ae nasi örire j-ev-e.
land my human.locative be-l.sg.ref-pr
Land is in my possession.
Jasi ijo baje j-ah-e. your tree fruit be-2.sg.ben-pr

There is money for you.
Any of the clause types may also contain a temporal, accompaniment, locative and telic expression. Active clauses may take benefactive. Active and a few animate descriptive clauses take manner and means. However, the maximum number of elements in addition to the predicate is three. Also, modal particles such as nani perhaps, na interrogative, bogo negative and the affirmative iae certainly, in fact, may be included. However, they should be discussed on a level higher than clause.

| Ablative Subject <br> Number of <br> Neutral Forms | Present | Absent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | intransitive | -- |
| 1 | dransitive | ditransitive <br> animate des- <br> criptive |
| 2 | specified <br> animate <br> descriptive |  |
| $\pm$ comment | $-\quad$stative- <br> equational |  |
| CHART 7: SUMMARY OF CLAUSE TYPES |  |  |

The usual order, unmarked for theme is as follows: temporal, followed by subject, accompaniment or indirect object, and direct object or comment. These are followed by the other expressions listed and finally by the predicate. However, an animate object precedes an inanimate subject.

> Na kaejö-ëro nem-ev-ade-je. me knife-ab hurt-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux
> $I$ got hurt with a knife.

In subordinate clauses, nouns have the following pecularities: Active subjects are marked by -ehu intensive. Locatives are never marked by the non-specific setting -rô. Prominence marker is used only to mark definiteness. Other nouns are dependent.

> a-ehu mi ?an-ë?-oho...
> man-intensive game (dependent) kill-pf-p
> if the man kilZs game...

### 14.2 Information Marking

### 14.21 General Rules

Theme or given information, and information focus or new information are marked by variation of enclitics and shifting of word order. Theme is marked by the prominence marker -oho and tends to be early in the clause. Information focus occurs later in the clause. In the first example the regular word order and use of enclitics show that all
the information is new. In the second the temporal jaruvo today is marked by -oho for theme. In the third sentence, the subject, ae man, is the theme because -oho replaces the ablative -ëro and the temporal jaruvo is new information because it is shifted nearer to the end of the clause.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Jaruvo a-ëro rôv-ade-je. A-ho jaruvo rôv-ade-je. } \\
\text { today man-ab come-3.sg.pa-aux } \\
\text { Today a man came. } \\
\text { Jaruv-oho ae gemu-ëro rôv-ade-je. } \\
\text { today-p man one-ab come-3.sg.pa-aux } \\
\text { Today, only one man came. }
\end{gathered}
$$

### 14.22 Special Rules

(1) When a medial or final clause is negative in sense, or is part of an information question, -oho prominence is normally suffixed to all expressions other than the information interrogative phrase itself, particles and appellative or pronoun stems. The predicate is excluded from this rule unless it is embedded as a substantive in a negative or elicitation clause.

Rabu suvor-e osa-r-oho bamahadeje.
what gift-t house-set-p. put.for.you
What gift did he put aside for you in the house?
Bôgô hu-?ô na-?-oho rôvareje. Dehi-?-amu burër-oho rôvadeje? not he-and $I$-and-p came how-happen-pa.prim quickly-p came Neither he nor I came. How is it that he came quickly?
(2) The active subject and means require special note. In changing from an affirmative to a negative or information interrogative the following rules apply: - ëro ablative becomes -oho prominence. However, -ro ablative, -ër-emu ablative-exclusive, or an unmarked active subject of the type ae man, all remain unchanged.
(3) If the negative is emphatic, -ehu is substituted for the -oho.

> Ë magonah-ohuro bôgô rôv-ade-je.
> that woman-p.ab not come-3.sg.pa-aux
> That woman didn't come.

Na ave hi-romo uehorov-aj-ëjo dehi ör-oho va?o-jöëni.
I this.here sit-sec think-l.sg.pr-quo how road-p(by means of) go-for. the.sake.of
"I am sitting here thinking, for what way/means of escape is there?"

> Ae bôgô rôv-e.
> person not come-3.sg.pr
> No one is coming.
> Bôgô magonah-ehu rôv-ade-je. not woman-intensive come-3.sg.pa-aux
> It wasn't a woman who came.
(4) In purpose clauses, the ablative is unaffected unless the clause on which it depends is negativized. Compare aëro and aho:

Na ?ua?ejô a-ëro bôgô ?amo-r-oho rue-jöro.
I will.talk.to.him man-ab not village-set-p come-imposed.will
I will talk to him so that a man may not come to the village.

Na bôgô ?ua?ejô a-ho rue-jöro.
I not will.talk.to.him man-p come-1mposed.will
$I$ will not speak to him for a man to come.
(5) A clause with the animate specified descriptive verb bôgôjie not-have behaves as if it were a positive statement, perhaps on the analogy of such specified descriptive verbs as bijönime not like or dadive not know. We should expect the neutral form javue to take -oho:

Na javue bôgô-j-ev-e.
$I$ house not-be-l.sg.ref-pr
I don't have a house.
There are other special rules or exceptions to the general rules given above but these have not yet been studied in detail.

### 15.0 TEXT

This is a short story narrated by Silas, a man aged about sixty years, from Asapa village.

Nasi apo-ro ëhi maj-ehij-ade-je. Apo-ro my father-ab like.this tell-l.sg.ref-3.sg.pa-aux father-ab
iae ruëre Gurino jôvô-re hi-?i
certainly that.just.over.there Gurino water-sp.set stay-intentive
?u-av-o saemoro bëhi-re. Jajëjo
say-3.sg.ref-3.sg.pa poinciana.tree vicinity-sp.set Jajejo
?u-av-o jôv-e be-romo $\quad$ ajio im-e ?io
say-3.sg.ref-3.sg.pa water-t ford-sec go.up. and sugarcane-t get. and


Free Translation:
My father, Nona, told me a story like this. When father was staying just over at the Gurino stream, near the poinciana tree, he spoke. He said to his wife, "Jajejo, cross the river, go up, and bring some sugarcane."

Well, Jajejo did that. She went up, got the sugarcane and came down with it. However, she fell into the water at the Ebu waterfall and the Mamama river came and swept her away.

Nona had been sitting close by when he saw her carried away. He got up, took a particular stick, and came into the river. As he waded, he hit the water and said, "You have carried Jajejo away; therefore take me." He did that as he went. Then he stepped up on to the bank, went up there and stayed. As for his poor wife, she was carried away by the river. That's the end of my story.

## NOTES

1. See Dutton (1969, especially pp.74-76) for further details. Note, however, that since that monograph was written, the spelifing of the language has been changed from Aomie to Ömie.
2. Research into the Ömie language was first begun by Alan and Minnie Tobitt of the Summer Institute of Linguistics between 1963 and 1965. Since then their work has been continued by John and June Austing in co-operation with one of the present authors, Mr. Randolph Upia of Asapa village. This research has been supported in part by a grant from the Research Fund of the Papua New Guinea Branch of the Summer Institute of Linguistics. In this study, use was made of a concordance of Ömie text materials made on the IBM System/360 computer at the University of Oklahoma under a joint project of the Summer Institute of Linguistics and the University of Oklahoma Research Institute, sponsored by Grant GS-934 of the National Science Foundation. We are indebted to Charles Peck and June Austing of the Summer Institute of Linguistics for their help in preparing this paper.
3. The phonemic analysis in the present paper differs only slightly from that described by A. and M. Tobitt, "Aomie Phonemes", unpublished manuscript (Ukarumpa: Summer Institute of Linguistics).
4. /ol [ə] in the Asapa dialect corresponds to the sound [a] in examples checked from the Zuwadza dialect.

| Zuwadza | English | Asapa |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| [aha?o] | many | *[ahə?o] > [ahô?ô] |
| [sina] | skin | [sinə] |
| [uehařaba] | think | [uehořəbo] |

The phonetic Zuwadza data in this paper were collected from Wora villagers who were visiting Asapa.
5. Exceptions: The final /e/ on iae is -e terminator. iae certainly may be substantivized by adding a prominence marker -oho: iaho the person there. The characterizer - ?e may be added to bôgô so that it functions as a clause comment adjective.
loho bôgô-?e-je.
food not-characterizer-is
There isn't any food.
6. -vo is not discussed in this paper. However it occurs optionally on potential, temporal neighbourhood and perceptual medial relators. It may also occur on allative enclitics.
7. When the principal clause verb refers to the past time, the tenses of the setting clause verb are peculiar in that they indicate time relationship to that of the principal clause. Thus va?ajire in the example is present tense because the action is simultaneous with that of the principal clause verb va?o.
8. Two features about this example should be noted. (1) - röh 3 pl is an abbreviated form of -?iröh; (2) Although the projected aspect is used, this construction differs from the medial purpose in that the auxillary jië?ëro being may optionally occur here. In a purpose construction jië?ëro could not occur.
9. Robert C. Thurman in "Chuave Medial Verbs" (MS., Summer Institute of Linguistics) describes chaining as follows: "True chaining occurs only in the New Guinea Highlands where it serves to chain together a sequence of clauses by predicting the subject of the next clause. The emphasis of chaining, then, is on the joining of a number of clauses in chronological sequence."
10. Sometimes the secondary medial is expressed by the verb stem or a fragment of it. However, it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss this.
11. This is a nocturnal furred animal which lives in a burrow in the ground near water, but which has not yet been specifically identified.
12. Thurman, op.cit.: "Linking, in Longacre's words, 'basically consists in repeating, paraphrasing, or referring in some manner at the onset of a succeeding sentence to the whole or part of the preceding sentence' (1968). In most if not all instances, linking seems to be a cohesive device that the speaker can use to thematize parts of his discourse (Halliday 1967; Vachek l966)." See Austing (n.d.) for semantic relations signalled by linkage in Ömie.
13. Not included here (because its range is not fully understood) is -oharo because you are or in your role as, which appears to occur only on common nouns functioning as 2nd person subject of clauses; e.g.,

Harih-oharo $\quad$ ?ajami?ibej-ane mae jio?ibejo. son-in.your. role.as would.help.him-2.sg certainly good would.be If you would help him as a son should, it would be good.
14. These enclitics are discussed more fully in Austing (n.d.), although the terminology used in that description is somewhat different from that used in the present article. In particular the terms neu-tral and active subject replace the terms ergative and nominative respectively in the earlier account.

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