# SOUTH-WEST TANNA GRAMMAR OUTLINE AND VOCABULARY 

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Location

The South-west Tanna language is spoken by about 1600 people (Tryon 1978:882) in the south-central and south-western region of Tanna, the second most southerly of the islands of Vanuatu. Virtually no published information is available on the language, apart from the numerals 'one' to 'five' in the Numerat, Nerokwang, and Ra'na 'dialects' of Tanna (Ray 1926:141), which bear some resemblance to South-west Tanna, and brief sets of mainly lexical data presented in works dealing with the genetic classification of the languages of the region (Tryon 1976, Lynch 1978a; see also Lynch 1974, which section 6 below supersedes).

The language referred to here as 'the South-west Tanna language' is not perceived as such by the people of Tanna, who recognise three named major dialects. However, from a linguist's point of view these three named speech-traditions are clearly dialects of a single language, and hence the use of the geographically based name for the language as a whole. ${ }^{1}$ Although no dialect survey has been attempted, available evidence indicates that the three major dialects are as follows (see Map) :
(1) Nivhaal, spoken in the north-west of the language-area, and bordering on Lenakel to the north;
(2) Nivai, spoken in the south-west of the language-area, and bordering on Kwamera to the south and east; and
(3) Nelpwaai, ${ }^{2}$ spoken in the north-east of the language-area where it borders on Whitesands to the north and Kwamera to the south-east, and also in a small pocket immediately to the north of the Nivhaal area.
The degree of internal lexical relationship obtaining among the dialects may be gauged from the following (rounded) figures from Tryon (1976). Lapwangtoai represent the eastern Nelpwaia 'pocket' described above; Imreang represents Nelpwaai 'proper'; Ikiyau is in the Nivhal area; and Enfitana and Ikiti both represent the Nivai dialect.

[^0]

| TABLE I: <br> among South-west Tanna communalects |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lapwangtoai | Imreang | Ikiyau | Enfitana | Ikiti |
|  | 90 | 85 | 81 | 77 |
|  | Imreang | 83 | 80 | 77 |
|  |  | Ikiyau | 80 | 74 |
|  |  |  | Enfitana | 81 |

### 1.2. External relations

South-west Tanna is a member of the Southern Vanuatu (formerly South-Hebridean) subgroup of Oceanic, as established by Lynch (1978a). It shows many lexical, phonological, and grammatical similarities with the other Tanna communalects and, to a lesser extent, with the other members of the subgroup, as a perusal of Lynch (1974, 1975, 1977, 1978a, 1978b) will show. Tryon (1976) gives lexicostatistical percentages for the languages of Vanuatu, and some of these may be of interest here. The highest percentage between a South-west Tanna communalect and another Tanna communalect is 68\% (Ikiti with Kwamera); ${ }^{3}$ the lowest, $48 \%$ (Ikiti with North Tanna). Outside Tanna but within the subgroup, the figures cluster around 30\%. There are no significantly high lexicostatistical relationships with any other Vanuatu language.

The language has no established orthography, and no written material in Southwest Tanna is in existence. However, many South-west Tanna speakers would be familiar with one of the three mission languages Lenakel, Whitesands, or Kwamera. These languages, due to the prestige acquired by being written and being used by the missions, have exerted a certain amount of lexical influence on the South-west Tanna dialects: Kwamera influence is strong in Nivai, Lenakel influence in Nivhaal, and Whitesands influence in Nelpwaai.

### 1.3. Data and organisation

The information on which this outline is based was collected sporadically during five periods of research (1970-78) on the neighbouring and closely related Lenakel language. ${ }^{4}$ Principal informants were, for Nivhaal dialect, Tom Hiua (originally of Iounhanin village) and Misak (Imlau village), and for Nivai dialect, Natou (Ienuhup village). These are men in their fifties or sixties; however, no significant differences were observed between the speech of these men and other members of the speech-community, apart from the greater tendency among younger speakers to use lexical items from Bislama (Vanuatu Pidgin English).

The Nivhaal dialect forms the basis for this study, partly because, of the three dialects, it seems to have both the greatest number of speakers and the greatest prestige, and partly because I have far more information on that dialect than the others. The general grammatical system of the other dialects approximates that of Nivhaal; where differences are known to exist, these will be pointed out in the text.

My basic aim is to present in outline form the main features of South-west Tanna grammar. I begin with a discussion of the phonological system of the language and the orthography $I$ have established. The next two sections examine morphology and syntax respectively. Two illustrative texts are given in section 5, while section 6 contains a vocabulary of almost eight hundred items, with an English finder list.

### 1.4. Abbreviations

The following abbreviations will be used in the presentation of South-west Tanna grammar:

| ADJ | adjective | IP | instrumental phrase |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AG | agentive prefix | LOC | location marker |
| AND | same-subject prefix | LP | location phrase |
| ASSOC | associative suffix | MOD | modifier |
| BENEF | benefactive marker | N | nominal |
| BP | benefactive phrase | NM | nominal modifier |
| CAUS | causative marker | NOM | nominaliser |
| CONC | concurrent prefix | NP | noun phrase |
| CONT | continuative prefix | NSG | non-singular |
| CP | causative phrase | NUM | grammatical number marker |
| DAT | dative marker | OBJ | object |
| DEM | demonstrative | PF | perfective prefix |
| DIR | directional suffix | PL | plural |
| DIR:E | directional: 'east' | POS | possessive marker |
| DIR:N | directional: 'north' | POS:DRINK | possessive (to be drunk) |
| DIR:S | directional: 'south' | POS:EAT | possessive (to be eaten) |
| DIR:W | directional: 'west' | POS:LOC | possessive (location) |
| DOWN | directional: 'down' | POS: PLANT | possessive (to be planted) |
| DP | dative phrase | PP | possessive phrase |
| DU | dual | PR | previous reference |
| EX | exclusive | PRO | pronoun |
| FUT | future prefix | PST | past prefix |
| GEN | general modifier | QTY | quantifier |
| IDC | indicated | REC | reciprocal suffix |
| IN | inclusive | REFL | reflexive suffix |
| INCH | inchoative prefix | SG | singular |
| IND | indefinite | SQ | sequential prefix |
| INST | instrumental marker | TEM | temporal marker |
| INT | intentional prefix | TP | time phrase |


| TR | trial | 3 | third person |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| TRANS | transitive postclitic | - | morpheme boundary |
| UP | directional: 'up' | $:$ | separates parts of the same gloss |
| WM | verbal modifier | $\star$ | ungrammatical; reconstruction |
| VP | verb phrase | $\star ?$ | probably ungrammatical |
| NH | interrogative | () | optionality |
| 1 | first person | $!$ | imperative sentence |
| 2 | second person | $/$ | phrase-boundary |

## 2. PHONOLOGY AND ORTHOGRAPHY

The following symbols are used to represent the twenty-one South-west Mana
 also used (see sections 2.2. and 2.4. below).

### 2.1. Consonants

The fifteen South-west Tana consonant phonemes are given in Table II: ${ }^{5}$

TABLE II: Consonant phonemes

|  | Velarised <br> Bilabial | Simple <br> Bilabial | Cento- <br> Alveolar | Velar | Labialised <br> Velar |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stops | pW | p | t | k | kw |
| Fricatives |  | f | s |  |  |
| Nasals | mw | m | n | g |  |
| Lateral |  |  | l |  |  |
| Flap |  | r |  |  |  |
| Glides |  |  | v | h |  |

Stops. The five stops are all lenis. They are only fully voiceless wordfinally, when they are also lightly aspirated. In other positions they are at least partly voiced, becoming fully voiced intervocalically; egg.:
(1)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { /pwoupwauk/ } \\
& \text { /nimwapw/ } \\
& \text { /pia-katift/ } \\
& \text { /tipu-k/ } \\
& \text { /kilkilip/ }
\end{aligned}
$$

[ $b_{0}^{w}$ ow b ${ }^{W}$ ow ${ }^{h}$ ]
'butterfly'
[ $n+{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{w}} \mathrm{Dpw}^{\mathrm{h}}{ }^{\mathrm{n}}$ ]
[biàgadt t th ${ }^{h}$ ]
[d ${ }_{0}^{n}+b u k^{h}$ ]

'a sore'
'girl'
'my belly'
'five'

| /kwotavha/ |  | 'heart' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /tukwas/ | [dúgw ${ }_{\text {cis }}$ ] | 'mountain' |
| /suatukw/ | [swwádukwh] | 'road' |

Fricatives. The phoneme /f/ is a voiceless bilabial fricative with optional velarisation: [ $\rho_{p} \|^{W}$ ]. The phoneme /s/is a voiceless dental grooved fricative: [s].

Nasals. The nasals are all voiced:

| /nenmwan/ |  | 'dew' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /mana/ | [m<n $\alpha$ ] | 'bird' |
| /kwanagei/ | [ $\left.g^{W} \alpha n \beta, p \varepsilon i\right]$ | 'story' |

However, when followed by /h/, the nasal undergoes crasis with the /h/, and the combination results in a voiceless nasal. This can be clearly seen in forms where a nasal-final morpheme precedes a morpheme with initial /h/:

| /i-ak-am-hel/ |  | 'I am blowing' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /ni-n-hau/ | [ninow] | 'his penis' |
| /l-imn-lelig-hie/ |  | 'where did he return?' |

Accordingly, other cases of phonetic voiceless nasals occuring within a morpheme are treated as nasal + /h/:

| /amwha/ | [ ${ }^{0} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{w}} \mathrm{o}$ ] | 'to suck' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /kimhau/ | [g\%̊\%のw] | 'star' |
| /nhag-n/ |  | 'his name' |
| /l-mlagh/ | [19mlay] | 'it is alive' |

Liquids. The flap /r/ is found in Nivhaal and Nelpwaai only in words borrowed from other languages: /irouapig/ 'Zightning' (Lenakel irouaip); /purum/ 'broom' (Bislama burum). The lateral /l/ is normally voiced, but it becomes voiceless when it undergoes crasis with a following /h/:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { /l-ilai/ } & {[1+1 \alpha y]} \\
\text { /aalh/ } & {[\alpha ́ 10]}
\end{array}
$$

'he cut it'
'to laugh'
In the Nivai dialect, /l/ is only found in loans; /r/ is the 'native' liquid, corresponding to /l/ in Nivhaal; Nivai /r/ is a dental flap initially, an alveolar flap medially, and appears to be a lateral fricative finally.

Glides. The glide /v/ is a high central unrounded semivowel [ $\dagger$ ], which becomes voiceless under the same conditions as the nasals and the liquids ( $\hat{i} . e .$, crasis with following /h/):
(6)
/ivkasivkas/
/kavhevhau/


'to itch'
'hat'

The glide /h/ is phonetically [h], and is lost in the devoicing environments discussed above.

### 2.2. Vowels

The six vowel phonemes of South-west Tanna are given in Table III: ${ }^{6}$

| TABLE III: Vowel phonemes |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Front | Central | Back |
| High | i |  | $\mathbf{u}$ |
| Mid | e | $\dot{\mathbf{x}}$ | 0 |
| Low |  | $\mathbf{a}$ |  |

The vowel /a/ is generally low, central, unrounded [ $\alpha$ ]. However, it is backed and slightly rounded [0] when adjacent to either of the velarised labials / pw/ or $/ \mathrm{mw} /$, and fronted [a] when preceded by $/ \mathrm{v} /$ or $/ \mathrm{vh} /:$

| /kwanakau/ | [ ${ }^{W}{ }^{\text {anáag }}$ 人w] | 'rib' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /kapa-m-kapwa/ | [gà bamgób ${ }^{W}$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 'your (s |
| /nimwa/ | [ n im ${ }^{\text {W }}$ ] | 'house' |
| /kwotavha/ | [ $\mathrm{g}^{\mathrm{W}}$ ○dó +a ] | 'heart' |

The vowel /i/ is generally mid, central, unrounded [ ${ }^{2}$ ], but becomes higher [ $\ddagger$ ] when immediately preceded by a dental or alveolar consonant (i.e. by /t/, /s/, /n/, /l/, /r/ or /v/, or by any of the last four immediately followed by /h/):

| /ivit/ |  | 'to wash something' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /ivgin/ |  | 'to eat (intransitive)' |
| /nisin-k/ | [ $n+s^{+}+n+k^{h}$ ] | 'my mother' |

The vowel /e/ is generally mid, front, unrounded, lax [ $\varepsilon$ ]; however, when preceding /kw/ it is pronounced with a marked [w]-off-glide:

| /ivtetela-kin/ | [ $\partial \dot{\sim}$ dededelóg ${ }^{\text {and }}$ | 'to squeeze' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /nekw/ | [ $n \varepsilon^{\prime}{ }^{W}{ }^{\text {wh }}$ ] | 'yam' |

The vowel /o/ is mid, back and rounded. It is tense [o] in open syllables (i.e. before a word-boundary, another vowel, or a single consonant followed by a vowel), and lax [0] in closed syllables (i.e. before two consonants or a wordfinal consonant or glide):

| /amako/ | [amágo] | 'to dance (of women)' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /eno-eno/ | [ ह̀nó́no] | 'crazy' |
| /okwag/ |  | 'to be open' |
| /okwlen/ | [ógw\| $\mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{L}}$ ] | 'to call out' |
| /ol/ | [ól] | 'to make, do' |

The vowels /i/ and /u/ are high, front, unrounded, and high, back, rounded, respectively. They are lax [I] and [U] in closed syllables:

| /tiki-mi-a/ | [dígímy $\alpha$ ] |
| :---: | :---: |
| /mwig/ | [ ${ }^{8}{ }^{W}{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{I} \mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{n}}$ ] |
| /numl-n/ | [numl in] |
| /matukw/ | [máduk ${ }^{\text {wh }}$ ] |

'your (pl) skin'
'earthquake'
'its fur'
'right (hand)'

In open syllables, they are tense [i] and [u]:
(12)

| /ni/ | [ ni ] |
| :---: | :---: |
| /pwia-k/ | [ $b^{W} i \alpha^{\prime}{ }^{h}$ ] |
| /nivin/ | [ $\mathrm{nij} \ddagger+\mathrm{n}$ ] |
| /ahu/ | [óhu] |
| /lua/ | [ lúa] |
| /alu-kin/ | [ $\alpha$ lúgzn] |

'to say'
'my older brother'
'a sail'
'to plant'
'to vomit'
'to forget'
'to say'
'my older brother'
'a sail'
'to plant'
'to vomit'
'to forget'
Except in words of the form \#C(h)iV(C)\# or \#C(h)uV(C)\#-like/pwia-k/ and /lua/ in (12) above - these vowels normally become glides [y] and [w] when adjacent to another vowel:
(13)

| /ipwia/ | [ $\partial{ }^{W}{ }^{\text {cha }}$ ] |
| :---: | :---: |
| /ilai/ | [ ${ }^{\text {l }}$ 人y] |
| /napua/ | [ ${ }^{\text {áb }}$ [a] |
| /nauga/ | [ ${ }^{\prime}$ ów ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ] |

'smooth'
'to cut'
'cloud'
'meat, fish'

These resultant glides undergo crasis with a preceding or following /h/ and become voiceless in this environment:

| /ehiag/ | [ ${ }^{\prime} y$ an] |
| :---: | :---: |
| /hueihuaa/ | [wعywáa |

'breathe'
'quick'
When two high vowels occur together, the one adjacent to any other (i.e. non-high) vowel becomes a glide. If there is no other vowel in the environment, then the first of the two becomes a glide:

| /aiul | [áyu] | 'to flow' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /iliul | ['̌lyu] | 'they (dual)' |
| /iapiuan/ | [yabiwan] | 'river' |

Geminate high vowel clusters do not undergo this rule (see 2.4. below). Exceptions to the rule are marked with an acute accent:

| /nisíu/ | [nisíiu] | 'Zake' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /kapa-m-kúa/ | [ģàboumgúa] | 'your (sg) anus' |

### 2.3. Phonotactics

Phonetically, South-west Tanna words may not begin or end with a consonant cluster, although they may begin with consonant + [ $y$ ] or [w] and may end with [y] or $[w]+$ consonant. Medially, clusters of up to two non-vowels are permitted:

| (17) | [matukw/ | máduk $\left.{ }^{\text {wh }}\right]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /oklhekin/ | [ogight (hand)' |  |
| /suatukw/ | 'ran] | 'to turn' |
|  | [swaul/duk $\left.{ }^{\text {wh }}\right]$ | 'road' |
|  | [máwl] | 'Zeft (hand)' |

In words where, due to compounding of morphemes, two consonants would otherwise come together initially or finally, [ $\partial$ ] is inserted between them. ${ }^{7}$ (This becomes [ $\dagger$ ] if the preceding consonant is alveolar.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
/ 1-v i / & {[1+\mp i]}  \tag{18}\\
/ 1+m-k / & {\left[1+m \partial k^{h}\right]}
\end{array}
$$

'he pulls it'
'my father'

Similarly, if three consonants come together medially as a result of compounding of morphemes, [ $\partial]$ (or [ $\dagger$ ]) is inserted between the second and the third:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { lasokw-plaah/ } & \text { [àssogwbaláh] } & \text { 'to go south' } \\
/ 1-i m n-g i n / & {[1 \mp m n+g \partial n]} & \text { 'he was afraid' }
\end{array}
$$

Apart from these strictures, there appear to be no restrictions on the combinations of consonants.

It should perhaps be noted here that many South-west Tanna nouns begin with /n/ plus a following vowel. This is historically derivable from a Proto-Oceanic article ina, which has fused with the noun root so that it can not normally be separated. Many such nouns are listed in the vocabulary in section 6 with initial $n+-$, and in some of these cases it is clear that this /i/ is not part of the root but merely an epenthetic vowel: compare, for example, nivhilik 'grass' with mwanvhilik 'grass'. Clearly, in a case like this the underlying form of the noun is nvhilik, and /i/ is inserted by regular rule between $/ \mathrm{n} /$ and $/ \mathrm{v} /$ when, and only when, this cluster occurs word-initially. In many other lexical items, however, it is difficult or impossible to determine whether the /i/ in this context is part of the underlying form or is epenthetic; as far as lexical listing is concerned, my policy has been to include the /i/ in the word as if it was part of the underlying form unless there is good reason not to.

The combinations of phonemic vowels in South-west Tanna are limited. Geminate vowel clusters occur, and more will be said about them in the next section. Certain clusters of non-identical vowels also occur, and the observed clusters are given below in Table IV; an asterisk indicates non-occurrence.

| TABLE IV: Vowel clusters |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| second vowel |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | i | e | ; | a | 0 | u |
|  | i | ii | ie | i $\ddagger$ | ia | io | iu |
|  | e | ei | ee | * | ea | * | eu |
| first | $\ddagger$ | * | * | i | * | * | * |
| vowel | a | ai | * | * | aa | * | au |
|  | 0 | oi | * | * | oa | 00 | ou |
|  | $u$ | ui | ue | ui | ua | uo | un |

It is clear from Table IV that /i/ is quite restricted in its distribution, never occurring as the first member of a non-geminate cluster, and only occurring as the second member after $/ \mathrm{i} /$ and $/ \mathrm{u} / .^{8}$ No non-geminate clusters of mid + mid or low + mid may occur; otherwise (with the exception of $/ \dot{\%} /$ ), any vowel may occur in a cluster with a high vowel, and clusters of mid + low are also acceptable.

### 2.4. Stress

Stress rules operate after the rules which insert epenthetic [ 2 ] or [ $i$ ] and which form glides from high vowels. Primary stress normally falls on the vowel of a monosyllable and on the penultimate vowel of a polysyllable:

| /vin/ | [ $\dagger$ ¢ $\dagger$ n] |
| :---: | :---: |
| /ilu/ | [るゝ] |
| /nipwana-k/ | [ $n \dot{\text { ¢ }}$ Wónak $^{\text {h }}$ ] |
| /tupnhel-k/ | [dubnélik ${ }^{\text {h] }}$ |
| /euaiu/ | [Ewáyu] |

> 'to go'
> 'to be deaf'
> 'my forehead'
> 'my lip'
> 'to descend'

Words containing geminate vowel clusters, however, receive stress on that cluster:

| /hueihuaa/ | $[$ weywó $]$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| /niklee-n/ | $[n \dot{o} l$ ह́n $]$ |
| /ispiil/ | $[$ asbíl] |

'quick'
'his chest'
'to clean'

Exceptions to these rules have the stressed vowel marked with an acute accent:

| /níamha/ | [ n ímon] |
| :---: | :---: |
| /avkikin/ |  |

> 'anger'
> 'to drag'

In nouns, every alternate syllable to the left of the primary-stressed vowel, including cases of [ $\partial$ ] or [ $\dagger$ ] inserted between clustering consonants, receives secondary stress:

| /nipwag-nhig-n/ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| /nimwa-tivhata/ |  |
| /nukwanee-k/ |  |
| /nikilkiliiok/ | [ $n$ ¢galgalik ${ }^{\text {h }}$ ] |

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { 'his nose' }  \tag{23}\\
& \text { 'table, shelf' } \\
& \text { 'my hair' } \\
& \text { 'my bone(s)' }
\end{align*}
$$

In verbs and adjectives, the initial syllable receives secondary stress, as does each alternate syllable to the right of the initial syllable, except that the syllable preceding the primary-stressed syllable is always unstressed:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { /1-imn-asokw-pihiu/ [1łmnasogwbiyu] } \\
& \text { /I-imn-eliuok-pihiu/[1łmneliwogbíyu] } \\
& \text { /n-akn-lh-eliuok- } \\
& \text { pihiu/ } \\
& \text { [nògn+lèliwogbíyu] } \\
& \text { 'you (sg) have turned' }  \tag{24}\\
& \text { 'he went north' } \\
& \text { 'he walked north' } \\
& \text { 'you (tr) have walked } \\
& \text { north' }
\end{align*}
$$

The remarks above apply to the Nivhaal dialect, the basis for this study. As far as information is available, they seem to hold true for Nelpwaai as well. However, in the Nivai dialect, primary stress occurs on the final syllable much more frequently than in any other Tanna speech-tradition. The data are not sufficient to allow any general statement to be made at this stage; however, suffixes tend to attract final stress, as do final syllables containing vowel + glide. In addition, many more words not fitting these descriptions receive final stress, where the corresponding word in Nivhaal is stressed on the penult; but there are sufficient cases of penultimate stress in Nivai to make it difficult to formulate any generalisations without further data. It may well be that a rule of stress-movement from penult to final syllable is in operation in Nivai.

## 3. MORPHOLOGY

Four major word classes are recognised in South-west Tanna: verbs, nominals, modifiers, and adjectives. ${ }^{9}$ Verbal morphology in particular is extensive, and close attention will be paid in this section to the morphology of each of these word classes.

### 3.1. Verbs

With the exception of the singular imperative, verbs in South-west Tanna are morphologically complex. Verb morphology is far more complicated than the morphology of other word classes, with a verb being able to take up to seven ranks of prefixes and three ranks of suffixes, all forming a single phonological word. Person-of-subject, number-of-subject, and various tenses, aspects, and modes are indicated by prefixes; transitivity, direction, reciprocality, and some other features are indicated by suffixes. Verbs also appear to be historically 'basic' in South-west Tanna; by this I mean that, although there are regular derivational processes by which nouns, for example, are derived from verbs, there seems to be no way in which verbs are derived from other word classes.

Most verbs in South-west Tanna, as in other languages in the region, begin with a vowel, and especially a non-high vowel. Table $V$ shows the proportion of verbs with particular initial phonemes based on the contents of the vocabulary in section 6.

|  | TABLE V: Verb-initial phonemes |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. of <br> cases | Percentage | No. of <br> cases | Percentages |
|  | 87 | 37.7 | 114 | 15.1 |
| /e/ | 31 | 11.7 | 38 | 5.0 |
| /i/ | 4 | 1.5 | 55 | 7.3 |
| /i/ | 41 | 15.5 | 46 | 6.1 |
| /o/ | 25 | 9.4 | 27 | 3.6 |
| /u/ | 8 | 3.0 | 26.0 | 463 |

This initial vowel appears to be an historical accretion, and may well have been a verb-formative of some sort in an earlier stage of the language. A comparison of some South-west Tanna verbs with the corresponding Proto-Oceanic forms show this clearly. ${ }^{10}$
(1)

| Proto-Oceanic | South-west Tanna |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| *dopo | $\boldsymbol{\dagger l} \boldsymbol{i q}$ | 'hear' |
| *toka | ala | 'stay' |
| *tuqud | alel | 'stand' |


| Proto-Oceanic | South-west Tanna |  |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| *mapo | amiv | 'heaZ' |
| *masakit | imha | 'be sick' |
| *papan | ivgin | 'eat' |

Such initial vowels are part of the verb root in the modern language, and the process (whatever it was) is no longer productive. However, it will be seen below that the nature of the initial phoneme of the root is relevant to the conditioning of allomorphs of certain verbal prefixes.

### 3.1.1. Verbal affixes (declarative mode)

The various affixes which may be attached to the verb root in a declarative clause are given in Table VI. In that table, parenthesised categories are optional, while other categories are obligatory. Co-occurrence restrictions or requirements are noted in the text. The order of affix-classes as given in the table is fixed (although there is some possibility of permutation among suffixes: cf. 3.l.l.lo below). The allomorphs of each morpheme are bracketed together, with the first allomorph being the base form.
3.1.1.1. Intentional prefix. The intentional prefix na- (INT) is optional, and in any case is extremely rare in South-west Tanna, as are its cognates in other Tanna communalects. I have only observed one occurrence in free text (given below as (2)), other occurrences being as a result of formal elicitation using a verb with the cognate Lenakel form na- (which is also rare in text). The intentional prefix must be followed by the future prefix, and it indicates that the subject is prepared, ready, or in some cases about to carry out the action:
(2) Nivaru na-tukw-1-ni-pin tukw Nula...

Nivaru INT-FUT-3SG-say-DIR:3 DAT NuZa
'Nivaru made ready to say to Nula...'
(3) na-t-i-ak-eliuok

INT-FUT-lEX-CONC-walk
'I am ready/about to walk'
3.1.1.2. Future prefix. The future prefix $t-$ (FUT) is optional, and indicates that at least part of the action or state to which the verb refers will take place in the future.

This prefix must co-occur with one of the two tense/aspect prefixes akCONC or epi- SQ (see 3.l.l.5.). When used with ak-, the futurity of the action is immediate; the actor is about to start the action at or soon after the moment of speaking:

```
t-i-ak-ivgin
FUT-lEX-CONC-eat
'I'm going to eat'
t-i-ak-s-eliuok m-s-aa
FUT-1EX-CONC-PL-walk AND-PL-go
'We 'ZL be going', 'We 'ZZ set off now'
```

| TABLE VI: Verbal affixes (declarative mode) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (Inten- <br> tional) | (Future) | Person of Subject | Tense/aspect | (Continuative) | Number of Subject | Root | (Directional) | (Referential) | (Transitive) |
| na- | $\left.\begin{array}{l} t- \\ t u k w- \\ t u- \end{array}\right\}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l}k- \\ \emptyset-\end{array}\right\} 1 \mathrm{IN}$ <br> i- lex <br> $\left.\begin{array}{l}n- \\ \emptyset-\end{array}\right\} 2$ <br> $\left.\begin{array}{l}1- \\ \emptyset-\end{array}\right\} 3 \mathrm{SG}$ <br> $\left.\begin{array}{l}k- \\ \emptyset-\end{array}\right\}$ 3NSG <br> m- AND |  | $\left.\begin{array}{l} a m- \\ a- \end{array}\right\}$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l}u- \\ 1 a-\end{array}\right\} D U$ <br> lh- TR $\left.\begin{array}{l} s^{-} \\ h a- \end{array}\right\} \text { PL }$ |  | -pwa DIR:1 <br> -pna DIR:2 <br> -pin DIR:3 <br> -pihiu  <br> -fiu DIR:N <br> -plaah DIR:S <br> -vhiaak DIR:E <br> -vila DIR:W <br> -hakta DIR:UP <br> -iehou DIR: <br>  DOWN | $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{lc} \text {-kwis } & \text { ASSOC } \\ \text {-atukw } & \left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { REC } \\ \text { REFL } \end{array}\right. \end{array}\right.$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l} -k i n \\ -k i \end{array}\right\} \text { TRANS }$ |

When used with epi- a more remote future is indicated:
(6) t-ø-epi-ol

FUT-2-SQ-do
'You will do it (Zater on)'
(7) t-i-epi-s-eliuok m-s-aa

FUT-lEX-SQ-PL-walk AND-PL-go
'We'Zl have to go off (sooner or later)'
When immediately followed by the third person singular prefix $1-$, the future prefix has the allomorph tukw-:
(8) tukw-l-epi-ilai kwanmilh

FUT-3SG-SQ-cut citrus
'He will cut the lemon/orange (later)'
Before the first person inclusive prefix $k-$ and the homophonous third person nonsingular prefix, the allomorph tu- is used (ak- CONC having a zero allomorph in this environment, as discussed in 3.1.1.5. below):
(9) tu-k- $\emptyset-1 \mathrm{~h}$-aam lim-n

FUT-3NSG-CONC-TR-see father-3SG
'The three of them will see his father'
3.1.1.3. Person-of-subject prefixes. There are five prefixes marking the person of the subject, and every verb in the declarative mode must take one of these prefixes (or the prefix $m$ - which is discussed in 3.1.1.4.). The five person-of-subject prefixes are: ${ }^{11}$
k- first person inclusive (lIN)
i- first person exclusive (lEX)
$n-$ second person (2)
1- third person singular (3SG)
$k-\quad$ third person non-singular (3NSG)
Each of these marks the person of the subject of the sentence:
(10) (kitaua) k-im-s-aan nekw mufaam
(we:IN:PL) lIN-PST-PL-eat yam all
'We ate all the yams'
(11) (iou) i-ak-am-nim
(I) 1EX-CONC-CONT-drink
'I am drinking'
(12) (iik) n-ak-am-gin
(you:SG) 2-CONC-CONT-fear
'You are afraid'
(13) pilavin kiliik l-ø-am-asim woman DEM:IND 3SG-CONC-CONT-garden 'A woman is gardening'
(14) (ilisil) k-im-lh-lih kamaam tiksin
(they:TR) 3NSG-PST-TR-carry fish some
'The three of them carried some fish'
In certain environments, some of these prefixes are lost (i.e. they have zero allomorphs). First, the prefix $n-2$ is lost when preceded by the future prefix t-; thus:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
t-n-a k-> & t-a k- \\
t-n-e p i-> & t-e p i-
\end{array}
$$

For example:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { t-ø-epi-ol }  \tag{15}\\
& \text { FUT-2-SQ-do } \\
& \text { 'You wiZl do it' }
\end{align*}
$$

Second, the homophonous prefixes $k-1 E X$ and $k-3 N S G$ have zero allomorphs when they occur between the future allomorph tu- and the sequential tense/aspect marker epi-; further, the first vowel of epi- is lost in this context; thus:
tu-k-epi > tu-pi-

For example:
(16) pilavin mina tu- $\varnothing$-pi-s-ivgin
woman PL FUT-3NSG-SQ-PL-eat
'The women will eat later'
Third, the prefix l- 3SG may optionally be deleted before the inchoative aspect marker and before one allomorph of the perfective marker. This is discussed in more detail in section 3.l.l.5. below.
3.1.1.4. Switch-reference. A feature of the whole Southern Vanuatu subgroup is the occurrence of a prefix which functions in the same way as a person marker in conjoined clauses. Generally speaking, when the subject of the verb in the conjoined clause(s) is the same as the subject of the verb in the first clause, the verb in the conjoined clause does not take one of the person-of-subject prefixes discussed in the previous section, but instead takes the prefix m(glossed here as AND) : ${ }^{12}$
(17) l-hakta m-ikel ie kwalkwau

3SG-go:up AND-hang LOC ridgepole
'He went up and hung on the ridgepole'
k-u-aiu m-la-si-vhiaak
3NSG-DU-run AND-DU-come:from-DIR:E
'The two of them ran from the east'
This prefix may also be used in certain circumstances when the subjects of the two conjoined verbs are not identical. In all such cases, however, the subjects must be of different numbers, so that the correct subject can be identified from among the available choices. For example, the following sentence occurs in a text where one man and two women are the central participants (see 5.2.below):
(19) l-eivi napwil kini m-lh-aulu-pin 3SG-pull wall and AND-TR-enter-DIR:3
'He pulled out the wall and the three of them went inside'
The two verbs in this sentence contain different number markers; this sufficiently disambiguates the subjects involved, since the subject of eivi is singular (and therefore, through context, the man) while the subject of aulu is marked as trial (and must thus refer to the man and the two women).

When the number of the subjects of both verbs is identical, however, m- AND has the same referent as the previous subject, and may refer to no other NP: thus in (20),
natou 1-imn-aam magau m-epi-aiu
Natou 3SG-PST-see Magau AND-SQ-run
'Natou saw Magau and (then) ran'
since the two verbs are the same number, it must be the subject of the previous verb, Natou, which is the subject of aiu 'run'. If it was Magau who ran, (20) is unacceptable; instead, (21) would be used:
(21) natou l-imn-aam magou l-epi-aiu

Natou 3SG-PST-see Magau 3SG-SQ-run
'Natou saw Magau and Magau (then) ran'
Note further that (2l) is also unambiguous: it can only be Magau who did the running. Thus m- AND is not merely a stylistic variation, a narrative shortcut, but must be used in the circumstances described above. (This rule, however, is strictly true only of third person subjects. With non-third person subjects, there seems to be more flexibility, as will be seen in example (29) in the next section.)
3.1.1.5. Tense/aspect prefixes. Prefixes marking the tense and aspect of the verb follow the person prefixes and are normally obligatory, though, as has already been pointed out, they may be deleted under certain conditions in narrative discourse. The base forms of the South-west Tanna tense/aspect prefixes are given below:

```
ak- concurrent aspect (CONC)
epi- sequential aspect (SQ)
imn- past tense (PST)
akuan- perfective aspect (PF)
akn- inchoative (INCH)
```

The prefix marking CONCURRENT ASPECT marks an action as either taking place or being planned at the time of speaking, or as habitual. In the former sense it may be used with the future prefix $t-$, in which case it marks the action as taking place in the immediate future (see 3.1.1.2.). When used without the future prefix, it marks a present tense, and in this case it appears very frequently with the continuative prefix am-:
(22) kimaua i-ak-s-aan nekw
we:EXC:PL lEX-CONC-PL-eat yam
'We eat yam'
t-i-ak-ua ie hospitil nipig t-i-ak-imha
FUT-lEX-CONC-come LOC hospital time FUT-lEX-CONC-sick
'I (will) come to the hospital when I am sick'
(24) n-ak-am-aan nekw na-k

2-CONC-CONT-eat yam POS:EAT-1SG
'You are eating my yam/yams'
This prefix is lost after l- 3SG, k- lIN, and k- 3NSG:
nehen l- $\emptyset$-am-uh alisil
rain 3SG-CONC-CONT-strike they:TR:OBJ
'The rain comes down on the three of them'
(26)
tukw-l-Ø-ua
FUT-3SG-CONC-come
'He will come'

```
nime lenitim k-\emptyset-s-aan nitel
people Aneityum 3NSG-CONC-PL-eat taro
'The Aneityumese eat taro'
```

When followed by the dual allomorph $u-$, in the first person exclusive future only, ak- has the allomorph uk-; i.e.

$$
t-i-a k-u>t-i-u k-u-
$$

For example:
(28) kimlu t-i-uk-u-ivgin
we:EXC:DU FUT-lEX-CONC-DU-eat
'We two will eat'
The major use of the prefix marking SEQUENTIAL ASPECT has already been discussed: its function, together with the future prefix, of marking a remote future (section 3.1.1.2.). However, epi- may also occur without the future prefix t-. In these cases it indicates that the action of the verb to which it is prefixed follows in sequence from the action of the previous verb:
(29) i-emn-avin ie lukwanu kafa-m, kwasig i-epi-vin ie lukwanu
lEX-PST-go LOC village POS-2SG, afterwards lEX-SQ-go LOC village
kape lim-k
POS father-1SG
'(First) I went to your place, and then I went to my father's place'
It is thus often used in conditional sentences (see 4.4.2.8. below):
(30) kipimah nehen l-p niiv, i-epi-vhe-kin nakwokwa if rain 3SG-rain yesterday, 1EX-SQ-read-TRANS book 'If it had rained yesterday, (then) I would have read a book'

We have already seen above (3.1.1.3.) that epi- has an allomorph pi- in the future when preceded by $k-1 I N$ or $k-3 N S G ; i . e$.
tu-k-epi- > tu-pi-

The prefix imn- marks PAST TENSE. It has the allomorph im- in the nonsingular, and also in the singular before a verb with initial $n$. When immediately following the lEX prefix $\mathrm{i}^{-}$, $i m n-$ and $+m-$ become emn- and em-. This prefix marks a simple past:

1-im-ni ...
3SG-PST-say
'He said ...'
(32) i-emn-aam kilhiavin kiliik nitv
lEX-PST-see shark DEM:IND yesterday
'I saw a shark yesterday'
(33) l-imn-aan nekw na-i kwan ai 3SG-PST-eat yam POS:EAT-POS fellow DEM:PR
'He ate that fellow's yam/yams'
(34) k-im-ha-lith nitip

3NSG-PST-TR-carry basket
'They carried the baskets'
The prefix akuan- marks PERFECTIVE ASPECT: thus it marks stative in the case of adjectives, and it marks an action as having been completed. It occurs frequently with the verbal modifier (see section 3.3) ta 'already finished'.

This prefix is also allomorphically complex: the /ak/ portion is lost in the same environments where ak- CONC has zero allomorphs, but further changes also occur, and these are best sumarised in chart form:

| Before consonants, $/ \mathbf{i / f , / u /}$ | Before vowels |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (all numbers) | singular | non-singular |
| IIN ua- |  | uan- |
| lEX akua- | akn- | akuan- |
| 2 | akua- | akn- |

Two points should be noted here. First, 1- 3SG is sometimes deleted before the allomorph $n$-. Second, the singular prevocalic forms are phonologically identical with the allomorphs of the inchoative prefix (see below); when these are used, the presence of the modifier ta 'already' is obligatory in the verb phrase to indicate perfective aspect.
(35) iliu k-uan-u-ivgin ta
they:DU 3NSG-PF-DU-eat already
'The two of them have (already) eaten'
(36) mana l-ua-iva ta
bird 3SG-PF-fly already
'The bird has flown (away)'
(37) i-akua-gin ta

1EX-PF-fear already
'I was afraid'
(38) k-ua-s-hai pukah

3NSG-PF-PL-stab pig
'They stabbed the pig'
(39) $\emptyset$-n-ehua or $1-n$-ehua

3SG-PF-big 3SG-PF-big
'It is big'
(40) n-akn-eliuok ta

2-PF-walk already
'You have already walked'
(41) Ø-n-eliuok ta or l-n-eliuok ta

3SG-PF-walk already 3SG-PF-walk already
'He has walked'
The INCHOATIVE ASPECT prefix akn- marks an action as having just begun. It has the allomorph $n$ - when preceded by $k-1 I N, k-3 N S G$, and $1-3 S G$, the last of which may be deleted in this environment.
(42) i-akn-am-ivgin

IEX-INCH-CONT-eat
'I have just begun eating'
The inchoative, perhaps along with the sequential without future $t-$, is the least frequently used of these tense/aspect markers.

Attention has already been drawn to the fact that tense/aspect markers may be deleted in discourse. This is particularly true in narrative texts, where, although the whole action is set in the past, very few verbs take the past tense prefix. Generally, the rule seems to be that if the context (whether in a continuous text or in conversation) makes the tense/aspect of the action or state clear, then the prefix can be dispensed with. We will touch upon this subject in later sections.
3.1.1.6. Continuative prefix. The continuative prefix am- (CONT) marks continuous aspect. Its use is optional, but it occurs quite commonly with the concurrent, past and inchoative tense/aspect markers, although it is rarely observed following the sequential or perfective prefixes.
(43) iou i-ak-am-ivgin pukah

I lEX-CONC-CONT-feed pig
'I am feeding the pig/pigs'
(44) kovamtimta 1-ø-am-apil
child 3SG-CONC-CONT-sleep
'The child is sleeping'
(45) n-imn-am-eliuok

2-PST-CONT-walk
'You (sg) were walking'
(46) l-n-am-1ih

3SG-INCH-CONT-carry
'He has begun to carry it'
There is an allomorph a- which is found before the number-marking allomorphs laDU, lh- TR, and s- PL, though not before $u$ - DU and ha- PL; compare (47) with (48):
(47) i-akn-am-ha-vin

IEX-INCH-CONT-PL-gO
'We have begun to go'
(48) i-akn-a-lh-vin

1EX-INCH-CONT-TR-go
'We three have begun to go'
or (49) with (50):
(49) k-ø-am-u-eliuok

3NSG-CONC-CONT-DU-walk
'They two are walking'
(50) k-ø-a-la-gin

3NSG-CONC-CONT-DU-fear
'They two are afraid'
The allomorph a- also occurs immediately preceding an m-initial verb (though not before a verb with any other initial consonant) :
(51) 1-ø-a-mil

3SG-CONC-CONT-faZL
'It is falling'
3.1.1.7. Number-of-subject prefixes. Apart from the distinction between 1- 3SG and $k$ - 3NSG, the person prefixes mark only the person of the subject and not its number. There is a separate set of prefixes marking number of the subject, and these are obligatory in South-west Tanna verbs (except in the impersonal construction to be discussed in 3.l.1.8. below). Singular number is unmarked; the other number prefixes, together with their allomorphs, are:

| Verb-initial phoneme | Dual | Trial | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $/ \mathrm{h} /$, non-high vowels | u- | lh- | $\mathrm{s}-$ |
| high vowels, consonants | la- | lh- | ha- |

The trial prefix has a single allomorph, lh-, in all environments. The conditioning environment for $D U$ and $P L$ is the initial phoneme of the verb. High vowels group with consonants since they are subject to glide-formation rules (see 2.3 above) and are thus phonetic consonants in many cases in this environment. The reason for /h/ grouping with the non-high vowels is not clear. ${ }^{13}$ Verbs with initial $/ h /$ show an additional peculiarity, in that the dual prefix u- metathesises with the initial /h/ of the verb: thus underlying i-ak-am-u-hai 'we two are stabbing it' is phonetically [y ${ }^{\prime}$ garmway] (from underlying /iakamhuai/) and not *[yàgamúhay]. $_{0}$

Dual refers to two and only two actors, and trial to three and only three. Plural refers to four or more actors, and the plural marker can not be used if the number of actors is known to be less than four; however, the plural is the appropriate prefix to use if the exact number is not known.
iliu k-im-u-alel
they:DU 3NSG-PST-DU-stand
'The two of them stood up'
(53) piamil k-ø-a-la-kwasig-kin
woman:DU 3NSG-CONC-CONT-DU-follow-TRANS
'The two women are following him'
$\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{ak}-\mathrm{lh}$-ivgin
FUT-1EX-CONC-TR-eat
'The three of us will eat'
(55) kilau tu- $\emptyset-p i-a m-h a-v i n$
we:IN:PL FUT-IIN-SQ-CONT-PL-go
'We will be going (later)'
(56) i-emn-s-helapu

1EX-PST-PL-bZow:fire
'We blew the fire'
t- $\varnothing$-ak-s-aam nakwokwa
FUT-2-CONC-PL-see book
'You will (all) see the book'
3.1.1.8. The impersonal construction. There is one context in which number prefixes must be dispensed with, and that is in the impersonal construction. This construction uses the person prefix $k-3 N S G$ without further specification of number, to indicate the equivalent of passive-without-agent; fronting of the object NP is common in these cases:
(58) nai $k-i m n-i l a i ~ i e n p i g ~$
tree 3NSG-PST-cut night
'The tree was cut down during the night'
(59) k-uan-ol ta

3NSG-PF-do already
'It has already been done'
3.1.1.9. Directional suffixes. Directional suffixes (DIR) are optional in the South-west Tanna verb, in that not all verbs take them, and many verbs may or may not take them. Three verbs, however, require a directional suffix: one is vha- 'to give', which will be discussed below; the other two are two verbs of motion - asok- 'to go in the direction specified by the suffix', and si- 'to come from the direction specified by the suffix'. Many other verbs which involve motion of some kind may take a directional suffix; verbs like vin 'to go', and ua 'to come', however, may not take a directional suffix - that is, such suffixes are redundant because the direction of motion is already explicit in the semantics of such verbs.

The South-west Tanna directional suffixes may be conveniently divided into three groups. The first group involves direction in relation to the participants in the speech-act:

```
-pwa towards speaker (DIR:l)
-pna towards addressee (DIR:2)
-pin away from both speaker, and addressee (DIR:3)
```

These may be illustrated as follows:
(60) 1-im-ni-pwa...

3SG-PST-say-DIR:1
'He said to me ...'
(61) tukw-l-Ø-lih nekw m-vin m-am-itu-pin

FUT-3SG-CONC-carry yam AND-go AND-CONT-put-DIR:3
'He will take the yams and put them there'
The verb vha- 'to give' must take one of these directionals:
(62) t-i-ak-vha-pna mana $k \dot{j} 1 \mathrm{i} k$

FUT-1SG-CONC-give-DIR:2 fowl DEM:IND
'I will give you a chicken'
(63) t-ø-ak-vha-pwa

FUT-2-CONC-give-DIR:1
'You will give it to me'
The second set of directional suffixes refers to specific, compass-type directions: ${ }^{14}$

| -pihiu | northwards | (DIR:N) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| -plaah | southwards | (DIR:S) |
| -vhiaak | eastwards | (DIR:E) |
| -vila | westwards | (DIR:W) |

(The suffix -pihiu has an allomorph -fiu when precided by a vowel.) These suffixes are used most commonly after the directional verbs asokw- 'to go to' and si- 'to come from':
(64) pilavin l-imn-asokw-vila ie tahik
woman 3SG-PST-go:to-DIR:W LOC sea
'The woman went (westwards) to/into the sea'
(65) k-u-aiu m-la-si-vhiaak m-la-ua

3NSG-DU-run AND-DU-come:from-DIR:E AND-DU-come
'The two of them came running from the east'
The third set of directional suffixes indicate direction upwards (also southwards) and downwards (also northwards):

```
-hakta upwards (DIR:UP)
-iehou downwards (DIR:DOWN)
```

For example:
(66) I-n-asokw-iehou ta

3SG-PF-go:to-DIR:DOWN already
'He has already gone down (or, gone north)'
3.1.1.10. Referential suffixes. In this set are two suffixes which refer back in some way to the subject. The two suffixes are:
-kwis together, in association (ASSOC)
-atukw \{reciprocal (REC)
I have no examples of combinations of directional and referential suffixes; if the evidence from Lenakel (Lynch l978b:42) is anything to go by, the ordering of these two sets of suffixes in relation to each other is probably not particularly strict.

The associative suffix -kwis indicates that the referents of the subject carry out the action of the verb together, in concert or association:
(67) kimlu tion $t-i-u k-u-i v g i n-k w i s$
we: EX:DU John FUT-1EX-CONC-DU-eat-ASSOC
'John and I will eat together'
The suffix -atukw has two, closely related, functions. It indicates that the action of the verb is reflexive:
(68) l-imn-uh-atukw

3SG-PST-hit-REFL
'He hit himself'
and it also indicates reciprocality:
(69) iliu k-ø-am-u-olkeikei-atukw `
they:DU 3NSG-CONC-CONT-DU-like-REC
'The two of them like each other'
Neither -kwis nor -atukw occurs with any frequency in South-west Tanna.
3.1.1.11. Transitive postclitic. The transitive marker $-k i n$ (TRANS) is in fact a postclitic and not a suffix; it occurs verb phrase-finally. However, in the large majority of verb phrases, this also means that it is verb-final; hence, I include it here among the suffixes. As will be seen in section 4.3. below, some verbs require the transitive postclitic $-k+n$ (which is $-k i n \sim-k i$ before a consonant) when followed by an object NP, while others do not. Below are examples of verbs which require $-k i n$ TRANS:
(70) piamil k-a-la-kwasig-kin kwan ai
woman:DU 3NSG-CONT-DU-foZlow-TRANS feZZow DEM:PR
'The two women were following the man'
(71) i-ak-am-gin-kin kuli

1EX-CONC-CONT-fear-TRANS dog
'I am frightened of dogs'

A number of verbs seem to have fused the transitive suffix, and always appear with it, even in citation. Examples are:

```
(72) alukin 'to throw'
    avhekin 'to count, read'
    ilkwilkin 'to (cause to) drown'
    oklhekin 'to turn around'
    avhlekin 'to turn over'
```

These verbs never appear without the final $/ k i n /$, and it is a moot point as to whether this / $k i n /$ should be analysed as a transitive suffix or as a historical suffix which has fused with the root. For the purposes of presentation, $I$ have taken the decision to gloss $/ k i n /$ in verbs such as those above as the transitive suffix in example sentences in the grammar; in the vocabulary list, however, /kin/ is written as part of the verb: thus alu-kin (throw-TRANS) in the grammar, but alukin in the vocabulary.

### 3.1.2. Verbal affixes (interrogative mode)

The structure of questions in South-west Tanna is discussed in section 4.4.1.2. below. As will be seen there, most questions use an interrogative form in one of the NPs of the sentence, or use the conjunction ua 'or' without a following clause; in these two cases, verbs use the same range of affixes as in the declarative mode. However, other questions use verbal affixes which are restricted to the interrogative mode. There are two such affixes.

One of these is the directional suffix -hie DIR:WH. This occurs in the same position as the directional suffixes discussed in 3.1.1.9., and may be suffixed to the same range of verbs as those suffixes:
n-ak-am-asokw-hie?
2-CONC-CONT-go:to-DIR:WH
'Where are you going?'
The other interrogative affix is the prefix hau- $W H$, which occurs between the continuative and number-of-subject prefixes. It is generally used when the speaker is asking the reason for an action:
(74) 1-ø-am-hau-aan kamaam?

3SG-CONC-CONT-WH-eat fish
'Why is he eating fish?'
(75) n-ak-am-hau-eliuok?

2-CONC-CONT-WH-walk
'Why are you walking?'
With verbs of specific motion, however, it may be used to ask for the direction as well as the reason of motion. ${ }^{15}$
t- $\varnothing$-ak-hau-vin
FUT-2-CONC-WH-go
'Where are you going?', 'Why are you going?'

### 3.1.3. Verbal affixes (imperative mode)

There are no sets of affixes which are used only in the imperative mode. Indeed, the imperative mode uses rather fewer affixes than other modes.

Intentional, future, person-of-subject, and tense/aspect prefixes may not be used in the imperative mode; the continuative prefix is only rarely used. Thus a verb in the imperative takes only number-of-subject and, occasionally, continuative prefixes, though the full range of suffixes is available:
(77)
s-ol!
PL-do
'Do it (all of you)!'
(78) la-kwasig-pin-kin kuli kafa-k!

DU-foZZow-DIR:3-TRANS dog POS-1SG
'(You two), follow my dog!'
(79) am-u-alel!

CONT-DU-stand
'Just keep on standing (you two)!'

### 3.1.4. Summary

Verbs in all three modes take a number of sets of prefixes and suffixes.
Table VI listed the prefixes and suffixes used in the declarative mode; to those need to be added the interrogative prefix hau- and the interrogative directional suffix -hie. Table VII below summarises the range of affixes which can be used in each mode: + and - indicate obligatory presence and obligatory absence respectively, while (+) indicates optional presence.

| TABLE VII: Affix-classes in each mode |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Prefixes | Declarative | Interrogative | Imperative |
| Intentional | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | - |
| Future | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | - |
| Person-of-Subject | + | + | - |
| Tense/Aspect | + | + | - |
| Continuative | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |
| Interrogative | - | + | + |
| Number-of-Subject | + | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |
| Suffixes | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |
| Directional | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |
| Referential |  |  | $\left(\begin{array}{l}\text { (+) } \\ \text { Transitive }\end{array}\right.$ |

### 3.2. Nominals

South-west Tanna nominals may be categorised morphologically into three major classes: pronouns (showing person, number, and case distinctions); inalienable or directly possessed nouns (requiring a possessive suffix); and other nouns. Each of these classes is discussed in turn below, with some attention being paid to subclassification and irregularities.

### 3.2.1. Pronouns

Pronouns in South-west Tanna vary in form for person, number, and case. The full range of free pronoun forms is given in Table VIII; possessive pronominal suffixes will be discussed in the next section. ${ }^{16}$

| TABLE VIII: Free pronouns |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Case | Person | Number |  |  |  |
|  |  | Singular | Dual | Trial | Plural |
| Focal | $\begin{gathered} \text { 1IN } \\ \text { 1EX } \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{gathered}$ | iou <br> iik in | kilau <br> kimlu <br> kimilu <br> iliu | kitasil <br> kimasil <br> kimis $\ddagger$ <br> ilisil | kitaua <br> kimaua <br> kimia <br> ilia |
| Object | $\begin{gathered} \text { 1IN } \\ \text { 1EX } \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{gathered}$ | iou <br> iik <br> in | alau amlu amilu aliu | atasi 1 <br> amas $\ddagger$ <br> amisil <br> alisil | ataua <br> amaua <br> amia <br> alia |

Person and number distinctions in South-west Tanna have already been discussed in connection with the verb (section 3.l.l.), and require no further discussion here. The case distinction, however, needs some explanation. The term 'focal' is used to refer to those forms of a pronoun used when the pronoun stands alone in a sentence (e.g. as answer to a question). As will be seen, this form is also the form used as subject, and it contrasts with the 'object' form.

The object forms are used when the pronoun is the head of a NP which is (i) the object of a clause or (ii) preceded by a case-marker or preposition in a peripheral phrase (i.e. instrumental, dative, benefactive, etc.; see section 4. for clarification). Some examples:
(80) 1-im-níahu aliu

3SG-PST-prevent them:DU:OBJ
'He stopped/blocked the two of them'
(81) pa 1-imn-aam amia
who 3SG-PST-see you:PL:OBJ
'Who saw you (alZ)?'
i-emn-inkiaal kimi alisil
1EX-PST-speak DAT them:TR:OBJ
'I spoke to the three of them'
(83) l-im-ni tukw amlu ...

3SG-PST-say DAT us:DU:OBJ
'He said to us two ...
Variation for case is only apparent in the non-singular pronouns; the singular object forms in Table VIII are identical to the focal forms. However, the third person singular pronoun shows a range of allomorphic variation when used as object which does not occur when it is used as a focal pronoun. First, in 3SG is regularly deleted when object of a verb, and only appears in object position in cases of very strong emphasis: ${ }^{17}$
(84) i-ak-am-aam $\emptyset$

1EX-CONC-CONT-see him
'I (can) see it/him/her'
tu-k- $\emptyset$-s-ol $\emptyset$
FUT-3NSG-CONC-PL-do it
'They will do it'
Secondly, when preceded by the case-marker tukw, in 3SG has the allomorph un:

> i-em-ni tukw un...
> lex-PST-say DAT him
> 'I said to him ...'

The focal forms are used in non-object position: i.e. as subjects, and in most reduced sentences (e.g. answers to questions):
(87) kimaua i-ak-am-s-ol
we:EX:PL 1EX-CONC-CONT-PL-do
'We are doing it'
(88) pa l-imn-ol? kimlu
who 3SG-PST-do? we:EX:DU
'Who did it?' 'The two of us'
Morphologically, there is a clear break between the singular and the nonsingular forms. The singular forms appear to be morphologically simple, and although there is some evidence that the initial /i/may have once been a prefix, it no longer functions as one. The non-singular forms, however, are morphologically complex, and consist of a root marking person and case, followed by a suffix marking number. The internal structure of the non-singular pronouns appears to be as follows:

Person and Case

ili- 3 FOC ali- 3 OBJ
It should be stressed, however, that the forms given in Table VIII function as units: i.e. neither the person-and-case elements nor the number elements may stand independently of each other.

### 3.2.2. Directly possessed nouns

It is common in Oceanic languages for one set of nouns to require relatively close possessive marking, while another set has more distant marking. ${ }^{18}$ Close marking, often referred to as inalienable or direct possession, generally involves the possessor - at least, the pronoun possessor - being marked by an affix to the possessed noun; in most Oceanic languages, this affix is a suffix. Distant marking, often called alienable possession, often shows this suffix being attached to some other word in the NP (a possessive-marker).

South-west Tanna shows this distinction, as will become clear in section 4.2.4. A number of distinct subtypes of distant possession can be isolated, but none of these involves any change in the morphology of the noun itself; rather, possessive pronominal suffixes are attached to some other morpheme, as in:
kuli kafa-k
dog POS-1SG
'My dog'
Close possession, on the other hand, involves suffixation of the possessed noun, as in:
(90) lim-k
father-1SG
'My father'
The forms *kuli-k 'my dog' and *lim kafa-k 'my father' are ungrammatical.
In direct possession, the following pronominal possessive suffixes are added to nouns:

| TABLE IX: Possessive pronominal suffixes |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Case | Person | Number |  |  |  |
|  |  | Singular | Dual | Trial | Plural |
| Possessive | $\begin{gathered} \text { 1IN } \\ \text { 1EX } \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} -k \\ -m \\ \left\{\begin{array}{l} -n \\ -n i \end{array}\right\} \end{gathered}$ | - lau <br> -mlu <br> -milu <br> -liu | -tasil <br> -masil <br> -misil <br> $-1 i s i l$ | - taua <br> -maua <br> -mia <br> -1ia |

Although the singular forms differ, the morphological similarity between the possessive pronominal forms in Table IX and the focal and objective pronouns in Table VIII will be immediately apparent. (The two 3SG forms will be discussed below.)

The range of nouns to which these suffixes must be added can be at least partly defined semantically. Most kinship terms take these suffixes: e.g. lim- 'father', nisi+n- 'mother', nauin- 'sister (of a man)', mila- 'mother's brother', etc. Similarly, many parts of the body (kwalm- 'hand, arm', nuhu'Zeg, foot', tiki- 'skin', nakanmop- 'Ziver', nipwagnhig- 'nose', etc.) and parts of a whole (nukwa- 'fruit', nua- 'root', ielkwaa-' (in the) middle', niklee- 'roof', etc.) also take these suffixes directly. There are also certain other nouns, conceived of as parts of a whole, which are required to
take possessive suffixes; these include nanmw- 'shadow', nhag- 'name', and liki'voice'. On the other hand, there is a number of nouns which, on semantic grounds, one might expect to belong to this class, but which in fact do not. These nouns, which include ielmaan 'husband', pilavin 'wife', ${ }^{19}$ kwotavha 'heart', pisasuul 'thumb', kwanoukóuk 'kidney', tila 'mast', and quite a few others, will be discussed in section 4.2.4.4. below.

Two forms of the third person singular suffix were given in Table IX. The form -n occurs in all cases except (i) with words for siblings and (ii) the word for child. The various sibling terms take $-n i$ rather than $-n$ : noule-ni 'his/her older sibling of same sex', noulahi-ni 'his/her younger sibling of same sex'. Two sibling terms whose roots end in $n$ simply take $-i$ : mwan-i 'her brother', nauin-i 'his sister'. The word for 'child' shows further irregularities: the root nal- is used with lSG and 2SG possessors (nal-k 'my shild', nal-m 'your child'); with other possessors, the root ti- is used (thus ti-ni 'his/her child', etc.). ${ }^{20}$

There are, in addition, a few directly possessed nouns which are irregular. These require the pronoun possessor being marked as an affix, but not in the same way as in the majority of cases; in these words, the possessive pronominal affix is suffixed to some other element, usually formally resembling one of the possessive markers to be discussed in section 4.2.4., and this whole constituent is then prefixed to the root. The following is an exhaustive list from my data; roots are capitalised, and PRO indicates where the pronominal affix occurs:

| ni-PRO-HAU | 'penis' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kapa-PRO-IEL | 'father's sister's son (of male)' |
| kapa-PRO-KAPWA | 'head' |
| ni-PRO-KAUGA | 'chin' |
| kapa-PRO-KUA | 'anus' |
| ni-PRO-KULA | 'brain' |
| ni-PRO-LAKW | 'throat, neck' |
| kapa-PRO-MWANIIP | 'dorsal fin' |
| kapa-PRO-UA | 'vagina' |

I cannot suggest any historical explanation for these cases. However, I can point to similar cases in all the Tanna languages, involving almost exactly the same set of roots (cf. Lynch l978b:87), and can only suggest that this set of irregularities developed at the Proto-Tanna stage.

### 3.2.3. Other nouns

As a general rule, other nouns are morphologically simple in that they possess no inflectional morphology. However, certain human nouns are exceptions to this general statement. While other nouns are invariable for number (number being marked by a following modifier or in the verb), some human nouns show a distinct plural form:

Singular
iame iame 'the one (who)' nime ielmama 'person' nelmama

| Singular |  | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ielmaan | 'man' | nelmaan |
| pilavin | 'woman' | nipilavin |
| pukaliakati+t | 'boy' | nipualiakat $\dagger+t$ |
| piakat+it | 'girz' | nipiakwoskwa |
| pa | 'who?' | nipa |
| hualu | 'old man' | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nihualu }\end{array}\right.$ <br> kwasihualu |
| piahualu | 'old woman' | $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { nipiahualu }\end{array}\right.$ \{ kwasipiahualu |

The plural generally involves the prefixing of $n-$ or $n \dot{+}$-, though a prefix kwasis observed in two instances, and there is also some evidence of other irregular formations (cf. the plurals of 'boy' and 'girl'). These examples apart, however, nominals which are neither pronouns nor directly possessed nouns show no evidence of inflectional morphology.

### 3.2.4. Derivational morphology

The derivation of nouns from other word classes, and the formation of compound nouns, are common processes in South-west Tanna, and this section will examine each of these processes briefly.
3.2.4.1. Derivational affixes. Nouns may be formed by attaching certain derivational affixes to roots belonging to other word classes. There are four such affixes:

| $\mathrm{i}-$ | agentive (AG) |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{k}-$ | instrumental (INST) |
| $\mathrm{il}-$ | identificatory nominaliser (NOM) |
| $\mathrm{n}-\ldots$ - ien | general nominaliser (NOM) |

The agentive nominaliser i- (ie- before a consonant) is added to a verb root to form an agentive noun:

| (92) | i-iklha AG-steal | 'a thief' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | i-inkiaal AG-speak | 'a talker' |
|  | ie-likwun AG-know | 'one who knows' |
| Simi <br> to a | arly, the i verb to for | tal nominaliser trumental noun: |
| (93) | k-ilai INST-cut | 'axe' |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & k a-k i l \\ & \text { INST-dig } \end{aligned}$ | 'digging-stick' |

The identificatory nominaliser il- forms nouns from adjectives and modifiers:

| il-akwas |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| NOM-old | 'a/the old one' |
| il-vi |  |

The general nominaliser is a discontinuous affix which forms a general or abstract noun from a verb or adjective. The affix involves prefixing $n$ - and suffixing -ien to the verb or adjective root:
n-amelinu-ien 'peace, calm' NOM-peaceful-NOM
n-ivgin-ien NOM-eat-NOM
n-amhokw-ien NOM-foggy-NOM
'peace, calm'
'eating, food'
'fog, fogginess'
3.2.4.2. Compounding. In addition, nouns in South-west Tanna may be formed by compounding noun + noun, noun + adjective, or noun + verb:
(96) nal-ipwai
'nightmare'
NOUN + NOUN
thing-underworld
pis-asuul 'thumb' NOUN + ADJECTIVE
finger-big
nal-mlagh 'animal' NOUN + VERB
thing-be:alive
By far the most common source of compounding, however, involves two forms which are used as the first element of the compound:
(a) kwa-, kwo-, nukwa-, nakwa-, nokwa-, nikwa-, in their various forms. These forms derive from nukwa- 'fruit', and have a general meaning of 'fruit of, product of' in many compounds in which they occur:

| kwa-nkwa- | 'seed' | cf. nukwa- 'fruit' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kwa-nelaus | 'vein, sinew' | cf. nelaus 'rope' |

In most such compounds, however, the second element seems to have ceased having any independent existence, and occurs only in the compound form:

| nukwanee- | 'hair (on head)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kwanhel- | 'egg' |
| kwanakau | 'rib' |
| nakwatana | 'valley' |
| kwanikiatu | 'outrigger boom' |

(b) mwa-, mwei-, nimwa, nimwei- and related forms. These forms probably derive from nimwa 'house', and have a general meaning of 'covering, outside of' in many compounds in which they occur:

| nimwa-nvhaga | 'bow' | cf. nivhaga 'bow and arrow' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nimw-akilakil | 'shore, beach' | cf. nipakil 'sand' |
| nimwa-nsii- | 'buttocks' | cf. nisii- 'excrement' |

As in the case with nukwa- compounds, many compounds with the derivatives of nimwa as the first element seem to have been lexicalised in South-west Tanna, the second element apparently no longer having any independent existence:
(100)
nimweitaa
mwatelg-
mwankuiu
'back'
'ear'
'pandanus'

### 3.3. Modifiers

Modifiers are words which normally follow the head noun in an NP or the verb in a VP. ${ }^{21}$ They are morphologically simple, and this section will therefore not be concerned with their internal structure but with their subclassification.

### 3.3.1. General modifiers

General modifiers (GEN) may occur either in a verb phrase or in a noun phrase. Examples of two of these, vi 'new, newly' and ima 'just, only', are given below:
(101) l-ua-ua vi

3SG-PF-come new
'He is newly arrived'
(102) in e nimwa vi
it DEM:1 house new
'This is a new house'
(103) l-ø-am-ala ima

3SG-CONC-CONT-stay just
'He is still staying'
(104) kimlu ima tu-ø-pi-ala
we:EX:DU just FUT-3NSG-SQ-stay
'Just the two of us will stay'
This class is probably an open class, but with a small membership. Other general modifiers are akwasig 'behind', ankap 'very, very much' ialmih 'different(Zy)', mala 'slow(ly)', kwiskwis 'together', etc.

### 3.3.2. Verbal modifiers

Verbal modifiers (VM) may occur only in VPs, and not in NPs. Two of these, pik 'a lot, very much', and ta 'completely, finished', are exemplified below:
(105) 1-ø-am-ivgin pik

3SG-CONC-CONT-eat very:much
'He eats a lot'
(106) i-akua-s-ol ta

1EX-PF-PL-do already
'We have already done it', 'We have finished doing it'

This class is also small, but I have no evidence that it is a closed class. Other VMs are la 'now, then', and lu 'trying to'.

```
3.3.3. Nominal modifiers
Nominal modifiers (NM) may only occur in NPs, and not in VPs. Examples are given below of maul 'Zeft' and misia 'dry':
(107) kwalm-n maul
hand-3SG left
'His left hand'
(108) nikien misia kiliik
coconut dry DEM:IND
'A dry coconut'
Again, this class may be closed, but I have no evidence that it is; other NMs are favin 'which?', matukw 'right', and kalin (used in relationship terms: see section 6).
```


### 3.3.4. Quantifiers

The class of quantifiers (QTY), which may only occur in NPs, contains the numerals 'one' to 'five': ${ }^{22}$

| (109) | $k i l i k i a n a$ |
| ---: | :--- |$\quad$ 'one' $\quad$ kilalu $\quad$ 'two'

The class also includes a number of other words: tiksin 'some', kwatiksin 'a few', hialma 'next', kuhu 'how many?, how much?', mufaam 'all', etc.

### 3.3.5. Grammatical number markers

Another set of modifiers which may only appear in NPs is the set of grammatical number markers (NUM). There are three of these:
mil
misil
mina
'dual'
'trial'
'plural'

These modifiers are not required in a $N P$, even when the head of the NP is non-singular. The number of the subject NP, for example, is marked as a prefix to the verb, so a subject NP may or may not include a NUM as well. Generally, when the number is important to the speaker or the context, then either a numeral or a NUM (or both in combination) will be used; if the number is not important, then no NUM will be used.

### 3.3.6. Demonstratives

Finally, there is a closed class of demonstratives (DEM). The list below is, I believe, complete:

| (111) kiliik | 'indefinite, a, some' | (DEM:IND) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| e | 'this near speaker' | (DEM:1) |
| en | 'this, that, near addressee' | (DEM:2) |
| aanvaa | 'that, yonder' | (DEM:3) |
| kwuse | 'this, that, indicated' | (DEM:IDC) |
| ai | 'the, this, that, previously | (DEM:PR) |
|  | referred to' |  |

These modifiers normally occur in NPs:
(112) vha-pwa nal en
give-DIR:1 thing DEM: 2
'Give me that (which you have/near you)'
(113) kwan ai l-ø-am-olkeikei piakatitit kwuse
feZZow DEM:PR 3SG-CONC-CONT-like girl DEM:IDC
'That/the man (we were talking about) likes that particular girl
(I am pointing to)'
They are occasionally found in VPs, however:
(114) kwate en!
stay DEM:2
'Stay there (where you are)!'

### 3.4. Adjectives

Adjectives (ADJ) may bedistinguished from modifiers in that they may take certain verbal affixes, and may thus stand as the sole constituent of a VP in a clause. On the other hand, they may be distinguished from verbs in that they may also occur without verbal affixes, and in their unaffixed form behave syntactically like modifiers, occurring in a NP following the head noun. The examples below show the adjectives esla 'sharp' and amkimik 'dirty' being used both verbally and non-verbally:
(115) nau e l-ø-esla
knife DEM:1 3SG-CONC-sharp
'This knife is sharp'
(116) vha-pwa nau esla kiliik!
give-DIR:l knife sharp DEM:IND
'Give me a sharp knife'
(117) nal-k mufaam k-ø-s-amkimik
child-1SG all 3NSG-CONC-PL-dirty
'All my children are dirty'
(118) vha-pin nepin amkimik aan!
give-DIR:3 clothes dirty DEM:3
'Give him those dirty clothes!'
Adjectives have been observed to occur with all the verbal prefixes except the intentional (which in any case seems to be extremely rare). They do not, however, take the verbal suffixes described in 3.1.1. above.

## 4. SYNTAX

### 4.1. Phrases

On the basis of their functions and their internal structure, a number of different phrase-types can be recognised in South-west Tanna. Each of these will be briefly discussed and exemplified below.

### 4.1.1. Verb phrases

Verb Phrases (VP) in South-west Tanna have the following structure:
(1)

$$
V P \rightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}
V+\left(\left\{\begin{array}{l}
V M \\
G E N \\
A D J
\end{array}\right\}\right)+(D E M)+(T R A N S) \\
A D J+\left(\left\{\begin{array}{l}
G E N \\
V M
\end{array}\right\}\right)
\end{array}\right]
$$

The rule states that there are two basic types of VPs. One has as head a verb (i.e. verb root with appropriate affixes); optionally following the head appears a verbal modifier, a general modifier, or an adjective; this in turn may be followed by a demonstrative, with the transitive postclitic occurring finally in a VP. The other type of VP has an adjective (root + affixes) as its head; this may be followed by a general modifier or a verbal modifier.

Some examples of VPs showing various of these combinations are illustrated below. Slashes mark phrase-boundaries. Firstly, VPs with a $V$ as head:
(2) 1-ø-am-akwita

3SG-CONC-CONT-sit
'He is sitting down'
(3) l-ua-ua vi

3SG-PF-come new
'He is newly arrived'
(4) n-ak-am-eliuok mala

2-CONC-CONT-walk slowly
'You are walking slowly'
(5) t-i-ak-ala e / ikin e

FUT-lEX-CONC-stay DEM:1 / place DEM:l
'I will stay here'
(6) tagalua / l-n-ouiak ta ki / tiki-n
snake / 3SG-PF-shed already TRANS / skin-3SG
'The snake has shed its skin'
Next, some examples of VPs with an adjective head:
(7) 1-Ø-vha

3SG-CONC-good
'It is good'
(8) $\quad$-n-akwiliin ta

3SG-PF-full already
'It is full'
k- $\varnothing$-u-alkatift $\ddagger m a$
3NSG-CONC-DU-small just
'The two of them are only small'

### 4.1.2. Noun phrases

The basic structure of the South-west Tanna NP is given in the following rule:
(10)
$N P \rightarrow N+\left(\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { GEN } \\ N M \\ \text { ADJ }\end{array}\right\}\right)+(N U M)+(Q T Y)+(D E M)$
Noun phrases have nominals as heads, and all other constituents are optional. If these optional constituents occur, they occur in the following order: first, either a general modifier or a nominal modifier or an adjective; next, a grammatical number marker; then a quantifier; and lastly a demonstrative. Examples of various NP-types will first be given of NPs whose head nominal is a noun:
(ll) i-emn-uh / pukah
lex-PST-strike / pig
'I killed a/the pig'
(12) l-n-ol ta / nimwa vi

3SG-PF-make already / house new
'He has built a new house'
(13) vha-pwa / nau esla en! give-DIR:1 / knife sharp DEM:2 'Give me that sharp knife (near you)!'
(14) pilavin mil ai / tu-k-ø-la-ua woman DU DEM:PR / FUT-3NSG-CONC-DU-come 'The two women will come'
(15) n-ak-am-aam / piakatijt mil kilalu kwuse / ua? 2-CONC-CONT-see / girl DU two DEM:IDC / or
'Are you looking at those two girls there?'
In context, a head noun may be deleted and a quantifier may act as the head of a NP. Thus if the context included some discussion of two men who had gone away, then (16) would be grammatical:
(16) kilalu ai / tu-k- $\varnothing$-la-lelig
two DEM:PR / FUT-3NSG-CONC-DU-return
'The two will come back'
There are a few combinations of GEN + GEN which are acceptable within a NP. The most acceptable of these involve general modifiers like pik 'very much' or ankap 'very' as the second adjunct:
(17) i-emn-aam / nimwa vi ankap
lEX-PST-see / house new very
'I saw a very new house'
However, while informants will generally accept sentences with other combinations, such as (18) with ADJ + GEN:
(18) I-n-ol ta / nimwa vha vi 3SG-PF-make already / house good new 'He built a good new house'
it is much more common for South-west Tanna speakers to either verbalise the adjective,
(19) I-n-ol- ta / nimwa vi / 1-ø-vha

3SG-PF-make already / house new/ 3SG-CONC-good
'He built a good new house'
or to nominalise either the modifier or the adjective and remove it to an appositional phrase:
(20) l-n-ol ta / nimwa vha / il-vi

3SG-PF-make already / house good / NOM-new
'He built a good new house'
Now we turn to NPs whose head is a pronoun. Most commonly, pronoun heads are unmodified:
(21) iliu / k-ua-la-su ta / nekw
they:DU / 3NSG-PF-DU-plant already / yam
'The two of them have planted the yams'
(22) i-emn-aam / iik
lex-PST-see / you:SG
'I saw you'
However, pronouns may occur with the other NP constituents (except adjectives), although not as commonly as nouns:
(23) kimlu ima / t-i-ak-la-vin
we:EX:DU just / FUT-lEX-CONC-DU-go
'Just the two of us will go'
(24) l-imn-uh / alia mina

3SG-PST-strike / they:OBJ:PL PL
'He hit/killed them all'
(25) kitaua mufaam / tu-ø-pi-ha-ua
we:IN: PL all / FUT-1IN-SQ-PL-come
'All of us will come'
(26) vah / in e!
take / it DEM:1
'Take this one!'

### 4.1.3. Location Phrases

Location phrases (LP) indicate direction after a verb of specific motion and location after other verbs. All LPs may be introduced by apwa which, though optional, marks the following phrase as a LP. Three subtypes of LPs can be identified:
(27)

$$
L P \rightarrow \text { (apwa) }+\left\{\begin{array}{l}
i k i n+\left\{\begin{array}{l}
M O D \\
A D J
\end{array}\right\} \\
\text { locative noun } \\
i e+N P
\end{array}\right\}
$$

The use of apwa is more common with LPs of the first two types; its use with the ie $+N P$ type seems much less common.

The first subtype of LP uses the noun ikin 'place, location' followed by a modifier or an adjective. Most commonly, a demonstrative follows ikin:
(28) l-ø-am-ala / ikin e 3SG-CONC-CONT-Zive / place DEM:l 'He lives here'
vah-pin / ikin aan! take-DIR:3 / place DEM:3 'Take it over there'
(30) i-akn-aam ta / apwa ikin ai
lEX-PF-see already / LOC place DEM:PR
'I found it there (you-know-where)'
However, adjectives and other modifiers may also follow ikin:
(31) l-ø-am-ala / apwa ikin vi

3SG-CONC-CONT-live / LOC place new
'He lives in a new place'
(32) l-ø-am-ala / ikin ha

3SG-CONC-CONT-Live / place bad
'He lives in a bad place'
The second kind of LP involves the use of a subclass of nouns which I call locative nouns. This subclass is defined by their behaviour in LPs: Locative nouns may occur alone as the head of a LP, while other nouns must take the case-marker ie. Locative nouns include the names of all places e.g. Iounhanin (a village), lakwukak (a village), Isagil (a government station) - and also a number of other nouns, of which the following list is an example:

| (33) | ipaka |
| ---: | :--- |
| isokw | 'near, nearby' |
| pihiu | 'far, far away' |
| pilaah | 'north' |
| pihiaak | 'south' |
| pila | 'east' |

One or two regular nouns have special locative forms:
(34) ielkwanu
'to, at, or in the village' (cf. lukwanu 'village')
iimwa 'at home, home, homewards' (cf. nimwa 'house')

As noted above, these nouns may occur as the heads of LPs, although they may be introduced by apwa:
(35) l-Ø-am-ala / apwa Iounhanin 3SG-CONC-CONT-Live / LOC Iounhanin
'He lives at Iounhanin'
(36) lithu / apwa isokw!
put / LOC far
'Put it down a long way away'
t-i-ak-am-vin / ielkwanu
FUT-1EX-CONC-CONT-go / LOC:village
'I'm going to the village', 'I'm going home'
The third type of LP consists of a NP (as described in 4.1.2.) preceded by the case-marker ie. This case-marker is a clitic (as are the others to be discussed in later sections) ; it receives no stress in its own right, although it may be stressed if, when considered as the first syllable of the following noun, it fits the structural description of the stress-assignment rules (see 2.4. above). However, it will be more convenient for purposes of description to maintain the fiction that ie (and also the other case-markers) are in fact separate words.

Examples of LPs of this sort, with NPs whose heads are nouns, are given below:
(38) 1-ø-am-eliuok / ie nipakil

3SG-CONC-CONT-walk / LOC sand
'He is walking on the beach'
(39) l-ø-am-ala / ie tukwas aan

3SG-CONC-CONT-Zive / LOC mountain DEM:3
'He lives on that mountain there'
n-ak-am-avin / ie n-asim-ien / ua?
2-CONC-CONT-go / LOC NOM-work:in:garden-NOM / or
'Are you going to the garden(s)?'
Example (38) clearly illustrates the point made earlier that LPs have directional sense after a verb of specific motion (as in (40)) but a locative sense elsewhere (e.g. (39)). The verb in (38), eliuok 'to walk', is not a verb of specific motion, and thus (38) may only have a locative sense: walking on the beach. For a directional sense to apply to a verb like el iuok, a verb of specific motion would have to be conjoined; e.g.
(41) l-ø-am-eliuok / m-avin / ie nłpakil

3SG-CONC-CONT-walk / AND-go / LOC sand
'He is walking to the beach'
Before a pronoun, ie shows some allomorphic variation: ie becomes il before the non-singular objective pronouns, with the third person non-singular showing further morphophonemic changes:

| $i l+a l i u$ | $>$ | $i l e l i u$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $i l+a l i s+l$ | $>$ | $i l i s+l$ |
| $i l+a l i a$ | $>$ | $i l e l i a$ |

Before the singular pronouns, ie has the form ila; further, the possessive forms of the pronouns, and not the free forms, occur with this allomorph: thus ila-k 'to me', ila-m 'to you', ila-n 'to him/her/it'.
nau ai / l- $\varnothing$-am-ala / ila-n
knife DEM:PR / 3SG-CONC-CONT-Zive / LOC-3SG
'The knife is on it'
(43) kwan ai / l-ø-am-aiu / m-avin / apwa ila-k
feZZow DEM:PR / 3SG-CONC-CONT-run /AND-go / LOC LOC-1SG
'That fellow is running to(wards) me'

### 4.1.4. Time phrases

Time phrases (TP) in South-west Tanna have the following structure:
(44)
$T P \rightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { temporal noun } \\ i e+N P\end{array}\right\}$
That is, TPs are composed either of a temporal noun, or of a NP introduced by the case-marker ie.

Temporal nouns are a subclass of nouns whose definition is similar to that of locative nouns dicussed in the previous section: that is, they are nouns which may occur alone as the head of a TP. Below are some examples of temporal nouns:
touei 'today'
takwtakwun 'now'
niiv 'yesterday'
naho 'day before yesterday'
nhiksil 'two days ago'
tukwienakwami 1 'tomorrow'
tukwnaho 'day after tomorrow'
tukwnhiksil 'two days hence'
naghin 'when? (past)'
tukwnaghin 'when? (future)'
Some examples:
(46) n-akn-ua / naghin?

2-PF-come / when:past
'When did you come'
(47) i-emn-ivgin / pukah / nitiv lEX-PST-feed / pig / yesterday
'I fed the pigs yesterday'
The other kind of TP consists of a NP preceded by the case-marker ie:
(48) I-ua-ua / ie lukweha

3SG-PST-come / TEM daylight
'He came during daylight/during the daytime'
(49) l-imn-aan / kamaam / ie naha nipig?

3SG-PST-eat / fish / TEM what day
'When did he eat the fish?'
When the head of the $N P$ is nipig 'day, time', the case-marker ie may be dispensed with:
(50) nipig kape nehen / i-ak-lih / kuhuan time POS rain / IEX-CONC-collect / shellfish
'During the rain I collect shellfish'
(51) l-ø-am-aan / mana / nipig mufaam

3SG-CONC-CONT-eat / chicken / day all
'He always eats chicken', 'He eats chicken every day'

### 4.1.5. Dative phrases

South-west Tanna dative phrases (DP) have the following structure:
$D P \rightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tukw } \\ k+m i\end{array}\right\}+N P$
That is, a dative phrase consists of a $N P$ introduced by either the case-marker tukw or the case-marker $k \dot{k} \boldsymbol{m i}$ (which is $k \dot{m i} \sim k i m$ before a consonant).

The DP with kimi is used after verbs of giving:
(53) tukw-l-Ø-vha-pwa / kimi iou

FUT-3SG-CONC-give-DIR:1 / DAT I
'He will give it to me'
Some verbs of speaking require $k+m i$, while others require tukw:
(54) i-emn-inkiaal / kimi aliu
lEX-PST-speak / DAT they:DU:OBJ
'I spoke to them'
(55) l-im-ni / tukw lim-n

3SG-PST-say / DAT father-3SG
'He talked to his father'

### 4.1.6. Benefactive phrases

The benefactive phrase (BP) has the following structure:
(56) BP $\rightarrow$ kape $+N P$

The BP is, then, a NP introduced by kape which also functions as a possessivemarker; see section 4.2.4.2. below for a discussion of its allomorphs. Below are examples of benefactive phrases:
(57) n-ak-am-ol / kape lim-m / ua?

2-CONC-CONT-do / BENEF father-2SG / or
'Are you doing it for your father?'
(58) l-imn-asim / niiv / kape nisin-n 3SG-PST-work:in:garden / yesterday / BENEF mother-3SG 'Yesterday he worked in the garden for his mother'

### 4.1.7. Instrumental phrases

South-west Tanna instrumental phrases (IP) consist of a NP preceded by the case-marker ie; that is:
(59) IP $\rightarrow i e+N P$

Examples:
(60) t-i-ak-am-ilai / nai aan / ie kipas e FUT-lEX-CONC-CONT-cut / tree DEM:3 / INST axe DEM:1 'I'm going to cut down that tree with this axe'
(61) n-imn-ol / ila-n / ua?

2-PST-do / INST-3SG / or
'Did you use it?', 'Did you do it with it?'

## 4.l.8. Causative phrases

Causative phrases (CP) are NPs introduced by the case-marker tukw:
(62) $\mathrm{CP} \rightarrow$ tukw + NP
(63) i-ak-a-mha / tukw kamaam lEX-CONC-CONT-sick / CAUS fish
'I am sick because of the fish'
(64) níamha / l-ø-as iou / tukw alia anger / 3SG-CONC-bite I / CAUS they:PL:OBJ
'I an angry because of them (i.e. because of something they did)'

### 4.1.9. Case-markers: Summary

A number of case-markers were introduced in the preceding sections. These are listed again below for convenience, together with their allomorphs and their functions:

| ie (il-, ila-) | location phrases <br> time phrases <br> instrumental phrases |
| :--- | :--- |
| tukw | dative phrases <br> causative phrases |
| kape (kim) 4.2.4.2.) | dative phrases <br> benefactive phrases |

### 4.2. Noun phrase expansions

The NP which forms the basis for most of the phrase-types discussed in section 4.1. may be expanded in various ways. In this section we shall examine coordination of NPs, relativisation, complex LPs, and possession.

### 4.2.1. Coordination

Any NP - and this includes any NP which is preceded by a case-marker in a LP, TP, etc. - may in fact consist of two or more conjoined NPs. Such NPs are conjoined by the following role:
(65) $N P \rightarrow N P+m \neq n e+N P+(m i n e)$

That is, the conjunction mine 'and' joins two NPs, and mine may also occur after the second NP. In fact, when only two NPs are conjoined, mine does not normally occur after the second NP; however, when three or more NPs are conjoined, mine will normally follow the last NP, and earlier occurrences of mine (except between the second-last and last NP) may be deleted.
(66) i-ak-olkeikei / kwalei mine nekw
lEX-CONC-like / sweet:potato and yam
'I like sweet potato and yam'
l-imn-aan / kamaam mine mana 3SG-PST-eat / fish and chicken 'He ate fish and chicken'
(68) i-emn-s-aam / kilhiavin, kamaam, ihi mine iakw mine lEX-PST-PL-see / shark, fish, squid and turtle and
'We saw sharks, fish, squid, and turtles'
When one of the NPs to be conjoined is a pronoun, however, mine is not used to link pronoun + NP. Instead, a pronoun with the person and number of the whole conjoined NP stands first in that NP, and is followed by the nonpronominal NP or NPs. Thus (69) is unacceptable:
(69) *iou mine Tom / t-i-uk-u-ivgin
$I$ and Tom / FUT-1EX-CONC-DU-eat
Instead, a pronoun with the person and number of the whole conjoined NP (i.e. kimlu lEX:DU) stands first, and this is immediately followed by the conjoined NP ('Tom').
kimlu Tom / t-i-uk-u-ivgin
we: EX:DU Tom / FUT-lEX-CONC-DU-eat
'Tom and I will eat'
When two (or more) non-pronominal NPs are conjoined with a pronoun, mine will join the non-pronominal NPs:
(71) kimasil Tom mine nal-n / t-i-ak-lh-ivgin
we:EX:TR Tom and child-3SG / FUT-1EX-CONC-TR-eat
'Tom, his son and I will eat'

### 4.2.2. Relativisation

Relativisation in South-west Tanna involves the embedding of a clause (see 4.3.) within a $N P$ or some phrase which includes a NP. A relative clause is conjoined to the NP immediately following the noun which it describes. In the examples below, the relative clause is separated from the rest of the NP by square brackets.
(72) i-emn-aam / ielmama [l-Ø-olkeikei ankap kamaam]
lEX-PST-see / person [3SG-CONC-like very fish]
'I saw the man who likes fish a lot'
i-emn-aam / ielmama [n-imn-uh ni iv]
lEX-PST-see / person [2-PST-fight yesterday]
'I saw the man who you fought yesterday'
(74) pilavin aa [1- Ø-am-asim] / tukw-l- $\emptyset$-ua / tukwienakwami
woman DEM:3 [3SG-CONC-CONT-work:in:garden] / FUT-3SG-CONC-come / tomorrow 'That woman who is working in the garden will come tomorrow'
(75) i-emn-aan / nekw na-i kwan ai [1-imn-uh kafa-k pukah] 1EX-PST-eat / yam POS:EAT-POS feZZow DEM:PR [3SG-PST-kill POS-1SG pig] 'I ate the yam of the fellow who killed my pig'
Relative clauses on the head noun nipig 'time' yield a complex TP:
$\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{ak}-\mathrm{ua} / \mathrm{ie}$ hospitil/ (ie) nipig [t-i-ak-a-mha] FUT-lEX-CONC-come / LOC hospital / (TEM) time [FUT-1EX-CONC-CONT-sick] 'I will come to hospital when I am sick'

Relative clauses on the head noun ikin 'place' yield a complex LP. The situation is somewhat different here, however. The relative clause may begin and end with ikin, as in (77); alternatively, either occurrence of ikin may be
omitted, with no change in the meaning, as in (78) and (79). However, both occurrences may not be omitted, as the ungrammatical (80) shows:
(77) t-i-ak-vin / ikin [l-okwiaai] ikin

FUT-lEX-CONC-go / place [3SG-cold] place
'I go to a place which is cold'
(78) t-i-ak-vin / ikin [l-okwiaai]
(79) t-i-ak-vin / [l-okwiaai] ikin
(80) *t-i-ak-vin / [l-okwiaai]

### 4.2.3. Complex location phrases

Certain complex LPs are merely NPs with relative clauses, and these were dealt with in the previous section. Others, however, are complex in a different way. Certain locative nouns (e.g. ipaka 'near' and, isokw 'far') may be followed by tukw + NP to give a complex LP:
(81) l-imn-eliuok / ipaka tukw 'kopwiel

3SG-PST-walk / near DAT stone
'He walked near the stone'
(82) l-Ø-am-ala / isokw tukw lim-n

3SG-CONC-CONT-live / far DAT father-3SG
'He lives far away from his father'

### 4.2.4. Possession

A NP may also be expanded by the addition of a following possessive phrase (PP):
(83) NP $\rightarrow \mathrm{NP}+\mathrm{PP}$

The possessive phrases in South-west Tanna occur in a number of subtypes, but all may be conceived of as having the following underlying structure:
(84) PP $\rightarrow \mathrm{POS}+\mathrm{NP}$

The NP which is followed by the PP refers to what is possessed; the PP itself contains a possessive-marker (POS) and the NP. If the NP is a pronoun, the pronominal suffixes given in 3.2.2. above are used. The various subtypes of possession will be examined individually.
4.2.4.1. Direct possession. Direct (or inalienable) possession has already been briefly mentioned (section 3.2.2. above). In these phrases, when the possessor is a pronoun, the possessive marker is zero, and possessive pronominal forms are thus suffixed directly to the noun:
(85) lim-n
father-3SG
'His father'
(86) kwalm-lia
hand-3PL
'Their hands'

When the possessor is a noun, a construct suffix is added to the possessed noun. This suffix is $-\boldsymbol{i}$ after a consonant-final directly possessed noun; after a noun ending in $a$, the suffix is $-i$; while after any other vowel the suffix is - $\varnothing$ :
(87) nisin-i pilavin e
mother-POS woman DEM:1
'This woman's mother'
(88) nipwagnhig-i kwan ai
nose-POS fellow DEM:PR
'The/that fellow's nose'
(89) niplaa-i nai
body-pos tree
'The trunk of the tree'
(90) mila-i Natou
mother's:brother-POS Natou
'Natou's (maternal) uncle'
(91) noulahi-ø Magau
younger:sibling-POS Magau
'Magau's young brother'
(92) nuhu- $\emptyset$ pukah
leg-POS pig
'The pig's leg'
In direct possession, the first (i.e. possessed) NP may not contain any adjective or modifier. Thus a phrase like the following is ungrammatical:
(93) *nal(-i) amkimik pilavin e child(-POS) dirty woman DEM:l

Instead, a modifier must be nominalised and moved out of the PP, while an adjective must be nominalised or verbalised and moved out of the PP:
(94) nal-i pilavin e / il-amkimik
child-POS woman DEM:1 / NOM-dirty
'This woman's dirty child(ren)'
(95) nal-i pilavin e / l-ø-amkimik
child-POS woman DEM:1 / 3SG-CONC-dirty
'The woman's dirty child'
4.2.4.2. Active possession. Active (or inalienable) possession involves the use of overt possessive-markers joining the two NPs. In cases of pronoun possessors, the possessive pronominal suffixes are attached to these possessivemarkers; when the possessor is not a pronoun, the possessive-marker occurs between the two NPs.

When the possession is to be eaten, the possessive-marker is na-. The construct suffix-i mentioned above is suffixed to na- before a noun possessor:
(96) nekw na-m
yam POS:EAT-2SG
'Your yam(s) (for eating)'
(97) nipwan na-i kwan ai
banana POS:EAT-POS feZZow DEM:PR
'That fellow's banana(s) (for eating)'

When the possession is to be drunk, the marker ni- is used:
(98) nikien ni-k coconut POS:DRINK-1SG 'My coconut(s) (for drinking)'
(99) nu ni pilavin aan water POS:DRINK woman DEM:3 'That woman's water (for drinking)'
When the possession is to be planted, the marker nai- is used:
(100) nitel nai-lia taro POS:PLANT-3PL 'Their taro (for planting)'
(101) kwalei nai lim-k sweet:potato POS:PLANT father-1SG
'My father's sweet potato (for planting)'
When the possession is for neither eating, drinking, nor planting, (i.e. in the unmarked case), then the marker kape- is used; kape- has the allomorphs kapa- ~ kafa- before the singular pronominal suffixes.
(102) nimwa kape-taua
house POS-IIN:PL
'Our house'
(103) kuli kape nisinn-k
dog POS mother-1SG
'My mother's dog'
(104) nau kapa-n or nau kafa-n
knife POS-3SG
'His/her knife'
The important feature in the use of these possessive-markers is the intention of the speaker or possessor - i.e. the use to which the possession is going to be put. Water for drinking would be possessed with $n i-$, for example, but water for washing with kape-; a coconut for eating would be possessed with na-, one for drinking with $n i-$, and one for selling with kape-; and so on.

Like the other Tanna languages, South-west Tanna allows the possessor constituent to precede the possessed. This is particularly frequent when the possessor is a pronoun, and phrases like those below occur at least as frequently as their counterparts above without, as far as $I$ have been able to ascertain, any semantic change:
(96a) na-m nekw 'your yam(s) (for eating)'
(98a) ni-k nikien 'my coconut(s) (for drinking)'
(100a) nai-lia nitel 'their taro (for planting)'
(102a) kape-taua nimwa 'our house'
(l04a) kapa-n nau 'his knife'
The same is true to a much lesser extent when the possessor is a noun. A phrase like (103a) is certainly acceptable:
(l03a) kape nisi+n-k kuli 'my mother's dog'

However, firstly such a phrase is much less common than its counterpart (103) with possessor following possessed; and secondly, there is in this case a semantic shift - emphasis is being laid on the possessor, so that (103a) indicates that it is definitely my mother's dog, and certainly not anyone else's.

The indication of the high value a possessor places on his possession may also be indicated in a possessive phrase, although again this is not very frequent. In such cases, the structure of the (a) transforms above must be used, and the initial $n$ of the noun deleted. ${ }^{23}$ The 'valued' forms of the (a) sentences above would be:
(96b) na-m ekw
(98b) ni-k ikien
(l00b) nai-lia itel
(l02b) kape-taua imwa
(104b) kapa-n au
'your favourite (kind of) yam (for eating)'
'my favourite (kind of) coconut (for drinking)'
'their best planting-taro'
'our favourite house'
'his prized knife'

For those nouns which do not begin with $n$, such a distinction between ordinary and valued possession does not operate. Nor does the distinction operate with noun possessors, as far as I am aware.
4.2.4.3. Locative possession. A few nouns referring to locations are possessed with iimwa- (which takes the construct suffix -i when preceding a noun). This is not a particularly common construction-type in South-west Tanna; however, a few examples may be given:
(105) ielkwanu iimwa-k

LOC:viZZage POS:LOC-1SG
'To/at/in my village'
(106) tana iimwa-i Misak place POS:LOC-POS Misak
'Misak's place (in the sense of where he comes from, not necessarily where he is living)'

Example (105) shows the true locative sense of this marker, since the corresponding non-locative noun lukwanu can not be possessed with iimwa-, but only with kape-:
(107) lukwanu kapa-k
village POS-1SG
'My village'
(108) *lukwanu iimwa-k
village POS:LOC-1SG
There is some evidence that PPs like (105) may also be transformed in the same way that active PPs are transformed:
(105a) iimwa-k ielkwanu 'to/at/in my village'
However, this transformation is much less common with locative possession. Furthermore, it seems not to be possible when the possessor is a noun:
(106a) *? iimwa-i Misak tana
There appears to be no valued variant of locative possession.
4.2.4.4. Passive possession. It was noted in 3.2.2. above that a number of nouns which, on semantic grounds, might be expected to participate in direct possession do not in fact do so. Instead, these nouns (which generally refer to parts of wholes) are possessed in a different manner, which I will call passive possession. All these nouns take ie as the possessive-marker, though some can use kape- as well:
(109) n†mlakw ie napw
ashes POS fire
'The ashes of the fire'
(ll0) tipweua ila-n
stomach POS-3SG
'His/her/its stomach'
(lll) kwanikiatu ie kinu (or kwanikiatu kape kinu)
outrigger:boom POS canoe
'The canoe's outrigger-boom'
(ll2) kwanaikwanai ie nuhu-k
ankle POS leg-1SG
'My ankle'
The semantic relationship between passive possession and location, which is also marked by ie, should be remarked upon.
4.2.4.5. Possessive-markers: Summary. For convenience, the various possessive-markers introduced in this section, together with their allomorphs and functions, are listed below:

```
-\emptyset (-i, -i)
    direct possession
kape- (kapa-, kafa-) active possession (unmarked)
                                    passive possession (some cases)
na- (na-i) active possession (marked: to be eaten)
ni- active possession (marked: to be drunk)
nai- active possession (marked: to be planted)
iimwa- (iimwa-i) locative possession
ie (il-, ila-) passive possession
```


### 4.3. Clauses

Two basic types of clauses can be identified in South-west Tanna: clauses which have no VP, and clauses with a VP. The latter can be further divided into intransitive, transitive, and negative clauses.

### 4.3.1. Verbless clauses

A number of South-west Tanna clause-types requires no VP. These clauses are generally identificatory in nature, and have functions which could be variously labelled as equational, appositional, locational, and temporal.

It is possible to consider such clauses as topic-comment clauses, where the comment is verbless.

Most verbless clauses require the presence of two phrases. The commonest patterns are as follows:
(ll3)
verbless
clause $\rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}N P+N P \\ N P+L P \\ N P+P P \\ P P+N P \\ T P+N P\end{array}\right]$
(In each case, the NP constituent may be simple or may be expanded according to the various processes outlined in 4.2.)

Examples of these clause-types follow:
(ll4) in e / iemasuul kiliik $N P+N P$
he DEM:l / big:man DEM:IND
'He/this is a big-man'
(115) natou / ihie? NP + LP

Natou / where
'Where is Natou?'
(ll6) pukah mina aan / kafa-k NP + PP
pig PL DEM:3 / POS-1SG
'Those are my pigs', 'Those pigs are mine'
(117) kafa-n / nimwa PP + NP

POS-3SG / house
'(It's) his house'
(ll8) niłv / kamaam pik mina TP + NP
yesterday / fish very:much PL
'Yesterday there were lots of fish'
Other clause-types occur, but are rarer; thus LP may precede NP in clauses like (ll5) if stress is being laid on the location; however, these are minor variations. The major types of verbless clauses are as illustrated above.

Negative verbless clauses do not occur. To make any of the verbless clauses above negative, a negative verb (such as lkak 'not to be') must be used, and the clause thus becomes intransitive verbal.

### 4.3.2. Verbal clauses

Clauses which require the presence of a VP are subdivided into intransitive, transitive, and negative clauses for the purposes of discussion.
4.3.2.1. Intransitive clauses. An intransitive clause requires the presence of a VP, and also requires one NP preceding the VP: this may be referred to as the core of the clause, with the $N P$ acting as subject of the VP and conditioning the choice of the person-of-subject and number-of-subject prefixes to the verb. There may in addition be a periphery, which could
contain one or more other phrases - a LP, TP, DP, BP, IP, or CP, but no other NPs. These peripheral phrases generally follow the verb. There appear to be no special ordering relations among these peripheral phrases, although benefactive phrases (introduced by kape) often immediately follow the VP, if only so as to avoid a possible interpretation as a possessive phrase (some of which are also introduced by kape). A general rule for intransitive clauses would thus be:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { intransitive } \\ \text { clause }\end{array}\right] \operatorname{NP}+\mathrm{LP}+\left(-\left[\begin{array}{c}\mathrm{LP} \\ \mathrm{TP} \\ \mathrm{DP} \\ \mathrm{BP} \\ \mathrm{IP} \\ \mathrm{DP} \\ \mathrm{CP}\end{array}\right]\right)+\left(-\left[\begin{array}{c} \\ \mathrm{BP} \\ \mathrm{IP} \\ \mathrm{CP}\end{array}\right]\right)+(\ldots)$

The simplest examples of intransitive clauses are examples of cores only:
(120) piakatitt ai / l-Ø-am-eliuok girl DEM:PR / 3SG-CONC-CONT-walk
'That girl is walking'
(121) pukah mina / k-ø-a-s-ivgin
pig PL / 3NSG-CONC-CONT-PL-eat
'The pigs are eating'
(122) iou / i-emn-am-apil

I / lEX-PST-CONT-sleep
'I was sleeping', 'I was asleep'
(123) nau e / l-ø-esla
knife DEM:1 / 3SG-CONC-sharp
'This knife is sharp'
Peripheral clauses may be added to this core, although in practice not more than two or three ever occur in normal speech; further, it is unusual for peripheral clauses to occur if the head of the $V P$ is an adjective:
(124) piakatitt ai / l-ø-am-eliuok / apwa ie nipakil girl DEM:PR / 3SG-CONC-CONT-walk / LOC LOC sand
'That girl is walking on the sand/beach'
(125) nai kilalu ai / 1-ø-lkak ai / touei
tree two DEM:PR / 3SG-CONC-not:be DEM:PR / today
'Those two trees are not there today'
(126) lim-lia / l-n-inkiaal ta / kimi nal-n mil
father-3DU / 3SG-PF-speak already / DAT child-3SG DU
'The father has already spoken to his two children'
(127) Magau / l-imn-asim / niiv / kape nisin-n

Magau / 3SG-PST-work:in:garden / yesterday / BENEF mother-3SG
'Yesterday Magau worked in the garden for his mother'
(128) kwan ai / l-imn-hakta / ie nelaus
feZZow DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-go:up / INST rope
'The man climbed with a rope'
(129) pilavin kafa-k / l-ø-a-mha / tukw kuhuan ai
wife POS-1SG / 3SG-CONC-CONT-sick / CAUS shellfish DEM:PR
'My wife is ill because of those shellfish'

While TPs may occur anywhere in the periphery after the VP, it is just as common for them to occur at the beginning of the clause, before the subject NP. Thus (130) is a possible variant of (127):
(130) niiv / Magau / l-imn-asim / kape nisin-n yesterday / Magau / 3SG-PST-work:in:garden / BENEF mother-3SG 'Yesterday Magau worked in the garden for his mother'

If this fronted TP refers to a future time, the future prefix may be omitted from the verb:
(131) tukwienakwamil / nal-k / (tukw-)l-ø-ua
tomorrow / child-lSG / (FUT-) 3SG-CONC-come
'Tomorrow my son will come'
Other peripheral phrases may be fronted to this pre-subject position, but usually only in cases of strong emphasis. Thus (132) would be a possible variant of (124), but with emphasis on the LP:
(132) apwa ie n†pakil / piakatitit ai / l-ø-am-eliuok

LOC LOC sand /girl DEM:PR / 3SG-CONC-CONT-walk
'It is on the beach that the girl is walking'
When the semantics of the subject can be fully recovered from the person-of-subject and number-of-subject prefixes to the verb, the subject NP may be omitted. In practice, this means that (i) in discourse, subjects are often deleted; and (ii) when the subject is a pronoun, it is usually deleted, and is generally retained only in cases of emphasis. Contrast, for example, (133) with (134):
(133) n-ak-a-s-ivgin

2-CONC-CONT-PL-eat
'You are eating'
(134) kimia / n-ak-a-s-ivgin
you:PL / 2-CONC-CONT-PL-eat
'YOU are eating'
Such pronoun subject deletion is extremely common when the subject pronoun is first or second person. When it is third person, there is, naturally, greater potential for ambiguity, and context will determine whether the subject pronoun can be deleted without obscuring the semantics of the clause.
4.3.2.2. Transitive clauses. Transitive clauses in South-west Tanna are similar in structure to intransitive clauses except that the core requires two NPs: a subject NP preceding the VP, and an object NP following the VP. The VP in a transitive clause may not have an adjective as its head. Peripheral phrases almost always follow the object NP.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { transitive } \\ \text { clause }\end{array} \rightarrow N P+V P+N P+\left(\begin{array}{c}L P \\ T P \\ D P \\ B P \\ I P \\ C P\end{array}\right\}\right)+\left(\left\{\begin{array}{c}L P \\ T P \\ D P \\ B P \\ I P \\ C P\end{array}\right]\right)+(\ldots)$

As with intransitive clauses, subject pronouns may be deleted. TPs are often fronted, other peripheral phrases are occasionally fronted.

Again, the simplest examples of transitive clauses are of cores only: ${ }^{24}$
(136) kuli aan / l-ø-am-aan / nauga tiksin dog DEM:3 / 3SG-CONC-CONT-eat / meat some 'That dog is eating some meat'
(137) níamha / tukw-l-ø-as / iou
anger / FUT-3SG-CONC-bite / me
'I will get angry'
(138) pukaliakatitt e / l-ø-am-gin-kin / kilhiavin
boy DEM:1 / 3SG-CONC-CONT-fear-TRANS/shark 'This boy is afraid of sharks'

These cores may be expanded by the addition of peripheral phrases. (Note also the omission of pronoun subject NPs in examples (140) and (141).)
(139) kwan ai / l-imn-ilai / nai mina / kafa-k
fellow DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-cut / tree PL / BENEF-ISG
'That man cut down the trees for me'
(140) tukwnaho / n-ak-ha-lithu / kopwiel e / ie iapiuan day:after:tomorrow / 2-CONC-PL-put / stone DEM:l / LOC river 'The day after tomorrow you will put this stone in the river'
(14l) l-n-vha-pwa ta / pukah kilalu / kimi amlu / tukw lim-mlu 3SG-PF-give-DIR:l already / pig two / DAT us:EX:DU/CAUS father-lEX:DU 'He gave the two of us two pigs because of our father (e.g. in compensation for his death, or as a repayment for something he did)'
(142) pukaliakatitt / l-imn-huopnii / kuli / ie nau boy / 3SG-PST-kill / dog / INST knife 'A boy killed a/the dog with a knife'

A third person singular object pronoun is normally deleted. Its inclusion denotes emphasis; contrast (143) and (144):
(143) piakatitt ai / l-imn-am-kwasig-kin
girl DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-CONT-foZZow-TRANS
'The girl was following him'
(144)
piakatitit ai / l-imn-am-kwasig-kin / in
girl DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-CONT-follow-TRANS / him
'It was him that the girl was following'
Other pronoun objects, however, may not normally be deleted:
piakatitit ai / l-imn-am-kwasig-kin / aliu
girl DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-CONT-foZZow-TRANS / them:DU:OBJ
'The girl was following the two of them'
Out of context, example (143) can only refer to a singular third person pronoun object. In context, it is possible that example (143) could be used as an alternative to (145), but to avoid any possible ambiguity, (145) would be the preferred structure.

There are a few contexts in which the object can be fronted to sentenceinitial position. This occurs quite often when the verb is impersonal (see 3.l.l.8. above), and may also occur when strong emphasis is being placed on the object. Example (146) below shows a fronted object with an impersonal verb, while (147) shows an emphatic fronted object:
(146) nipwan kafa-k / k-uan-ilai
banana POS-1SG / 3NSG-PF-cut
'My bananas have been cut down'
(147) kuli kafa-m / iou / t-i-ak-uh
dog pos-2SG / I / FUT-lEX-CONC-kiZZ
'That dog of yours I'm going to kizl'
4.3.2.3. Negative clauses. A negative clause contains the verb apwah, to which all verbal affixes are attached, followed by the nominalised form of the 'content-verb' which is to be negatived; the nominalisation takes the form of the discontinuous affix $n$-...-ien. A negative intransitive clause thus contains a NP (the nominalised verb) following the VP (apwah), and may also contain a number of peripheral phrases:
(148) negative
intransitive $\rightarrow \mathrm{NP}+$ negative $+\mathrm{NOM}-\mathrm{V}+\ldots$ clause

The negative forms of examples (121), (123), (127), and (131) above are given below:
(149) pukah mina / k-Ø-a-s-apwah / n-ivgin-ien pig PL / 3NSG-CONC-CONT-PL-not / NOM-eat-NOM 'The pigs are not eating'
(150) nau e / l-ø-apwah / n-esla-ien
knife DEM:1 / 3SG-CONC-not / NOM-sharp-NOM
'This knife is not sharp'
(151) magau / l-imn-apwah / n-asim-ien / niłv / kape nisin-n Magau / 3SG-PST-not / NOM-work:in:garden-NOM / yesterday / BENEF mother-3SG 'Yesterday Magau did not work in the garden for his mother'
(152) tukwienakwami l nal-k / (tukw-)l- $\emptyset$-apwah / n-ua-ien tomorrow / child-lSG / (FUT-) 3SG-CONC-not / NOM-come-NOM
'My son won't come tomorrow'
Similarly, a negative transitive clause has the nominalised verb
following the negative VP, with the object NP following this:
(153) negative
transitive $\rightarrow N P+\underset{V P}{\text { negative }}+N O M-V+N P+\ldots$
clause
The negative forms of (136), (137), (139), and (143) above are given below:
(154) kuli aan / l- $\varnothing$-am-apwah / n-aan-ien / nauga tiksin dog DEM: 3 / 3SG-CONC-CONT-not / NOM-eat-NOM / meat some
'That dog is not eating any meat'
(155) níamha / tukw-l-Ø-apwah / n-as-ien / iou anger / FUT-3SG-CONC-not / NOM-bite-NOM / me 'I will not get angry'
(156) kwan ai / l-imn-apwah / n-ilai-aan / nai mina / kafa-k fellow DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-not / NOM-cut-NOM / tree PL / BENEF-1SG
'That man did not cut down the trees for me'
(157) piakatijt ai / l-imn-am-apwah / n-kwasig-kin-ien girl DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-CONT-not / NOM-follow-TRANS-NOM 'The girl was not following him'

Note in (157) that the transitive suffix remains attached to the root of the nominalised verb; the same is true of other suffixes (e.g. directionals), though it is not true of the verbal prefixes:
(158) tukw-l-ø-apwah / n-vha-pwa-ien / nitukw / kimi iou FUT-3SG-CONC-not / NOM-give-DIR:l-NOM / sugarcane / DAT me 'He will not give me the sugarcane'

### 4.4. Sentences

South-west Tanna sentences may be subdivided into simple sentences, containing one clause, and complex sentences, containing more than one clause. Each of these types has a number of subtypes.

### 4.4.1. Simple sentences

Simple sentences contain one major clause, although a phrase within this clause may itself contain an embedded clause, as discussed in 4.2.2. above. In this section we will briefly examine declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences.
4.4.1.1. Declarative sentences. A South-west Tanna declarative sentence contains a verbless, intransitive, transitive, or negative clause and does not contain any of the distinguishing features of interrogative or imperative sentences, as discussed below. Nearly all the examples given in 4.3. above were examples of declarative sentences, and it seems unnecessary to further exemplify this sentence-type here.

Declarative sentences are also characterised by a particular intonationpattern. Generally, the end of a declarative sentence shows slowly falling intonation, with a slight rise on the last stressed syllable in the sentence; thus:
(159) kwan ai / 1-imn-uh / pukah / ielkwanu
feZZow DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-kill / pig / LOC:village
'That man killed a pig in the village'
4.4.1.2. Interrogative sentences. Interrogative sentences are of three basic types. First, the tag ua 'or', when added to the end of a declarative sentence, makes the sentence interrogative: ${ }^{25}$
(160) kwan ai / l-imn-uh / pukah / ielkwanu / ua?
fellow DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-kill / pig / LOC:village / or
'Did that man kill a pig in the village?'
(161) n-ak-am-aan / mana / ua?

2-CONC-CONT-eat / chicken / or
'Are you eating chicken?'
(162) tukw-l-Ø-ua / ua?

FUT-3SG-CONC-come / or
'Will he come?'

Questions of this type show rising intonation at the end of the sentence, with a slight wavering fall on the ua:
(160a) kwan ai / l-imn-uh / pukah / ielkwanu / ua
The second type of question uses one of the interrogative verbal affixes: either the interrogative prefix hau- or the interrogative directional suffix -hie. Since these were discussed in some detail in section 3.1.2. above, we will give just one example of each:
(163) kwan ai / l-imn-hau-uh / pukah / ielkwanu?
feZZow DEM:PR / 3SG-PST-WH-kill / pig / LOC:village
'How/why did that man kill a pig in the village?'
(164) 1 im-m / l-ø-am-asokw-hie?
father-2SG / 3SG-CONC-CONT-go:to-WH
'Where is your father going?'
Intonation-patterns for this type of question are the same as for statements:
(163a) kwan ai / l-imn-hau-uh / pukah / ielkwanu
The third type of question uses a special interrogative word in one of the non-verbal phrases in the sentence. The interrogative words which can be so used are:
pa (plural nipa) 'who?, whom?'
naha 'what?'
naghin 'when? (past)'
tukwnaghin 'when? (future)'
ihie
'where?'
favin 'which?, where?' (modifier)
Some examples follow:
(165) pa / l-imn-uh / pukah / ielkwanu?
who / 3SG-PST-kill / pig / LOC:village
'Who killed a pig in the village?'
(166) n-imn-aam / pa?

2-PST-see / who
'Whom did you see?'
(167) n-imn-uh / pukah kape ni-pa?

2-PST-kill / pig POS PL-who
'Whose pigs did you kill?'
(168) nisin-m / l-ø-am-elhakin / naha? mother-2SG / 3SG-CONC-CONT-Zook:for / what
'What is your mother looking for?'
(169) I-Ø-a-mha / tukw naha?

3SG-CONC-CONT-sick / CAUS what
'Why is he sick?'
(170) naghin / l-imn-ua?
when:past / 3SG-PST-come
'When did he come?'
(171) tukwnaghin / tukw-l- $\varnothing$-ua?
when:future / FUT-3SG-CONC-come
'When will he come?'
(172) pukah mina / ihie?
pig PL / where
'Where are the pigs?'
(l73) n-ak-am-ala / ikin favin?
2-CONC-CONT-Zive / place which
'Where do you live?'
The intonation-patterns in sentences such as these are the same as for declarative sentences, except that the pitch rises rather higher on the interrogative word:
(165a) pa / l-imn-uh / pukah / ielkwanu
(167a)

4.4.1.3. Imperative sentences. Imperative sentences are of two types, regular and polite. Regular imperative sentences have the same structure as declarative sentences, except that the subject NP is usually omitted; it may, however, be present as a kind of vocative initiator of the sentence, but in such cases it is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by a pause:
(174)
s-akwita!
PL-sit
'Sit down (all of you)!'
(175) aan / n-ivgin-ien na-m!
eat / NOM-eat-NOM POS:eat-2SG
'Eat your food!'
(176) kimia, s-akwita!
you:PL, PL-sit
'All of you, sit down!'
(177) tion, aan / n-ivgin-ien na-m! John, eat / NOM-eat-NOM POS:eat-2SG
'John, eat your food!'
Intonation-patterns for such imperative sentences are similar to those in declarative clauses, in that they end in a rise-fall; however, the general fall over the whole sentence is much greater than that in a declarative sentence:
(175a) aan / n-ivgin-ien na-m
Polite imperatives use the future tense, with or without subject NP, and the verbal modifier lu 'trying: to':
(178) t-Ø-ak-s-akwita lu! FUT-2-CONC-PL-sit trying: to
'Would you all mind sitting down?'
(179) tion, $t-\emptyset-a k-a a n$ lu / n-ivgin-ien na-m! John, FUT-2-CONC-eat trying:to / NOM-eat-NOM POS:eat-2SG 'John, please eat your food!'

The intonation pattern for such sentences is similar to that of regular imperatives, although the sharpness of the fall is perhaps not so great.

### 4.4.2. Complex sentences

Complex sentences consist of at least two clauses, which are either independently conjoined or are in a relation of dependence one upon the other. A number of types of complex sentences will be discussed below.
4.4.2.1. Connected or sequential action. When two clauses represent connected actions, they may be joined by the conjunction kini 'and':
(180)
lim-k / l-imn-ua / kini / i-em-la-vin / ie hospitil father-1SG / 3SG-PST-come / and / lEX-PST-DU-go / LOC hospital 'My father came and the two of us went to the hospital'

If the actions are sequential and the speaker wishes to indicate this fact, then the tense/aspect prefix epi- (see 3.1.l.5.) must be used in the verb of the second clause:
(181) lim-k / l-imn-ua / kini / i-epi-la-vin / ie hospitil
father-1SG / 3SG-PST-come / and / lEX-SQ-DU-go / LOC hospital
'My father came and then the two of us went to the hospital',
'Once my father had come, the two of us went to the hospital'
In narrative discourse, $k \neq n i$ is frequently followed by the demonstrative ai DEM:PR or by the verbal modifier ima 'just' + ai, with the sense 'and next, and then'. (Note that ima has an allomorph imi before ai.) Numerous examples of these combinations can be found in the two texts in the next section, especially 5.2.

Where the subject of the second verb in a connected or sequential action sentence is either the same as the subject of the first verb or else meets the other requirements laid down in section 3.1.1.4. above, the person-of-subject prefix m- AND will occur on the second (and subsequent) verbs, and in these cases $k+n i$ may be omitted:
(182) l-imn-uh / mana /m-vaan / m-aan / kini / m-apil 3SG-PST-kill / chicken / AND-roast / AND-eat/ and / AND-sleep 'He killed the chicken, roasted and ate it, and then went to sleep'
4.4.2.2. Adversative sentences. In an adversative sentence, the second clause is introduced by melig 'but'. The verb of the second clause may take the prefix m-AND under the same conditions as clauses introduced by kini 'and':
(183) i-emn-ua / nitv / melig / n-ak-lkak lEX-PST-come / yesterday / but / 2-conc-not:be
'I came yesterday but you weren't here'
(184) l-imn-elhakin / kuli kapa-n / melig / m-am-apwah / n-aam-ien 3SG-PST-Zook:for / dog POS-3SG / but / AND-CONT-not / NOM-see-NOM 'He looked for his dog but he couldn't find it'
4.4.2.3. Alternative sentences. In an alternative sentence, the clauses are joined by ua 'or'; again, $m$ - AND may be used in the second clause under the conditions discussed above:
(185) l-imn-avin / ie nipe / ua / m-imn-am-ol / ielkwanu?

3SG-PST-go / LOC dance / or / AND-PST-CONT-do / LOC:village
'Did he go to the dance or stay at home?'
4.4.2.4. Reason sentences. In a reason sentence, the second clause is introduced by meliginai 'because': ${ }^{26}$
(186) l-imn-avin / Imlau / meliginai / níamha / l-ø-am-as / nisin-n mine lim-n 3SG-PST-go / Imlau / because / anger / 3SG-CONC-CONT-bite / mother-3SG and father-3SG
'He went to Imlau because his mother and father are angry'
4.4.2.5. Quotative sentences. Quotative sentences contain a verb of speaking in the first clause and the quotation in the final clause. They often, in addition, contain the quotative verb irna before the quotation:
(187) l-im-ni / kimi iou / m-ima / 't-ø-ak-lelig lu' 3SG-PST-say / DAT me / AND-quote / FUT-2-CONC-go:back trying:to 'He said to me, "Would you please go back?"'
4.4.2.6. Purpose sentences. Purpose sentences contain a clause introduced by the conjunction mima 'that':
(188) t-i-ak-vin / ie tukwas / mima / iou / t-i-ak-aam FUT-lEX-CONC-go / LOC mountain / that / I / FUT-1EX-CONC-see 'I will go to the mountain so that I can see for myself'
4.4.2.7. Sentential complements. Complements are also introduced by mima 'that': ${ }^{27}$
(189) i-ak-hetelakin / mima / tukw-l-ø-apwah / n-ua-ien lEX-CONC-know / that / FUT-3SG-CONC-not / NOM-come-NOM 'I know that he won't come'
(190) i-ak-olkeikei / iik / mima / t-øょak-avhiu / kafa-k / nimwa lex-CONC-want / you / that / FUT-2-CONC-build / BENEF-1SG / house 'I want you to build me a house'
4.4.2.8. Conditional sentences. When the condition relates to the future, the conditional clause is introduced by tukwmah 'if'; the main clause may be preceded by toko 'then':
(191) tukwmah / t-i-ak-au / tukwienakwamil / toko / t-ø-ak-aam / iou if / FUT-lEX-CONC-come / tomorrow / then / FUT-2-CONc-see / me 'If I come tomorrow, (then) you will see me'
(192) tukwmah / nehen / l-ø-lkak / t-i-ak-apwah / n-ala-ien / ielkwanu if / rain / 3SG-CONC-not:be / FUT-lEX-CONC-not / NOM-stay-NOM / LOC:village 'If it doesn't rain, I won't stay at home'
Past (and therefore contrary-to-fact) conditions have the same structure, except that the conditional clause is introduced by kipimah 'if':
(193) kipimah / nehen / l-epi-p / niłv / toko / iou / iimwa if / rain / 3SG-SQ-rain / yesterday / then / I / LOC:house 'If it had rained yesterday, then I would have stayed at home'
(194) kipimah / nehen / l-epi-apwah / n-p-ien / niłv / toko / i-epi-vin / ie nipe if / rain / 3SG-SQ-not / NOM-rain-NOM / yesterday / then / lex-sQ-go / Loc dance
'If it hadn't rained yesterday, then I would have gone to the dance'

## 5. TEXTS

The two stories below were told to me by Tom Hiua, of Iounhanin village. Each text is given morpheme-by-morpheme in South-west Tanna (Nivhaal dialect), with corresponding morpheme-by-morpheme Enylish glosses; a slash in the Southwest Tanna text representens a clause boundary. Notes on the text and a free English translation follow.

### 5.1. Nivaru




| m-s-ivkii | kapa-m-kapwa / nauniin ai |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| AND-PL-defecate:on | POS-2SG-head | end |

## Free Translation

Nivaru and Nula - Nivaru was the wife and Nula the husband - were sitting in the bush in the east at the time when the volcano was walking around, when it came and sat down in the north at Lamwinu, and then left there and went south and then east - when all the stones ran away, some to the north, some to the south, and some to Whitesands. Well, Nivaru started to say to Nula, "Let's leave for the volcano might come and cover us up", for she was a woman and very frightened. So they got up and she said to her husband, "Come, you go first". But her husband said to her, "Come, you go first". And so she ran in front, and the two of them ran and ran and ran and when she looked back she saw that her husband was walking slowly, so she said to him, "Come, go in front", but he said, "You go first; the two of us are going to the same place". The two of them ran from the east and went on and stopped beside the sea; and she looked back and saw her husband way behind, following very slowly; and she spoke crossly to him, "Walk here so the two of us are together". But he said, "Just go in in front; the two of us will go as we are". They went to the edge of the sea, and she looked back and saw him behind and said, "You go and run in front so that the two of us are together". But the wife ran in front and went into the sea and looked back and saw her husband beginning to sit down on the shore, and she said, "Are you coming?". But he said, "Just you stay there and let me stay here". But she said, "You just stay there and people will come on top of you and shit on your head". And that's the end.

## Notes

$3 \quad n \dot{p}+\mathrm{g}$ iahul $\emptyset$-n-am-eliuok: The next text gives some background on when the volcano was walking around.

5 Note the use of -hakta DIR:UP to mean 'south'.
8 ikuplaah: Whitesands is on the central east coast of Tanna.
9 na-tukw-l-ni-pin shows the one occasion in which the intentional prefix na- was freely elicited.
11 in: The pronoun subject used for emphasis.
12 i-ua: I was unable to find the meaning or function of $i$ - (which occurs, always with this verb, in a few other places in the text).
21 hualu 'old man' is often used, in a respectful sense, for 'husband'.
22 akwlig is one of a few verbs which take datives with ie.
23 kwiskwis: Note the relationship with -kwis ASSOC (and cf. also mukwis in 26).
31, Nivaru was turned into stone, and can still be seen offshore at Blacksand
32 Beach, south of Imlau. Nula, however, was also turned into stone, but since he remained onshore, people could walk around in the bush and defecate on top of him.

### 5.2. Mwig

1 k-am-olpe lakwukak mine lounhanin / kini 3NSG-CONT-dance Iakwukak and Iounhanin and




| ikin apwa iimwa-n | ikin / kini imi ai | l-eivi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| place LOC POS:LOC-3SG place | and just DEM:PR 3SG-puZZ:out |  |

napwil / kini m-lh-aulu-pin / kini l-ala / m-eivi
wall and AND-TR-enter-DIR:3 and 3SG-stay AND-pull:out

| mun | kiliik $/$ kini | ai | k-lh-aulu-pin | kini ai |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| again | DEM:IND | and | DEM:PR | 3NSG-TR-enter-DIR:3 | and |
| DEM:PR |  |  |  |  |  |


| l-eivi | iame | $n$-faam-ien | $/ k i n i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG-pulZ:out ai | the:one | NOM-be:alZ-NOM | and |


| k-lh-aulu-pin | / kini imi ai | piamil |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3NSG-TR-enter-DIR:3 | and just DEM:PR woman:DU |  |

k-n-u-okwiaai / kini l-hel napw / k-u-olkapkin / 3NSG-INCH-DU-cold and 3SG-blow fire 3NSG-DU-do:like:that

| k-u-akwita $/$ m-u-olkapkin |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3NSG-DU-sit | AND-DU-do:like:that |
| m-la-vin | AND-DU-go |
| m-la-vin |  |
| AND-DU-go |  |

kini ai m-n-a-la-vikouiam / kini imi ai
and DEM:PR AND-INCH-CONT-DU-sleepwalk and just DEM:PR

| l-hakta $/$ m-ikel ie luau / kini m-ilu-kilavin |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG-go:up | AND-hang LOC ridgepole and AND-hang-flying:fox |




## Free Translation

There was a dance at Iakwukak and Iounhanin, and Mwig (the earthquake) came to it, and they all danced. And then Mwig went away to the east. But two women were following him, and they followed him but he stopped them and wouldn't let them follow him. So they stopped and he went east and left Iounhanin. And they followed him and he stopped them, but they didn't want to be stopped, because they liked him. So the three of them went off to the east, and he made it rain and it rained on them. They went on and on and eventually arrived at his place. And he pulled out the wall and they went in. And he stayed and then pulled out more of the wall and they went in. And he pulled out all the wall and they went in. Then the two women began to feel cold, so he blew into the fire, and they sat there like that, on
and on until they began to sleepwalk. So he climbed up and hung from the ridgepole - hung like a flying-fox. And his eyes fell out, and his tongue also, and his spittle rained down. And the two women who were sleeping felt his spittle raining down and woke up and tried to see what was happening. He was hanging there and his tongue and his eyes had fallen out. So the two of them got up and ran to the corner of the wall. But he let go and jumped down and followed them. Then he picked up one and crushed her and ate her, but he did not want the intestines, so they stayed there. And then he picked up the other one and held her and crushed her and ate her, but he did not want the intestines so they stayed there. Then he broke some sugarcane and cleaned out his mouth with it. And they call that place 'Mwig's mouth-cleaning', and they plant things there still today. And that's the end.

## Notes

This story is about the time when the volcano and the earthquake were wandering Tanna trying to find somewhere to settle down.

3 piamil: Probably a contraction of pian mil (women DU).
14 iame seems to be cognate with relative-clause introducers in other Tanna languages, but does not seem to be functioning in the same way here.

19 m-†lu-kilavin: Note one of the very few verbs compounded of verb + noun; luau: a Lenakel form.
27 (kona ie napwil) is an intrusion of a Bislama word kona; the South-west Tanna word nikis was remembered almost immediately afterwards. Note, however, that the Bislama loan adapts to the grammatical system - in this case, passive possession.
31, The significance of the intestines remaining behind is not apparent 33 to me.

## 6. VOCABULARY

### 6.1. South-west Tanna vocabulary

This section contains a list of almost eight hundred South-west Tanna lexical and grammatical morphemes. The grammatical category of each morpheme is given immediately after the morpheme itself: $V=$ verb, $A=$ adjective, $\mathrm{N}=$ noun, $\mathrm{M}=$ modifier. Where data are insufficient to decide whether a given morpheme is a verb or an adjective, the abbreviation $V / A$ has been used. Morphemes without such a category indicator will generally be grammatical affixes of some kind.

Alphabetisation follows the English system; kw follows $k$, $\pi w$ follows $m$, pw follows $p$, and + follows $i$. Subscript numerals identify homophonous but semantically unrelated forms (e.g. aan ${ }_{1}$ 'to eat', aan 2 'that (yonder)'). Different but related meanings of the same form are indicated by numerals (e.g. aiu '1. to flow; 2. to run').

Other abbreviations are as follows:
adj. adjective
cf. cross-reference to other items
exc. exclusive
inc. inclusive
intr. intransitive
k.o. kind of

LwB loan from Bislama
LwL loan from Lenakel
n. noun
obj. object
PRO marks possessive suffix
s.o. someone
sth. something
tr. transitive
var. variant of, allomorph of
voc. vocative
'...' form given thus can not be further specified
akn- 1. inchoative aspect prefix
2. var. of akuan- perfective aspect prefix
akua-, akuan- perfective aspect prefix
akw $v$ to be blind; niml-n l-akw he is blind
akwapwa V to be thirsty
akwas A oid (of things)
akwasig $M$ behind
akwatelukin V to stay and hide
akweuun V/A to be grey, of hair
akwi V to wash s.o., to bathe s.o.
akwiliin A full, of a thing
akwita V to sit
akwitakwita V/A to be round
akwlig V to speak harshly or crossly to
akwlha A yellow
al V l. to swim
2. to wash oneself (intr.)
ala $v$ to Zive, to dweZz
alau $N$ us (dual inc. obj.)
alel $V$ to stand (intr.)
alha V to be awake
alia N them (plural obj.)
aliepomh A Zong
alisil N them (trial obj.)
aliu $N$ them (dual obj.)
aliuan V/A to be warm
aliplaai $v$ to split
alkipin $v$ to push
alkititt A smaZZ
alukin ${ }_{1} v$ to throw
alukin $2 v$ to forget
am- continuative aspect prefix
amako $v$ to dance (of women only)
amasil N us (trial exc. obj.)
amaua $N$ us (plural exc. obj.)
amha V/A to be thick
ami $v$ to urinate
amia $N$ you (plural obj.)
amialil $v$ to urinate
amilu $N$ you (dual obj.)
amisil N you (trial obj.)
amililha $v$ to dream
amiv $v$ to heal
amkalivv $v$ to be hungry
amkimik $A$ dirty
amlimla A blue, green
amlu $N$ us (dual exc. obj.)
amnhaakw V to sweat
amnum V to drown, to sink (intr.)
amwa V to want, to intend
amwha V to suck
ankap $M$ very, very much
apgapig $M$ comonplace, of no importance
apien V to smell (intr.), to stink;
apien vha fragrant
apig A black
apilv to sleep
apomh A Zoud
aptig A wet
apual V to boil (intr.), to be boiling
apus $v$ to be tired, exhausted
apwa ${ }_{1} v$ to be bald
apwa $_{2} \mathrm{~V}$ to be cooked
apwa $_{3}$ location phrase introducer
apwah ${ }_{1} V$ negative verb, not
apwah $_{2} v$ to refuse, not to want
apwaihasigivin $v$ to taste
apwan $_{1}$ V/A to be hot
apwan $_{2}$ A hard (= not soft)
apwanapwan A hard (= not soft) (cf. apwan ${ }_{2}$ )
apwupw $v$ to clean out the mouth or clean one's teeth after eating
as $v$ to bite; to burn (tr., of a fire)
asanin A strong
asiis A full (of a person)
(cf. esiis)
asiisasiis A fat (adj.) (cf. asiis)
asim $v$ to garden, to work in the garden
asigpin $V$ to circumcise
asik $v$ to hit, to shoot, to pound
asiktaa V to open
asitilakin $v$ to clench the teeth
asokw- V to go in a specified direction (must take a directional suffix)
atasil $V$ us (trial inc. obj.)
ataua $V$ us (plural inc. obj.)
atite V to go down, to descend
atiuun $V$ to show
atimw $v$ to pinch
atmunmún $V$ to murmur, to mumble
-atukw 1. reciprocal suffix
2. reflexive suffix
aulupin $v$ to go in, to enter
avhekin $v$ to count, to read

```
avhiu v to build
avhlekin v to turn sth. over
aviligg v/A thin
avin v to go
avkikín v to drag
avlig v to wrap, to wrap up
```


## E

```
e M this (near speaker); ikin e here
```

eai $v$ l. to float, to drift
2. to swim (in a particular direction)
eaihakta $V$ to float (cf. eai + -hakta)
eapin $v$ to hunt
eau $V$ to cry, to weep
ehiag $v$ to breathe
ehiagehiag $V$ to pant (cf. ehiag)
ehiu A sour
ehua A big, wide, fat
eikwa $V$ to Zie, to tell lies
eivi v to pull sth. out or aside
elag $n$ afly
eleita $v$ to be better, best; l-vha ankap m-eleita she is very

```
```

eai v l. to float, to drift

```
eai v l. to float, to drift
            2. to swim (in a particular
            2. to swim (in a particular
        direction)
        direction)
eaihakta v to float (cf. eai +
eaihakta v to float (cf. eai +
    -hakta)
    -hakta)
eapin v to hunt
eapin v to hunt
eau V to cry, to weep
eau V to cry, to weep
ehiag v to breathe
ehiag v to breathe
ehiagehiag V to pant (cf. ehiag)
ehiagehiag V to pant (cf. ehiag)
ehiu A sour
ehiu A sour
ehua A big, wide, fat
ehua A big, wide, fat
eikwa v to lie, to tell lies
eikwa v to lie, to tell lies
eivi v to pull sth. out or aside
eivi v to pull sth. out or aside
elag N a fly
elag N a fly
eleita v to be better, best; l-vha
eleita v to be better, best; l-vha
    ankap m-eleita she is very
    beautiful
elfa v to be lazy
elgaavh v to spit
elhakin v to look for
elhelha V to look back
elieti v to arrive, to reach
eliuok v to walk
elkwaig v to hide (intr.), to be
    hidden
elpwu v to snap, to break by
    snapping
eluelua V/A to be light (= not heavy)
em-, emn- var. of imn- past tense
    prefix
en M this, that (near addressee)
avhiu \(v\) to build
avhlekin \(V\) to turn sth. over
avilig v/A thin
avin \(v\) to go
avkikín \(v\) to drag
avlig \(v\) to wrap, to wrap up beautiful
elfa \(v\) to be lazy
elgaavh \(v\) to spit
elhakin V to look for
elhelha \(V\) to look back
elieti \(v\) to arrive, to reach
eliuok \(v\) to walk
elkwaig \(v\) to hide (intr.), to be hidden
elpwu \(V\) to snap, to break by snapping
eluelua V/A to be light (= not heavy)
em-, emn- var. of imn- past tense prefix
en \(M\) this, that (near addressee)
```

enmwan $v$ to fall (of dew)
enoeno V/A to be mad, crazy
epi- sequential aspect prefix
es $v$ to copulate, to have sexual intercourse
esiis $v$ to swell up, to be thick
esla A sharp
etagil $V$ to cough
etamwheekw $N$ place; etamwheekw kilikiana the same place
etapig $V$ to shut, to close
etkwatukw A straight, right (= correct)
etout $v$ to tie or wear a lavalava
euaiu $V$ to go down, to descend
eukweukw $V$ to blow strongly (of the wind)

## F

faam $V$ to be all; n-faam-ien everything
fakta N above
favin M which?; ikin favin where?
-fiu var. of -pihiu northwards

G
gin $V$ to fear, to be afraid
ha A bad
ha- $V$ plural prefix
hai $V$ to stab; níamha l-am-hai
$X X$ is angry
haimilen V to hurry
haio $V$ to ask
hakta $v$ to go up, to ascend
-hakta upwards, southwards
hau - interrogative prefix
-hau $N$ penis (ni-pro-hau)
hauan A white
hekimteel V to get up (as from sleeping)
hekin V/A sweet
hel $v$ to blow sth.; hel naiu to blow a conch
hen V to call, to name
hetelakin V to know (sth. or s.o.)
helapu $v$ to blow a fire (cf. hel)
hialma $M$ next
-hie where?
hospitil N hospital (LwB)
hualu ${ }_{1} \mathrm{~N}$ old man, husband
hualu ${ }_{2}$ A old (of persons)
huau A red
hueihuaa $M$ fast, quick(Zy)
huopnii $v$ to kill

I
$\mathrm{i}_{1}$ first person exclusive prefix
$\mathrm{i}_{2}$ agentive prefix
-i construct possessive suffix
iahukw N rat
iahul $N$ volcano
iaklha N a thief (cf. $\mathrm{i}_{2}$, aklhakin)
iakw N turtle
ialmih M different
iame N the one (who) (plural nime)
iapiuan $N$ river
ie case-marker, marking

1. location phrases
2. time phrases
3. passive possession
4. instrumental phrases
ie- var. of $\mathrm{i}_{2}$ agentive prefix
-iehou downwards northwards
iel V to come out
-iel N father's sister's son (male speaking) (kapa-PRO-iel)
ielan N daytime, day as opposed to night
ielki- N to the place of; ielki nasimien to the garden
ielkwaa- N middle
ielkwan N in the bush
ielkwanu N at, to, or in the village
ielkweha N midday
ielmaan N man ( = male), husband
ielmama $N$ person
ielmoou N saltwater eel
iemasuul N big man, chief
iemwa N mother! (voc.)
ienaiu N evening
Ienitim n Aneityum (or Anatom) (island)
ienpig N night
ienpigenpig $N$ morning (cf. ienpig)
ienpigilu $N$ midnight (cf. ienpig)
iesaietik $N$ scorpion
ietana $N$ below
ietapeka N shallow water, the shallows
ihi $N$ squid, octopus
ihie $N$ where?
iielia $N$ spider
iik $N$ you (singular)
i imwa N at home, homewards
iimwa-, iimwai possessive-marker (location)
iimwalim $n$ dance-ground, kavadrinking area (Bislama nakamal)
ikin N place, location; ikin e here; ikin aan there; ikin favin where?
ikuplaah N the Whitesands (eastern) side of Tanna (cf. -plaah)
il-, ila var. of ie case-marker
ilaptelakin $N$ to hold
ilia $N$ they (plural)
ilisil $N$ they (trial)
iliu N they (dual)
in N he, she, it, him, her
iohu $v$ to jump down
iou N I, me
ipaka N near, nearby, close (to)
ipwai $N$ underworld; nal ipwai dream
isokw N far
iva $v$ to fly, to jump

$$
I
$$

-i construct possessive suffix
thuai V to divide, to separate
ikav $v$ to twist, to bend
ikel $V$ to hang (intr.)
†lai $v$ to cut
ilha v 1. to wake up (cf. alha)
2. to be born
ilig $v$ to perceive: thus to hear, to feel, to smell (sth.);
i-ak-am-iliqg l-apien $I$ can smell it
ilil v to braid
ilip v to stand sth. upright
ilipw v to follow
ilkis $v$ to tie
ilkwilkin $v$ to sink or drown sth.
ilu, $v$ to hang (intr.); ilu-kilavin to hang like a flying-fox
$+1 u_{2}$ V/A to be deaf
ilukwiliel $v$ to fall like raindrops
+m- var. of imn- past tense prefix
†ma $V$ quotative verb, to say (主ollowed by a quotation)
ima ${ }_{2}$ M only, just
imha V to be sore, to be in pain
imhilv to be sore (of the body)
imi var. of ima ${ }_{2}$ only, just
tmig $v$ to pant, to be short of breath
+mil V to lie down

```
imitit v/A to be rotten
imla V/A to be cold
+mn- past tense prefix
inkiaal v to speak
ipiknap V to be dark
ipsaah V/A many
ipwia A smooth
irouapig V to Zightning (LwL)
isianisian V to pound
ispiil V to clean, to wipe;
    i-ak-am-ispiil iou I am wiping
    myself, I am drying myself
ita V to leave, to let go
itu v to put, to put down
ivgin v to feed, to eat (intr.)
ivit v to wash sth.
ivkaa V to defecate
ivkasivkkas V to itch, to be itchy
ivkii v to defecate on
ivkil v to play
ivsau v to tell a story
ivsik v/A to be dry; ivsik tukw X
    to look after X after his
    circumcision
ivsikivsijk A hard (= not soft)
    (cf. ivsik)
ivtelakin V to be narrow
ivtetelakin V to squeeze (cf.
        ivtelakin)
```

```
\(\mathrm{k}^{-1}\) first person inclusive prefix
```

$\mathrm{k}^{-1}$ first person inclusive prefix
$k-$ third person non-singular
$k-$ third person non-singular
prefix
prefix
$\mathrm{k}_{3}$ instrumental prefix
$\mathrm{k}_{3}$ instrumental prefix
-k my
-k my
ka- var. of $\mathrm{k}_{3}$ instrumental prefix
ka- var. of $\mathrm{k}_{3}$ instrumental prefix
kafa- var. of kape- possessive-
kafa- var. of kape- possessive-
marker and benefactive-marker

```
    marker and benefactive-marker
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kaka $N$ brother! (voc.)
kakil $N$ adze, digging-stick (cf. kil)
kalin $M$ as in lim-n kalin his
paternal uncle (i.e. one he calls
father but not his true father)
kalpa N club (used in war)
kalualua $N$ thunder
kamaam N fish; kamaam-kapa-nukna
porpoise
kapa- var. of kape- possessive-
kape-, kape 1. possessive-marker
. case-marker, marking
benefactive phrases
kapkin M 'Zike that'
-kapwa N head (kapa-PRO-kapwa)
kasaua $N$ headrest, pillow
kasik N k.o. ant (Zarge)
-kauga N chin (ni-PRO-kauga)
kavhevhau N hat
kel N Zouse
kilavin $N$ flying-fox
kilíl a fan
kipimah conjunction, 'if', marking
past contrary-to-fact conditions
$-k i \quad v a r$. of $-k+n$ transitive
postclitic
$k+1 \mathrm{v}$ to dig
$k i l a i n$ axe (cf. $k-3+i l a i)$
kilalu m two
kilau $N$ we (dual inc.)
kilhiavin $N$ shark
kiliik $M$ indefinite adjunct: $a$, some
(cf. kilikiana)
kilikiana m 1. one
2. the same
$k+1 k i l \mathrm{~V}$ to blow gently (of the wind)
$k \dot{k} 1 k i l i p m$ five
kima like, as

```
kimasil N we (trial exc.)
kimaua N we (plural exc.)
kimhau N star
kimi case-marker, marking dative
    phrases
kimia \(N\) you (plural)
kimilu \(N\) you (dual)
kimisil \(N\) you (trial)
kimlu N we (dual exc.)
-kin transitive postclitic
kini conjunction, 'and', joining
    clauses
kinu N canoe, boat (LwB)
kipas N axe
kisalkwaskwah N baby bird
kisisil m three
kitasil \(N\) we (trial inc.)
kitaua \(N\) we (plural inc.)
kivlaiu \(N\) grasshopper
kom N a comb (LwB)
kona N cormer (LwB)
kopwiel N stone
koupwa N fence
kovamtimta N small child
-kúa N anus (kapa-PRO-kúa)
kuas \(M\) four
kuhu M how much?, how many?
kuhu- N father's sister, mother's
    sister, wife's mother
kuhuan N shellfish
-kula \(N\) brain (ni-PRO-kula)
kuli N dog
KW
kwa N chap, fellow (kwan before a vowel)
kwakwa A short
kwalei N sweet potato
```

kwaleikwalei $N$ sweet potato (cf. kwalei)
kwalkwau N ridgepole
kwalm- N hand, arm, branch
kwan N var. of kwa chap, fellow
kwanagei N story, legend
kwanai $N$ rafter $(s)$
kwanaikwanai N ankle; kwanaikwanai
ie nuhu-k my ankle
kwanaikwaskwas N small rafters (cf.
kwanai)
kwanakau N rib
kwanelaus N vein, sinew (cf. nelaus)
kwanemwin N earth-oven
kwanetan N small rafters
kwanhau N spear
kwanhel- N egg
kwanhelin N bay, harbour
kwanikiatu $N$ outrigger-boom of canoe
kwankwa- N seed, fruit
kwankwulkwul N stanchions on outrigger
kwanmetau N fish-hook
kwanmilh N citrus
kwanouier- N testicle
kwanoukóuk N kidney
kwanpalam N arrow
kwanun- $\mathbf{N}$ seed of breadfruit
kwasig. v to follow, to be or go behind
kwasig 2 then, next
kwatavha N club (for killing pigs)
kwate V to stay
kwatetal N bamboo pipes (musical)
kwatiksin m a few
-kwis associative suffix
kwiskwis M together (cf. kwis)
kwilpas N heel
kwilu N tooth
kwotavha $\mathbf{N}$ heart
kwughen N god
kwuh V to weave
kwuse $M$ this, that (indicated)
$L$
1- third person singular prefix
la M now, then
la- dual prefix
laan V to dawn, to be light; l-n-am-laan it is dawn(ing), l-ua-laan it is already light
lai $v$ to rub
-lakw N throat, front of neck (ni-PRO-lakw)
lamustahik $N$ foam (in the sea)
lapalapa N ZavaZava, sarong (LwB)
lau $N$ canoe, boat
-lau our (dual inc.)
lelig $v$ to come back, to go back, to return
lenkalkal-N to, at or on the side of (cf. nikalkal-)
lh- trial prefix
lhi $v$ to sew
-lia their (plural)
lielie $N$ spiderweb, cobweb
lih $v$ to collect shellfish
likamnum N deep water, the deep
-lisil their (trial)
-liu their (dual)
ligpúal $v$ to belch
lith v to carry
lithu $v$ to put, to put down
liki-N mind, voice; liki-k l-am-uh $I$ an thinking
likinál N the bush
likwun V to know
lim- N father, father's brother
limil $N$ float of outrigger

```
limus N seaweed
lipu- N grandparent
lkak v not to be, not to be there
lu m trying to; l-am-ni-pin lu ...
    he is trying to say ...
lua V to vomit
luantahik N Zobster, crayfish
lúatu N north-east wind
luatúamlaai N north wind
lúatumwitua N north-west wind
lukwaikamaam N freshwater eel
lukwanu N village
lukweha N broad daylight
```


## M

```
m- same or identifiable subject
    prefix
-m your (singular)
magkou N mango (LwB)
makua N moon
mala M slow(Zy)
malamala M soft
mama N mother! (voc.)
mana N bird, chicken, fowl
mas v to be Low tide
-masil our (trial exc.)
matukw M right (hand or side)
-maua our (plural exc.)
maul M left (hand or side)
melaimelai N rainbow
melig conjunction, 'but', joining
    clauses
meliginai conjunction, 'because'
    joining clauses
mha v to die, to be sick
-mia your (plural)
mil M dual marker in noun phrases
-milu your (dual)
```

misil M trial marker in noun phrases
-misil your (trial)
$\mathrm{mi}_{1} \mathrm{~N}$ sun
$m+l_{2} v$ to fall
mila- $N$ mother's brother
mima conjunction, 'that',

1. introducing purpose clauses
2. introducing sentential complements
mina $M$ plural marker in noun phrases
mine conjunction, 'and', joining noun phrases
misia M dry, as in nikien misia dry coconut(s)
mlagh A to live, to be alive; nal mlagh animal
-mlu our (dual exc.)
mufaam M all
mukupu- N grandchild
mukupuka N great-grandchild
mukwis M together (cf. -kwis)
mumuk N mosquito
mun M again

## MW

mwaiako N manioc, tapioca
mwakal N spider
mwalamwala N ant
-mwaniip N dorsal fin (kapa-PROmwaniip)
mwankuiu N pandanus
mwanvhilik N grass (cf. nivhilik)
mwatelg- N ear
mwatíkalo N worm
mwig $N$ earthquake

```
N
n-1}\mathrm{ second person prefix
n-2 l. var. of akuan- perfective
    aspect prefix
        2. var. of akn- inchoative
        aspect prefix
-n his, her, its
n-...-ien discontinuous nominalising
    affix
na-1 intentional prefix
na-2 possessive-marker (possession
    to be eaten)
nage N almond, canarium sp.
naghin N when? (past)
naha N what?
nahi-N breast, milk
naho }\textrm{N}\mathrm{ the day before yesterday
nai}\mp@subsup{1}{1}{N}\mathrm{ tree
nai}\mp@subsup{2}{}{\mathrm{ var. of na-}
    (possession to be eaten)
nai3}\mathrm{ var. of nai- possessive-marker
    (possession to be planted)
nai- possessive-marker (possession
    to be planted)
naienhu- N shin, tibia
naiu N conch sheZZ, conch trumpet
nakanmop- N Liver
nákapun N net for fishing
nakwatana N valley
nakwokwa N book
nal N thing, something; nal mlagh
    animal; nal ipwai dream
nal-N child; used only in first
    and second singular - with other
    possessors the form ti- is used
nalam- N flame
namkimik N dirt (cf. amkimik)
namsu N story
namtigai N mud, swamp
namwan- N brother, father's brother's
    son, mother's sister's son (woman
    speaking)
```

nanmw- N shadow, spirit (of a person)
napua $N$ cloud
napw N fire
napwag- N hole in sth. (e.g. in tree, rock, but not a hole in the ground)
napwil N wall (of a house)
napwok N betelnut palm
natoga $\mathbf{N}$ east wind
nau $\mathbf{N}$ knife
nauga N meat, flesh
nauin- N sister, father's brother's daughter, mother's sister's daughter (man speaking)
neai N sky
nehe- N juice of; nehe nikien coconut water, coconut milk
nehen $\mathbf{N}$ rain
nekw N yam, year
nelam- N tongue
nelaus $N$ rope
nelpul- N the top of
nelpwa $n$ fat (n.), grease
neluankapien N war
nenmwan N dew (cf. enmwan)
nepin N clothes
nerouaiipien N lightning (LwL)
netetau N tattoo
nhag- N name
nhel- N mouth
nhenapw N smoke (cf. napw)
nheniml-M tears (cf. nehe-, niml-)
nhiksil N the day before the day before yesterday (cf. kisasil)
nhinakwa- N spittle
$n_{1} \mathrm{~V}$ to say; ni nipe to sing
ni $2_{2}$, ni- possessive-marker (possession to be drunk)
níaku $v$ to block, to prevent, to obstruct

| níamha $N$ anger; níamha 1-am-hai $X$ $X$ is angry |
| :---: |
| $\mathrm{ni}+\mathrm{v} \mathrm{N}$ yesterday |
| nilh- N thorn |
| nimwa N house |
| nimwa- N nest (of a bird) |
| nivin N a sail |
| nigal N salt |
| $\mathrm{nik}-\mathrm{N}$ nape of the neck |
| nikal-N side, edge |
| nikalkal- N the side of |
| nikkap- N cheek |
| nikava N kava |
| nikavkav- N wing |
| nikien N coconut |
| nikilkiliii- N bone |
| nikits N corner |
| niklee- N 1. chest (anatomical) <br> 2. roof (of a house) |
| nikom no |
| nikouisil N midrib of a coconut frond |
| nikpis N sandalwood (LwL?) |
| $n i l i g i v i-N$ fingernail, toenail; nilitgivi kwalm- fingernail; $n+1+g i v i$ nuhu- toenail |
| nim V to drink |
| nimataag N wind |
| nimel N breadfruit |
| nimil s hole (in the ground) |
| $\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{ml}$ - N eye, face; vah niml-n to buy |
| nimlakw N ashes |
| nimlinhel- $N$ jaw (possibly niml + nhel-) |
| nimokwlúl N dust |
| nimomweinhel- N beard (cf. nhel-) |
| nimoptana N ground, island |
| nimwakilakil N beach, shore |
| nimwal- N . leaf |

níamha $N$ anger; níamha l-am-hai $X$
$X$ is angry
ni+v $N$ yesterday
nilh- N thorn
nimwa N house
nimwa- $N$ nest (of a bird)
nivin $N$ a sail
nigal $N$ salt
nik- N nape of the neck
nikal- N side, edge
nikalkal- N the side of
nikap- $N$ cheek
nikava $N$ kava
nikavkav- N wing
nikien N coconut
nikilkilii- $N$ bone
nikis $N$ comer
niklee- N l. chest (anatomical)
2. roof (of a house)
nikom no
nikouisil $N$ midrib of a coconut
frond
nikpis $N$ sandalwood (LwL?)
niliqiqi- $N$ fingernail, toenail;
nilitgivi kwalm- fingernail;
niligivi nuhu- toenail
nim V to drink
nimataag N wind
nimel N breadfruit
niml- $N$ eye, face; vah niml-n to buy
nimlakw N ashes
nimlinhel- $N$ jaw (possibly niml +
nhel-)
nimokwlúl N dust
nimomweinhel- N beard (cf. nhel-)
nimoptana $N$ ground, island
nimwakilakil $N$ beach, shore
nimwal- N . Zeaf

```
nivtai- N the (other) side of
noulahi- \(N\) younger sibling of same
    sex as speaker; also, child of
    father's brother or mother's sister
    of same sex but younger than speaker
noule- N older sibling of same sex
    as speaker; also, child of father's
    brother or mother's sister of same
    sex but older than speaker
nu N fresh water
nua- \({ }_{1} \mathrm{~N}\) 1. shoulder
        2. neck, especially near the
        shoulder
nua- \({ }_{2} \mathrm{~N}\) root
nuhu- \(\mathbf{N}\) leg, foot
nukna N poison, sorcery; kamaam-
    kapa-nukna porpoise
nukwa- \(N\) fruit
nukwaau \(M\) a large number, very many,
    a crowd of
nukwanee- N hair (on the head)
nukwlaskap \(N\) fire-stick
nukwtou \(N\) l. k.o. bracken (Bislama
                blakpam)
            2. arrow (made from
        blakpam)
nukwul- N knee, elbow; nukwul-i
    kwalm- elbow; nukwul-i nuhu- knee
nukwumus \(N\) hunger; nukwumus \(1-a s\) iou
    \(I\) an hungry
num \(V\) to bury
numl- N hair (on the body), fur,
    feathers
```


## 0

ok V to call out; ok 1-apomh to call out loudly
okiahu $v$ to be proficient at, to know how to do sth. well
oklhekin V to turn around; i-ak-am-oklhekin iou I am turning around
okwaai v to pull weeds, to pull up grass
okwaakw v (of the eyes) to have cataracts
okwag $v$ to be open
okwai $v$ to weed
okwiaai $v$ to be cold
okwiaaikwiaai $v$ to shiver, to be feverish (cf. okwiaai)
okwite V to have yaws
okwlakwul $v$ to be afraid
okwlen $v$ to call out
okwnii $v$ to poison fish
okwupwin $_{1} \mathrm{~N}$ in front of
okwupwin $\mathrm{V}_{2}$ to be or go in front of, to precede, to lead
ol V to do, to make
olhminakin $v$ 'to be like that'
olipin $v$ to follow
olkapkin $v$ to be or do 'Zike that' (cf. ol + kapkin)
olkeikei V to want, to like
olpe $v$ to dance (of men only); (cf. ol + nipe)
omwhen V to choose

## ouaah yes

ouakil v to put one's arms around
ouiak v to shed the skin
oulhiaa $v$ to Zose
outin V/A difficult, hard $(=$ not easy)

P
pa N who?, whom?
peau N a wave
pi- var. of epi- sequential aspect prefix
pia- $N$ l. sibling of same sex, or child of father's brother or mother's sister of same sex - relative age not relevant
2. friend
PW
-pwa towards speaker
pwah v to let, to allow
pwai N south/south-west wind
pwam V/A to be heavy
pwoupwauk N butterfly
S
s- plural prefix
siosio N tidal wave

```
```

```
piahualu N old woman (cf. pian +
```

```
piahualu N old woman (cf. pian +
    hualu)
    hualu)
piakatiqt N girl
piakatiqt N girl
piamil N to women (cf.pian, mil)
piamil N to women (cf.pian, mil)
pian N var. of pilavin woman, wife
pian N var. of pilavin woman, wife
pianielmis N widower
pianielmis N widower
pihiaak N the east
pihiaak N the east
pihiu N the north
pihiu N the north
-pihiu northwards
-pihiu northwards
pila N the west
pila N the west
pilavin N l. woman, wife
pilavin N l. woman, wife
    2. father's sister's
    2. father's sister's
    daughter (man speaking)
    daughter (man speaking)
pik M a lot, very much
pik M a lot, very much
pilaah N the south
pilaah N the south
-pin away from speaker and
-pin away from speaker and
    addressee
    addressee
pisasuul N thwmb (cf. pispis-)
pisasuul N thwmb (cf. pispis-)
pispis- N finger, toe; pispis-i
pispis- N finger, toe; pispis-i
    kwalm- finger; pispis-i nuhu- toe
    kwalm- finger; pispis-i nuhu- toe
-plaah southwards (cf. pilaah)
-plaah southwards (cf. pilaah)
-pna towards addressee
-pna towards addressee
pnaal v/A big
pnaal v/A big
pukah N pig
pukah N pig
pukaliakati+t N boy
pukaliakati+t N boy
purum N broom (LwB)
purum N broom (LwB)
pus v/A blunt, dulZ
```

pus v/A blunt, dulZ

```
si- V to come from a specified direction (must take a directional suffix)
sig V to wake s.o. up
siłkavh N bêche-de-mer
su V to plant
suatukw \(N\) road, path
sul \(v\) to comb

T
t- future prefix
ta M already, finished, completed
tagalua N (sea)-snake
tahik \(N\) sea
takwtakwun N now
tapaka N tobacco (LwB)
tapig N door
-tasil our (trial inc.)
tata N father! (voc.)
-taua our (plural inc.)
tavheta N mat
telhau \(v\) to go out
ti- \(N\) child (used with all possessors except first and second person singular, when nal- is used)
tihi- N flower
til \(V\) to string (as fish)
tila N mast
tigai \(V\) to swallow
tik V to hiccup; liki-k l-am-tik I am hiccupping
tiki- N skin, bark
tikinau \(N\) bamboo (cf. tiki-, nau)
tiksin \(M\) some
timtim V to be high tide
tipage- \(\mathbf{N}\) crotch
tipu- \(N\) belly
tipweua N stomach
tipwoluelua N lung(s)
toko then, and so, therefore
tokolau N south-east wind
touei N today
toulhaai N whale
tu- var. of \(t\) - future prefix
tukl- N the top of
tukw case-marker, marking
l. dative phrases
2. causative phrases
tukw- var. of \(t\) - future prefix
tukwas N mountain
tukwienakwamil N tomorrow
tukwmah conjunction, 'if', marking future conditions
tukwnaghin N when? (future) (cf. naghin)
tukwnaho \(\mathbf{N}\) the day after tomorrow (cf. naho)
tukwnhiksil N the day after the day after tomorrow (cf. nhiksil)
tupwnhel- \(N\) lip (cf. nhel-)

U
u- dual prefix
ua \({ }_{1} \mathrm{~V}\) to come (towards speaker)
ua \(_{2}\) l. conjunction, 'or', joining noun phrases and clauses
2. question-tag
ua- var. of akuan- perfective aspect prefix
-ua \(N\) vagina (kapa-PRO-ua)
ualu v to crush with the teeth
uan- var. of akuan- perfective aspect prefix
uh v to hit, to strike, to fight; liki-k l-am-uh \(I\) am thinking
uhum V/A to be closed, to be shut
uk- var. of ak- concurrent aspect prefix
ula V to come (to addressee)
uokw V (of a fire) to burn (intr.)
nokwus \(v\) to bear offspring (of an animal)
uun V to answer

\section*{V}
vaan V to roast, to cook by roasting (tr.); (of person) to burn sth.
vah V to hold in the hand; vah niml-n to buy
vha, A good; apien vha fragrant; vha ankap beautiful
vha \(V / A\) to be clean
vha- v to give (must take directional suffix; cf. vhapin, vhapna and vhapwa below)
vhapin \(v\) to give to him/her/it/them (cf. vha- + -pin)
vhapna \(v\) to give to you (cf. vha- + -pna)
vhapwa \(v\) to give to me/us (cf. vha+ -pwa)
vhiaak v to go east (cf. pihiaak)
-vhiaak eastwards (cf. pihiaak)
\(\mathrm{vi}_{1} \mathrm{v}\) to pull
\(\mathrm{vi}_{2} \mathrm{M}\) new
vikin v to boil (tr.), to cook by boiling (tr.)
vikouiam V to sleepwalk
-vila westwards (cf. pila)
vin \(N\) saltwater eel
vipin \(N\) to pour
vilaakw \(N\) stringray
vin V to go
vinis \(N\) flying-fish

\subsection*{6.2. English finder list}

This list is merely an index to the South-west Tanna vocabulary in 6.1., and is not intended as a dictionary of any kind; the full meanings, grammatical categories, etc. of the South-west Tanna forms will be found in 6.1. and not in this section. Further, grammatical affixes, etc., have generally been omitted from this list.

The same abbreviations will be used as were used in 6.1. English verbs will be followed by 'to', and English nouns by 'a' when there may be some confusion as to whether verb or noun is intended (e.g. 'fly, to', 'fly, a'); when no confusion exists, 'to' and 'a' will not be used.

A
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline a kiliik & aunt kuhu- \\
\hline above fakta & awake alha \\
\hline adze kakil & axe kipas, kilai \\
\hline afraid gin, okwlakwul & \\
\hline again mun & B \\
\hline alive mlagh & back nimweitaa- \\
\hline all mufaam, faam & back of head nivel- \\
\hline allow pwah & bad ha \\
\hline almond nage & bald apwa \({ }_{1}\) \\
\hline already ta & bamboo tikinau \\
\hline anchor agka & bamboo pipes kwatetal \\
\hline and kini, mine & banana nipwan \\
\hline Aneitywm lenitim & banyan nipin \\
\hline anger níamha & bark (of tree) nivig-, tiki- \\
\hline angry niamha l-am-uh & basket nitip \\
\hline animal nal mlagh & bathe (tr.) akwi \\
\hline ankle kwanaikwanai & bay kwanhelin \\
\hline answer uun & be behind kwasig \\
\hline ant mwalamwala, kasik & be in front okwupwin \\
\hline anus -kúa & be like that olkapkin, olhminakin \\
\hline arm kwalm- & beach nimwakilakil \\
\hline arrive elieti & bear offspring uokwus \\
\hline arrow kwanpalam, nukwtou & beard nimwulmwulnhel-, nimomweinhel- \\
\hline as kima & because meliginai \\
\hline ascend hakta & bêche-de-mer sikavh \\
\hline ashes nimlakw & behind akwasig \\
\hline ask haio & belch ligpúal \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline belly tipu- & burn as, vaan (tr.), uokw (intr.) \\
\hline below ietana & bury num \\
\hline bend ikav & bush, the likinál, ielkwan \\
\hline best eleita & but melig \\
\hline betel napwok & butterfly pwoupwauk \\
\hline better eleita & buttocks nimwansii- \\
\hline big pnaal, ehua & buy vah niml-n \\
\hline big-man iemasuul & \\
\hline bird mana, kisalkwaskwah & C \\
\hline bite as & call hen, ok, okwlen \\
\hline black apig & canarium sp. nage \\
\hline blind akw & canoe lau, kinu \\
\hline block, to níahu & carry lih \\
\hline blood nitau- & cataracts okwaakw \\
\hline blow kilkil, eukweukw (wind); hel helapu & chap kwa, kwan \\
\hline blue amlimla & cheek nikap- \\
\hline blunt pus & chest niklee- \\
\hline boat kinu, lau & chicken mana \\
\hline body niplaa- & chief iemasuul \\
\hline boil vikin (tr.), apual (intr.) & child nal-, ti-, kovatimta \\
\hline bone nikilkilii- & chin -kauga \\
\hline book nakwokwa & choose omwhen \\
\hline boom kwanikiatu & circumcise asigpin \\
\hline borm, be ilha & citrus kwanmilh \\
\hline bow (weapon) nimwanvhaga & clean, to ispiil, apwupw \\
\hline boy pukaliakati¢t & clean, be vha \({ }_{2}\) \\
\hline bracken sp. nukwtou & clench teeth asitilakin \\
\hline braid, to ilil & close to ipaka \\
\hline brain -kula & close, to etapig \\
\hline branch kwalm- & closed uhum \\
\hline breadfruit nimel & clothes nepig \\
\hline break akapil, elpwu & cloud napua \\
\hline breast nahi- & club kalpa, kwatavha \\
\hline breathe ehiag & coconut nikien \\
\hline broom purum & cold okwiaai, imla \\
\hline brother namwan-, noulahi- noule-, pia-, kaka & collect shellfish lih
comb, to sul \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
```

comb, a kom
come ua, , ula, si- (from), lelig
(back), iel (out)
commonplace apgapig
completed ta
conch shell naiu
cook vikin, vaan (tr.), apual
(intr.)
cooked apwa}
copulate es
cormer nikis, kona
cough, to etagil
count avhekin
cousin noule-, noulahi-, -iel,
pilavin
crayfish luantahik
crazy enoeno
crotch tipage-
crowd, of nukwaau
crush ualu (with teeth)
cry eau (= weep), okwlen (= call)
cut ilai
D
dance olpe (men), amako (women)
dance-ground i imwalim
dark ipiknap
dawn, to laan
day nipigg, ielan
daylight lukweha
daytime ielan
deaf ilu
deep likamnum
defecate ivkaa, ivkii
descend euaiu, atite
dew nenmwan
die mha
different ialmih

```
difficult outin
dig kil
digging-stick kak+1
dirt namk \(\ddagger\) mik
dirty amk \(\ddagger\) mik
dive ahum
divide †huai
do ol
do like that olkapkin
dog kuli
door tapig
doorway nivsilua
dorsal fin -mwaniip
doumwards -iehou
drag avkikín
dream, a nal ipwai
drean, to amilitha
drift eai
drink nim
drown ilkwilkin (tr.), amnum (intr.)
\(d r y\) ivsik
dry coconut nikien misia
dull pus
dust nimokwlúl

\section*{E}
ear mwatelg-
earth-oven kwanemwin
earthquake mwig
east pihiaak
east wind natoga
eastwards -vhiaak
eat \(a n_{1}\), ivgin
edge nikal-
eel ielmoou, vin, lukwaikamaam
egg kwanhel-
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline elbow nukwul- & float, to eai, eaihakta \\
\hline enter aulupin & float, a limil \\
\hline evening ienaiu & flow aiu \\
\hline excrement nisi- & flower tihi- \\
\hline exhausted apus & fly, to iva \\
\hline eye niml- & fly, a elag \\
\hline eyebrows nimwulniml- & flying-fish vinis \\
\hline & flying-fox kilavin \\
\hline F & foom lamustahik \\
\hline face \(\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{ml}\) - & follow ilipw, olipin, kwasig \({ }_{1}\) \\
\hline fall mil \({ }_{2}\), †lukwiliel; enmwan (dew) & foot nuhu- \\
\hline fan, a kilíl & forehead nipwana- \\
\hline far isokw & forget alukin 2 \\
\hline fast hueihuaa & four kuas \\
\hline fat, be ehua, asiisasiis & fowl mana \\
\hline fat (=grease) nelpwa & fragrant apien vha \\
\hline father lim-, tata & friend pia- \\
\hline fear, to gin & in front okwupwin \\
\hline feather numl- & fruit nukwa-, kwankwa- \\
\hline feed, to ivgin & full asiis, akwiliin \\
\hline fellow kwa, kwan & fur numl- \\
\hline fence koupwa & \\
\hline feverish okwiaaikwiaai & G \\
\hline few kwatiksin & garden, to asim \\
\hline fight uh & garden, a nasimien \\
\hline fin -mwaniip & get up hekimteel \\
\hline find \(\mathrm{aam}_{2}\) & girl piakatitt \\
\hline finger pispis- & give vha-, vhapin, vhapna, vhapwa \\
\hline fingernail niligivi- & go vin, avin, aa \({ }_{1}\), asokw- \\
\hline finished ta & go back lelig \\
\hline fire napw & go behind kwasig \\
\hline fire-stick nukwlaskap & go down euaiu, atite \\
\hline fish kamaam & go east vhiaak \\
\hline fish-hook kwanmetau & go in front okwupwin \\
\hline five kilkilip & go inside aulupin \\
\hline flame nalam- & go out telhau \\
\hline flesh nauga & go up hakta \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline god kwughen & hold vah, ilaptelakin \\
\hline good vha \({ }_{1}\) & hole nimil, napwag- \\
\hline grandchild mukupu- & home(wards) i imwa \\
\hline grandparent lipu-, kaha & hook kwanmetau \\
\hline grass mwanvhilik, nivhilit & hospital hospitil \\
\hline grasshopper kivlaiu & hot apwan \({ }_{1}\) \\
\hline grease nelpwa & house nimwa \\
\hline great-grandchild mukupuka & how much/many? kuhu \\
\hline green amlimla & hunger nukwumus \\
\hline grey (hair) akweuun & hungry nukwumus l-as, amkaliv \\
\hline ground nimoptana & hunt eapin \\
\hline guts nisinau- & hurry haimilin \\
\hline & husband hualu, ielmaan \\
\hline H & \\
\hline hair nukwanee- (head), numl- (body) & I \\
\hline hand kwalm- & I iou \\
\hline hang ilu \({ }_{2}\), ikel, ¢lu-kilavin & if tukwmah, kipimah \\
\hline harbour kwanhelin & indefinite kiliik \\
\hline hard ivsikivsik, apwan \({ }_{2}\), & intend amwa \\
\hline apwanapwan (not soft), outin (not easy) & intestines nisinau- \\
\hline hat kavhevhau & island nimoptana \\
\hline he in & it in \\
\hline head -kapwa, nivel- & itch ivkasivkas \\
\hline heal amiv & its -n \\
\hline hear ilig & \\
\hline heart kwotavha & J \\
\hline heavy pwam & jaw nimlinhel- \\
\hline heel kwilpas & juice nehe- \\
\hline her(s) in, -n & jump iva, iohu \\
\hline here ikin e, ikin en, -pwa, -pna & just ima \({ }_{2}\), \(\ddagger\) mi \\
\hline hiccup tik & \\
\hline hide (intr.) elkwaig & K \\
\hline hidden akwatelukin & kava nikava \\
\hline high tide, be timtim & kava-drinking area iimwalim \\
\hline him in & kidney kwanoukóuk \\
\hline his -n & kill huopnii \\
\hline hit uh, asik & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
knee nukwul-
knife nau
know liłkwun, hetelakin; okiahu
(welZ); ainein (not know)

Zouse kel
Low tide, be mas
lung(s) tipwoluelua

\section*{M}
mad enoeno
make ol
man/male ielmaan
mango magkou
manioc mwaiako
many ipsaah, nukwaau
mast tila
mat tavheta
me iou
meat nauga
midday ielkweha
middle ielkwaa-
midnight ienpigilu
midrib nikouisil
milk nahi-
mind liki-
moon makua
morning ienpigenpig
mosquito mumuk
mother nisin-, mama, iemwa
mother-in-law kuhu-
mountain tukwas
mouth nhel-
mud namtigai
mumble atmunmún
muxmur atmunmún
my -k
look elhakin (for), elhelha (back) †vsik (after)
Zose oulhiaa
a Zot pik
Zoud apomh

```

open, to asijktaa
open, be okwag
or ua
our (exc.) -mlu, -masil, -maua
our (inc.) -lau, -tasil, -taua
outrigger limil (float), kwanikiatu
(boom)

```
oven kwanemwin
    P
paddle, a nivea
pain, be in imha
pandanus mwankuiu
pant imig, ehiagehiag
path suatukw
penis -hau
perceive \(\dagger 1+\mathrm{g}\)
person ielmama
pig pukah
pillow kasaua
pinch atimw
pipes (musical) kwatetal
place (noun) etamwheekw, ikin,
    ielki-
plant, to ahu, su
play ivkil
poison nukna
poison, to okwnii
porpoise kamaam-kapa-nukna
pound, to asik, isianisian
pour vipin
precede okwupwin
prevent niahu
proficient okiahu
pull vi \({ }_{1}\), eivi, okwaai
push alkipin
put (down) lithu, itu
put arms around ouakil

Q
quick(ly) hueihuaa

R
rafters kwanai, kwanetan, kwanaikwaskwas
rain, to p
rain, the nehen
rainbow melaimelai
rat iahukw
reach elieti
read avhekin
red huau
refuse, to \(\mathrm{apwah}_{2}\)
return lelig
rib kwanakau
ridgepole kwalkwau
right (hand) matukw
right etkwatukw (= correct)
river iapiuan
road suatukw
roast, to vaan
roof niklee-
root nua- \(_{2}\)
rope nelaus
rotten imitit
round akwitakwita
rub lai
mun aiu
mun away aap

S
sail, a nivin
salt nigal
same kilikiana
sand nipakil
sandalwood nikpis
```

sarong lapalapa

```
sarong lapalapa
say ni
say ni
scorpion iesaietik
scorpion iesaietik
scratch, to aki
scratch, to aki
sea tahik
sea tahik
seaweed limus
seaweed limus
see aam}
see aam}
seed kwankwa-, kwanun-
seed kwankwa-, kwanun-
separate, to ihuai
separate, to ihuai
sew lhi
sew lhi
shadow nanmw-
shadow nanmw-
shallow ietapeka
shallow ietapeka
shark kilhiavin
shark kilhiavin
sharp esla
sharp esla
she in
she in
shed skin ouiak
shed skin ouiak
shelf nimwativhata
shelf nimwativhata
shellfish kuhuan
shellfish kuhuan
shin naienhu-
shin naienhu-
shiver okwiaaikwiaai
shiver okwiaaikwiaai
shoot asik
shoot asik
shore nimwakilakil
shore nimwakilakil
short kwakwa
short kwakwa
short of breath imig
short of breath imig
shoulder nua-1
shoulder nua-1
show atiuun
show atiuun
shut, to etapig
shut, to etapig
shut, be uhum
shut, be uhum
sibling of same sex pia-,
sibling of same sex pia-,
    noulahi-, noule-
    noulahi-, noule-
sick mha
sick mha
side nikal-, nikalkal-, lenkalkal-,
side nikal-, nikalkal-, lenkalkal-,
    nivtai-
    nivtai-
sinew kwanelaus
sinew kwanelaus
sing ni
sing ni
sink ilkwilkin (tr.), amnum
sink ilkwilkin (tr.), amnum
    (intr.)
```

    (intr.)
    ```
```

sister nauin-, noulahi-, noule-,
pia-
sit akwita
skin tiki-
sky neai
sleep apil
sleepwalk vikouiam
slow(Zy) mala
small alkitijt
smash ahipwu
smell, to apien (intr.), iliqg (tr.)
smoke nhenapw
smooth ipwia
snake tagalua
snap elpwu
so toko
soft malamala
some tiksin, kiliiik
something nal
song nipe
sorcery nukna
sore, be imha, imhil
sore, a nimwapw
sour ehiu
south pilaah
south wind pwai
south-east wind tokolau
southwards -plaah, -hakta
south-west wind pwai
speak inkiaal
spear, a kwanhau
spider mwakal, iielia
spiderweb lielie
spirit nanmw-
spit elgaavh
spittle nhinakwa-
split aliplaai
squeeze ivtetelakin
squid ihi
stab hai
stanchions kwankwulkwul
stand alel (intr.), ilip (tr.)
star kimhau
stay kwate, akwatelukin
steal aklhakin
stick, a nipalnai
stingray vilaakw
stomach tipweua
stone kopwiel
story kwanagei, namsu, nivsauien
straight etkwatukw
strike uh
string, to til
strong asanin
suck amwha
sugarcane nitukw
sun mil
swallow tigai
swamp namtigai
sweat, to amnhaakw
sweet hekin
sweet potato kwalei, kwaleikwalei
swell up esiis
swim al, eai
n+pikou-
talk harshly akwlig
tapioca mwaiako
taro nitel
taste apwaihasigivin
tattoo netetau
tears nheniml-

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```

tell lies eikwa
tell story ivsau
testicle kwanouier-
that mima, aan 2, aa 2, ai, en,
kwuse
the ai
their -lia, -lisil, -liu
them aliu, alisil, alia
then la, toko, kwasigg
there ikin en, ikin aan}2, -pin
-pna
therefore toko
they iliu, ilisil, ilia
thick esiis, amha
thief iaklha
thigh nipwatakniva-
thin avilig
thing nal
think liki-n l-am-uh
thirsty akwapwa
this e, en, ai, kwuse
thorn nilh-
three kisisil
throat -lakw
throw alukin_
thumb pisasuul
thunder kalualua
tibia naienhu-
tidal wave siosio
tide mas (be Zow), timtim (be high)
tie ilkis, etout
time nipig
tired apus
tobacco tapaka
today touei
toe pispis
toenail niliqiqvi-

```
together -kwis, kwiskwis, mukwis
tomorrow tukwienakwamil
tongue nelam-
tooth kwilu-
top nelpul-, tukl-
tree nai
trunk niplaa-
trying to lu
turn oklhekin (self), avhlekin (sth.)
turtle iakw
twist ikav
two kilalu

U
uncle mila-, lim-kalin
underworld ipwai
unimportant apgapig
upwards -hakta
urinate \(a_{1}\), ami, amialil
us (exc.) amlu, amasil, amaua
us (inc.) alau, atasil, ataua

V
vagina -ua
valley nakwatana
vein kwanelaus
very ankap, pik, eleita
village lukwanu, ie!kwanu
voice liki-
volcano iahul
vomit lua

W
wake up ilha (intr.), sig (tr.)
walk eliuok
wall napwil
want olkeikei, amwa; apwah 2 (not want)
war neluankapien
warm, be aliuan
wash ivit, aikuaas (sth.), al (self), akwi (s.o.)
water nu
wave, \(a\) peau, siosio
we (exc.) kimlu, kimasill, kimaua
we (inc.) kilau, kitasil, kitaua
wear lavalava etout
weave kwuh
web lielie
weed, to okwai
weeds nivhilik ha
weep eau
west pila
west wind nipelaap
westwards -vila
wet, be aptig
whale toulhai
what? naha
when? naghin (past), tukwnaghin (future)
where? -hie, ihie, ikin favin
which? favin
white hauan
Whitesands ikuplaah
who? pa
whom? pa
wide ehua
widower pianielmis
wife pilavin, pian
wind nimataag
wing nikavkav-
wipe ispiil
woman pilavin, pian, piamil
work in garden asim
worm mwatikalo
wrap (up) avlig
\(Y\)
yam nekw
yaws, have okwite
year nekw
yellow akwlha
yes ouaah
yesterday niiv
you iik, kimilu, amilu, kimisil, amisil, kimia, amia
your -m, -milu, -misil, - mia
1. See Lynch (1978a:718-719) for further discussion and elaboration.
2. I was unable to elicit any name for this dialect. The tribal group who speak it are known as the Nelpwaai-mine (-mine being an associative suffix used in tribal names), and this is where the name Nelpwaia comes from. Nivhaal and Nivai are, however, names of the dialects.
3. My own data (Lynch 1978a: 720) show a higher figure (73\%) between the Nivhaal dialect and Lenakel, but this is almost certainly due to elicitation in Lenakel.
4. Research was supported by the East-West Center and the University of Papua New Guinea. I would like to thank Terry Crowley for his comments on an earlier draft of this grammar.
5. Of the 'dento-alveolar' sounds, \(t\) and \(s\) are dental, and the others are alveolar (but see also the discussion concerning \(v\) and \(r\) ). The symbol \(g\) is used for the velar nasal [ 0 ] since this is the common symbol in the orthographies of many of the languages of Vanuatu; all of the languages of Southern Vanuatu use \(g\) for [0]. The phonological rules of South-west Tanna are very similar to those of Lenakel, of which Lynch (1975) is a detailed description.
6. The phonemic status of the mid central vowel was not recognised by early missionaries in designing orthographies for the Tanna languages, and so no traditional symbol exists; the symbol \(i\) is used in publications on Lenakel (see bibliography), and is used here for that reason.
7. The phoneme /h/ is not considered a non-vowel in the devoicing environment where it undergoes crasis with a preceding consonant; thus /oklhekin/ [oglégan] 'to turm' is considered to have a medial cluster of only two \({ }^{\circ}\) consonants.
8. It should also be pointed out here that /i/ is the only vowel which may not occur word-finally.
9. Theoretically, a class of exclamations/interjections should be included as a fifth major class including, inter alia, ouaah 'yes', nikom 'no', and a number of other items. I have decided to dispense with any detailed treatment of these items in this grammar outline. Conjunctions and case-marking prepositions are not treated as major word classes, and are discussed in the appropriate subsections of section 4.
10. Sound correspondences established in Lynch (1978a) include the following: Proto-Oceanic \(* t>\) South-west Tanna (Nìvhaal) \(1, * d>1, * p>v, * m>m\), \(* n>n, * n>g, * s>h, * q\) and \(* k\) lost in some environments.

This accreted initial vowel is a feature of the whole Southern Vanuatu subgroup (Lynch 1978a:757), and the fact that it once must have been a prefix can also be shown by an examination of the verb in sie (Erromango) (Lynch l981b). However, I have not as yet been able to assign a clear function to it in the languages of the subgroup.
11. The homophony between the lIN and 3NSG forms is not a peculiarity of South-west Tanna but is found in all the languages of Tanna.
12. See Lynch (l978a:758) for a suggestion that this marker derives historically from the Proto-Oceanic conjunction *ma 'and'.
No tense/aspect markers appear in many of the verbs given in the examples in this section. These examples mainly come from narrative discourse; and in any context where the tense/aspect is obvious, it need not be overtly marked. In fact, tense/aspect markers rarely follow the prefix \(\mathrm{m}-\), for this very reason.
13. There is some evidence that South-west Tanna/h/ has recently moved further leftwards in words, so that some cases of medial /h/ have subsequently moved to initial position. Compare South-west Tanna helapu 'blow a fire', nhe- 'smoke', kuhu 'how many', and mha 'sick, die' with Whitesands (East Tanna) ahlapu, nah-, kuvah, and mis respectively. The evidence needs to be further examined; however, if there was a general leftward shift of \(/ \mathrm{h} /\), it may explain why the /h/ is virtually ignored in the morphophonemics of the number prefixes.
14. Compare these suffixes with the locative nouns pihiu 'the north', pilaah 'the south', pihiaak 'the east', and pila 'the west'.
15. Note that since eliuok is not a verb of specific motion (i.e. it implies no specific direction), (75) can not mean *'Where are you walking?'.
16. Apart from the expected phonological differences (e.g. \(r\) for Nivhaal l), Nivai dialect pronoun forms show one significant difference from the Nivhal forms: the presence of an initial \(i\) in the focal non-singular pronouns - e.g. ikarau lIN:DU, ikamuru lEX:DU, ikamisir 2TR, etc.
17. The \(\emptyset\) allomorph is represented here in examples (84) and (85) in order to illustrate this deletion; in other examples elsewhere in the text, however, it will not be written in.
18. See, for example, Lynch (1973, 1981a) and Pawley (1973) for a discussion of this.
19. The fact that the basic meaning of ielmaan is 'man' and that of pilavin is 'woman' is relevant here.
20. The Nivai dialect seems to show a greater range of use of the 3 SG allomorph \(-n i\) : the small amount of data \(I\) have available suggests that -ni is used with all kinship terms which take direct possession, while -n is used with non-kinship terms in direct possession.
21. In previous discussions of the grammar of Tanna languages (e.g. Lynch 1978b), this class was labelled 'adjuncts'. However, the similarity between 'adjuncts' and 'adjectives' is such that \(I\) have substituted the term 'modifier' for 'adjunct'.
22. Numerals between six and nineteen are formed by compounding on the base 'five' and using the ligature mi: thus \(k i l k i l i p-m i-k i l k i l i p-m i-k i l a l u\) 'twelve'. Twenty is formed on the base l-lkak ielmama (3SG-not:be person): l-lkak ielmama kilikiana mi-kuas (literally, one person is not, and four) 'twenty-four'. Needless to say, numerals above five are not frequently used, having largely been replaced in normal conversation by borrowings from Bislama.
23. Noun-initial \(n\) derives historically from a Proto-Oceanic article *na. In the Tanna languages, this *na has been fused at the beginning of many nouns in the form \(n\) or \(n+\) vowel, and it is now part of the noun. In South-west Tanna, \(36.5 \%\) of the nouns listed in the vocabulary in section 6 begin with \(n\); the next most frequent initial phonemes are \(i\) with ll.7\% (cf. i- 'agentive prefix'), k with \(11.4 \%\) (cf. k- 'instrumental prefix'), and kw with 9.1\%.
24. Recall the discussion in 3.1.1.11. above where it was pointed out that, in a transitive clause, certain verbs require the transitive postclitic \(-k i n\) (e.g. gin in (l38)), while others do not (e.g. aan in (l36), as in (137)).
25. This question-type is really a reduction of an alternative sentence (see 4.4.2.3. below): "That man killed a pig in the village or (he didn't kill a pig in the village)?" It is convenient, however, to treat such questions as simple rather than complex sentences.
26. The conjunction meliginai 'because' looks formally like a compound of melig 'but' + in 3SG + ai DEM:PR, and comparative evidence suggests that this is correct: cf. Lenakel merouinka 'because' (merou 'but', in 3SG, ka DEM:PR). However, the form in South-west Tanna seems to be monomorphemic synchronically (as do its cognates in Lenakel and other Tanna languages).
27. It is possible that the conjunction is (or was) m-ima (AND-quotative: verb) ; again, there is some comparative evidence for this, though the form is synchronically monomorphemic.

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