## CHAPTER

## ADVERBIALS

### 6.1 HULI KORD CLASSES

At this stage it is useful to locate what are interpreted as adverbials within the Huli word class system, diagrammed below. Section 5.5 has indicated that the system of secondary


## Figure 25: Word class system

suffixes intersects with the semantic area covered by free location morphemes. It is these free morphemes that are interpreted here as adverbials, and figure 25 shows that the major subdivision of this word class are i) location and ii) manner.

### 6.2 LOCATIVE ADVERBIALS

6.2.1 Spatial Incatives. There is a system of spatial loc-
atives that function as exophoric references. They can receive the spatio-temporal suffixes described in 5.5 .7 , the determiner -go, realized according to the vowel harmony rule given in 4.ll.3.4, usually preceding whichever inessive is selected. The system is set out in figure 26.

## Figure 26: Spatial lncatives

6.2.1.1 The unbound morphemes occur unsuffixed in utterances in which they precede a place name or refer to a place that the speaker can see. When the place cannot be seen by the speaker, he/she will select the suffix -goha, while -goria is used when the speaker wishes to signal some form of allation, or movement towards a place.
6.2.1.2 udu and uju seem to be interchangeable, with udu being the more frequent in dialect Al. nana tends to substitute for the more widespread unu in dialect Bl.
6.2.1.3 Examples of spatial locatives are:
ega li jaga lara
bird bindere flight utter-3-SIMP PRES
(the) bird up-there flies/is flying
the bird is flying up there

6.2.1.4 There are three exceptional instances when -go is realized as -ga, and it functions grammatically as a determiner -cum-locative without further suffixing. These exceptions are:

i) | anda $+\frac{\text { go }}{\text { house }} \quad=\quad$ andaga |
| :--- |
| DET |

as in: andaga poro house-DET/LOC go-1S-SIMP PRES house-to I go/am going
I'm going home
andaga beda
house-DET/LOC $3-E V$
house-at (she) is
she's at home
2) hama + go = hamaga clearing DET clearing~that one/in/to/at
as in:

```
hamaga poro
clearing-DET/LOC go-lS-SIMP PRES
clearing-to I go/am going
I'm going to the clearing
hamaga ka
clearing-DET-LOC 3-EV
clearing-at (he) is
he's at the clearing
```

3) 
```
dali + go = daliga
above DET above~that one/in/to/at
```

as in:

| ni daliga | ka |
| :--- | :--- |
| sun above~DET-LOC | $3 \rightarrow E V$ |
| sun above-at | is |
| the sun's up above |  |

6.2.1.5 Other free spatial locatives, such as tamu 'inside' and tagi/tagira 'outside',frequently occur with spatio-temporal suffixes (cf $5.5 .3,5.5 .6$ and 5.5 .7 ). The suffixes that can be selected are -ni (adessive) and -ha (inessive), suffixes which can also be used with nominal items to signal location. Examples are such as:
ibu tamu + ha $\quad$ pija $\quad$ go-3-SIMP PAST
$3 S$ inside loc ibu tamuha pija
he inside in/within went
he went inside/into the inside

hina be + ha gujarami
sweet potato ash LOC bake-2P-SIMP PRES
sweet potato ashes in/within you bake/are baking
you are baking sweet potato in the ashes
= hina beha gujarami
wandari emene dagia + ni beda
girl little plank LOC $3-E V /$ sit-3-EX PRES
girl little plank on is / sits/is sitting
the little girl is sitting/is on the plank
= wandari emene dagiani beda
6.2.2 (-)hondo and (-)howa. These two forms can be conven-
iently described here, since they are used to signal location: 'to/towards' and 'from', respectively. It is possible to analyse them as enclitics, but it seems likely that both are forms of he 'have/stay/be': howa can be interpreted as the CONS (5.4. 4), and hondo as the PURP stem (5.4.5.1) plus the negative particle ndo 'no'.
6.2.2.1 This analysis is supported by the semantic function of howa in utterances such as
ani lajagola howa
thus utter-3-SIMP PAST-DET-LOC have/stay/be-CONS
thus he uttered-when/at having stayed/after staying thus when he uttered after he'd said that,
afterwards
ibugwa abare jolo bija
3S-ERG red pandanus price make/do-3-SIMP PAST
he red pandanus price made/did
he made (the) price (for the/some) red pandanus
he bought some red pandanus
in which it could be said to be acting as a temporal locative. Its use as a spatial locative can be similarly analysed:

```
howa
have/stay/be-CONS
having stayed/after staying
after staying at / from
```

Examples of howa used of spatial location are:

```
Det howa ibiri be
Det LOC come-2S-SIMP PAST Q
Det from came (you)?
did you come from Det?
ndo, Gubari howa ibiru
no Gubari LOC comerlS-SIMP PAST
no Gubari from (I) came
no, I came from Gubari
```

6.2.2.2 While (-) howa may be spatial or temporal, (-) hondo is only used of space - 'to' a person -, but in a special sense: it signals giving something to someone temporarily, for that
person to pass on to another, or because what is given - eg speech, food - cannot be kept permanently. A tentative reconstruction of hondo would suggest that the PURP suffix -le has been deleted, and the negative then fused with the stem:

```
hole ndo -m> ho ndo = hondo
have/stay/be-PURP no
in*order-to-have/stay/be no
to-stay no
```

The resulting form is enclitic on a personal pronoun, a proper name, or a noun whose referent is animate. A verbal form that signals giving completes the configuration. Examples are:
ibu hondo bi lamia
3 S LoC talk/words utter-give-2S-IMP PRES
he/him to words utter-and-give
say something to him/tell him
igiri hondo hai miru
boy
LOC banana go give-lS-SIMP PAST
Ithe) boy to (a) banana (I) gave
I gave a banana to the boy/ I gave the boy a banana

Dewali : hondo nogo mbira miribe
Dewali LOC pig one give~2-SIMP PAST~Q Dewali to pig a gave (you)? did you give a pig to Dewali?
6.2.3 Temporal locatives. Only two of the temporal suffixes described in 5.5.3-5.5.7 occur with non-verbal items: these are -ngi, and -ni, both of which are limited to a handful of time words. Examples are:

6.2.3.1 Among time words are those used for referring to days ahead and days past. The way Huli culture deals with time is represented, in part, by this system, which shows that the need to count backward or forward beyond a few days, or to organize days into groups (eg months and years), used not to be important. It is only since the white people came that Huli society has had to accormodate this way of viewing time, and it has adapted mainly by borrowing terms as well as concepts from the dominant culture (cf 7.7.6). The traditional Huli system of adverbial/nominal time words is given below in table 17.


Table 17: Day time words
6.2.3.1.1 This table shows that the stem for days past can be analysed as be, and for days hence as ma. The form for 'tomorrow' can be considered irregular, while be signals 'yesterday' by accepting the prefix a. Thereafter each stem carries a primary prefix $1 V$-, whose vowel is realized according to the rule,

which says that it copies its specification for [back] from the stem vowel, while its specification for [high] is the same as the stem vowel's specification for [low]. This yields the forms lebe '2 days ago' and luma '2 days hence'.
6.2.3.1.2 In generating the next form, ' 3 days...', the suffix $=n e /=n i$ is added. Since with luma the suffix vowel is realized as [thigh], it appears possible that the vowel harmony rule given in 4.4.3.4 is operating in an attenuated fashion, or that a form of counter-vowel harmony is operative in that the suffix vowel has taken on a specification counter to that of the stem vowel for the feature [low]. A more interesting possibility is that the suffix vowel is copying not from the stem vowel but from the (initial) prefix vowel, according to the rule,

which would support the previous analysis, ie in 4.4.2.10, of the mediating function of /a/ in Huli phonological processes, since here it would be present as a bridge in feature copying.
6.2.3.1.3 However, some dialect Al speakers consistently use the suffix $=n i$ for all forms, which suggests that the morpheme being employed is the spationtemporal adessive $n$ ni described in 5.5.6. The same speakers tend to use ba rather than be as the stem for signalling 3 or more days past.
6.2.3.2 Beyond the naming of days, the general time continuum is divided into broad areas that do not concern themselves with loc ating points of time with precision: traditional Huli culture had no need of that. The overlapping areas of time as perceived by the Huli, measured according to the position in time of the speaker, are given in table 18.

| $\underset{\text { ion }}{\text { direct }}=$ | location | Huli | gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\wedge$ | past | bamba ala abale | long time ago long ago previously |
| * | present | ajure aju wene | just now now/today shortly |
| $\checkmark$ | future | mani awe | later <br> a long way ahead |

Table 18: General time continuum
6.2.3.3 Of the forms given in table 18 , there is an example of elision between adverb and intensifier/modifier (6.4.2), namely: aju + ore = ajure
now very right now/just now
A second form, mani, is the future=time morpheme ma (6.2.3.1.1) plus the adessive suffix $-n i(5.5 .6)$. ma can often be glossed as 'after', and frequently signals time subsequent to that encoded
in the process word. It may also accept the inessive suffix -ha, the compound being usefully glossed as 'afterwards'.
6.2.3.4 The unbound morphemes that measure out the day reflect the cultural notion that a new day begins at dawn, and that all named time segments prior to daybreak belong to yesterday. Hence,

```
aju mbiraga
now dark(ness)
today's night
tonight = from nightfall today to dawn tomorrow
abe mbiraga
yesterday darkness
yesterday's night
last night = from nightfall yesterday to dawn today
```

Some of the adverbials involved, along with their glosses, are given in the set (one of several) od time-measuring words below:

| horo | day | horombe | middle of day |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| muna | dawn | alendo | afternoon |
| egerebagi | morning | ne lanini dusk |  |

### 6.3 INTERROGATIVES


#### Abstract

6.3.1 $A=$ forms. The interrogative adverbials all begin with the segment $a=$, which cannot stand on its own, but is the stem to which suffixes are added, as set out in figure 27. The utterance= final Q particle (cf 5.5.1) is optional with A- questions.




Figure 27: A- interrogatives
6.3.2 abi and agwa may both be glossed 'how?', but the form~ er occurs in contexts such as enquiring after a person's wellbeing, the latter in asking the way in which something is done. The suffix -bi is derivational, from the verb bi 'make/do', and gives the interrogative the sense of 'how-ish/how-like/likewhat?' (Derivational suffixes are treated more fully in 7.9.)

Examples are such as:

| I abi kebe | ti abi kami |
| :--- | :---: |
| $2 S$ INT EV-2S-Q | $2 P$ INT EV-2P |
| you how are | You how are |
| how are you? | how are you? |

nu
string bag INT bija do/make3-SIMP PAST
string bag how (he) made
how did he make the string bag?

```
ira agwa dibule berama
tree INT cut down-PURP do-make-lP-SIMP PRES
tree how to-cut down (we) make/are making
how are we going to cut down the tree?
```

6.3.3 au, agi and agile. A cover gloss for these forms is 'what?'. au and agi have the same referential field: non-human things; and agile asks for specification within a given class of referents. The suffix -le of agile is derivational, from the verb le 'utter', and gives the form the sense of 'what-ish/ what-like?'. Examples of these forms in use are:
honabi au lajabe
ginger pig-like INT utter-3-SIMP PAST~Q
white man what (he) said?
what did the white man say?
jawi agi bule berabi
tomorrow INT do/make-PURP do/make-2D-SIMP PRES
tomorrow what to-do (you) are making
what are you going to do tomorrow?
ira ogo agile ira
tree this INT tree
tree this what tree
what sort of tree is this?
6.3.4 agira and agini. These forms ask about quantities. While agira, can be glossed as 'how many?', agini seeks specification: 'what?' in the sense of which number, eg fourth/fifth? The suffix -ni is here probably the definitive -ne, the vowel being raised owing to the constraints of vowel harmony. Examp les of these forms are such as:

```
wena agira jolo birima
fish INT price do/make-1P~SIMP PAST
fish how many price (we) made
how many fish did we buy?
```

| nogo ogoni agini | o biagoni hombene |
| :--- | :--- |
| pig that INT | EXC that twelfth |
| pig that what/which number | oh that twelfth |
| what number pig is that? | oh, that's the twelfth |

6.3.4.1 agi may also take the suffix -ma, a commitative (cf 6.5), to yield a form that rarely occurs in A- questions, and that has the sense of 'what-about/around-what?'. Its usual occurrence is in utterances such as

| hina | agira |
| :--- | :--- |
| sweet potatoes INT | carry-in-string-bag-2S-SIMP PRES-Q |
| sweet potatoes how many you carry/are carrying |  |
| how many sweet potatoes are you carrying? |  |

duria maria agima
five four INT
five four what-about/around-what
about four or five
pauni* hanare* maria agima jido
pounds hundred four what-about/around-what hold-1S-EX PRES
pounds hundred four around (I) hold
I've got around four hundred pounds with me
6.3.4.2 ale and abago are similar to agima in that they are appendages to the system of $A$ - forms: they rarely occur in Aquestions, and have been set aside for special usage. In the A- question,
taiga* ibu agi ale
tiger 3 S INT INT
tiger $\mathrm{EV}-3$
what is a tigat what-like is
wike?
the form ale, usually in such a construction contracted to -le and then suffixed onto agi, functions as an interrogative. But in the utterance

any semblance of its being an interrogative seems to disappear: it is certainly lost in translation, and is perhaps most usefully glossed as 'like / the same as'.
6.3.4.3 abago, which can often be glossed as 'what's his name', can be interpreted as a special interrogative used as a
filler when the speaker fails to recollect something. The suffix -bago is probably an elison of biago, a nominal anaphoric deictic (cf 7.4). The form abago nccurs in utterances such as:

| abago ibugwa | te | lelo |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| INT 3S-ERG | stand/clump | utter-3-PERM |
| what-that one he | stand/clump (of talk) | utter-may |
| what's-his-name | talk/tale/story | may tell |
| ou be quiet so that | what's-his-name can |  |

```
Inna wa
2S-ERG reject-2S-IMP PRES
you reject (your talk/tale)
you be quiet
say his piece
```

6.3.5 ago, agoria and agoha. The first of these forms signals a request for discrimination between or among things. Its English gloss would be classed as a nominal, but like other items - such as agi 'what' and ai 'who' - it is interpreted as belonging to the set of $A$ - forms and best described here. It may be suffixed with the locatives -ria or -ha, already descri~ bed in 5.5.7: the sense is always spatial. Examples are:
aju kira ngago: ĩnaga ago axes two EV-3-DET 2S*POSS INT axes two are yours which there are two axes: which is yours?

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ira dibini } & \text { agoria } \\
\text { wood cut down-EX DEF } & \text { INT } \\
\text { wond cut down } & \text { place-1P-EXH FUTl } \\
\text { where-abouts (we) shall place }
\end{array}
$$

6.3.6 ani, ani howa and ara. The forms ani and ara, meaning 'where/where to?' are used mainly with pu 'go'; ani howa occurs with ibu 'come', and means 'where from?'. -ni is the adessive locative described in 5.5.6, and (-) howa has been discus~ sed above in 6.2.2. Examples are such as:

| ti ani $\quad$ pirimibe | ibu ani haga |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 P INT | go- $2 \mathrm{P}-\mathrm{SIMP}$ PAST-Q | 3 S INT have/stay-CUST |
| you where~to went? | he where stays/lives |  |
| where did you go? |  | where does he live? |


| ara porebe | agali-o ti ara porami |
| :--- | :--- |
| INT go-2S~SIMP PRES | men-EXC 2P INT gor $2 P-S I M P$ PRES |
| whererto (you) go? | men! you where~to go |
| where're you going? | men! where are you going? |


| ani howa $\quad$ ibiribe | ti | ani howa |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| INT | come-2S-SIMP PAST-Q | $2 / 3 P$ where from |
| where~from (you) came? | you/they where from |  |
| where did/have you come from? | where are you/they from? |  |

6.3.7 ai. This A- form can frequently be glossed by 'who/ whom?'. The examples given below illustrate that the use of traditional category labels may not be apt for describing Huli: the English gloss 'what?' suggests that ai is an interrogative pronoun/adverb; the gloss 'who?' (second example) suggests simply an interrogative pronoun. The examples are:

| I mini ai | andira | ai kabe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 S$ name INT | lean-to/shelter INT EV-3-Q |  |
| you/your name who | (in) shelter who is? |  |
| what is your name | who's in the shelter? |  |

6.3.8 angi. This form is produced by adding the temporury locational inessive -ngi (cf 5.5.4.1.l) to the $Q$ stem, a-. Examples are:

```
angi ibirimibe
INT come-2P-SIM PAST-Q
when came (you)?
when did you come?
angi homene
INT die~EX DEF
when died (he)
when did he die?
```

```
angi pija
INT go-3-SIMP PAST
when went (they)
when did they go?
```

angi wule bere
INT place-PURP 2S~SIMP-PRES when to-place make (you)
when are you going to place it?

### 6.4 QUALITATIVES

[^0]wali agali marasini* hangu hangu no ibalimu women men medicine ADV ADV ingest-PURP come-2P-IMP FUT people medicine only only to-drink/eat (you) come you people come to get your medicine one by one

### 6.5 COMITATIVES

6.5.1 This term covers morphemes that indicate the accompaniment or involvement together of participants in a process. The suffixes -la and -ma, signal that the nominal to which they are attached is, together with one or more other nominals, the grammatical subject; -bi and -ru signal that the nominals to which they are suffixed are in the same grammatical category; the enclitics, (-)heba, (-)haru and (-)baba, signal that the nominals on which they lean are not grammatical subjects.
6.5.2 The suffixes -la and -ma. The first, -la, is added to the second of two nominals in a group, signalling that these in concert are the grammatical subject of the verb. In a similar way, -ma is added to the last nominal of a group of three or more. If the nominals are 1 or 2 person, the verbal inflections will reflect the force of the suffixes, being always either $D$ or $P$ in number. Examples are such as:


ẽ $\mathfrak{i}$ ibu + la ibuluba
yes is 3S ADV come-lD-FUT
yes I she-with (we two) shall come
yes, we'll come $=$ e $\tilde{I}$ ibula ibluba
Andagali Madiabe Bigo + ma Mendi pijija
Andagali Madiabe Bign ADV Mendi go-3-SIMP PAST-MOD
Andagali Madiabe Bigo-with Mendi went-must/would have
Andagali, along with Madiabe and Bigo, must have gone to Mendi = Andagali Madiabe Bigoma Mendi pijija

| I | e ija | igini + ma ina | tomo narima |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1515 | wife 10 | son ADV 1P | fond ingest-1P-SIMP PAST |
| I/my | wife we-two/our | son-with we | food ate |
| my | wife our | son with/and we | food ate |
| my wife | and I, and our | son, have all ea |  |

6.5.3 The suffixes -bi and -ru. Both of these are multifunctional, but can often be glossed as 'and'. -ru is an optional plural suffix that can be glossed as 'and/with/along with' when suffixed to a string of nominal items that together comprise the grammatical subject, while -bi functions in the same way. There are clear reason why these two suffixes should be regarded as conjunctives, but they also need to be mentioned here since they can function as comitatives in the same way. as the previously described suffixes. Examples are:

```
ma + ru du + ru hai + ru anda hene
taro ADV sugar cane ADV banana ADV house stay-have-EX DEF
taro-with sugar cane-with banana-with house had
    and and and
taro, sugar cane and banana had all grown
                            = maru duru hairu anda hene
```

tia + bi jari + bi tajanda daligani beda
possum ADV cassowary ADV high bush high-LOC EV-3
possum-with cassowary-with high bush high-in are
and and
there are possum along with/and cassowary up in the high bush $=$ tiabi jaribi tajanda daligani beda
6.5.4 (-)heba, (-) haru and (-)baba. These lean back on a nominal group that follows the grammatical subject of the utterance. They are used interchangably, but (-)heba and (-)haru are usually selected when the verb is one of motion, (-)haru signifying semantically that the nominal group to which it is enclitic is being controlled by what-/whoever is the grammatical subject of the utterance. The form (-)baba is favoured when the verb signals some kind of mutual interaction between the participants. Examples are:
i Wariabe heba pole berebe
2S Wariabe ADV go-PURP make/do-2S-SIM PRES-Q
you Wariabe along-with to-go (you) are making?
are you going to go with Wariabe?

| Malingi Agilu heba | tomo nole | biraja |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Malingi Agilu ADV | food ingest-PURP | sit-3-SIMP PAST |
| Malingi Agilu together-with food to-eat | sat down |  |
| Malinigi sat down to eat with Agilu |  |  |


| ina nogo haru | eberema |
| :--- | :--- |
| lp pig ADV | come-lp-SIMP PRES |
| we pig along-with come/are coming |  |
| we're coming with the pig |  |


| bapalo* haru | halimu |
| :--- | :--- |
| buffalo ADV | have/stay-2-IMP FUT |

buffalo along-/together-with stay
you stay with / look after the buffalo
tigwa Gambali baba wai binija
3P-ERG Gambali with/against war make/do-EX PAST-MOD
they Gambali with war made-must/would
they would have made war with Gambali
gabamanali* baba bi lo mbijore wini
government-men with talk utter-STM one-ADV place-EX PAST
Government mith talk having-said one-truly (they) placed
they made an agreement with the Government
6.5.4.1 In dialect area A2, doba may substitute for haru or for heba.

This concludes the description of Huli adverbials.

## CHAPTER 7

## NOMINALS

This chapter will describe in turn nouns, numeratives, determiners and adnominals (cf figure 24, section 6.1), as being useful subdivisions of the word-class nominal. The nominal system is set out in figure 28.


Figure 28: Nominal system

### 7.1 NOUNS

7.1.1 The sub-group 'nouns' comprises four classes: class 1 (common), class 2 (proper), class 3 (pro-nouns), and class 4 (derivational forms). . These classifications are based chiefly on formal distinctions evident in the way items are marked for ergativity.
7.1.2 Ergativity is signalled by suffixation. Agents are optionally marked for ergativity, while instruments must always be so marked. Thus, in the Huli system it is possible to have two participants in the same utterance marked for ergativity.
7.1.3. Class 1 nouns, which form the biggest and most general class, take only the ergative suffix -me. Class 2 nouns nouns take only -handa, while class 3 nouns take the suffixes -na, -me and -gwa. Class 4 nouns, like those of class l, also take only the suffix -me, but they are formally distinct from class 1 nouns in that they are all derivational.
7.1.4 These ergative suffixes will be described at the same time the noun classes with which they are associated. Other nominal suffixes, given in figure $\mathbf{3 0}$, will be described together in a separate section (7.10). Many of these have been met before in the course of chapters 5 and 6 (cf 5.5 and figure 22).

### 7.2 CLASS 1 NOUNS

7.2.1. Class 1 nouns are non-derivational nominal items that accept only -me as their ergative suffix. They may be specified by determiners or other deictics, their referents usually being concrete animate or inanimate objects. Examples are such as:

| nogo pig | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ira } \\ & \text { tree } \end{aligned}$ | keba <br> digging stick |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| beraliba cloud | biango dng | iba water |
| wali woman | nu <br> string bag | hari <br> mountain/sky |

7.2.2 Lexical sets of class 1 nouns may occur in semantic groupings, each member a hyponym of a superordinate item. Thus, nogo 'pig' is superordinate to a set of hyponyms typed on colour, viz: mindi 'black-pig', hone 'ginger-pig' and pagwa 'piebald pig'; haro 'oak', dugu 'swamp pine' and baua 'casuarina'
are hyponyms of ira 'tree'. Increasing levels of delicacy eventually result in subordinates that are either realized as proper names or specified by deictics.
 $=$ ina kangome nogo baramali
agali + me ira aju + me dibaga
man ERG tree axe ERG cut down/fell-CUST
men (by) trees axes. (by) fell-customarily
men fell trees with axes / men use axes to fell trees = agalime ira ajume dibaga
7.2.4 Compound nouns are nouns that are separated by less than a full word boundary. Compounding can take place through elision of class 1 nouns that occur in collocation and have adjacent segments that provide an environment for deletion to take place. There are two elision rules, the first of which,

> V
> [-high] ---> $\emptyset / \mathrm{x}$ [-back] \# $\left[\begin{array}{l}+ \text { high } \\ \text {-back }\end{array}\right] x$
says that a mid or low vowel is deleted when it is preceded by a consonant carrying the feature [+back], and followed first by an internal word boundary and then by a vowel that has the specifications [+high, -back]. Examples are such as:


```
anda + ira = andira
house tree/wood open shelter
```

7.2.4.1 The second elision rule states that a high vowel is deleted when it follows an internal word boundary that is preceded by a CV syllable whose segments have the specification [+back], thus:

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
\mathrm{V} \\
{[+ \text { high }]} & -\infty> & \mathrm{C} & \mathrm{~V} \\
{[+ \text { back] }} & \text { [+back] }
\end{array}
$$

Examples are:

| ega <br> bird | $+\underset{\text { hair }}{ }$ | $=$ | ```egari feather/s``` |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kora scoop | $+\begin{aligned} & \text { uli } \\ & \text { hole } \end{aligned}$ | $=$ | korali cooking pit |
| anga jaw | $+\underset{\text { hair }}{ }$ | $=$ | angari beard |

7.2.4.2 Other collocations that the Huli, on the evidence of the way many of them write, seem to consider as compounds are items such as

| de eye | $+ \text { ngwi }$ nose | $=$ | dengwi face |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ira <br> tree | $+\underset{\text { core }}{ }$ | $=$ | irabu <br> thick bush/forest |
| wane daug | + kuni <br> er bone | $=$ | wanekuni <br> forehead |

In the first of these examples, vowel harmony conventions are not observed. In the third example, vowel harmony rules that apply to free morphemes (cf 4.4) are not operative, illustrating that the internal word boundaries of compound items can act as phonological barriers in much the same way as the morpheme boundaries of suffixes. (Cf also 4.4.3).
7.2.4.3 A number of common collocations whose adjacent vowels are non-harmonious are not considered to be compounds, on the
basis that no elision occurs in their articulation. Examples:

| hambu lip | $\begin{aligned} &+ \text { iri } \\ & \text { hair } \end{aligned}$ | = | hambu iri moustache |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| du | + egene | = | du egene |
| sugar | cane shoot |  | sugar cane shoot |
| igiri | + emene |  | igiri emene |
| boy | small | $=$ | little/small boy |

### 7.3 CLASS 2 NOUNS

7.3.1 Class 2 nouns are nouns that either do not take an ergative suffix or that accept only handa. Names of persons and certain kinship labels are in this latter category, while names of places are in the former. Examples are:

| Juwi <br> man's name | Dewali <br> woman's name | Darali <br> man's name |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Mogome' name | Ango |  |
| moman's nan's name | Wariabe |  |
| Godabi | Pajaba | man's name |
| place name | place name | Bebego <br> place name |

7.3.1.1 Such names may be descriptive - for instance, Mogome can be glossed as 'by surprise', and Gndabi as 'mounded-like' and may be a comment on an event or the circumstances surrounding the name-giving. It is also not uncommon for a person to be given a change of name to remind him/her of something significant: an enduring change would be such as Pagwabi 'piebald-piglike', reminding the person of a pig given as a gift, while a less enduring change would be igini ãija 'son's mother' to honour a woman on the birth of a male child.
7.3.2 The ergative suffix -handa only occurs with class 2 nouns. It cannot occur with class 2 nouns that are place names, nor with proper names that are not the names of humans -
thus the names of spirits, such as Hejolabe and Hiwagamabi, are class 1 nouns, taking the ergative suffix -me. -handa occurs as the ergative marker of certain terms denoting close kinship, such as aba 'father', aījã 'mother' and ama 'maternal aunt', which belong to this class of nouns. Examples of -handa are:

| Juwi | handa bi | lole |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Juwi | ERG talk/words utter-PURP | make/do-3-SIMP PRES |
| Juwi (by) talk | to-utter | makes/is making |
| Juwi will speak | $=$ | Juwihanda bi lole bira |

I aba + handa anda ogoni bini
ls father ERG house that make/do-EX DEF I/my father (by) house that made my father built that house
$=$ I abahanda anda ogoni bini
Malagi* + handa beba* ogo gili bijada
Malachy ERG paper this line make/do-3-SIMP PAST-MOD Malachy (by) paper this lines did-certainly/must have Malachy must have written this letter
$=$ Malagihanda beba* ogo gili bijada

### 7.4 CLASS 3 NOUNS

7.4.1 Personal pro-nouns constitute class 3, occurring with the ergative suffixes -na and -gwa, and, when suffixed for reflection, -me. There is a singular (S), dual (D) and plural (P) in each person ( 1,2 and 3 ), the system being set out below in figure 29. In most dialects, distinctions in tone are main-
tained between $1 S$ and $2 S, 2 D$ and $3 D$, and $2 P$ and $3 P$ (cf table A1).
7.4.2 The definitive suffix -ne may be added to these forms to generate a form that signals reflection. In accordance with vowel harmony rules, it is realized as -ni with all of these items except the $1 D$ and $1 P$.
7.4.2.1 The reflection signalled may be emphatic, as in:
ibu ne ira mopene $\quad=$ ibuni ira mopene
$3 S$ DEF wood CAUS-go-EX DEF
he (self) wood cause-went
he himself went to fetch wood

| garo* | ina + | ne | hondole | berama |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ar | $1 P$ | DEF | sense/see-PURP | make/do-1P-SIMP | PRES |
| ar | we | (selves) | to-see | make/are making |  |
| nu | elves | are goi | ng to see the | r |  |


it may be reflexive, as in:

| ri |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3S DEF | CAUS -decoration make/do-PURP mak | make/do-3-SIMP PRES |
| he (self) | cause decoration to-make is | is making/makes |
| he is going | to cause himself to be decorated |  |
| he's going to decorate himself = ibuni mojari bule bira |  |  |
| ina + ne | ani manda bidama |  |
| 1 P DEF | thus head make/do-lp-EX PRES |  |
| we (selves) | ) thus head make/are making |  |
|  |  |  |

or it may be reciprocal, as in:

7.4.3 The ergative suffixes -na, -me and -gwa occur with class 3 nouns: - na with $1 S$ and 2S; -me with $1 D, 1 P$ and forms that carry the DEF suffix; and -gwa with all other forms. Ex-
amples are such as:
I + na bi loabe $\quad=$ ina bi loabe
lS ERG talk utter-DES-Q
I (by) talk utter-wish?
I'd like to speak

| Ini +me | bi lole | bero |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1S-DEF ERG | talk utter-PURP | make/do-lS-SIMP PRES |
| I-self (by) | talk to-utter | make/am making |
| I myself am | going to speak | $=$ Innime bi lole bero |
| ija + me | tia bariba |  |
| 1D ERG | possum hit/kill- | D-SIMP PAST |
| we (by) | possum killed |  |
| we killed a/ | /the possum | = ijame tia bariba |

libu + gwa bebani* gili binibe
2D ERG paper-ADV line make/do-EX DEF-Q
you (by) paper-on lines made?
did you write on the paper?
= libugwa bebani* gili binibe
abe $\quad i b u+g w a$ gana timbuni bija
yesterday 3 S ERG . ditch big make/do-3-SIMP PAST
yesterday he (by) ditch big made/dug
yesterday he dug a big ditch
= abe ibugwa gana timbuni bija
7.4.3.1 It is possible to interpret $1 \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{lP}$ and all reflex forms (with DEF suffix) as class 1 nouns, since they accept only -me as ERG suffix. However, it is convenient to regard $1 D$ and $1 P$ as being exceptions, and to retain the reflexives with the other pro-nominal forms in class 3 on the grounds that they have basic forms that belong to this class.
7.4.4 The ergative suffix -wa can also conveniently be described here, since it is the only remaining ERG suffix, even though it is not one of those accepted by any of the noun classes and really belongs to the section dealing with suffixes in in general (7.10). It is limited in occurrence to the $A$ - form adverbial ai 'who?', as in the examples

```
wena ai + wa page bija ai + wa lajabe
fish who ERG steal make/do who ERG utter-3-SIM PAST-Q
fish who (by) steal did who (by) said/spoke-?
who stole the fish?
```

```
who said / who spoke?
```

```
who said / who spoke?
```


### 7.5 CLASS 4 NOUNS

7.5.1 The customary verb form (5.2.5) and the purposive verb form (5.4.5) generate class 4 nouns when they receive as a suffix the definitive morpheme, -ne. In the case of the CUST, suffixing the DEF morpheme signals a customary actor, instrument or action, as in the examples:


```
paliaga + ne ogoni
lie down/sleep-CUST DEF that
sleep-customarily that that (is)
that's,the sleeping place/board/mat/etc
```

                                    = paliagane ogoni
    aju nege . wiaga + ne
axe sharp edge place-CUST DEF
axe sharp edge place-customarily that
(an) axe sharpener $\quad=$ aju nege wiagane
tomo dawaga + ne
fond cook-CUST DEF
food cook-customarily that
(a) cook / (a) stove $=$ tomo dawagane
7.5.2 The purposive verb form accepts the DEF suffix to generate class 4 nouns as in the examples,

| bule + ne | hole + ne |
| :---: | :---: |
| do/make-PURP DEF | have/stay/be-PURP DEF |
| in-order-to do/make that | in-order-to have/stay/be that |
| (a/the) doing/making | (a/the) having/staying/being |
| = bulene | $=$ holene |
| nole + ne | pole + ne |
| ingest-PURP ..... DEF | go-PURP DEF |
| in-order-to eat/smoke that | in-order-to go that |
| (a/the) smoking/eating | (a/the) going |

[^1]constructions with the EV nga functioning as PV (cf 5.4.9). In other cases; when it is the PV of an APV construction that is suffixed, the result is that the APV construction itself is, given the limitations of descriptive terminology, nominalized. Examples are such as:
turu hole $\quad+$ ne
well being have/stay/is-PURP $\quad$ DEF
well being in-order-to-have/stay/be that
well being having / well being / happiness

7.5.2.2 Class 4 nouns take the ergative suffix -me, as is exemplified in
turu holene + me ibu moturu haja
well being having ERG 3 S CAUS well being have/stay-3-SIMP PAST happiness having (by) he cause-happiness had happiness made him happy
$$
=\text { turu holeneme ibu moturu haja }
$$
nege wiagane $\quad+$ me aju nege wia sharp edge placer ERG axe sharp edge place-2S-IMP PRES sharp edge placer-by axe sharp edge place sharpen the axe with the sharpener $=$ nege wiaganeme aju nege wia

### 7.6 NUMERATIVES

7.6.1 The Huli counting system is an integrated one, and is best described as a whole rather than treated piecemeal under separate category labels such as adverbials / adnominals / etc. It has a base of 15 , some of the names given to the units or numbers being parts of the body. Indeed, the system is taught
by counting first the fingers and thumb of one hand, and then proceeding up the arm, across to the chest, and then on to the head, the final unit counted being the nose, ngwi - which is the name given to 15 . This and the previous three units are clearly identifiable as body parts, although the other numerals are not.
7.6.1.2 The use of a transformational-generative descriptive framework, such as that proposed for English by Hurford (1975: 20), would be interesting. However, such a framework would incorporate a basic assumption that universal number concepts exist, and that an account of the Huli language should include a description of how it

> associates arbitrary phonological sequences (words) with these universal concepts. (Hurford 1975: 2)

More appealing, and perhaps less tied into European cultural perspectives, is Yallop's proposal
to dispense with the assumption that numbers are universal concepts and to see numeral systems as part of linguistic and cultural elaboration ... (Yallop 1987: 738)

Accordingly, I propose to describe the traditional numerative system in relation to its social function, and the way it is being adapted to new, non-Huli, concepts that are being taken up by the speech community.

### 7.6.1.1 The fifteen units of the system are:

| mbi one | ki | two | tebo three |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ma four | dau | five | waraga | six |
| ka seven | hali | eight | di | nine |
| pi | ten | bea | eleven | hombe twelve |
|  |  |  |  | (chest) |
| hale thirteen |  |  |  |  |
|  | dear) | fourteen <br> (eye) | ngwi | fifteen |
|  |  |  |  | (nose) |

7.6.2 The definitive suffix, -ne. This is added to the stem count unit to yield a form that can usefully be glossed by an ordinal number in English. The vowel harmony rules given in chapter 4 (cf 4.11 .3 .3 ) apply, as in the examples:

7.6.2.l mbi 'one' and ki 'two' have exceptional forms, neither involving the DEF suffix. They are:

```
mbi + ra mbira mende
STM NUM
one at/towards second
one-at
(STM+NUM?)
second
```

7.6.2.2 The enclitic (-) labo is a further elaboration, signalling duality. It may be used to specify determiners (cf 7.7) or, in dialect $A 3$, with halu (cf 7.6.4.4) to denote two linked or consecutive occasions. Examples are:

| ogoni labo | gununu labo halu ibija |
| :--- | :--- |
| DET NUM | aeroplane NUM (time) come-3-SIMP PAST |
| these two | the aeroplane came twice |

7.6.3 The numerative suffix-ra. This suffix has the underlying form [ $f^{Y}$ a]. Non-phonemic palatalization has been described in 3.10 .3 , and orthographic representations such as -ira illustrate the environment in which this occurs. In the present case it persists even when the antepenultimate segment is /a/, but disappears with suffixing. The po does not allow a palatalized consonant to occur in the environments -ara, ura and -era, hence an orthographic convention intrudes $i$ after the consonant to indicate this. Examples are:

7.6.3.1 A deletion rule,

removes a from dau 'five', there being no apparant phonological motivation present. Another rule fronts and raises the final vowel of tebo, and in this case it is possible that this is due in part to the influence of the palatalized consonant, which has the same feature specifications as those adopted by the vowel. This second rule can be written as:

Examples of these rules in operation are:

| $\begin{array}{ll} \mathrm{dau} & \mathrm{ra} \\ \text { STM } & \text { NUM } \end{array}$ | $\cdots \quad \frac{d u}{5}+\underset{\text { (number) }}{\text { ra }}$ | $={\underset{5}{\text { duria }}}^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \text { tebo }+ & \text { ra } \\ \text { STM } & \text { NUM } \end{array}$ | $\cdots{ }_{3}^{\text {tebi }}+\underset{\text { (number) }}{\text { ra }}$ | $=\frac{\text { tebira }}{3}$ |

7.6.4 The clitics e, lu, pu and halu. These occur as proclitics with the first three count units, and as enclitics with the rest. They reflect the way Huli society thinks about and uses certain items that figure significantly in its activities.
7.6.4.1 e is employed in counting things that are regarded as composed of individual parts that are similar or even identical. It appears to be restricted to fruit that grows in clusters eg bananas - or syncarps - eg pandanus nuts. Examples are:
hai e mbira jalu cary pija
banana (hand) one carry SIMl go-3-SIMP PAST
bananas hand one carrying (he) went
he carried away a hand of bananas
anga dau e jolo bulebe
pandanus five (syncarp) price do/make-PURP-Q
pandanus five syncarps price in-order-to-do?
(do you) want to buy five pandnaus syncarps?
7.6.4.2 lu is used in counting individual items or parts of an e: individual bananas or single nuts. It has also been heard being used of individual planks in a stack of wond - as in the first example below - and may replace halu in dialect Al.

7.6.4.3 pu is used in counting beads or small shells and, unlike lu, which is something like 'ones', refers to twos or pairs. Examples are:

7.6.4.4 halu counts occasions, or times: it can be glossed as 'time/s', and occasionally as 'often'. Speakers of Al dialect sometimes substitute $1 u$ for halu. The collocation of halu and labo has been described in 7.6.2.2. Examples are:

```
gununu halu ki ibija
aeroplane (time) two come-3-SIMP PAST
aeroplane times two came
the aeroplane came twice
ibugwa hombe halu kangome bajaja
3S-ERG twelve (time) stick-ERG hit-3-SIMP PAST-MOD
he-by twelve times stick-by hit (it/him)-must/would
he must have hit (him) twelve times with the stick
```

7.6.4.4.1 halu may occur with the A- word agi 'what?' to produce an interrogative such as:
agi halu bajabe
what (time) hit-3-SIMP PAST-Q
what times hit (it/him)-?
how many times did he hit (him)?
7.6.5 Numbers beyond 15
are obtained by suffixing and by forming numerative groups. The second 15 numbers are represented by the formula,

> STM + NUM + LOC \#\# STM + NUM
in which STM is the numerative stem (referred to above as the 'count unit'), the first suffix is the number suffix -ra, and the second the locative suffix of the adessive -ni (cf 5.5.6). Numerative groups patterened on this formula are such as:

7.6.5.1 Subsequent fifteens have the formula

STM \#\# STM (\#\# STM \#\# STM+DEF+DET+POSS \#\# STM+NUM)
Examples of such numerative groups are:

| ngwi | \#\# ma | ngwi | \#\# | di | ngwi | \#\# |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| STM | ngwi |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15 | 4 | STM | STM | STM | STM | STM |
|  | 15 | 9 | 15 | 15 |  |  |


7.6.6 New ways of counting have arisen as a result of contact with European cultures. Base 10 has become widely used, and is managed within the framework used for base 15. The basic units are the morphemes for 1 to 10 (7.6.1), suffixed as usual (7.6.2; 7.6.3). Numbers above ten and below twenty follow the formula used for the second group of fifteen (cf 7.6.5), as exemplified by:

7.6.6.1 Numbers above 19 are represented by a modification of the formula for numbers above 29 (7.6.5.1), thus:

STM+NUM \#\# STM+NUM (\#\# STM+DEF+DET+POSS \#\# STM+NUM)
Examples of numerative groups with this formula are:

|  | ra | \#\# ki + ra |  |  |  | pira kira |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| STM | NUM <br> (number) |  | STM | NUM |  | two tens |
| 10 |  |  | 2 | ( numb |  | twenty |
| pi | ra | \#\# | tebo | $+\mathrm{ra}$ | $=$ | pira tebira |
| STM | NUM |  | STM | NUM |  | three tens |



```
pi + ra ## ka + ra ##
STM NUM STM NUM
10 (number) 7 (number)
hali+ni + go + naga ## hali + ra 
```

= pira karia halinigonaga halira
seven tens and eight of the eighth
seventy-eight
7.6.6.2 One hundred is usually pira pira 'ten tens', but it may also be transliterated as hanare*. For counting beyond the hundred, the borrowed item is employed, according to the formula given above in 7.6.6.1, with the formula given in 7.6 .6 added if needed. Examples are:

= hanare* kira tebonegonaga duria
two hundreds and five of the third
two hundred and five

7.6.6.3 A further major change in the counting system has been brought about by the new need to count weeks, months and
years. White colonizers presented the Huli with a week made up
of 5 days on which work was done and 2 on which it wasn't, and the earliest incorporation of this into Huli culture is expressed in the way in which days were named. Each workday was signalled by the formula

$$
\mathrm{X} \text { \#\# STM + DEF }
$$

in which $\mathrm{X}=$ biabe 'work'. This covers numerative groups like:

| biabe tebo ne | biabe dau + ne |
| :--- | :--- |
| work STM DEF | work STM DEF |
| work 3 | (that) |
| work third | work 5 (that) |
| $=$ | biabe tebone |
|  | Wednesday |

7.6.6.4 Of the two non-work days, one was promoted by the Christian missionaries as being more important - bigger - than the other. The term 'Saturday' was borrowed into the language for both non-work days, the first such day being qualified by being designated emene 'little', the second being qualified by timbuni 'big', thus:

| Sarere* emene | sarere* timbuni <br> Saturday little <br> Saturday |
| :--- | :--- |
| Saturday big |  |
| Sunday |  |

7.6.6.5 The morpheme ege 'moon/rock' was used to designate months, following the Tok Pisin 'mun' (moon). 'Year' was seen as something recurring after a long stretch of time, similar to the intervals between the public mali 'dances' of the haroli (2. 3.2.7): 'year' became mali. sarere, when unqualified, is the term now used for 'week'. ege, mali and sarere may be counted in the same way as biabe 'work (days)', so that the formula given in 7.6.6.3 extends to the morphemes being considered here: $X$ can be realized by biabe, sarere, ege or mali, each of which is superordinate to the one that precedes it.
7.6.6.6 As English has become more dominant, lexical borrow-
ing has increased, and Sunday and Monday have passed into Huli, accruing along the way the locational suffixes -ngi (5.5.4.1) and -ni (5.5.6), which occur in free variation, thus:

| mande $+n g i$ | $=$ mandengi | Monday |
| ---: | :--- | ---: |
| sande $+n i$ | $=$ sandeni | Sunday |
| mande $+n i$ | $=$ mandeni | Monday |
| sande $+n g i$ | $=$ sandengi | Sunday |

7.6.6.7 Expanding beyond six the number of days that can be specified has created the need for a way of counting that can deal with them. Instead of building on the existing system of prefix reduplication (cf 6.2.3.1), the speech community has adapted the general counting methods described in 7.6 .5 et seq, and counting beyond 6 days in the past or future is accomplished according to the formulae set out and exemplifed below.
7.6.6.8 The formulae

## X \#\# LOC+DET+LOC

## X \#\# LOC \#\# V-PAST+DET

represent the next or previous $X$, where $X$ is one of the time units given in 7.6.6.5, excluding biabe 'work(day)'. LOC, suffixed or free standing, is realized as ede 'across/over there' (cf 6.2.l; 6.2.1.3); +DET as -go; +LOC as -ria, the inessive suffix (cf 5.5.7.1); and V-PAST is always

$$
\operatorname{pi}_{\text {go-STM }}+\underset{3-S I M P \text { PAST }}{\text { ja }}=\underset{\text { went/gone }}{\text { pija }}
$$

Hence, the latter formula signals only past time. Examples of numerative groups that follow these configurations are:
sarere \#\# ede + go + ria
DOC
saturday across/over there (that) at
at that saturday across there


ege ede +| go + ria ibagwa |
| :--- |
| $X$ \#\# LOC |$\quad$ DET LOC come-lS FUT

moon across there that at I shall come
at that moon across there I shall come
= ege edegoria ibagwa I'll come next month

It will be noticed from this last example that, when the first formula is used, the context determines whether it applies to past or future time.
7.6.6.9 A subordinate of a designated time unit can be specified with the formula

X \#\# LOC+DET+POSS \#\# S \#\# STM+DEF+LOC
in which $S$ is the subordinate of $X ;$ LOC is an adessive suffix, either -ngi (cf 5.5.4.1) or -ni (cf 5.5.6); and the other abbreviations are as already given. Once again, time past or future is signalled by the context. Examples of this numerative group are:

7.6.6.1 10 subordinates of time units beyond those immediately past or to come - ie beyond 'next/last $X$ ' - can be specified by the formula


The upper option applies to future time, the lower to past. ENC is the abessive enclitic howa 'from' (6.2.2, 6.2.2.1), and the final +LOC is either of the adessive suffixes -ni or -ngi,as in 7.6.6.9 above. Groups with this formula are such as:



after six months

at/on the third Saturday of the seventh (month)
$=$. ege waragaria howa (ege) kanegonaga sarere teboneni the third week of the seventh month from now

that six months gone


that two weeks gone

```
    tebo + ne + go + naga biabe dau + ni + ngi
    STM DEF DET POSS S STM DEF LOC
    3 (that) (that) of work 5 (that) at/on
    at/on the fifth day of the third
= sarere kira pijago (sarere) tebonegonaga biabe dauningi
```

on the Friday of the week before the week before last
7.6.6.11 There are other formulae being used as Huli society evolves a way of describing the new time-schema that has been imposed on it. The formulae given here are probably the most widely used and understood. They are important in that they offer an illustration of how the speech community uses its lingguistic resources to express new, non-traditional concepts and to signal changing patterns of social behaviour.

### 7.7 DETERMINERS

7.7.1 Huli determiners are those referential items that identify both endophoric and exophoric referents, in relation to their proximity to the point of narrative or to the speaker. This tendency towards speaker centeredness - the speaker being the fixed point of reference - was also evident in the use of spatial locatives (cf 6.2.1).
7.7.2 The determiner suffix -gn/-ru has figured in previous sections (egs $5.5 .2,5.5 .3,6.3 .5$ ), as has the locative adessive -ni (egs 5.5.6, 6.3.6). The DET suffix indicates a referent closer to the speaker than a referent which, besides the DET, also carries the LOC adessive suffix. The suffixes are typically added to the stems 0 , hea, berea, wia, bia and ebere. The system is set out in table 19, below.
7.7.3 The covert classificatory system of the language (cf 5.1 .6 et seq) is operative here, in that the referents of the stems hea, berea and wia are those associated with ka, beda and nga respectively (cf table 16).

| STEM | -go/-ru | $-g 0 /-r a+-n i$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| most proximate: here | less proximate: this / these | least proximate: that / those |
| $\bigcirc$ | ogo uru | ogoni <br> uruni |
| hea | heago hearu | heagoni hearuni |
| berea | bereago berearu | bereagoni berearuni |
| wia | wiago wiaru | wiagoni wiaruni |
| bia | biago biaru | biagoni biaruni |
| ebere | eberego | eberegoni |

Table 19: Determiners
7.7.3.1 The stems can be glnssed as:

- 'here/ this place where $I$ the speaker $\mathrm{am}^{\prime}$
hea 'this ('ka class') person/thing here in this place'
berea 'this ('beda class') person/thing here in this place'
wia 'this ('nga class') thing here in this place'
bia 'this person/thing already referred to here where I am'
ebere 'this one of those two here in this place where I am'
7.7.3.2 Since these referential items are speaker-centred in orientation, "proximate" in table 19 indicates proximity to the speaker, and does not necessarily locate the referent in respect to the hearer.
7.7.3.3 It should be noted that the clitic labo (cf 7.6.2.2) may follow the singular form of a determiner to signal duality.
7.7.3.4 It is useful to observe that Huli determiners seem to approximate closely to the "deictic articles" of Erima, in that they have

> the function of 'pointing out' a person, object, event, or idea talked about by locating it in space or time or 'identifying it, and then relating it or linking it to its grammatical and textual context. (Colburn 1984: 214)

These determiners are marked for proximity and definiteness, and those within the ambit of the covert classificatory system are also marked for "gender". Forms that carry the DET suffix are further marked for number.
7.7.4 Referencing is initiated endophorically by selecting any of the unsuffixed stems (except bia or ebere), or any stem (except bia) carrying the DET suffix marked for plural number. Referencing is continued by use of an appropriately suffixed form of bia, or, more rarely, of the original determiner.
7.7.4.1 Exophoric referencing by determiners involves initial use of the appropriate stem, suffixed or unsuffixed, and is maintained by use of suffixed forms, the categories 'most' and 'less' proximate being collapsed.
7.7.4.2 Examples of determiners in use are:


```
pig that big no small/little
that pig isn't big, it's small
tugulimboi* uru bajale, uruni mangahe
school children these good those lazy
these school children are good, those are lazy
agali hea ka
man this-one-here-nearest-me EV-3
man this-one-here is
there's this man here
dama hearu + me agali bo naja
spirits these ERG man hit/kill-STM ingest-3-SIMP PAST
spirits these-by man kill(ed) ate
these spirits killed and ate the man
                                    = dama hearume agali bo naja
wali dalo berearu + me dugu bini
women widow(s) these ERG wail make/do-EXT DEF
women widows these*by wail/keen made
these widows keened = wali dalo berearume dugu bini
ibugwa ira wiaruni page bini
3S-ERG wonds those-referred to thievery make/do-EXT DEF
he woods those thievery made
he stole those planks
igiri emene'kn bia kohe
boy small young that-one-here-previously-referred to bad
boy small young that bad
that little boy is a bad boy
ibuwa, dama biaruni biraja
Come-CONS spirits those-already-referred to sit-3-SIMP PAST
having come, spirits those sat down
the spirits, having arrived, sat down
hina timbuni eberego jolo bulija
sweet potato large this-and-not-the-other(s) price do-lS~PERM
sweet potato large this price I-may-make
I'd like to buy this particular large sweet potato
```


### 7.8 NON-DERIVATIONAL ADNOMINALS

7.8.1 Adnominals modify or qualify nominal items, and may be derivational or non-derivatonal forms. Non-derivational adnominals are qualifiers such as:

| timbu | ko | debene | gahenge |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| large | bad | god | new |
| tiga | bare | tumagi | lu |
| straight | steep | short | long |

7.8.2 The intensifier (-)ore. This enclitic may follow an adnominal to signal intensity, which can be usefully glossed in English by 'very' (cf 6.4.2). Examples are such as:

| benalia hariga lu ore | agali ogoni tumagi ore |
| :--- | :--- |
| Benalia track long INT | man that short INT |
| hari |  |
| monntain steep ore | nogo ko ore |

7.8.3 The DEF suffix -ne may be added to some non-derivational adnominals or to the enclitic, to signal slightly more intensity or emphasis (difficult to gloss in English) as in:

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { timbu }+ \text { ne } \\ & \text { large } \end{aligned}$ | ---> | $\begin{aligned} & \text { timbu }+\underset{\text { ni }}{\text { large }} \end{aligned}$ | $=$ | timbuni large |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1 \mathrm{u}+$ ne |  | $\mathrm{lu}+\mathrm{ni}$ | $=$ | luni |
| long DEF |  | long (that) |  | long |
| ko ore + ne bad INT DEF |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ko ore }+ \text { ne } \\ & \text { bad very (that) } \end{aligned}$ | $=$ | ko orene really bad |

### 7.9 DERIVATIONAL ADNOMINALS

7.9.1 Suffixes may be added to certain nominal and to verbal items to generate adnominals. These suffixes are forms identical to certain pro-verb stems, and the DEF suffix -go. They figure prominently in the formation of adjuncts for APV constructions, provide a linguistic device for talking about colours, and illustrate how Huli grammatical categories are not always neatly identified by traditional labels.
7.9.2 Pro-verb forms that occur as suffixes in generating adnominals are most commonly
-bi from bi 'make/do'
-le from le 'utter'
-he from he 'have/stay/be'

I will briefly illustrate how adnominals are formed by means of these.
7.9.2.1 $=b i$ is significant in the formation of adnominals that correspond to English colour words. The stem nominal is a familiar referent that has a distinct colour and is culturally significant. The force of the suffix is to indicate that the nominal being modified is 'like' the stem nominal in colour, so that the adnominal that is formed may be glossed as 'like' or '-ish'. Stem nominals are referents such as clays (which are used as body paints), pigs, and blood, as illustrated by the examples:
beba* ogoni ambwa + bi $=$ beba* ogoni ambwabi
paper that yellow clay ADN
paper that yellow clay-like/-ish (is)
that paper is yellow

| ina hona + bi kamago | libu mindi + bi kabi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 p$ ginger pig ADN EV-lP-DET | 2D black pig ADN EV-2D |
| we ginger pig-like are | you black pig-like are |
| we're white and you're black |  |

we're white and you're black $=$ ina honabi kamago libu mindibi kabi

| garo* darama + bi | nu |
| :--- | :--- |
| car blood ADN | string bag vermillion clay ADN |
| car blood-like | string bag vermillion clay-like |
| a red car | a vermillion string bag |
|  | $=$ garo* daramabi |

7.9.2.1.1 -bi may also be used as adnominal suffix to any nominal with which bi 'make/do' can co-occur. Thus any adjunct (A) which belongs to the set governed by bi (cf 5.1 .7 ) may be adnominalized by this suffix, as well as any nominal which is not of that set but which can occur as grammatical subject of bi.

Examples are:

| labolabo* garment garment | aju jo + bi | 1 | biabe | ere | kwi + bi |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | now dryness ADN | 15 | work | back | bone ADN | do-1S-PRES |
|  | now dryness-ish | I | work | back | bone-ish | am doing |
| the garme | t's dry now | I | doing | some | hard work |  |
|  | * aju |  |  | T | e | ibi bero |


| dindi dagare + bi | tomo kau + bi |
| :--- | :--- |
| land coldness ADN | food bitterness ADN |
| land coldness-like/-ish | food bitterness-like |
| a cold place/country | bitter tasting food |
|  | $=$ dindi dagarebi |

7.9.2.2 - le similarly derives from/corresponds to the classificatory PV le 'utter'. It may be suffixed to other verb forms to generate $A s$, as in,

```
biabe bu + le brerama
work make/do^STM ADN make/do-lP-SIMP PRES
work do-like/-ish make/dne/are making/are doing
work in-order-to-do we are making
we're going to do some work
                    = biabe bule berama
```

which exemplifies an APV construction that has been analyzed previously (5.4.5) as the purposive. It occurs as an adnominalizer in

| I agali baja + le |
| :--- |
| $2 S$ man goodness ADN |
| you man goodness*ish |$\quad=$ i agali bajale

and with As of the set governed by le, such as:

```
aga karu + le kami tomo aju libu + le
cloak wrapping ADN EV-IP
cloak wrapping-like we are
we're wrapped in cloaks
    = aga karule kami
pu pongo ndibu + le
vine knot tightness ADN
rope knot tightness-ish
a tight knot
    = pu pongo ndibule
```

```
fond now tepidness ADN
```

fond now tepidness ADN
food now tepidness-ish
food now tepidness-ish
the food's gone cold now
the food's gone cold now
= tomo aju libule
= tomo aju libule
gana janga + le
gana janga + le
ditch width ADN
ditch width ADN
ditch width-ish
ditch width-ish
a wide ditch
a wide ditch
= gana jangale

```
    = gana jangale
```

7.9.2.3 -he is from he 'have/stay/be', and occurs in the generation of the possibilitative adjunct (cf 5.2.16), thus:


It may also be added to nominals which co-occur with it either as

As that it classifies or as its grammatical subject. Examples:

```
garo* ogo hongo + he
car this strength ADN
car this strength-is-ish
this car's powerful
        = garo* ogo hongohe
```

garo* ogo hongo + he
car this strength ADN
this car's powerful $=$ garo* ogo hongohe
libu agali wa + he
$2 D$ man rejection ADN
you man rejection-is-ish
you are old man

$$
=1 i b u \text { agali wahe }
$$

2D man rejection ADN
you man rejection-is-ish
you are old man
$=$ libu agali wahe

```
ira kimbi + he
wood roughness ADN
wood roughness-is-ish
rough wood
```

    = irakimbihe
    I wali hale pai + he
$1 S$ woman ear block ADN
I woman ears block-is-ish
I'm a deaf woman
$=$ I wali hale paihe
7.9.2.4 Examples of similarly derived adnominals are:
-pe from pu 'go':
agali embone + pe dindi mbala + pe
man skull ADN ground flatness ADN
man skull-gone-ish
a bald man
= agali embonepe

```
ground flatness-gone-ish
level ground
        = dindi mbalape
```

-wi from wi 'place':
I igiri mini $+w i \quad t i$ agali muni* dewa $+w i$ kami
2 S boy mind ADN
you boy mind-put-ish
you're a sensible boy
$=$ i igiri miniwi

```
2P man money much ADN EV-2P
you men money much-put-ish are
you're rich men
    = ti agali muni* dewawi kami
```

7.9.2.5 The derivational PV forms -he, -bi and -wi may be suffixed to the SIMl forms (cf 5.2.l0) of the PVs from which they are derived, forming adnominals whose semantic import is that the nominal being qualified is in a durative state (cf 10.2.3.1) of the process that is signalled. Examples are:
haribi dindibi wa biaga ibu halu the ka sky-COM earth-COM production make-CUST 3 S have/be-SIM1 ADN EV-3 sky-and earth-and production maker he being-ish is the maker of heaven and earth is eternal
$=$ haribi dindibi wa biaga ibu haluhe ka

7.9.3 The DET suffix -go/-ru may be added to a non~medial verb form to generate an adnominal, as indicated in the set of examples below (cf also 5.5.2.1):

```
1. agali ibija
    man come-3-SIMP PAST
2. agali ibija + go
    man come-3-SIMP PAST DET
3. agali ibija + go +me nogn baja
    man come-3 SIMP PAST DET ERG pig kill/hit-3-SIMP PRES
    man came (that) by pig killed
    the man that came killed the pig
```

The second example can be glossed as 'that/the man who came', and the DET suffix functions as changing the verbal into an adnominal that qualifies agali 'man'. This analysis is reinforced by its occurrence with the ergative suffix and its functioning as grammatical subject in example 3.

### 7.10 OVERVIEW OF SUFFIXES \& ENCLITICS

7.10.1 The systems of suffixes and enclitics that can cooccur with' nominals is shown below in figure 30. Many of these have been described in relation to other grammatical classes or, as in the case of the ergatives, in association with nominals (cf 7.1). Consequently, treatment here will be brief.
7.10.2 The interrogative suffix - be has been described in 5.5.1. It may be affixed to any nominal in an utterance that lacks a surface level verbal group, or that is an $A$ - question. Examples are such as:


$$
\begin{aligned}
& (-) \text { be } Q: \text { interrogative } \\
& -\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ccc}
- & (-) & \text { hondo LOC : adessive } \\
- & (-) \text { howa } & \text { LOC : abessive } \\
- & \text { ha } & \text { LOC }: \text { inessive } \\
-\mathrm{ni} & \text { LOC }: \text { adessive }
\end{array}\right. \\
& \text { - naga POSS } \\
& -\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{lll}
- & \text { me } & \text { ERG } \\
- & \text { handa } & \text { ERG } \\
- & \text { gwa } & \text { ERG } \\
- & \text { wa } & \text { ERG }
\end{array}\right. \\
& -\left.\right|_{-r u} ^{-g o} \quad \text { DET : singular } \\
& -\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ll}
- \text { bi } & \text { COM } \\
- \text { la } & \text { COM } \\
-m a & \text { COM }
\end{array}\right. \\
& -\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ccc}
-j a & \text { MOD } & \text { : external evidence } \\
- & \text { da } & \text { MOD } \\
- & \text { : external evidence } \\
- & \text { MOD } & \text { : external evidence } \\
\text { ore } & \text { MOD: intensifier }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

## Figure 30: Suffixes and enclitics co-nccurring with nominals

7.10.3 Enclitics that may co-occur with nominals have been described earlier: (-)hondo and (-)howa are the adessive and abessive locative particles (6.2.2), and (-) ore is the modal intensifier (5.6.3). Examples are

| ibu hondo la | mia |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 S$ | ENC utter-STM give/take- $2 S-$ IMP PRES |
| he/him to speak/talk give |  |
| tell him |  |


| Para Te howa ibiribe | I Huli wali ore |
| :--- | :--- |
| Para Te ENC come~ $2 S-S I M P$ PAST-Q | $2 S$ Huli woman ENC |
| Para Te from came (you)? | you Huli woman very |
| did you come from Para Te? | you're a true Huli woman |

homogn ore hamaga ka
important man ENC clearing-LOC EV-3
important man very clearing-at is
there's a very important man at the clearing
7.10.4 The locative suffixes -ha and -ni have been described in 5.5.6 and 5.5.7.2. Examples of them affixed to nom-

```
tini be tha hiraga
intestines bamboo LOC roast=CUST
intestines bamboo^in/inside (we) roast
we roast the intestines in a bamboo = tini beha hiraga
wali mabu + ha beda
woman garden LOC EV-3
woman garden-in/inside is
the woman's in the garden , = wali mabuha beda
igiri dagia + ni beda
boy plank LOC sit-3-EX PRES
boy plank-on is seated
the boy is seated on the plank = igiri dagiani beda
marasini* ge + ni hã\tilde{i}\mathrm{ hole bero}
medicine leg LOC smear have/stay=PURP make-lS SIMP PRES
medicine leg-on smear to-have (I) am making
I'll rub medicine on the leg
                                    = marasini* geni hãĩ hole bero
```

7.10.5 The possessive. Possession can be signalled by adding the suffix -naga to the nominal item that is the possessor. This is illustrated by the examples:
ogoni wanigini + naga tamunguru
that children POSS sleeping mat
that children of/for sleeping mat
that's the children's sleeping mat
nogo + naga hende ngo
pig poss rope EV-lS
pig of $/$ for rope (I) ~have-placed $=$ nogonaga hende ngo
I've got the pig's rope
wali + naga gamu birima
woman POSS ritual/spell do/make-lP-SIMP PAST
woman of/for ritual/spell (we) made/worked
we worked a woman's spell $\quad=$ walinaga gamu birima

It will be noticed that =naga can be glossed as 'of' or 'for': the context usually determines which is the more appropriate. It could be argued that benefaction and possession are seen by the Huli as conflated into a single relationship.
7.10.5.1 The suffix is frequently omitted, so that the above examples could be re-written:
ogoni wanigini tamunguru nogo hende ngo
wali gamu birima

Omission of the suffix signals a closer tie between possessor and possessed, and in the case of inalienable possessions, such as one's name or one's kin, the suffix is rarely used in normal utterances. Examples are such as:

7.10.6 The determiner -go/-ru has figured a number of times in the course of describing Huli morphology (egs 5.5.4-7; 6.3.5). It may be suffixed directly to nominals, as in the examples:

```
agali \(+\underset{\text { DET }}{g o}\)
man \(\quad\) that
man \(\quad\) agaligo
igiri + fu
boy DET
boys those
\[
\text { those boys }=\text { igiriru }
\]
```

```
wali + go
woman DET
woman that
that woman = waligo
nogo + ru
pig DET
pigs those
those pigs = nogoru
```

tiabu + ru hai + ru hina $+r u$ paboro + ru
asparagus DET banana DET sweet potato DET beans DET
asparagus those bananas those sweet potatoes those beans those
asparagus and bananas and sweet potatoes and beans
asparagus, bananas, sweet potatoes and beans
7.10.6.1 This last example is a good illustration of -ru functioning as a comitative. The corresponding singular morpheme is -bi (cf 6.5.3). These and the other comitatives are described and exemplified in 6.5.
7.10.6.2 In the same way, ergative suffixes have been adequately
described and exemplified previously, in 7.1-7.5.2.2.
7.10.7 Modal suffixes have been described in 5.5.8-16. Those given in figure 29 may be affixed to nominals in utterances with no verbal form, signalling modality and modulation, as in the examples:

```
nogo + ja \(=\) nogoja
pig MOD
pig it seemed certain/probable
it must have been a pig
nogo + da \(=\) nogoda
pig MOD
pig it seems certain/probable
it must be a pig
hariga lu \(+j a=\) hariga luja
track long MOD
track long it seemed certain/probable
the track must have been long
```

| danda + 10 | hina +10 |
| :---: | :---: |
| bow MOD | sweet potato MOD |
| bow certainly | sweet potato certanly |
| that's some bow! | that's some sweet potato! |
| = dandalo | = hinalo |

7.10.7.1 This concludes the description of nominals, and this part of the thesis, with its particular emphasis on morphology. The next two chapters describe the formal patterns and structures of the language, and present an interpretation that integrates its phonological and morphological processes. I shall first describe nominal, adverbial and verbal groups, and then clause-level relationships, interpreting their configurations in semantico-functional terms. The interpretion accepts that the functional approach to language description developed by Halliday (eg in Halliday 1985a; 1985b) ful when adopted and adapted for Huli.

## CHAPTER 8

## WORD COMPLEXES

### 8.1 UTTERANCE LEVEL

8.1.1 Huli is a verb-final language in that, when nonmedial verb forms occur in an utterance they usually occupy the final position. Given this generality, there is a variety of possible arrangements of constithent groups, the most general descriptive formula being:
$\backslash A D V 1$ \NOM1 \NOM2 \NOM3 \ADV2 \V\
in which at least one group is compulsory, and in which

```
    \ = group boundary v = verb
ADV1 = utterance modifier NOMl = grammatical subject
ADV2 = lncation/manner NOM2 = indirect object
NOM3 = direct object
```

An example in which all of these slots are filled is:

```
aju i dama hondo nogo abale
ADV1 NOM1 NOM2 NOM3 ADV2
today ls spirit to pig quickly
today I spirit to pig quickly
today I'll quickly sacrifice
```

bo mule bero
V mill-STM give-PURP make-lS-SIMP PRES
kill
kill to-give make/am making
a pig to the spirit
8.1.1.1 Other frequently realized formulae are: NOM2 ADV1 NOM3 ADV2 V NOM3 NOM1 ADV2 V NOM3 NOM2 $1 \mathrm{~V} \quad$ ADV2 NOM3 V

Examples are:
Wanali jawi ega habane mule bero NOM2 ADV1 NOM3 V Wanali tomorrow bird fat/egg give-PURP do/make-lS-SIMP PRES

I'll give Wanali an egg tomorrow

8.1.1.2 This chapter will describe and interpret nominal, adverbial and verbal groups from the point of view of the functions and configurations of their constituent members, using and adapting the concepts developed by M.A.K. Halliday (1985a, 1985b).

### 8.2 NOMINAL GROUPS

8.2.1 The constituents of the nominal group's experiential structure are illustrated in the examples:

1) ibu 3 S
2) ira timbuni tree big


3) ira haro tree nak

4) 

wali dalo dewa berearume women widowed many those-DET-ERG

5)
agali ko gibi ore
man bad frightful very $|\overline{=}|_{\overline{\mathrm{TH}}}^{\text {EP }} \mid$
6) agali
biago
man that-one-there


8.2.1.1 The functions and realizations of the consituents can be set out as follows:
$\mid \overline{T H}$ Thing: the semantic core of the nominal group (Halliday 1985c: 167), may be any of the classes of of nouns described in $7.1-7.5$. ples given it is usually realized by class 1 nouns.
$\overline{E P} \mid$ Epithet: ascribes some quality to the $T H$, and is usually realized by an adnominal (cf 7.8; 7.9). EPs may be experiential, based on objective evidence (as in examples 2 and 4), or they may be interpersonal, conveying the speaker's affective attitude (as in example 5). They may also conflate these two functions, and ko 'bad' in example 5 could be interpreted as an instance of this. Experiential EPs usually come before interpersonal EPs.
(") Classifier: indicates the sub-class or type to which the TH belongs. It may be realized by a class 2 noun (as in example 3) or by a verbal group signalling customary action (as in example 7). When realized by a verbal group or by a class 2 noun that is a place name, it always occurs immediately before the TH ; when realized by any other class 2 noun it occurs immediately after the TH. It is interesting that Nebilyer also seems to accomodate CLs on either side of the $T H$, as suggested by occurrences such as el ung 'arrow talk' and ung eke 'bent talk' (cf Rumsey 1980: 284).
$|\overline{D C}|$ Deictic: signals the degree of specificity the speaker intends to assign to the TH. Specific DCs are realized by determiners (cf 7.7; 7.9.9), as in examples 4 and 6; possessives (cf 7.10.5); and A- forms (cf 6.3.3;6.3.5) such as au 'what?' and ago 'which?'. Non-specific DCs are real-
ized by adnominals such as maru 'some', bibahende 'all', and the $N M$ mbira when it signals 'a/n, one'.
$\overline{N M}$ Numerative: signals numerical information about the TH. This may be a definite quantity indicated by the stem count unit (7.6.1) with the numerative suffix (7.6.3) or the definitive suffix (7.6.2) - or it may be an indefinite quantity - indicated by adnominals such as dewa 'many' and emene or maru when they signal 'small amount, few'.
8.2.1.2 An interesting configuration is exhibited in the example shown below. This illustrates that an initial CL may be a class 2 noun, and that the final constituent may be a derivational adnominal, generated by suffixing the DET morpheme to a non-medial verb form that is in grammatical concord with the head of the group (here the TH ). There is clearly a deictical quality to this element, contributed by the DET suffix, while it defines the head element as a direct participant in a process. As such, it qualifies the head, and is labelled "qualifier" (QL) in this analysis, as shown below:

Nduna agali wahe tebira ibijarume bi la ngule bira Duna men old three came-3-DET-ERG will tell (you)

8.2.1.3 Further embedding is illustrated by the example, Nduna agali ko mbiranaga one mbira wahe ore ibijagome Duna man bad one-POSS wife one old very came-DET-EG

in which the first DC is an embedded nominal group, consisting
of a CL realized by a class 2 noun. a TH realized by a class l noun, an EP realized by an adnominal, and a DC realized by a numerative. This indicates that a CL may also be realized by an embedded nominal group, while the configuration of the total group shows that such groups may have more than one $D C$.
8.2.1.4 Nominal groups with one constituent - eg ibu $3 S$ - are common, while groups with four or five are not unusual. Embedding of nominal and verbal groups is a characteristic of Huli speech, and plays an important part in the realization of nominal group constituents.
8.2.2 The logico-semantic ordering of the constituents in the examples given so far indicate that the $T H$ is the central element to which all the others relate in some way. If the $T H$ is interpreted as the head of the group, then modification to the right of the head can be seen to be recursive, each element modifying the one that went before. This is seen in the example that follows, in which $\alpha$ is the head and the other Greek letters represent progression away from it.

> wali dalo dewa berearume women widowed many those-DET-ERG


The EP immediately following the $T H$ modifies it by answering the question agile 'what kind?'; a NM then modifies the EP, telling us how many - agira 'how many?' - THs of that kind, and a DC follows pointing to which specific 'many' - ago 'which?' - the speaker has in mind.
8.2.2.1 Elements to the left of the head usually modify it by
signalling its more permanent attributes, as in the examples of pre-head Cls and DCs already given (cf 8.2.1; 8.2.1.2; 8.2.1.3). Post-head CLs are interesting in that while they usually signal permanent attributes, they are also involved in the post-head recursive modification process described above. This is illustrated in the example:
ira haro timbuni gibi ore ogoni
tree nak big frightful very that one

8.2.3 The head of the nominal group need not be a TH , as is shown by the examples,
wahe biago andaga pija tomo dawaga bajale naibi old that home went food cook-CUST good is not come $\left|\frac{|\overline{E P}| D C}{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha}\left|\frac{\beta}{\text { that }}\right|}\right|$ (one) went home
 In both cases, the $T H$ is understood to be a person and is omitted. Either group could be expanded, for example:

8.2.3.1 Besides CLs and EPS, NMs and DCs may fill the head slot, as in the examples:
biagome muni* mija that money took


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ogoni hangu laro } \\
& \text { that alone (I) say } \\
& \left|\frac{\overline{D C}}{\alpha}\right|_{\text {that's all }} \text { I'm saying }
\end{aligned}
$$

tebira ibule bira three to-come are making $|\overline{\overline{N M} \alpha}|$ whree will come
hombene jolo biru twelfth price (I) made

bought the twelfth
8.2.3.2 Count clitics, e 'cluster', lu 'single' and pu 'pair', are special NMs, and usually function as heads, thus:
hai e mbira
banana cluster one

anga lu tebo pandanus singles three

dange pu mende cowerie shells pair two

anga dau e
pandanus five clusters

hai ngwi lu banana fifteen singles

gurubu dau pu gurubu beads five pairs

8.2.3.3 The TH of a measure group such as those above may be itself modified, and previous examples have shown that this may occur in other nominal groups. Sub-modification can be indicated as in the examples:
gurubu bajale ma pu hai ngubi e mende
gurubu beads good four pairs banana stinking hands two


Nduna agali ko mbiranaga one mbira wake ore ibijagome Duna man bad one-POSS wife one old very came-DET-EG

$=$ a very old wife of an evil Duna man who came / an evil Duna man's very old wife who came
8.2.3.4 ERs with intensifiers can be analysed as having a uni"variate structure, thus:

> ira haro timbuni gibi ore ogoni tree oak big frightful very that one

agali wane bajale mini gigabiwi ore biago man old good mind wise very that

8.2.3.5 This last example shows a nominal group embedded within an adnominal group that is functioning as an EP. Most adnominal groups are less complex, and mirror the structure of the group that functions as the EP in the first example 8.2.3.4.

[^2]inal group is predictable to some extent. Any element, apart from a QL, may appear as the sole member of a group. With the same exception, any element may be the logical head of a group. Higher (ie verbal) or equal (ie nominal) groups may appear embedded in any function slot. Table 20 below shows the possible sequential occurrences of elements in groups of two or more.


Table 20: Occurrences of nominal group elements
8.2.4.1 This table shows, for example, that a CL is restricted in occurrence to preceding an EP or a TH or to following a null element - ie being the first element in the group - or a TH. A QL, on the other hand, can occur after a DC, EP, NM or $T H$, but can precede only a null element - ie if it occurs at all, it must occupy final position in the group. The last entry, TH , can occur before any element except another TH , and follow a 0 , CL or DC. (The word classes that realize these functions have been given in 8.2.1.)
8.2.5 Adnominal groups have also figured in this description of nominal groups. Thus, example 5 of 8.2 .1 has an adnowinal group functioning as EP, whose univariate structure can be represented thus:


Examples in 8.2.2.1 and 8.2.3, viz:

wahe bajale mini gigabiwi ore biago
old good mind wise very that

illustrate that modification of adnominals is limited to the use of intensifiers, such as ore 'very', and derivational adnominals in apposition, such as gibi 'fearful' in the first example above, and gigabiwi 'wise' in the second.

### 8.3 ADVERBIAL GROUPS

8.3.1 Adverbial groups are univariate in structure and usually contain only one element, as in the examples:

8.3.1.1 Like adnominal groups, adverbial groups may consist of a head modified by an intensifier. This is exemplifed by: $\begin{array}{ll}\text { abale ore pija } & \text { dalimu ndo } \\ \text { quickly very (he) went } & \text { forcefully no call }\end{array}$

8.3.1.2 Adverbial groups may be inserted into APV configurations (cf 8.4.6) and may split other verb groups (cf 8.4.5). These features will be considered under the next section.

### 8.4 VERBAL GROUPS

8.4.1 General. Adjunct + pro-verb (APV) constructions and serialized verb strings are two candidates for discussion under this heading. APVs were described at length in 5.1.8, and this description has been expanded on the frequent subsequent occasions that they have been encountered. Serialized verbs have been briefly described in 5.4.3.1 and 5.4.4.1, and will be further considered now. However, before discussing these more obvinus verbal clusters, I would like to explore the notion that,
in Huli, it is the verb stem and its affixes that constitute the basic verbal cluster or group, whose elements are separated not by word boundaries (as is the case with English), but by morpheme boundaries.
8.4.2 Stems and suffixes. The stem may be regarded as the lexical part of the verb, the suffixes as the finite operators. The stem specifies the representational content, while the finite suffixes relate the verb to the speaker's location in time and space. Hence, the experiential structure of a verbal morpheme group parallels that of a nominal word group: from the event/entity (initiating the group) to a more definite and speaker orientated specification. This can be seen from:
a) anda bajale ogo house good this house good this

b) $\mathrm{pi}+$ rima go-STM 1P-SIMP PAST go-STM we-PAST-SUEX

8.4.2.1 In this analysis the verb stem is interpreted as expressing a process (an event, action, relation or act of consciousness), and is given the function label "Event" (EVN). Verbal suffixes, on the other hand, can be interpreted as func: tioning as "Finites" (FIN), relating the process to the location of the speaker in time and/or space (cf Halliday 1985c:176). Figures 3-5 give an inventory of verb stems (identified by the final vowel and its changes) and the three suffix groups with which they occur.
8.4.2.2 FINs may be temporal operators, such as those forms in figures 3-5 labelled PAST, PRES and FUT. They may be aspectual, such as CUST ( cf 5.2.5) and HAB (cf 5.2.20). They may be
modal operators, like the PERM (cf 5.4.8). They may conflate operations, as in the case of the PREC (cf 5.4.6-7), which has forms for signalling tense. Some operators conflate tense and aspect (cf 10.2.3.3-4). Examples of some of these FINs are:
a) temporal operators:

b) aspectual operators:
iname dama hondo nogo ba $\quad+\quad$ alu
lP=ERG spirit/s to pig/s hit/kill-STM SIMl

$=$ iname dama hondo nogo balu
we spirits to pigs killing
we (were/are) killing pigs to the spirits

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { alendo beba* hondo }+ \text { wa } \\
\text { afternoon/s paper sense-STM CONT }
\end{array} \\
& =\begin{array}{l}
\text { alendo } \\
\text { in the afternoon beba* hondowa } \\
\text { I read/saw (a letter/book) sensed/saw } \\
\text { in the afternoon }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

c) modal operators:

d) conflated operators:

8.4.3 Secondary suffixes, set out in figure 22 and detailed
under 5.5, are also part of the verbal morpheme group. Their function is to lend further modal or locational (spatial/temporal) specification. They may thus be interpreted as assisting the FIN and having an auxiliary function in the group. In the examples given below they are labelled AUX, but without the implication that they are morphemes of what are traditionally called "auxiliary verbs".
agali ibi + ja + ngi abi $\quad$ mirima
man come-STM $3-S I M P$ PAST LOC wergild we-gave

 woman die-STM 3-SIMP PAST LOC LOC group we-had

nogo home + ne + ja ibu $k a+10$ manda bido
pig die-STM EX DEF MOD

8.4.3.1 In the case of EVs (existential verbs: 5.1.6), the functions of EVN and FIN conflate, as is evident in the last example above.
8.4.3.2 It is possible to have up to three AUXs:
agali homa + ja
man die-STM $3-S I M P$ PAST + MOD + go + ni
LOC

8.4.3.3 It is interesting that the intrusion of a LOC element into a morpheme verbal group has been recorded for other Papuan languages - egs the elevationals/directionals of Yimas, Dani, Kewa, Yessan-Mayo, Alamblak, Kemtuk, Anggor and Sentani cited by Foley 1986 (148-152).
8.4.4 Prefixes are also part of the morpheme verbal group. The negative prefix na- (cf 5.6.1) marks Polarity (POL) for the whole group, while the causative mo- (cf 5.6.2) contributes to the representational function of the EVN, and will be labelled Pre-Event (PEV). Examples are as follows:

$\begin{aligned} & \text { hali mo- mi } \\ & \text { needle CAUS give=STM }\end{aligned}+\begin{aligned} & \text { ru } \\ & \text { n-SIMP PAST }\end{aligned}$

8.4.4.1 AUXs may co-occur with PEVs and POLs, as in:
bi nam le + go mo mi $+\mathrm{ni}+\mathrm{ja}+\mathrm{go}$
talk NEG utter-STM LOC CAUS give-STM EX DEF MOD LOC

8.4.4.2 The first example given above underlines the affinity
between EVs and EX forms (cf 5.3.1): the FIN may be omitted. However, in the example shown above, EVN and FIN are not analysed as conflated, as they are in the case of EVs (cf 8.4.3.1). The latter, EVs, carry a morpheme signalling number (cf 5.1.6), probably conflated with (present) tense, but EX forms can signal more that just present tense. Hence, the FIN in the example nalego, given above, is best interpreted as being deleted.
8.4.5 The logico-semantic structure of the morpheme verbal group selects elements from a set of closed systems - tense, modality, polarity, location - to modify the core semantic element, the EVN, in an ordered way. The ordering bears some resemblance to that of nominal word groups (cf 8.2.3).
8.4.5.1 The EVN is obligatory, and can be interpreted as head of the group, while the other elements are optional except that at least one has to be present. They modify the head systematically: the PEV and POL signal, within the constraints of the negative/positive systems of polarity and causality, what kind (agile) of process it is; the FIN signals the person and number (agira 'how many?'), tense (angi 'when?'), modality (au/agi 'how sure/necessary ': AUXs may introduce modality (how sure?) and location (ani/angi 'where/when?').
8.4.5.2 It is possible to select twice for temporal location, first in the FIN and then in an AUX, but modality can be chosen only once - either in the FIN or in the AUX - since forms with modal FINs (like aspectual FINS) do not accept AUXs.
8.4.5.3 Hence, AUXs that follow the FIN modify it by specifying temporal location within the tense it signals, or by intro-
ducing modality to compound with its tense. Examples are:
ani la + ja + gola $\quad$ ibi + rama + ngi thus utter-STM 3-SIMP PAST LOC go-STM 1P-SIMP PRES LOC

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { ani la } \\ \text { thus utter-STM }\end{array}+\underset{3-S I M P \text { PAST }}{\text { ja }}+\underset{\text { MOD }}{\text { ja }}$


$$
\underset{\text { ibi }}{\mathrm{come-STM}_{\text {EX DEF }}}+\underset{\text { MOD }}{\mathrm{ni}}
$$


8.4.5.4 Each additional AUX modifies the element that precedes it, while pre-head elements (ie PEV and POL) can be analysed as modifying the EVN. This recursive modification can be illustrated for the morpeheme verbal group with the same notation that was used for the nominal word group (cf 8.2.2), thus:


na - pe




8.4.6.1 The stem forms of non-final verbs are those that cooccur with $C$ suffixes (cf $5.1 .2 ; 5.1 .4$ ). An exception is the stem form la 'utter', which replaces 10, the anticipated form, when it is in collocation with ngi or mia, the 'give/take'verbs (cf 10.4.6.1). These exception are illustrated by:
bi la ngija bi la mija
talk say-STM give-3-SIMP PAST talk say-gave ( 3 to 1 or 2) he told me/us/you

```
talk say-STM give-3-SIMP PAST
talk say-gave (3 to 3)
he told him/them
```

| but: $\quad$ bi lo $\quad$ wija |  |
| :---: | :--- |
| talk utter-STM place-3-SIMP PAST |  |
| talk say-lay down (3) |  |
|  | he lay down rules/norms |

The semantics of the 'give/take' verbs are discussed in Ch. 10.
8.4.6.2 The logical head of the serial verb group is an EVN. The sequence of verb stems, each one of them an EVN, represents the temporal sequence of the components making up the process being described. It is possible to interpret all the EVNs as conflating into a single, macro-EVN, or to interpret the temporal sequence as encoding significant discrete pieces of information in each EVN. Given that a large number of Papuan languages exhibit this pattern (Foley 1986: 113), it could be said that this chronological ordering does encode normal, unmarked, logical sequences, and that to show this in analysis is useful, even important. Accordingly, I propose to interpret the initi-
al EVN as logical head, and other EVNs as logically subordinate, the final EVN attracting to itself the arguments because of its position at the end of the chain. Examples are:

$=$ we're digging up, peeling and baking sweet potato
8.4.6.3 There is an interesting configuration of just two verbs, the second always being le 'utter', the first always one of a closed set of EV cognates, viz: he 'be/stay/have'; bere 'be/squat/sit'; de 'be/extrude from'; pale 'be/lie down'; nge 'be/lie flat'. The EV cognate always occurs in its basic stem form (as given here), while le 'utter' carries the appropriate affixes. The first EVN is interpreted as the logico-semantic head, in accordance with 8.4.6.2 above. Examples are:

aju ogoriani $\quad$ nge laru
axe here-LOC-LOC be/lie flat utter-1S-SIMP PAST
axe at-this-place be/lie flat (I) said

$$
=\mathrm{I} \text { left (my) }
$$


ira abale de labe
wood quickly be/extrude from utter-2S-IMP FUT wond quickly (fire) extrude say

8.4.6.4 These groups qualify for consideration as examples of serialization in that the first element is an EVN, and the second an EVN with an appropriate FIN and AUXs. At the same time, they are transparently APV constructions, although unusual ones in that in every case the $A$ is an unaffixed verb stem.
8.4.6.5 The possibility of their being analysed as APV configurations reinforces the above interpretation of their logicosemantic structure. It will be recalled (cf 5.1.8.2), that the adjunct (A) is the lexical element in these constructions, with the pro-verb (PV) being a dummy that carries the inflexions. In this group, the $A$ is the logical and semantic head, and the $P V$ is in hypntaxis with it not as the dominant but as the subnrdinate element. This reinforces the interpretation of serial verb groups proposed in 8.4.6.2.

### 8.4.7 Split configurations. These have the structure V-STM \#\# LOC \#\# V

in which $V-S T M$ is a form that co-occurs with $A$ suffixes (cf tables 14 and 15), and $V$ is usually he 'have/be' or bi 'make/do' with the appropriate affixes. It is interesting that this mac
ro-verbal group has what can be analysed as a 'non-verbal'
element intruded into it, in much the same way as 'non-verbal' elements are present in the Huli micro-verbal (morpheme) group. The LOCs in split configurations are non=specific place words that are either nominal items or adverbials. Examples are:

| bira tagi habe |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| be/sit-STM ADV | be/have/stay-2S-IMP FUT |
| sit down outside stay |  |


| EVN | LOC | EVN + EIN |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |


| pu <br> go-STM ADV | harima <br> be/have/stay-1P-SIMP PAST |
| :--- | :--- |
| go | up-over-the-top |
| we have |  |


| EVN | LOC | EVN + FIN |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |


8.4.7.1 Following previous analysis, the initial EVN, the unsuffixed verb stem, is interpreted as being the logico-semantic head of the group. The nominal/adverbial item that splits the verbal items can be analysed as having a status comparable to that of its cognates in the micro-verbal group (8.4.2-4), that is, it may be regarded as having the function of helping to specify the process - a non-verbal "auxiliary". Examples are:
igiri emene pu mabu bini
bny small go-STM NOM make/do-EX DEF
boy small go garden made


```
handa amu haribe
feel ADV be/stay/have-2S-SIMP PAST-Q
look along-over-there had-you-?
```

$\mid$ EVN |AUX $\mid$

| la $\quad$ maro | beraba |
| :--- | :--- |
| utter-STM NOM | make/do-lD-SIMP PRES |
| speaking conclusion we make/are making |  |



| mitangi buwa | la | dai | bija |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| thought do=CONT | utter-STM | NOM | do-3-SIMP PAST |
| thought having-done uttering return he made |  |  |  |


8.4.8 APVs and serial configurations. The configurations described above in 8.4 .6 .3 and 8.4 .7 have as their final verbs three of the common pro-verbs: le 'utter', he 'be/have/stay' and bi 'make/do' (cf 5.1.7). EV cognates in collocation with le 'utter' (8.4.7.3) present examples that qualify for consideration both as serial (V-STM + V-AFFXs) and APV configurations, thus:

8.4.8.1 Split configurations (8.4.7) also share these characistics in common with serial groups and APVs. In common with serial groups, their initial constituent is always an unaffixed stem, their final constituent a stem that carries affixes. In common with APVs, a single constituent - the initial EVN - fills the adjunct slot, and a dummy final verb takes the affixes. It shares an additional similar feature with APVs, which can nccur 'split' by an intrusive modifying element. This is illustrated by the examples below.

Split configurations:


Adjunct + Pro-Verb configurations:

8.4.8.4 The possibility of analysing split configurations in this way is of interest in that it further illustrates how serial verb groups intersect with APV configurations, and how persistent the latter are across the various differing levels of
the language's structure.
8.4.8.5 Medial verb forms can occur sequentially before nonmedial forms, as in the examples:

1) ibu de hondole pija
$3 S$ eye sense-PURP go-3-SIMP PAST he eye to-sense went he went to see
2) ibu u lama pija $3 S$ shout utter=SIM2 go-3-SIMP PAST he shout uttering we he shouted out as he went
3) ibu de hondole u lama pija $3 S$ eye sense-PURP shout utter-SIM2 go-3-SIMP PAST he eye to-sense shout uttering went he shouted out as he went to see
8.4.8.6 The groups here can be understond as clause chains, something which is not so obvious when they occur closer to each other and mirror the pattern of verb stems in serialization (cf 8.3.7). It is the unaffixed stems in collocation with a final, affixed, stem, that $I$ shall regard as serial chains. One reason for this is that other forms are amenable to analysis either as ranking at clause level or as being part of an APV configuration. Another reason, lexico- rather than morpho-semantic, is that it is useful to restrict the term 'serialization' to
.... sequences of events which are commonly associated culturally or for which there is a culturally based or pragmatic reason for their close association.
(Bruce 1986: 27)
8.4.9 Analysis of the APV construction. The dummy verb of this construction can be analysed on the morpheme group level, as above, but the construction needs to be treated as a whole, and its structural elements described as a unity rather than as discrete entities, as already intimated.
8.4.9.1 APVs can be analysed as having a semantico-logical structure in which the $A$ is head and the $P V$ is subordinate to it. Examples are such as:

| aga | jo bija | hari timbuni de handaribe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| garment dryness made | mountain large eye (you) sense? |  |


8.4.9.2 Some realizations of this construction comprise As derived from verb forms (cf 5..7.1.4), and can form complexes that involve embedding, realized as right-branching dependencies, as in the examples:

| bi | lolene | ngago | lole |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| talk | utter-obLIG | EV-3-DET | utter-PURP |
| talk | make-3-SIMP PRES |  |  |
| to-be-said | is-there to-say | (he) is making |  |


biabe bule bira
work do-PURP do-3-SIMP PRES
work to-do he is making

| bi | lai | harima |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| talk | say-COMP | have-1P PAST |
| talk | say $=$ compl | ete we had |


8.4.1 $\emptyset$ Summary. APVs can be regarded as macro-verbal groups, and morpheme clusters as micro-verbal groups. A second macro=verbal group is evidenced by serial verbs - verbs which appear in sequence, with no other elements separating them while a third macro-group is that which occurs as a split verb configuration.
8.4.10.1 Having described the individual groups, it is useful now to consider briefly group complexes and to explore the texture of the utterance at that level.

## CHAPTER 9

## GROUP COMPLEXES

### 9.1 OUTLINE

9.1.1 Word complexes, nominal, adverbial and verbal, were the focus of the last chapter. Implicit in this approach is the assumption that groups are, as it were, 'bloated words' (Halliday 1985a: 192), which together assemble into higher units called clauses. These clauses in their turn, either singly (cf 8.1.1) or in complexes, constitute utterances.
9.1.2 Group complexes and their inter-relationships within the utterance are the focus of attention in this chapter, and I propose to describe nominal, adverbial and verbal group complexes
in turn. The method employed will involve the continuation of the use and adaptation of Hallidayan concepts, begun in the last chapter.
9.1.2.1 Given what has been said in 1.4 , it is not surprising that these concepts, when applied to Huli, suggest a lngicnsemantic system that is different from the English one, yet has points of contact with it. In chapter 8 the aptness of the Hallidayan approach was apparent when applied to Huli word complexes, and this chapter shows its usefulness at the level of group complexes.
9.1.3 The interdependency of groups in Huli group complexes can be explored using the categories of taxis already employed (ie hypotaxis and parataxis). Halliday introduces greater levels of delicacy with the categories 'expansion' and 'projec-
tion' (cf Halliđay 1985a: 195-196), and still further levels of delicacy within each of these.
9.1.3.1 As applied to Huli, expansion is a type of interdependence whereby one group elaborates (indicated in analysis by the sign ( $=$ ), extends ( + ), or enhances ( $x$ ) another group, with which it is in parataxis or hypotaxis. More precisely:

ELABORATION is the expansion of one group by another through exposition, exemplification, or clarification. EXTENSION occurs when one group extends another by adding to it, or stating exceptions or alternatives.

ENHANCEMENT is the qualifying of one group by another as regards location, cause or manner.
9.1.3.2 Only verbal group complexes are related by projection, either LOCUTION ("), or IDEA ('). The former is a verbal group that is a quote $=$ a 'construction of wording' (Halliday 1985a: 197) - projected through another verbal group, while the latter is a verbal group that is an idea, a thought, similarly projected. Hypotactic relations in verbal group complexes linked through projection are not well attested.

### 9.2 NOMINAL GROUP COMPLEXES

9.2.1 Elaboration. The qualifying group or groups always come after the qualified group, and expand it by clarification. The relationship between them is invariably one of parataxis. Examples are:


```
= a man called Galo \quadj this dog (is) my dog
```

9.2.1.1 It is apparent in these two examples that relational processes can be signalled through the juxtaposing of nominal groups, verbs not being necessary for this purpose. The function of EVs - categorizing existential modes of posture - makes it unlikely that they are underlying copulas, deleted at surface level.
9.2.2 Extension. This is usually accomplished by comitative suffixes (6.5.2-3), which link groups in parataxis. The members of the complex co-function in the same grammatical slot in the clause (cf 6.5). Examples are :

Andagali Madiabela amuguha pija
Andagali Madiabe-COM along over there-DET-LOC go-3-SIMP PAST

| NOM 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| $=$Andagal <br> Andagali <br> Madiabe-and along over there-that-in have gone |
| and Madiabe have gone along over there somewhere |


| Megia | Bogaja | Juima |  | bo | pija |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Megia | Bogaja | Jui=COM | possu | ki |  |


| NOM 1 | NOM +2 | NOM +3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Meg | a Bogaja | and |


| maru | duru | hairu | anda | hene |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| taro-COM | $r$ | b |  | stay/have-EX DEF |

 taro, sugar cane and banana had all grown
9.2.2.1 Possible disjunctive choices can be signalled by use of the MODs -ja and -gwa (5.5.12) and the COM -bi, as in: igirijagwabi wandarijagwabi bOy - MOD-MOD-COM girl-MOD-MOD-COM

$|$| NOM | 1 | NOM |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |

$=\overline{b o y-m u s t ~ h a v e ~ b e e n-l i k e-a n d ~ g i r l-m u s t ~ h a v e ~ b e e n-l i k e-a n d ~}$

```
either a boy or a girl
```

dandajagwabi nogojagwabi
bow-MOD-MOD-COM pig-MOD-MOD-COM

9.2.2.2 While comitative suffixes are a sure signal of nominal group complexes linked by paratactic extension, hypotactic extension may be signalled by the negative particle ndo at the end of a group, as in the example :
agali daliahe, agali wahe ndo, laro
man hardy men old NEG utter-lS-SIMP PRES

9.2.3 Enhancement. Nominal groups linked through comitative enclitics do not co-function in the same grammatical slot (cf 6.5.4). The one that is the grammatical subject in a clause is qualified by the one on which the enclitic leans, the latter expanding the former by supplying circumstantial information about 'how' or 'with whom / what'. Thus, this relationship can be analysed as one of paratactic enhancement: the two groups are equally important in ideational content, and both are agents, even though this is not signalled on the verb. Examples are:

| ina nogo haru eberema |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lp | pig COM come | $=1 P$ nSIMP PRES |


we're coming with a pig
tigwa Gambali baba wai binija
3P Gambali COM war make/do-EX DEF-MOD

| $\overline{\text { NOM }}$ | 1 | NOM |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $x 2$ |  |

= they Gambali with war made-must/would
they would have made war with Gambali

| I | Wariabe heba pole berebe |
| :--- | :--- |
| $2 S$ | Wariabe COM go=PURP make/do-2S-SIMP PRES-Q |

NOM 1

$=$| you Wariabe along-with to-go (you) are making? |
| :--- | :--- |
| are you going to go with Wariabe? |

9.2.4 Embedding adds intricacy to relationships within nominal group complexes, as is shown in the examples below:

| İ | in onela | ijame mabu bule |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Is | lS wife-COM | 2D-ERG garden make-PURP make-ID-SIMP PRES |



Tigi Manga Bogaja Angoma tini hangu hole Tigi Manga Bogaja Ango-COM 3P-DEF only/alone have/be-PURP

| NOM 1 |  |  |  | NOM $=2$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered}\text { NOM } \\ 1\end{gathered}\right.$ | NOM +2 | NOM +3 | NOM +4 |  |

= Tigi Manga Bogaja Ango-with they-themselves only to-be so that Tigi, Manga, Bogaya and Ango can be by themselves

| Mogome Ajagala libugwa gali mini Jali haru ibini |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Mogome Ajaga-COM 3 D -ERG | baby name Jali COM come-3-EX DEF |


$=$ Mogome Ajaga-and they baby called Jali with came/have come

Mogome and Ajaga have come with the baby called Jali

### 9.3 ADVERBIAL GROUP COMPLEXES

9.3.1 Elaboration. Adverbial group complexes occur in paratactic and hypotactic elaboration, as in the examples:

9.3.1.1 In the first example, both adverbial groups make in: dependent but interrelated qualifications of the elliptical process, and are interpreted as being in parataxis. In the second, the logical sense of the process 'going' is encoded as being from $A$ to $B$, and this lends itself to the interpretation of dependence shown in the symbols.
9.3.2 Extension may be achieved through parataxis in the use of comitative suffixes, or through hypotaxis - signalled, frequently, by the presence of the NEG particle. Examples are:

| hendorebi $\quad$ bajwabi | ani bini |
| :--- | :--- |
| carefully-COM well-COM | thus do/make-EX DEF |


ajubi jawibi manibi ani bule bira now=COM tomorrow-COM later-COM thus do-PURP make-3-SIMP PRES

| $\overline{\text { ADV }} 1$ | ADV +2 | ADV +3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $=$ today-and tomorrow-and la |  |  |
|  |  |  |

aju ogoni mani ndo amu ndo, ogoria wibe
now that later NEG over-there NEG here place-2S-IMP PR

$=$ right now, not later $=$ put here, not over there
9.3.2.1 Note that with adverbial groups in hypotaxis it is always the group qualified by ndo that functions as extending the other group and is interpreted as subordinate to it.
9.3.3 Enhancement occurs between paratactic but not hypotactic groups. Examples are:
hendore hendore pobe
carefully carefuily go-2S-IMP FUT

$=|$| $\overline{\text { ADV }} \quad 1$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| go very | ADV $x^{2}$ <br> carefully$\|$ |

dalimu, nde dalimu ore, 0 labe lnudly POZ loudly very shout utter-2S~IMP FUT

9.3.3.1 The first example illustrates a very common usage, and one found in many Papuan languages (cf Foley 1986: 204), in which intensity is signalled by reduplication of the whole word.

### 9.4 VERBAL GROUP COMPLEXES

9.4.1 Verbal groups were seen in chapter 8 to present interesting problems of interpretation and description. Microlevel (morpheme) groups are at one end of the continuum, and APV groups at the other, while somewhere in between come serial. and split configurations. The precise boundaries separating these groups are hard to locate, and perhaps even non-existent, but when it comes to describing group complexes, demarkation is less problematic, since micro-level groups do not occur in complexes.
9.4.2 A useful general rule . is that groups across which switch-referencing occurs are in hypotactic relation with each other, while those that share the same grammatical subject are linked in parataxis. This holds true for both medial and nonmedial forms (cf 5.4.6.1), as is shown in the examples:

| ibugwa nogo de hondowa mogn laja |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3S-ERG pig eye sense-CONS | murprise utter-3-SIMP PAST |


| CLS | 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| he pig eye sensing <br> seeing the pig, he was startled | 2 |
| surprise said/had |  |



$=|$| CLS | $\beta$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| pig (he) caught-that-then <br> when he caught the pig, we gathered | $\alpha$ |
| group/gathering we had |  |

9.4.2.1 The English gloss in the first example makes one think that the first clause is non-finite and subordinate, but this is an analysis of the gloss rather than of the Huli. The CONS can occur in final position in utterances (cf 5.4.6.1), and an example of this has already been given in 4.10.3.4, viz:


| CLS | CLS |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{I} \quad$ car wait utter had |  |
| $=\quad$ I waited for a car, having decided to go to Huli |  |

Once again, the English non-finite is misleading: the CONS sigi nals prior consecutive action, not dependency.
9.4.2.2 In the second example, on the other hand, the first clause is dependent in the traditional sense: it cannot stand on its own, and states a secondary, background, circumstance, which expands the meaning of the independent clause.
9.4.3 Elaboration occurs only in complexes whose clauses are related in parataxis, and when the core EVNs of the clausefinal verbs are semantic equivalents. Examples are given below, the verb in the first clause of the first example being the iterative form of le 'utter', an APV construction (cf 5.2.4).
ibugwa nogo baga bialu kangome baja 3S-ERG pigs kill-ITER do-SIM stick-ERG kill-3-SIMP PAST

he went round killing the pigs, killing them with a stick
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { bi bajwa lalu } & \text { henene ore larida } \\ \text { talk well utter-SIM true very utter-2S-SIMP PAST-MOD }\end{array}$

$=|$| CLS $\frac{1}{\text { talk well saying }}$speaking well, you clearly told the truth |
| :--- |
| true very (you) said-seems |

9.4.4 Extension can occur in conjunction with parataxis or hypotaxis, as is illustrated in the examples:
tomo nowa dagiani palene
food ingest-CONS plank-LOC lie down-EX DEF
\(\left.=\left|\begin{array}{ll}\overline{CLS} \& 1 <br>

fond having eaten\end{array}\right|\)| CLS | +2 |
| :--- | :--- |
| plank-on | (he) lay down | \right\rvert\, he ate and lay down on the plank

keba halu andaga piru anger have/be-SIM house-LOC go-lS-SIMP PAST

$=|$| $\overline{\text { CLS }}$ | 1 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| anger having <br> being angry, I went home | CLS | (I) went |

andaga $\quad$ pirimangi $\quad$ Kajuwi ibu hangu nape
house-LOC go-lP-SIMP PAST-LOC Kayuwi 3 S only NEG-go-STM


### 9.4.5 Enhancement occurs in paratactic and hypotactic

 group complexes. Examples of enhancing paractic complexes, inwhich switch-referencing does not occur, are:
hari iraga halu tajanda abale pene
mountain climb have/stay-SIM high forest quickly go-EX DEF

$=|$| $\left.\overline{\text { CLS }}$mountain climb having <br> climbing the mountain, he went quickly into the high forest \right\rvert\, | CLS |
| :--- | :--- |
| high forest quickly (he) went |  |

hendore hendore pialu maha ore ibija
carefully carefully goisim later very come-3-SIMP PAST
$=\left|\begin{array}{l|l|}\overline{\text { CLS }} & 1 \\ \text { carefully carefully going }\end{array}\right|$ proceding with great care, he arrived much later
9.4.5.1 With hypotactic complexes, the subordinate clause is frequently locational, as in:

```
ibu dai bijagola tia bo piriba
3S return do-3-SIMP PAST-LOC possum kill-STM go=2D-SIMP PAST
```

$|$| CLS |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| he return did-that-when <br> when he returned we went to hunt possum | CLS |
| possum to-kill (we) went |  |

ira kagoria ibida pene
tree EV-3-LOC run go-EX DEF

9.4.5.2 Permissives or precautionaries in group complexes always signal hypotactic enhancement, as in the examples:

```
    bi lolomaja henge ngi
    talk utter-1P-PERM space give-2S-IMP PRES
```

$=|$| $\frac{x}{\text { CLS }} \beta$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| talk say-(we)-might space (you) give (us) <br> give us permission to speak |

biabe bulija aju ngerene work make/do=lS=PERM axe give-2S-SIMP PRES-DEF

you must give me an axe so $I$ can work

```
ina kagwa bulilono mbuga* mbira ngija
lP wrongly do/make-PREC PAST book one give-3-SIMP PAST
```


9.4.6 Exceptions. This last example raises the question of exceptions to the general rule given in 9.4 .2 , since PREC forms can occur in complexes without switch-referencing. In such cases, the PREC clause is still subordinate, in hypotaxis with the main clause. Examples are:


9.4.6.1 Similarly, the PURP, when not part of an APV configuration, can occur in an enhancing hypotactic clause in a complex without switch-referencing. Examples:

| jawi $\quad$ te $10 l e$ | manda manda bu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tomorrow story utter-PURP head head do/make-STM EV-3 |  |


9.4.6.2 A non-medial verb form may accept the DET suffix -go and function not as a derivational adnominal (7.9.3) but as the process word of a clause in a hypotactic clause complex. In these instances, switch-referencing is not obligatory. Examples are:
nogo gabwa ibijago ira iraga harima
pig wild come-3-SIMP PAST-DET tree climb have-lP-SIMP PAST

$|$| CLS |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $=$pig wild came-that <br> a wild pig came along; we climbed a tree | tree climb (we) had |

mundu narogo setoa* anda poro
tobacco ingest-lS-SIMP PRES-DET store house go-lS-SIMP PRES

9.4.6.3 It is possible to interpret the above complexes as examples of paratactic groups, since both. clauses can stand on their own. As set out above, the DET is analysed as a connective, signalling, in these two instances, causation.
9.4.6.4 Another interesting exception is to be found in clause complexes whose verbs carry the suffix-le (cf 5.5.14). These complexes optionally display switch-referencing, and are best interpreted as being in paratactic enhancement, as in:

9.4.7 Projection occurs most frequently in verbal group complexes, ie clause complexes, that are linked in parataxis. This is because locutions and ideas are usually quoted, seldom reported. Examples are:
andaga pole, lene
house-LOC go-PURP utter-EX DEF


$=\mid$
dai bule biralo manda bido
return do-PURP do-3-SIMP PRES-MOD head do-1S-EX PRES

$=|$| CLS |
| :--- |
| return to-do (he) does-certainly <br> I now that he' 11 certainly come back |
| CLS (I) do/am doing |

ogoni hangu mitangi biribe
that only thought do/make-2S-SIMP PAST-Q
$=\sqrt{\overline{\text { CLS }{ }^{1} 2}\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { CLS } \\ \text { did you think } \\ \text { that was all? }\end{array}\right|}$
9.4.7.1 The second example in 9.4.7. is a good illustration of nesting in clauses that project. It is not unusual to find quotations spelled out more explicitly, as in:
ibugwa lalu, jawi ibagwa,
3S-ERG utter-SIM tomorrow come-1S-FUT utter-3-SIMP PAST

9.4.7.1.1 In the above example, the locution and the projecting clause are interpreted as together forming a clause complex that is an elaboration of the first projecting clause. It is possible, however, to consider the second projecting clause to be an elaboration of the complex formed by the projection first clause. A third possibility would be to consider the projection as somehow embedded or nesting between a complex formed by the two projecting clauses. I favour the first interpretation as being more in accord with the general pattern of paratactic projection in Huli.
9.4.7.2 Projection involving group complexes in hypotaxis has generally been thought not to occur in Huli (cf Rule 1977: 39~ 40), 'quotative sentences' (cf Franklin 1971: l20), such as the example in 9.4.7.l, being considered the only device for reporting locutions. Rumsey (1986a: 252) has suggested that Huli might have devices for encoding locutions in indirect form, and there is some support for this in my own data.
9.4.7.2.1 Data in text 5, line 27E (12.3.1), and text 6, line 14 (12.3.2), seem to suggest that Huli can represent wording as meaning (cf Halliday 1985b; 233) - ie employ reported as well as direct speech. The examples and their interpretations are given below, the fuller contexts being shown in 12.3 .1 and 12.3.2.
$5.27 E \quad$ ibu hondo lalu $\begin{aligned} & \text { ibu nogo no } \\ & 3 S \text { to utter-SIM } 3 S \text { pig ingest-STM have-STM }\end{aligned}$
\(=\left|\begin{array}{l|ll}\begin{array}{l}CLS <br>
he/him to saying <br>

saying to him\end{array} \&\right.\)|  CLS  | $\beta$ |
| :--- | :--- |
|  he having eaten  |  | \& having\end{array}$|$

6.14 (agali) ... damanaga bara lowa (men) spirit-POSS kill-3-SIMP PRES utter-CONS

$|\overline{\text { CLS }} 1 \times 1|$| CLS $\alpha$ |
| :--- | :--- |

```
= men spirits-of/for (they) kill having said
    men, having said they kill (pigs) to the spirit,
```

9.4.7.2.2 In example 5.27E, ibu $3 S$ is a different person in each clause. The speaker is talking about what would be said to a pig thief, and the conventions of direct discourse would normally demand that the second, projected, clause be in parataxis with the first, thus:


Similarly, the expectation in example 6.14 , where the speaker is telling what men, ie $3 P$, said, is a paratactic complex such as

9.4.7.2.4 Rumsey (personal communication) has suggested that analysis of a Nebilyer dispute (Merlan \& Rumsey 1986) shows evidence of linguistic devices akin to indirect discourse, while Tipton (1982: 49-51) indicates that Nembi speakers have 'other types of verbal sentences', apart from quotatives, but does not elaborate. On the evidence of the texts above, it seems that Huli also probably has devices for encoding direct discourse as indirect, reported, speech.
9.4.8 Some exemplification of nominal, and verbal group complexes can be gained by exploring a slightly longer stretch of text than those we have looked at so far. I will set out
the text and gloss first, and then briefly discuss it in the light of this and the preceding chapter. The text is a continuation of the bi te 'folktale' sample given in 4.3.5.1.
9.4.8.1 The text:


| damene, | mojai |
| :--- | :--- |
| relative | haja. |
| related thing caUS-hold-COMP | have-3-SIMP PAST |

ai nde, Hela Obene pole wirwa, laja.
EXCL POST Hela Obene go-PURP place-UNSN PRES utter-3-SIMP PAST
ah yes Hela Obene to-go places (unseen) (he) said

| a | b | ib | pu | gimbu |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| an | that-ERG | come-SIM | go-STM | joint/joining | g |  |
| man | that | coming | go | joining |  |  |

herelibi hubane mbira winijago nu
salt bundle a/one place-EX DEF-MOD-DET string bag salt bundle a placed-seemed-that string bag
hanaja. ai ibalu pu gimbu pija. carry-3-SIMP PAST EXCL come-SIM go-STM joint go-3-SIMP PAST carried ah coming go joining went
udu
Hela Obene iraga haja.
up over the hills at the top Hela Obene climb have-3-SIMP PAST
up over the top of the hills Hela Obene climb (he) had

### 9.4.8.2 Translation:

and got together these skirts and perform a dawe, be laid down as relevant to dawe. Ah, yes! "I feel it's ordained for me to go to Hela Obene," he thought. He went back and forth, getting ready. He put a bundle of salt that was there into his string bag. Ah, to and fro he went! Then he set out, climbing up the mountains towards Hela Obene.
9.4.8.3 The first three lines of the text form one utterance, with two clauses in paratactic extension, the first of these projecting an idea. This is indicated in the notation,
dawe hole, lowa, hurwa uru ... damene mojai haja

| CLS ${ }^{1} 1^{\star}$ | CLS | $2^{\star}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

which shows that dawe hole is an idea, linked to lowa, which projects it and which is also linked in paratactic extension to the clause hurwa ... haja.
9.4.8.4 The last clause has a nominal group complex, linked in paratactic extension, the second group showing extensive embedding:
hurwa uru, dawe bi lagu hagane wijago damene,

9.4.8.5 Note that in the second nominal group, lagu is a stylistic variant of laga (cf $5.2 .5 ; 7.5 .1$ ), while hagane is the full derivational nominal (cf 7.5.1) of he 'have/stay/be', and can be glossed as 'haver', 'stayer', etc. In collocation with the form laga/lagu, it yields the sense '(talk) customarily said-and-staying'. wijago is a derviational adnominal, with the function described in 8.1.1.2, being $Q L$ of an embedded nominal group acting as a DC. The interpretation that this group is a deictic is based on its indicating ago 'which?' damene the speaker is concerned with, while there is reason for thinking that the relationship between this DC and TH is one of inalienable possession - things necessarily bound up with the perform-
ance of dawe -, thus making the POSS suffix -naga optional (cf 7.10.5).
9.4.8.5 The verbal group mojai haja, the COMP with CAUS prefix, is an APV configuration.
9.4.8.6 The second utterance in line 4 consists of a projecting clause, laja, and an idea that is composed of a clause complex in which another idea is projected. This can be shown in the usual way:

Hela Obene pole wirwa, laja.

9.4.8.7 Two other points need to be noted. The first is that the name Hela Obene is best interpreted as a single item, rather than as a nominal group complex. The second is that the form wirwa is a`dialectal variant of wiarwa (cf 5.2.7).
9.4.8.8 In line 5 there is a clause complex consisting of two groups in paratactic extension, the second group being a split verb construction:
agali biagome ibalu pu gimbu pija

| CLS | 1 | CLS |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

9.4.8.9 The nominal group in the first clause consists of a TH plus a $D C$, the latter functioning as an anhoric referent.
9.4.8.10 Line 6 is an utterance, completed on line 7, that is a single clause, containing three nominal groups, two of which form a complex, thus:
herelibi hubane mbira winijago nu hanaja

9.4.8.11 The last line contains an utterance that is composed of a clause complex that can be interpreted in the same way as that set out in 9.4.8.8 above.
9.4.8.12 The above has been a cursory exploration of a short text to illustrate the application of the interpretations proposed for Huli word and group complexes in this and the preceding chapter. Clearly, the question of a more complete and integrated exposition of Huli texts nows arises. The next two chapters will lead into this, describing important semantic patterns of the language, and the language change that is taking place in concord with changes in society.


[^0]:    6.4.1 These adverbials usually occur immediately before the verb form in an utterance, although they may precede the $A$ in

[^1]:    7.5.2.1 These nouns frequently occur as $A$ in obligative APV

[^2]:    8.2.4 The sequence of elements in the multivariate nom-

