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A grammar of Cheke Holo

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6 Other Word Classes

This chapter discusses the word classes of conjunctions (section 6.1), interjections (section 6.2), determiners (section 6.3), interrogatives (section 6.4), and quantifiers and numerals (section 6.5). CH determiners, interrogatives, numerals and quantifiers can be used as heads of NP. Various groupings, or sub-classes (where applicable) of each class are described and illustrated, and distinguishing features of each class are presented.

6.1 Conjunctions

6.1.1 Introduction

All CH conjunctions occur between the elements they conjoin. These coordinators in CH link various constituents: nouns, NPs, verbs, VPs, dependent clauses, independent clauses, and combinations thereof. They are now listed with glosses, grouped according to function, and illustrated.

6.1.2 Conjunctions grouped by function

Conjunctive coordinators between nouns are:

- nei* ‘and (joins nouns and noun phrases)’
- nu* ‘and (joins two nouns or more than two proper nouns)’
- ge* ‘and (joins two, and only two, proper names)’
- e* ‘and (joins two or more noun phrases whose head nouns are proper nouns)’

These conjunctions are illustrated in examples (527) - (530):

- (527) *Faidu mae funei nei thu=gna Isabel*
 meet man chief and child=3SG.POSS Isabel
 ‘Meeting of the chiefs of Isabel and their children.’

- (528) *Greetings ka iara Godfrey nu famili ka iago*
 greetings LOC 1SG Godfrey and family LOC 2SG
 ‘Greetings from me Godfrey and family to you.’

- (529) *Everlyn ge Lilian nañha=di re*
 Everlyn and Lilian name=3PL.POSS PL
 ‘Their names are Everlyn and Lilian.’

- (530) *Tarai ka Gerry e Melinda thabukna=gna*
 pray LOC Gerry and Melinda family=3SG.POSS
 ‘[He] prayed for Gerry and Melinda and family.’

A disjunctive coordinator between nouns is *ba* ‘or’:

- (531) *Uḡra sasa moho ba buma ba keha sasa*
 fishing fish k.o.fish or k.o.fish or other fish
 ‘They fish for moho or buma or some other kind of fish.’

An adversative coordinator between verb phrases is *nu* ‘but’:

- (532) *Iara loku legu narane nu ḡognaro gnafa kolho*
 1SG work every day but now finish just
 ‘I work every day but now I am just resting.’

Clausal coordinators between sentences or verb phrases are:

- na* ‘and (joins sentences)’
nu ‘and (joins verb phrases)’
eguteuna ‘and (joins sentences)’
aonu ‘and so (continues the narrative)’
egume ‘therefore (joins the previous statement to a resulting statement)’

These are illustrated in examples (533) - (537):

- (533) *Na kilo=ni theo mae*
 and call=3SG.OBJ not.be man
 ‘And they invite no one.’
- (534) *Aonu tarai nu mae prisi titiono egu*
 and.so pray and man priest preach like.that
 ‘And so [there was] prayer and the priest preached, like that.’
- (535) *Tuna gnafa eguteuna na'a na ḡlea=ni*
 DEM finish and 3SG DEM happy=3SG.OBJ
 ‘That finished and she was happy.’
- (536) *Aonu naba=gna keha ḡlima nhiḡra*
 and.so fit=3SG.POSS some five month
 ‘And so that took about five months.’
- (537) *Egume iara ḡlea=di te fati te au*
 therefore 1SG happy=3PL.OBJ PRS four REL be

thu=di ḡā'ase
 child=3PL.POSS female
 ‘Therefore it is that I am happy there are four daughters.’

CH has two causal coordinators between sentences, and they are synonymous without discernible differences in meaning:

naugna ‘for, because’

eigna ‘for, because’

(538) *Naugna mana te mae vaka gne*
 because 3SG.M PRS man ship DEM
 ‘Because it is that he is a white man.’

(539) *Eigna theo mae ka ġeri=ġu iara*
 because not.be man LOC side=1SG.POSS 1SG
 ‘Because there was nobody on my side.’

6.2 Interjections

The semantic range of CH interjections covers exclamation or emotional response. It is noted that the members of this word class also occur in other word classes, such as the noun *mae* ‘man’, or the verb *theo* ‘not.be’. However, when used as a singular, emotional response, they are classified as interjections. The function of each interjection is to express surprise at an event or statement. The inventory⁶⁶ includes the following:

mae ‘man!’

ei/sei ‘ah!’

theo ‘not.be!’

gema ‘friend!’

tore ‘wow!’

Use of these interjections is illustrated in the following examples. The first is a typical use of a single interjection, occurring sentence initial:

(540) *Tore doglo si au*
 wow correct FOC be
 ‘Wow! That’s right!’

Example (541) contains two of the five interjections accounted for in CH. One, *Mae!* ‘Man!’, forms a single sentence, preceding a sentence that ends with another interjection *gema!* ‘friend!’.

⁶⁶ It is noted here that the English word and expression ‘you!’ (said in a very sharp voice with forceful, rising, and lengthened intonation) has been in use for some time among CH as a borrowed interjection. It is used in conversation to disagree with a playful statement someone has made about a situation, or more commonly about the person being addressed in conversation. It is omitted from this inventory as it is not a CH word.

- (541) *Mae! Iago jafra fara gema!*
 Man! 2SG wrong very friend!
 ‘Man! You are very wrong, friend!’

It is not unusual for three interjections to be found in a short span of narrative. Two of the three in the following example form separate sentences:

- (542) *Sei! Mae! Thosei si'i gema!*
 Ah! man NEG pass.gas friend
 ‘Ah! Man! Don’t pass gas, friend!’

6.3 Determiners

“Determiners typically provide information about definiteness, number (singular vs. plural) and (in the case of demonstratives) distance from the speaker.” As such, “articles and demonstratives are the most common types of determiners” (Kroeger 2005:89). CH has a somewhat complex inventory of demonstratives (section 6.3.1), and a set of commonly used quantifiers (section 6.5). CH has no attestation of articles.

6.3.1 Demonstratives

6.3.1.1 Demonstrative adjectives: Introduction

“Demonstratives in Oceanic languages usually make a three-way distinction based either on person—near speaker, near addressee, near neither or near a third person—or on relative distance—proximal, intermediate, distal—or on a mixture of both” (Ross 2004:177). However, Lynch *et al* (2002:39) do allow that other Oceanic languages “make only a simple proximate/distal distinction.”

The notion of CH demonstratives follows the distinctions indicated by Lynch *et al* and shows variation to this Oceanic patterning described by Ross. Firstly, in regards to the “usual system” described by Ross, CH does make only a two-way distinction—proximal and distal, thus omitting the notion of intermediate. While White classified various demonstratives in his dictionary as ‘visible’ or ‘present’, the data in my corpus shows that visible is not a primary determining factor to the concepts of proximal or distal. For example, something may in fact be proximal *and* visible, but likewise something else classified as proximal may not be visible. Thus, the concept of spatially proximal to the deictic center is more useful, and visibility does not factor in to the determination of these distinctions. This is another difference with the Kokota system described by Palmer (2009a).⁶⁷

Secondly, the distinction for the proximal demonstrative is based on relative distance and is either proximal *spatially* from deictic center or proximal *contextually*

⁶⁷ For Kokota, Palmer (2009a:72) gives evidence for five categories of relationship with deictic center: touching, within reach, nearby, potentially visible and not visible.

from the nominal argument which has already been stated in the communication event. That is, while the spatial distinction is somewhat easily discernable in that an object, person, or place is physically near or distant to the deictic center (which is usually the speaker), the contextual distinction is based on whether or not the nominal argument is known to speaker and listener and whether or not that argument has been referred to previously in the discourse. Thus, there is a temporal distance as well. This is illustrated in the following sections.

Four types of demonstratives are attested in CH. The first type, discussed in section 6.3.1.2, is more common than the other three, and consists, as do two other types, of four members. There are two singular and two plural demonstratives, marking proximal and distal distinctions. For the second type (section 6.3.1.3), in terms of general features, these co-occur with nouns and they primarily function to modify nouns. These four words comprise a set in which each word is a derivation of the base form of *(i)gn*/ḡr**. The third type of CH demonstratives (section 6.3.1.4) can co-occur with nouns they modify, but they apparently function more as heads of NP than do those in the first set. These four words in the third set comprise a set in which each word is a derivation of the base form of *an*/ar**. Type Four (section 6.3.1.5) has one member, namely *u*. This type differs from the others by not showing the proximal/distal distinction, nor does it mark singular and plural distinctions, nor does it serve as the head of a noun phrase. *U* exhibits a special function of marking pragmatic emphasis.

Concerning the glossing conventions for the presentation of these demonstratives, the distal and proximate distinctions are marked in this section of the book, but are only referred to as demonstratives elsewhere in the book so as to keep the length of the gloss line limited. The singular and plural distinction is also marked in this section, but not elsewhere in this book. For Type One plural demonstratives, they are glossed in this book as PL, as they are the predominant plural markers in the language. The plural markers found in the other types are simply glossed as demonstratives.

6.3.1.2 ‘na’ Demonstratives: Type One

The Type One demonstratives are given in Table 26. They combine with nouns and pronouns and always occur post-posed to that which they modify, as shown in examples (543) and (544). They do not function as the head of a noun phrase. Their distinctive spatial features from deictic center of the speaker refer both to 1) nearness on the part of the speaker as to that which is known or shared-contextually with the hearer, or 2) in regards to time orientation, that which is being modified is something occurring either past or non-past. Pragmatically, they contrast with Type Two demonstratives in that they do not mark emphasis.

Table 26: Type One of CH Demonstratives

	Proximate	Distal
Singular	<i>na</i> ‘this’	<i>ia</i> ‘that’
Plural	<i>re</i> ‘these’	<i>ra</i> ‘those’

The most prominent member of this set is the singular proximate *na*. The following example is representative of its occurrence:

- (543) *Mana neke babana suḡa na*
 3SG.M PST build house DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘He built this house.’

In the previous example, the proximate notion here refers to any or all of the following:

- The house in reference is known to the speaker and to the hearer;
- The mention of the house refers to one that is currently known or present.

The function of *na* is contrasted in the same example with *ia* as the demonstrative:

- (544) *Mana neke babana suḡa ia*
 3SG.M PST build house DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘He built that house.’

In the previous example, (544), the distal notion refers to any or all of the following:

- The house in reference is perhaps not personally known to the speaker and/or to the hearer;
- The mention of the house refers to one in existence from a previous time frame.

Example (545) shows both singular demonstratives occurring separately in reference to the same noun, but sequentially in the narrative. Their distinctive features become clear (and the N + DEM are underlined for ease of comparison):

- (545) *Mae funei ne cheke egu ka no=gna mae gloku*
 man chief PST talk like.that LOC ALN=3SG man work
na
 DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘Chief said like this to his man servant,’

Hata mei naflahi ia!
 Take come knife DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘Bring that knife!’

Aonu mana hata ne mei naflahi na ka mae funei.
 CONJ 3SG.M take PST come knife DEM.PROX.SG LOC man chief
 ‘And so he brought this knife to (the) chief.’

When the knife is first mentioned in the narrative, the demonstrative modifying knife is *ia*. It is referenced with the distal singular marker because it is a knife not in the physical presence of the chief. It is non-specific (perhaps similar to “a” knife or “any” knife in English). It is ‘that knife’ that is not close at hand, and which has not been in reference in the story to this point.

In the next sentence, when the knife is brought to the chief, the demonstrative modifying knife is *na*. The knife is referenced with the proximate singular marker because it is a single knife now in the presence of the speaker, the chief. Also ‘this knife’ is now close at hand spatially.

A noted difference with members found in the other types of demonstratives, is that it is not uncommon for two members of this type, namely *na* and *ia*, to co-occur consecutively with each other, and in either order (*na* (PROX) + *ia* (DIST)), or (*ia* (DIST)+ *na* (PROX)). There are no known restrictions on their linear order of occurrence. Structurally, there is a nesting of elements within the clause, and the nouns they each modify occur anaphorically. Functionally, one demonstrative modifies one noun in the phrase or clause, and the other modifies another, with modification depending on the deictic center of the speaker in relation to the elements. In example (546), the distal demonstrative *ia* modifies *thoutonu*, story, which in terms of time reference and deictic center refers to events of the past; the proximal demonstrative *na* modifies *thuḡu*, child, who is still present:

(546) *Thoutonu=gna thu=gu ula-lahu iara na*
 story=3.POSS child=1S.POSS first-ORD 1SG DEM.PROX.SG
ia
 DEM.DIST.SG

‘That [was] the story of this first child of me.’

Another example of this nesting of demonstratives is (547). In this example, the distal *ia* modifies *taon* ‘town’, which is spatially far from the deictic center of the speaker; the proximal *na* modifies *Honiara* (the capital city), which is referentially close, or known, to the deictic center of the speaker:

(547) *Keha re po~phoru Malaita keha re au nāla Honiara*
 Some PL DUR~hide Malaita some PL be just Honiara

ka taon ia na
 LOC town DEM. DIST.SG DEM.PROX.SG

‘Some of the Malaita people were hiding and some of the ones just living in this Honiara were [hiding] in that town.’

The Type One demonstratives figure prominently in modifying notions of time. The proximal marker *na* modifies non-past notions. In each of the following pair of examples of non-past time notions, indicated by temporal nouns (as described in section 3.2.10) modified by demonstratives, an attempt to substitute the proximal demonstrative with the distal demonstrative is not permissible. They are not permissible because only the proximal modifier interacts with non-past time notions.

With *ḡognaro*, ‘now/currently’:

(548) *Ḡognaro na iara tei Buala*
 now DEM.PROX.SG 1SG go Buala
 ‘Now I go to Buala.’

(549) **Ḡognaro ia iara tei Buala*
 now DEM.DIST.SG 1SG go Buala
 *‘Now-past I go to Buala.’

With *nathui* ‘tomorrow’:

(550) *Nathui na iara tei Buala*
 Tomorrow DEM.PROX.SG 1SG go Buala
 ‘Tomorrow I will go to Buala.’

(551) **Nathui ia iara tei Buala*
 Tomorrow DEM.DIST.SG 1SG go Buala
 *‘Tomorrow-past I will go to Buala.’

With *ḡinau* ‘later/in the future’

(552) *Ḡinau na iara tei Buala*
 Later DEM.PROX.SG 1SG go Buala
 ‘Later I will go to Buala.’

(553) **Ḡinau ia iara tei Buala*
 Later DEM.DIST.SG 1SG go Buala
 *‘Later-past I will go to Buala.’

In using the same sentence frame and form of argumentation, the following time notions indicated by temporal nouns attest the use of the distal demonstrative *ia* and the impermissibility of the proximate demonstrative *na*.

With *ḡinei* ‘earlier’:

(554) *Ḡinei ia iara tei Buala*
 earlier DEM.DIST.SG 1SG go Buala
 ‘Earlier I went to Buala.’

- (555) **Ġinei na iara tei Buala*
 earlier DEM.PROX.SG 1SG go Buala
 *‘Earlier-non-past I went to Buala.’

With *gnora* ‘yesterday’:

- (556) *Gnora ia iara tei Buala*
 earlier DEM.DIST.SG 1SG go Buala
 ‘Yesterday I went to Buala.’

- (557) **Gnora na iara tei Buala*
 earlier DEM.PROX.SG 1SG go Buala
 *‘Yesterday-non-past I went to Buala.’

A further pair of contrastive examples shows the proximal and distal distinctions:

- (558) *Iara tei Buala ka ġrafi na*
 1SG go Buala LOC afternoon DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘I go to Buala (at a) non-past afternoon’ or ‘I am going to Buala this afternoon.’

- (559) *Iara tei Buala ka ġrafi ia*
 1SG go Buala LOC afternoon DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘I went to Buala (at a) previous afternoon.’

Because there are no explicit and time-specific notions (such as *ġinei*, ‘earlier’) present in examples (558) and (559), either the proximal or distal demonstratives can be used to modify the noun *ġrafi*, ‘afternoon.’ Depending on the demonstrative used, the time of action of ‘going to Buala’ is either past or non-past. While a speaker could in fact use the overt tense marker *neke* (‘PST’) in this sentence frame, it is not needed with the distal *ia*, because the distal encodes the past action.

There is another time word, *tifa* (‘time.before’), that is attested as permissible with both singular demonstratives of this set.

- (560) *Tifa na mare maġra bi’o fara*
 time.before DEM.PROX.SG 3PL fight big very
 ‘In this time before they fought hard.’

- (561) *Tifa ia mare maġra bi’o fara*
 time.before DEM.DIST.SG 3PL fight big very
 ‘In that time before they fought hard.’

The distinction between these two legitimate sentences, shown in examples (560) and (561), is that when using the proximal *na*, the deictic center of the speaker is not

specific regarding speaker participation or personal involvement in the event. In the sentence with distal *ia*, the speaker is reportedly one who witnessed or was involved in the actual past event. Though not fully described, this time word notion thus appears to be in special relation to the other time words, in that speaker evidentiality is inherently present in a more discernible way than with the other time word notions.

The next pair of examples demonstrates a possible contrastive time orientation in terms of distal and proximate. This is not a definitive indication of their contrastive meaning, as that would be require a wider communication context. The syntactic device alone, in this pair of examples, does not encode the time orientation, but the different demonstratives show legitimate possible contrast. In the first example, (562), the chief has not yet died (and thus the chief is ‘proximate [to us]’, or ‘still near us in life’). This not-past time notion is indicated by the proximate demonstrative *na*, and the chief is discussed in a hypothetical future scenario. In the second example, (563), the chief has died and the information structure employs *ia* as the distal demonstrative. That is, the chief’s life is ‘distal [to us]’, or ‘in the past’, because he has died, and thus *ia* indicates the past event.

(562) *Kate lehe mae funei na keha na*
 when die man chief DEM.PROX.SG some DEM.PROX.SG

tugu=ni mana
 change=3SG.OBJ 3SG.M
 ‘When this chief dies, this someone replaces him.’

Example (563) is the same sentence, except that the notion of chief is modified by *ia*:

(563) *Kate lehe mae funei ia keha na*
 when die man chief DEM.DIST.SG some DEM.PROX.SG

tugu=ni mana
 change=3SG.OBJ 3SG
 ‘When that chief died, this someone replaced him.’

The singular demonstratives of this set show restrictions of use when denoting specificity in modifying an indefinite-number quantifier *keha* ‘some’ (which can be singular or plural) and which functions as the head of a NP. Examples in the corpus are in fact numerous of this syntactic relationship. Only the proximal *na* is attested as permissible. The distal demonstrative *ia* never modifies the indefinite-number quantifier such as *keha*. Thus, (564) is allowable and (565) is not allowable.⁶⁸

⁶⁸ The corpus shows almost 250 occurrences of *keha* ‘some’, and it is never modified by *ia*.

(564) *Keha na iara jaola teḡio*
 some DEM.PROX.SG 1SG also thank
 ‘This [is] another [thing for what] I also want to say thanks.’

(565) **Keha ia iara jaola teḡio*
 some DEM.DIST.SG 1SG also thank
 *‘That [is] another [thing for what] I also want to say thanks.’

The two plural members of this set are *re* (PROX) and *ra* (DIST). The same conditions are present as for the singular demonstratives of this set, in that they are post-posed to the noun they modify, and the demonstratives by themselves do not function as the head of the noun phrase. Similarly to the singular members of the set, their distinctive spatial features from deictic center of the speaker refer to nearness on the part of the speaker as to that which is known or shared-contextually with the hearer. In contrast to the singular members of this set, there is no attested time orientation of that which is being modified as something occurring either past or non-past. Example (568) shows the use of the proximal plural demonstrative for a past event. While the focus marker *si* co-occurs with the singular members of this type, and there are no known restrictions on co-occurrence with the plural markers, neither of these plural members is attested to occur with the focusing marker *si* and thus indicate a distinctive emphatic or intensification modifying of the noun. Focus marker *si* is discussed in section 9.5.2.

In each of the following four examples, the noun modified by the plural proximal demonstrative *re* modifies nominal notions which are known to the hearer, physically visible at the time of the communication, and/or previously introduced in the discourse.

(566) *Mana fa-jifla mae Malaita re gnafa*
 3SG.M CAUS-leave man Malaita DEM.PROX.PL all

Isabel ka plantesin
 Isabel LOC plantation
 ‘He forced out the Malaitans from all the plantations on Isabel.’

(567) *Komnisi ge Frey re au fati thu=di ḡa'ase*
 Komnis CONJ Frey DEM.PROX.PL be four child=3PL.POSS female
 ‘Komnis and Frey have four daughters.’

(568) *Mae tifa re neke vavahi kolho thu=di*
 man old DEM.PROX.PL PST choose just child=3PL.POSS

the=di
 REFL=3PL.POSS
 ‘These old men just chose their own children.’

- (569) *Ido=di re Honiara*
 mother=3PL.POSS DEM.PROX.PL Honiara
 ‘Their mothers are in Honiara.’

The plural demonstrative *ra* is less frequent in the corpus than *re*. In each of the following three examples, the distal *ra* modifies nouns which do not point or refer to entities specifically known or identified by the speaker. The bracketed, alternate free translations more fully express the function of *ra*. If *re* were used in the following examples instead of *ra*, the contrast would show the gloss rendered not as ‘general/non-specific plural ones’, but ‘specific/specifically-known ones’. In example (570), the gloss would thus be: ‘All the children (either known, or referred to specifically) are doing well.’ The glosses in examples (571) and (572) would similarly reflect such a rendering.

- (570) *Ġoro sua ra keli*
 all child DEM.DIST.PL good
 ‘All the children (or: the children in general, not referring to specific ones) are doing well.’
- (571) *Mae Makira ra neke charter Ligomo*
 man Makira DEM.DIST.PL PST charter Ligomo
 ‘The men from Makira (or: some Makira men, not-specifically identified or known to the speaker) chartered the Ligomo ship.’
- (572) *Egu mae vaka ra ke pu~pulo Honiara*
 like.that man ship DEM.DIST.PL PRF DUR~return Honiara
 ‘Like that the whites (or: the whites in general, not-specifically referring to any particular ones) returned to Honiara.’

6.3.1.3 ‘igne’ Demonstratives: Type Two

The demonstratives which are classified as Type Two demonstratives are listed in Table 27 and contrast with the demonstratives in Type One (section 6.3.1.2). While both co-occur with the nouns they modify, the Type Two demonstratives can serve independently of nouns as heads of NP, but the Type One demonstratives do not. Also, the Type One demonstratives modify pronouns, but the Type Two demonstratives do not. Demonstratives of both Types One and Two modify time words. The notions of proximate and distal (described in section 6.3.1.1) are true for both types, referring to being either physically or spatially proximate to the deictic center or contextually proximate to the argument placed in the communication information within the broader discourse notion. The converse is true for distal. The labels in Table 27 are used to reflect the proximate and distal distinctions.

Table 27: Type Two of CH Demonstratives

	Proximate	Distal
Singular	<i>igne/gne</i> ‘this’	<i>igno/gno</i> ‘that’
Plural	<i>iḡre/ḡre</i> ‘these’	<i>iḡro/ḡro</i> ‘those’

Examples of each demonstrative of Type Two are now presented, and analysis and comments offered regarding the proximate and distal distinctions.

It is noted that in each of the next three examples that if *na* ‘PROX’ of Type One were used instead of *igne* ‘PROX’ of Type Two, the pragmatic emphasis in modifying the noun would be lessened. Thus, the demonstratives of Type Two carry more pragmatic emphasis than do those in Type One.

In example (573), apart from pragmatics considerations, the village being modified by the demonstrative is physically proximate to the speaker:

(573) *Mana tei thokei=u ka namono igne*
 3SG.M go arrive=CONT LOC village DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘He went till he arrived at this village.’

In example (574), the male being modified is the one referred to previously in the story and who is in fact in focus. This individual is not physically present during the telling. Thus, *mae igne* ‘this man’ is “near” to the deictic center contextually rather than spatially.

(574) *Mae igne mae vaka mei e mala ho~horo*
 man DEM.DIST.SG man ship come EMP PUR DUR~make

toutonu tahati ka Cheke Holo
 story 1PL.INCL LOC Cheke Holo
 ‘This white man came and storied to us in the Cheke Holo language.’

In example (575), Fred is physically present with the speaker, and the speaker is sending a recorded message to Fred’s family.

(575) *Me ḡlea fara te filo=ni Fred igne egu*
 INCP happy very PRS see=3SG.OBJ Fred DEM.PROX.SG like.that
 ‘It is that I am very happy to see this Fred, like that.’

In example (576), the demonstrative is actually the initial word in the lead sentence of an expository discourse genre. In that position, it does serve as the head of the noun phrase. This contrasts with Type One demonstratives in that Type One demonstratives never serve as the head of a noun phrase.

(576) *Igne* *thoutonu=gna* *mae Jone*
 DEM.PROX.SG story=3SG.POSS man John
 ‘This is the story of John.’

(577) *Igne* *mae=gna* *Nareabu*
 DEM.PROX.SG man=3PL.POSS Nareabu
 ‘This is a man of Nareabu.’

The differences between the demonstrative forms with and without the initial *i* (*igne/gne*) appear to be two: 1) *gne* never occurs sentence initial or as the head of a noun phrase, whereas the demonstrative form *igne* does occur sentence initial and as the head of a noun phrase. Thus, the *i-* form serves as a demonstrative pronoun, as in examples (576) and (577). Demonstrative *gne* occurs post-posed to the noun it modifies, and never as a demonstrative pronoun. As such, example (578) is not attested in the language as legitimate.

(578) **gne* *mae=gna* *Nareabu*
 DEM.PROX.SG man=3PL.POSS Nareabu
 *Note: there is no translation of this because *gne* only modifies a noun to which it is post-posed, and there is none.

2) The *i-*initial form of the demonstrative focuses more on the specificity of the actual noun being modified. Thus, in (581), the demonstrative serves to point out ‘this particular female’, and in (582) ‘this particular village’. This is contrasted with the information in (579), where ‘the particular net’ is not in focus, but instead ‘a net.’ The same can be said for (580), in which the reference is to the church members rather than the members of this particular church. If the latter case were the focus, then no doubt *igne* would have been used. Both forms are allowable syntactically. The same distinctions can be made for the other examples below.

In the following example, the *fañna* ‘net’ being modified by *gne* is not spatially near, but contextually near in terms of reference within the narrative.

(579) *Mare me korho hage u khukru=gna fañna*
 3PL INCP pull up DEM corner=3SG.POSS net

gne
 DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘They begin pulling up the corners of a net.’

In (580), the speaker (who is included in the subject *gehati* ‘1PL.EXCL’) is an integral ‘part of’ the *khiloau* ‘church’, and it is in this sense that the relative distance is near.

- (580) *Egu gehati khilou gne au keli kolho*
 like.that 1PL.EXCL church DEM.PROX.SG be good just
 ‘Like that, we Christians are doing okay.’

Example (581) shows the specificity of the noun being modified. This noun, ‘*ḡa’ase*’, is spatially close to the speaker.

- (581) *ḡa’ase igne la ḡa’ase bi’o=hila*
 female DEM.PROX.SG IMM female big=COMPL
 ‘This female is now a big girl.’

In example (582), the village is the deictic center of the speaker’s spatial reference, and thus the singular proximate form of the demonstrative is used, also functioning to mark specificity of ‘this village’.

- (582) *Te pukuni khoto=gna namono igne*
 PRS truly owner=3SG.POSS village DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘It is that [they are] truly the owner of this village.’

Similarly to the distinction made between the demonstratives *igne* and *gne*, the *igno/gno* pair distinction can also be made in terms of differences in specificity and particularity of the noun being modified with which the demonstrative co-occurs. Also, *gno* never occurs sentence initial or as the head of a noun phrase, whereas the demonstrative form *igno* does occur sentence initial and head of noun phrase, and as such, in this form it can function as a demonstrative pronoun.

The speaker refers in (583) to a cooking drum that is physically away in the distance from him.

- (583) *Fa-lao pari ka dram igno*
 CAUS-towards low LOC drum DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘Put the wood under the drum over there.’

In (584) the demonstrative *igno* ‘DEM.DIST.SG’ occurs here as a demonstrative pronoun meaning ‘that one’, and also refers to an object distant from the deictic center (which is the speaker).

- (584) *Kaisei ḡlepo te filo tei te=u iara ulu igno*
 one thing REL see go PRS=CONT 1SG before DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘One thing that I am looking at in front of me is that one.’

In (585) the story teller is not in the *namhata* ‘bush’, which is the location of the event under description by the story teller.

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(585) *Tei si iago e atha khakla ġaju gnarho egu ka*
 go FOC 2SG CONJ take hair tree vine like.that LOC

namhata gno
 bush DEM.DIST.SG

‘You go get the tree leaves and vine, like that, from over there in the bush.’

The demonstrative is used in a special sense to modify days of the week, as something that is temporally (rather than spatially) separate from the deictic center:

(586) *Mei thuru Tholana tanhi nhanai ka Sade gno*
 come sleep Tholana cry eight LOC Sunday DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘[They] came and slept at Tholana at 8:00 on last Sunday.’

In (587) the locative *delei* ‘over there’ gives a contextual clue as to the physical location of the man who is being referred to as *mae gno* ‘man over there’:

(587) *Mae ne edi fa-keli suġa delei egu mae*
 man PST do CAUS-good house over.there like.that man

gno
 DEM.DIST.SG

‘The man that repaired the house over there, like that, was a man from over there.’

Iġre/ġre are the proximate and plural markers in this set of demonstratives. In (588) the demonstrative is syntactically in the post-position slot to the noun it modifies, namely *finoga* ‘year’.

(588) *Eġuteuna te legu=di thilo finoga iġre*
 CONJ PRS follow=3PL.OBJ three year DEM.PROX.PL

teuna jifla mana
 DEM leave 3SG.M

‘And it is that after these three years, that he departs.’

As with the singular members of Type Two, the plural demonstrative can occur sentence initial (589) and as head of the noun phrase:

(589) *Iġre mae=di Tholana*
 DEM.PROX.PL man=3PL.POSS Tholana
 ‘These [are] men of Tholana.’

In (590), the demonstrative co-occurs with the noun it modifies, but does so in preposition to the noun as opposed to its unmarked/default post-position. With the modified noun present in post-position, the demonstrative is neither the head of the noun phrase or functioning as a demonstrative pronoun. It is noted that the plural

proximate demonstrative of Type One, *re*, modifies or pluralizes *ḡrada*, ‘our grandchildren’.

(590) *Iḡre* *ḡra=da* *tapa* *re*
 DEM.PROX.PL grandchild=1PL.POSS 1DU.INCL DEM.PROX.PL

me *ḡlea=di=hi* *gepa*
 INCP happy=3PL.OBJ=COMPL 1DU.EXCL
 ‘These grandchildren of ours have made us happy.’

In examples (591), (592), and (593), *ḡre* is used, and consistent with the other members of this set, the role of this member of the pair without the word initial *i-* does not emphasize as much the specificity of the noun. That is, if the specificity were in focus by the use of *iḡre* instead of *ḡre*, the pragmatic function would be (in order of the examples): these particular people, these particular children, and these particular men, contrasted simply with ‘we people (which are these that are mentioned)’, ‘the children (that are mentioned)’, and ‘the men (that are mentioned)’, all of which are simply pointed to in the communication context rather than emphasized in the context.

(591) *Tahati* *naikno* *ḡre* *e* *kmana*
 1PL.INCL people DEM.PROX.PL EMP lot.of

pui~puhi=da
 DUR~way=1PL.POSS
 ‘We people have had many problems.’

(592) *Sua* *ḡre* *te* *iho* *loku*
 child DEM.PROX.PL PRS not.knowing. work
 ‘It is that the children don’t know how to work.’

(593) *Mae* *te* *au* *ka* *namono* *Malaita* *ḡre*
 man REL be LOC place Malaita DEM.PROX.PL
 ‘These men that are from Malaita.’

The distal and plural demonstratives of this set are *iḡro/ḡro*. In each of the examples in this section, the notion of distal is related to spatial distance removed from the deictic center. This follows the functional pattern of the other plural distal members in the types of CH demonstratives.

(594) *Thoḡele* *ke* *holo* *Buala* *iḡro*
 hill DIR bush Buala DEM.DIST.PL
 ‘...those hills above Buala.’

- (595) *Tarai mae īgro*
 pray man DEM.DIST.PL
 ‘Those men from over there pray.’
- (596) *Mae provins ġro ba mei lañau*
 man province DEM.DIST.PL perhaps come also
 ‘Those men who work for the province might also come.’

6.3.1.4 ‘ao’ Demonstratives: Type Three

The distal members of the third set of CH demonstratives show a marked propensity in the corpus for occurring independently and functioning as heads of NP. This is in contrast to the demonstratives of Type One, but similar to the *i-* forms of Type Two. Thus, these are not described as primarily co-occurring with nouns. However, the same is not true for the proximate members of Type Three, as these always co-occur with nouns.⁶⁹ Like those in Type Two, the demonstratives of Type Three do not co-occur with pronouns. Like all other types, Type Three demonstratives co-occur with time words. This set of demonstratives is listed in Table 28.

Table 28: Type Three of CH Demonstratives

	Proximate	Distal
Singular	<i>ana</i> ‘this one’	<i>ao</i> ‘that one’
Plural	<i>are</i> ‘these ones’	<i>aro</i> ‘those ones’

Ao is the distal and singular demonstrative of this set. When co-occurring with nouns the demonstrative *ao* appears to be a synonym with *igno* (and not *gno*) in most cases. The function of *ao* apparently includes specificity of the noun which it modifies, and thus is closer to *igno* than to *gno* as a synonym. At present the distinction offered between *ao* and *igno* as word choices is speaker preference rather than semantic range of the nouns modified, contextual information, or syntactic evidence. For example, in (597) and (598), apparently *igno* could be substituted for *ao* without a change of meaning.

- (597) *Ka khata=gna ġaogatho ao*
 LOC little.bit=3SG.POSS thinking DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘That is a little bit of (my) thinking.’

⁶⁹ There are one or two examples in the corpus where *ana* is separated across sentence boundaries from the noun to which it refers, but the noun is modified nonetheless by the demonstrative functioning anaphorically in the wider discourse.

(598) *Keha pheī thu=mi ġre keha gne*
 some two child=2PL.POSS DEM.PROX.PL some DEM.PROX.SG

tei ka sikolu ao
 go LOC school DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘These two of our children [and] this other one go to that school.’

Examples (599), (600) and (601) demonstrate the sentence-initial positioning of this demonstrative and the marked propensity for occurring as head of the NP. Also, it is substantiated often in the corpus and demonstrated in examples (600) and (601) that in this position, *ao* often co-occurs with the focus marker *si*.

(599) *Ao thoutonu=di phiamare re*
 DEM.DIST.SG story=3PL.POSS 3DU.F PL
 ‘That is the story of the two of them.’

(600) *Ao si=ni me ke te maġra bi'o lañau*
 DEM.DIST.SG FOC=3SG.OBJ INCP PRF PRS fight big also

Malaita na ka tuana
 Malaita DEM.PROX.SG LOC DEM
 ‘That is how it [happened] that the big fight started on Malaita, like that.’

(601) *Ao si me edi ñala mare fati baebale*
 DEM.DIST.SG FOC INCP do just 3PL four shelter

na
 DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘That is how they made four shelters.’

The distal and plural demonstrative of this set is *aro*. The somewhat lengthy example (602) was chosen for the purpose of illustrating a compound subject co-occurring with the anaphoric demonstrative *aro*. (Note: in the interest of space and readability, the gloss for *re* which occurs seven times in this example sentence is simply noted as PL. If done with consistent representation for the other demonstrative glosses in this section of the book, it would be DEM.PROX.PL.)

(602) *Batu hage bi'o re mae Khogudi bi'o re mae Lañana bi'o re*
 lead up big PL man Khogudi big PL man Lañana big PL

mae Khofrosu bi'o re mae Tofidi bi'o re aro mae bi'o
 man Khofrosu big PL man Tofidi big PL DEM.DIST.PL man big

re te au balu=gna mae mala ome re
 PL REL be COM=3SG.OBJ man PUR adultery PL

‘The big men from Khogudi, Lañana, Khofrosu, and Tofidi, those big men are the ones who arose with the men who committed adultery.’

The demonstrative *aro* occurs sentence initial in (603) either as the predicate adjective or as a preposed modifier of the predicate nominal.

- (603) *Aro keha noli keli=ḡu iara re*
 DEM.DIST.PL some crazy good=1SG.POSS 1SG DEM.PROX.PL
 ‘Those are some crazy things that made me happy.’

The proximate and singular demonstrative of this set is *ana*. It occurs sentence final (604), co-occurs with the focus marker *si* (605), and often assumes final position in a prepositional phrase (606).

- (604) *Mare na mala te soni haidu ana*
 3PL DEM.PROX.SG PUR PRS meet meeting DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘It is that they come to meet at this meeting.’

- (605) *Cheke na ka nohi tahati suḡa mala au si*
 talk DEM.PROX.SG LOC area 1PL.INCL house for be FOC

ana
 DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘This talk to our region [was] that it [i.e. the meeting] would be in this house.’

- (606) *Naikno ḡoro sua ... ne keḡra ke ulu=gna mae prisi*
 people all child PST stand DIR front=3SG.POSS man priest

ana
 DEM.PROX.SG
 ‘The women and all the children were standing in front of this priest.’

The demonstrative *are* is the proximate and plural member of this set. The demonstrative *are* modifies the nominal which is the object of the preposition *mae* ‘man’ in the following example, doing so syntactically from the obligatory postposed position.

- (607) *Eguteuna fiti vavahi ka mae te=u kolho*
 CONJ just choose LOC man PRS=CONT just

are
 DEM.PROX.PL
 ‘And it is that they are just choosing from among these men that are [here].’

As with each of the other types of demonstratives, Type Three demonstratives modify time words:

- (608) *Iara neke tei Honiara ka finoga ao*
 1SG PST go Honiara LOC year DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘I went to Honiara that year.’

6.3.1.5 ‘*u*’ Demonstrative: Type Four

The demonstrative *u* is the only member of Type Four Demonstratives, and is the most different of the CH demonstratives.⁷⁰ These characteristics are now described briefly in turn. The members of the other sets of demonstratives do not by themselves mark pragmatic emphasis or prominence, but *u* marking emphasis is attested as its chief function. In written English, the gloss in the following example would be represented as ‘THIS news that is good’. (Note: each of the translation line glosses in this section reflects this style of all caps for the pragmatic emphasis feature of this demonstrative.)

- (609) *U nonomho te keli*
 DEM news REL good
 ‘THIS news that is good.’

First, in terms of distinctiveness, while the demonstratives in the other three types regularly occur post-posed to the noun they modify, *u* regularly occurs pre-posed to the noun it modifies:

- (610) *U jaḡlo no=ḡu bi'o fara*
 DEM surprise ALN=1SG.POSS big very
 ‘THIS very big surprise of me.’

- (611) *Iara au Kolokhofa ka u narane tuana*
 1SG be Kolokhofa LOC DEM day DEM
 ‘I was at Kolokhofa on THAT day.’

However, even with the attribution of pre-positioning as a recurring feature of normal word order, *u* also occurs post-posed in a cleft construction (as described by Lambrecht, 1994). In the cleft construction, it occurs post-posed to the element which it modifies, but pre-posed to a particular modal adverb marking specificity, namely *n̄ala*. The function of determiner *u* in this construction is a heightened emphasis of its pragmatic-marking feature. This is shown in the following examples.

⁷⁰ White (1988) classified *u* as an article that functions as a universal quantifier, occurring before abstract nouns. I do not know what he intended by ‘universal quantifier’, and he does not explain it. And, it is quite common in the corpus for *u* to occur before nouns that are other than abstract. However, it is clear that it cannot be an article, as *u* is found numerous times in the corpus to occur not in the presence of a noun but post-posed to a pronoun. Also, the function of quantifier cannot be accounted for, as it occurs with singular and plural nouns, and also is found to occur with a cardinal or ordinal number.

(612) *Mana u n̄ala mala bana=gna suḡa=gna*
 3SG.M DEM just PUR build=3SG.POSS house=3SG.POSS
 ‘He [is] just THIS [one] building his house.’
 Or, ‘Specifically this [guy], he, is the one building his house.’

(613) *Keli u n̄ala*
 good DEM just
 ‘THIS [is] just good’, Or, colloquially, ‘Things are going ok!’

(614) *Mare te keli fara u n̄ala Isabel*
 3PL PRS good very DEM just Isabel
 ‘It is specifically THOSE Isabel people that are very good.’

(615) *Nu iara na fa-ari ka khata*
 CONJ 1SG DEM.PROX.SG CAUS-go LOC little.bit

no=u sileni u n̄ala iago
 ALN=2SG.POSS money DEM just 2SG
 ‘But I will send just a little bit of THAT money that specifically belongs to you.’

The members of the other three types of demonstratives mark distinction between proximal and distal, but *u* does not. Also, the other three types mark distinction between plural and singular, but *u* does not, as it occurs with nouns of either number. In example (616), *u* occurs with a singular nominal:

(616) *U thotounu=gna mae Keke*
 DEM story=3SG.POSS man Keke
 ‘THIS story [is] about [Harold] Keke.’

In example (617), *u* occurs with a plural nominal notion:

(617) *U ḡoro sua re ka naikno*
 DEM all child DEM.PROX.PL LOC people
 ‘All THOSE children [that are] among the people.’

Unlike the members of Types Two and Three, but similar to Type One, it cannot serve as the head of the noun phrase, though it does modify the noun which is the head of the noun phrase:

(618) *Mare loku tharai egu u tothogo ka puhi ka mae Isabel*
 3PL work pray like.that DEM help LOC way LOC man Isabel
 ‘They do spiritual work like that [which is] THIS help [for] the problem among Isabel people.’

- (619) *Uve u puhi te fari-hotei=di mae Guadalcanal*
 yes DEM way REL RECP-middle=3PL.POSS man Guadalcanal

mae Malaita ġre

man Malaita DEM.PROX.PL

‘Well, THIS problem that [is] between the Guadalcanal men [and] Malaita men...’

Demonstrative *u* can co-occur with other demonstratives, as previously illustrated in example (611), doing so in a sort of double modifying role. In the following example, *u* serves to mark the prominence of THIS geographical place (*u Honiara*), while the demonstrative from Type Two, *ġre*, modifies the noun as well indicating the number of the noun (*mae* ‘man’) being modified.

- (620) *Tuana te balu=di mae u Honiara ġre*
 DEM PRS with=3PL.POSS man DEM Honiara DEM.PROX.PL

egu

like.that

‘It is that, that [is the group] with THESE men from Honiara, like that.’

As with each of the other three types of demonstratives, Type Four demonstrative *u* co-occurs with time words:

- (621) *Iara neke tei Merika ka u finoga te ari ia*
 1SG PST go America LOC DEM year REL go DEM.DIST.SG
 ‘LAST year, I went to America.’

Of the four types of demonstratives, the one with the featured propensity for co-occurring with borrowed nouns is *u* of set four. One can surmise that the reason for this propensity is that it serves to highlight the presence of an element in the communication which is not within the ‘established’ CH lexicon. This is also described in section 3.2.9. The following is a representative short list of the borrowed nouns, all attested within the corpus:

u prediction

u annual general meeting

u seven

u central Maringe

u vote

6.3.1.6 Demonstrative pronouns

CH has two sets of demonstrative pronouns. The pronouns in each set have the root *teu-* plus an enclitic which signifies number and either specificity or proximity of the

noun which it modifies. The first set is described in terms of specificity and number, and listed in Table 29.

Table 29: Specificity Set of CH Demonstrative Pronouns

	Specific	Gloss	Non-specific	Gloss
Singular	<i>t(e)u=na</i>	'this one'	<i>t(e)u=ia</i>	'that one'
Plural	<i>t(e)u=re</i>	'these ones'	<i>t(e)u=ra</i>	'those ones'

Phonologically, each is in free variation with a form in which the *e* elides. Thus, each is also often pronounced and written as *tuna*, *tuia*, *ture*, and *tura* respectively. The notion of specificity indicates a specific or general referent of the pronoun. It is illustrated through contrasting examples which follow, explicated in the translation line of the examples.

- (622) *Te au ġano khuarao teu=na*
 PRS be food k.o.fishing DEM.PRN=SP.SG
 'There is this (specifically identified as to kind and amount of singular type of) food (resulting from) khuarao fishing.' And note: the specificity is probably not just known from communication context, but identified by the speaker by pointing of either fingers or lips to a pile of food.
- (623) *Te au ġano khuarao teu=ia*
 PRS be food k.o.fishing DEM.PRN=NSP.SG
 'There is that (non-specifically identified as to kind and amount of singular type of) food (resulting from) khuarao fishing.'
- (624) *Ġognaro vido teu=re ra'e la chopu di'a fara*
 now place DEM.PRN=SP.PL really IMM mud bad very
 'Now these places (that is, referring specifically to these areas or places to which the speaker is/has been referring to in this communication) are really very muddy.'
- (625) *Ġognaro vido tu=ra ra'e la chopu di'a fara*
 now place DEM.PRN=NSP.PL really IMM mud bad very
 'Now those places (being referred to but which are just spoken of generally and which do not point to any specific areas or places) are really very muddy.'

The second set of demonstrative pronouns are classified according to proximity, either spatially or contextually to the speaker. These mirror the functional description and characteristics of the demonstrative adjectives described in section 6.3.1. Phonologically, as with the free variation noted in the specificity class, the *e* can elide in each member of the set, and the first syllable is then pronounced *tu* instead of *te*.

The demonstrative pronouns in each grouping of the proximity class in Table 30 have two sets of pronouns (e.g. singular proximate: *teugne*, *teuana* ‘this one’), indicated on separate and adjoining lines, and each has the same meaning. The pronouns are best described as synonyms and the variation is described by speaker choice.

Table 30: Proximity Set of CH Demonstrative Pronouns

	Proximate	Gloss	Distal	Gloss
Singular	<i>t(e)u=gne</i> <i>t(e)u=ana</i>	‘this one’	<i>t(e)u=gno</i> <i>t(e)u=ao</i>	‘that one’
Plural	<i>t(e)u=gre</i> <i>t(e)u=are</i>	‘these ones’	<i>t(e)u=gro</i> <i>t(e)u=aro</i>	‘those ones’

The notion of proximity is illustrated in the examples which follow. The first pair illustrates and contrasts the singular and distal proximate demonstrative pronouns:

- (626) *Fa-tilo* *kokholo* *teu=gne* *kilo=ni* *kokholo*
CAUS-three line DEM.PRN=PROX.SG call=3SG.OBJ line

hotei
middle

‘The third line, this one (that I am referring to that is figuratively speaking, close) is called the middle line.’

- (627) *Fa-tilo* *kokholo* *teu=gno* *kilo=ni* *kokholo*
CAUS-three line DEM.PRN=DIST.SG call=3SG.OBJ line

hotei
middle

‘The third line, that one (that I am referring to that is either not close in relation to our family line or which is distant from us in terms of being from time before) is called the middle line.’

The second pair illustrates and contrasts the plural and distal proximate demonstrative pronouns:

- (628) *Au suḡa* *iko=di* *tu=are*
be house small=3PL.POSS DEM.PRN=PROX.PL
‘These ones (i.e. the ones close to or in view of the speaker and/or identified in context) are their small houses.’

- (629) *Au suḡa* *iko=di* *tu=aro*
be house small=3PL.POSS DEM.PRN=DIST.PL
‘Those ones (over there, i.e. not close to the speaker at the time of utterance or not close in terms of relative distance) are their small houses.’

6.3.1.7 Summary

Four types of demonstrative adjectives are attested in CH. Type One, whose most commonly occurring member is the singular proximal *na*, is a more common Type than the other three, and consists, as do Type Two and Type Three, of four members. Type Four only has one member, *u*. A table of selected syntactic comparative features is given below in Table 31. The proximal/distal distinction for Types One, Two, and Three is based on 1) time of the event being described, whether near or far to current reality or time progression, or 2) to spatial distance in deictic reference from the speaker. In terms of general features, these co-occur with nouns and pronouns and they primarily function to modify nouns and pronouns.

Type Two demonstratives co-occur with nouns and they primarily function to modify nouns. As with those of Type Three, these demonstratives do not modify pronouns. The four members of Type Two comprise a type in which each word is a derivation of the base form of $(i)gn^*/\bar{g}r^*$. Syntactically, they follow the nouns they modify. However, the members of this type of demonstratives do not necessarily co-occur with nouns that are being modified, but can themselves be heads. These CH demonstratives are either singular or plural.

The third type of CH demonstratives can co-occur with nouns they modify, but they function as heads of NP, which is unlike Type One which cannot function as heads, and is similar to Type Two, whose members in certain forms do function as head of the noun phrase. However, the members of Type Three seem to occur more regularly as head of the noun phrase than do those of Type Two. These four words in Type Three comprise a type in which each word is a derivation of the base form of an^*/ar^* . These CH demonstratives are either singular or plural.

Type Four has one member, namely *u*. This type differs from the others by not showing the proximal/distal distinction, nor does it mark singular and plural distinctions, nor does it serve as the head of a noun phrase. While some might suggest analyzing *u* as an article instead of a demonstrative, there is attestation of *u* modifying pronouns, and this feature nullifies it from functioning as an article. Unlike members of the other types of demonstratives, there is evidence that *u* exhibits a special function of marking pragmatic emphasis.

Table 31: Comparison of CH Demonstrative Adjective Types
 (+ = attested in the language; - = not attested)

	Proximal/Distal Distinction	Head of NP	Modify N	Modify Pronoun	Modify Time words
<i>na</i> Type One	+	-	+	+	+
<i>igne</i> Type Two	+	+	+	-	+
<i>ao</i> Type Three	+	+	+	-	+
<i>u</i> Type Four	-	-	+	+	+

Also, by way of summary, there are two classes of CH demonstrative pronouns. The pronouns in each set have the root *t(e)u-* plus an enclitic which signifies number and either specificity or proximity of the noun which it modifies.

6.4 Interrogatives

The inventory of content interrogatives in CH includes the following:

hei 'who'
unha 'what'
heva 'where'
aheva 'which'
neha 'why'
niha 'when'
naugna unha 'why' (lit. 'because what')
fa-neha/fa-unha 'how' (lit. 'CAUS-why'/'CAUS-what')

Representative illustrations include:

(630) *Unha egu?*
 what like.that
 'What [is going on] like.that?'

(631) *Cheke=ni aheva gne?*
 speak=3SG.OBJ which DEM
 '[He] said which [is] this?'

Each interrogative is optionally followed syntactically by the focus marker *si*. Examples (632) and (633) demonstrate this structure.

(632) *Naugna unha si iago ia?*
 because what FOC 2SG DEM
 ‘Why [do] you?’ or ‘Why are you doing that?’

(633) *Hei si ia?*
 who FOC DEM
 ‘Who was it?’

The features and functions of interrogatives are discussed in relation to clause types in section 9.3.4.

6.5 Quantifiers and numerals

6.5.1 Quantifiers

A set of CH quantifiers modify nouns and indicate number. Quantifiers indicate either definite or indefinite amounts.

The list of definite quantifiers include:

gnafa ‘all’⁷¹
leulegu ‘every one [of them]’

Indefinite quantifiers include:

keha ‘some’
kmana ‘large, indeterminate number; lot.of’
katha ‘little bit’

Syntactically, both definite and indefinite quantifiers are preposed to the nominal they modify, as in examples (634) and (635).

(634) *leulegu suḡa*
 every.one house
 ‘every house’

(635) *keha suḡa*
 some house
 ‘some house(s)’

⁷¹ The meaning of the modifier *gnafa* ‘all’ is related to the verbal idea of *gnafa* ‘finish’, as in ‘finish all activity=rest’, or ‘completed’.

Indefinite quantifier *kmana* ‘lot.of’ can occur before or after the nominal it modifies. In occurring post-nominally, *kmana* can occur in a relative clause, as in (637).

(636) *Naikno kmana fara*
 people lot.of very
 ‘[It is] very much a lot of people.’

(637) *Naikno te kmana fara*
 people REL lot.of very
 ‘[There are] a lot of people [there].’

CH uses *gnafa* ‘all’, in combination with the relative clause marker *te*, to indicate ‘all’, specifically ‘all identified as a unit whole’.

(638) *Tahati te gnafa na tei Buala ġinau na*
 1PL.INCL REL all DEM go Buala later DEM
 ‘It is that all [of] us-incl will go to Buala later.’

In CH a total grouping is indicated by *legu*, reduplicated as *leu~legu*. The quantifier *legu* refers to every individual one, contrasted with *gnafa*, which focuses on the sum of the members and identifies those members as a collective group. *Legu* is used with temporal nouns, such as day or month:

(639) *Legu narane boñi=gau World Cup kolho*
 every day night=1SG.OBJ World Cup just
 ‘Every day and night all I do is watch the World Cup!’

The reduplicated form *leu~legu* modifying a temporal notion indicates an indefinitely re-occurring quantification of the temporal notion:

(640) *Leu~legu hamerane tarai leu~legu ġrafi tarai*
 DUR~every day pray DUR~every evening pray
 ‘Every morning and every evening we have prayer service.’

6.5.2 Numerals

CH has cardinal and ordinal numbers. Cardinals are discussed in section 6.5.2.1, and ordinals in section 6.5.2.2.

6.5.2.1 Cardinal numbers

CH cardinal numbers are used for counting. The CH counting system utilizes lexical items for numerals one to nine, for multiples of ten from ten to ninety, and for hundred, thousand and million. There is no CH lexical entry for zero, but when this value is needed for whatever reason, CH speakers borrow from Pijin. In such cases the /z/ changes to /j/, and is pronounced as *jero*. The following table gives an

inventory of CH numbers and also shows a comparison between CH and Proto-Oceanic (POC) numerals one to ten.⁷²

Table 32: CH Numerals

	CH	POC
1	<i>kaisei</i>	*tasa
2	<i>phei</i>	*rua
3	<i>thilo</i>	*tolu
4	<i>fati</i>	*pat, pati
5	<i>ġlima</i>	*lima
6	<i>namno</i>	*onom
7	<i>fitu</i>	*pitu
8	<i>nhana</i>	*walu
9	<i>nheva</i>	*siwa
10	<i>nabotho</i>	*sa-ngapuluq
20	<i>varadaki</i>	
30	<i>thilofulu</i>	
40	<i>phiatutu</i>	
50	<i>ġlima salei</i>	
60	<i>namno salei</i>	
70	<i>fitu salei</i>	
80	<i>nhana salei</i>	
90	<i>nheva salei</i>	
100	<i>ġobi</i>	
1,000	<i>thoga</i>	
1,000,000	<i>mola</i>	

⁷² POC data from Lynch *et al* (2002:72).

CH employs a regular decimal system, in that numbers 11-19 take the form of the number 10, *nabotho*, plus ‘one’ *kaisei* for 11, thus *nabotho kaisei*, and so forth up to 19. Each of the numbers between multiples of ten form numbers in the same fashion until reaching the next designator of multiples of ten. For example, the number 42 is represented as *phiatutu* ‘40’ plus *phei* ‘2’, thus *phiatutu phei*.

In looking at the multiples of 10, it is interesting to note the patterns and word compositions. The word for ‘10’ *nabotho*, and the word for ‘20’, *varadaki*, do not appear to have any lexical connection to other words which designate ‘tens’. Thus, *nabotho* ‘10’ is not **kaisei* plus/of (‘something representing 10’), nor is 20 ‘two tens’, or **phei nabotho*. However, starting with the word for 30, the tens are formed by one of the CH numerals plus some kind of tens designator. For example, ‘30’, *thilofulu*, is *thilo* (three) + the morpheme *fulu*. The exact meaning of *fulu* is unknown. It seems to be used only as a numeric designation for the value of certain multiples of ten. The word *fulu* is not used separately in the language. The etymology of 40 is *phia* (form of two) + *tutu*. Unlike *fulu*, *tutu* is found in CH, but outside the numeral domain. *Tutu* is a verb for ‘hammer’ or ‘pound’. As a numeral designator, *tutu* might in fact refer to groups of 20, and so *phiatutu* appears to be ‘two groups of 20’, or ‘two groups of something totalling 40’ but that is not confirmed. There is no known historical clue as to its meaning. For 50 through 90, each of the multiples includes the base number plus *salei*, the exact meaning of which is unknown though it is some form of ‘tens.’ Like *fulu*, the tens designator for 30, *salei* is not found elsewhere in the language. Other numbers in the language are realized by complex number forms, using the principal numeral roots in combination with each other. Selective examples include the following:

(641) *phei ḡobi* *fitu-salei*
two hundred seven-tens
‘two hundred seventy’

(642) *nhana thoga* *phei ḡobi* *varadaki* *kaisei*
eight thousand two hundred twenty one
‘eight thousand two hundred twenty-one’

The CH numbers function as adjectives, designating how many of a certain noun:

(643) *kaisei suḡa*
one house
‘one house’

(644) *phei khurao sasa*
two net fish
‘two nets of fish’

(645) *thilo mae prisi*
 three man priest
 ‘three priests’

(646) *fati khuma*
 four dog
 ‘four dogs’

An example of a complex number used in a sentence to announce the results of a fund-raising effort:

(647) *Phei thoga fati ġobi phiatutu dola teke kaha=di*
 two thousand four hundred forty dollar PSS count=3PL.OBJ

mae bi'o ġre
 man big DEM
 ‘It was that these big men counted 2,440 dollars.’

CH numerals can be nominalized. This occurs with an *-i* suffix appended to the CH number. It is noted that for CH numbers that end in /i/, there is no doubling of the [i] in nominalization. Thus, *kaisei* ‘one’ would be both the number root form, and the surface-realized nominalized form, though the underlying form is /kaisei+i/. The same would be true for other numbers, such as *phei* ‘two’ or *ġobi* ‘hundred’. This nominalizing feature of the *-i* suffix in CH is shown in the following example (648), and the number is not only nominalized, but serves as the head of the noun phrase:

(648) *Namha na n̄ala te ulu ka thilo-i ġre*
 love DEM just PRS front LOC three-NOM DEM
 ‘It is that love is the front (i.e. most important) of these three.’

Other evidence of this nominalizing is seen in the common compound noun for time of day. The word *tanhi*, which is both the noun and verb form for ‘cry’, but used metaphorically in CH as the noun for ‘time’, compounds with a nominalized number. Thus ‘four o’clock’ is *tanhi* ‘time’ plus nominalized *fati(-i)* ‘four’, thus:

(649) *Tanhi fati(-i)*
 Time four(-NOM)
 ‘Four o’clock.’

CH also demonstrates a variation in the representation of the number two, with both *phei* and *phia* in use and at times used interchangeably as adjectives, even with the same nouns. Thus, through analysis of the occurrences of the two, at times they do appear to be synonymous terms. The following examples are attested in the language as adjectival uses:

(650) *phei mae*
two man
'two men'

(651) *phia mae*
two man
'two men'

However, there are two differences noted: 1) *phei* 'two' is the nominalized form (as described above in this section). 2) The most apparent distinction is that *phia* 'two' is used rather than *phei* 'two' when designating a 'group of two'. This is seen in the CH number for 40, cited in Table 32, as *phia.tutu*, which is described in extended meaning as 'two groups of 20', or 'two groups of something totalling 40'. Interestingly, the number for 40 is not the adjective *phei* 'two' plus the CH number for 20, *varadaki*, or **phei varadaki*. This 'group of two' meaning for *phia*, used to designate two nouns that occur in pairs, is illustrated by the following two examples:

(652) *phia tatha=gna re*
two eye=3SG.POSS PL
'his two eyes'

(653) *Meri ge Mafa phia greḡa=gna re*
Mary and Martha two sister=3SG.POSS PL
'Mary and Martha [are] his two sisters.'

A further notion of two resembles in form both *phia* and *phei*, and it is *pea*. It is used in CH only to indicate 'two parts', and is equivalent to the notion of 'two halves'.

(654) *Mana ne atha ḡaju ne breku pea egu*
3SG.M PST take wood PST break two.pieces like.that
'He took the wood and broke it into two pieces, like that.'

It is further noted that *pea* 'two parts' is the word for 'two' which is used in the representation of the CH ordinal 'second', as described in section 6.5.2.2.

6.5.2.2 Ordinal numbers

Ordinals are regularly formed by preposing the causative marker *fa-* to the cardinal numeral. It is literally 'make' + the number.⁷³

(655) *Fa-thilo kokholo teugne*
CAUS-three clan DEM
'This is the third clan.'

⁷³ The same is true in SI Pijin. 'Third', for example, is *mek-tri*, or in English 'make-three.'

This ordinal number formation is irregular with six of the ten cardinal numbers, ‘first’, ‘second’, ‘fifth’, ‘eighth’, ‘ninth’, and ‘tenth’. For ‘first’, the expected derivation would be **fa-kaisei*, ‘make-one’, derived from the consistent patterning *fa* + numeral. However, there are two irregularities in the formation of ‘first’: 1) *kaisei* ‘one’ is not used, but *ulu* is used, meaning ‘front’. 2) This is the only ordinal in which the *fa-* ‘causative marker’ prefix is not used, but the suffix *-lahu* is used, which is an ordinal marker indicating ‘end point’. The marker *-lahu* is also used in CH with *legu* ‘behind, as in *legu-lahu*, ‘last-end.point’ or ‘lastly’, and with *bi’o* in *bi’o-lahu* ‘big-end.point’ or ‘biggest’. Thus, the notion of ‘first’ is *ulu-lahu* ‘front-end.point’, and is represented in the following example:

- (656) *Iara mei Honiara ka u faidu ulu-lahu ia*
 1SG come Honiara LOC DEM meeting one-ORD DEM
 ‘I came to Honiara to that first meeting.’

‘Second’ is also irregular in the sense that the causative prefix *fa-* is used with *pea* ‘two pieces’ instead of with the cardinal number for ‘two’ *phei*. Thus, ‘make two/second’ is *fa-pea*, and not **fa-phei*.

The third irregularity is a pattern shared by ‘fifth’, ‘eighth’, ‘ninth’, and ‘tenth’, in that there is elision of either the first consonant, or the first syllable. With the observed regular patterning in CH, the expected form for ‘fifth’ is **fa-glima* ‘make-five’. However, the initial consonant “g” elides, and the form is *fa-lima*. For ‘eighth’ and ‘ninth’, the expected forms are **fa-nhana* and **fa-nheva*, respectively. But for both words, the initial voiceless nasal [ŋ] elides, and the initial sound is “h”. Thus, instead of simply initial consonant elision, resulting in **fa-ana* for ‘eighth’, the “h” inserts, forming the first syllable of *ha-*, as in *fa-hana*. Similarly, ‘ninth’ is *fa-heva*. For ‘tenth’, the expected form is **fa-nabotho* ‘make-ten’, but the first syllable elides, and the attested form is *fa-botho*. Numbers of any size can form ordinals, though it is observed that they are not used widely above the basic inventory of numeral roots. The CH ordinals are listed in the following table.

Table 33: CH Ordinals

	CH Numeral Base	CH Ordinal
1	<i>kaisei</i>	<i>ulu-lahu</i>
2	<i>phei</i>	<i>fa-pea</i>
3	<i>thilo</i>	<i>fa-thilo</i>
4	<i>fati</i>	<i>fa-fati</i>
5	<i>glima</i>	<i>fa-lima</i>
6	<i>namno</i>	<i>fa-namno</i>
7	<i>fitu</i>	<i>fa-fitu</i>
8	<i>nhana</i>	<i>fa-hana</i>
9	<i>nheva</i>	<i>fa-heva</i>
10	<i>nabotho</i>	<i>fa-botho</i>

Ordinals are used adjectivally to modify nouns. For example, the ordinal is used to specify the birth order of a child:

- (657) *Fa-thilo sua iara na mae Robert*
 CAUS-three child 1SG DEM man Robert
 ‘My third child is Robert.’

Ordinals are commonly used to signify various points in speech making, narrative texts, or the genre of greetings, all of which depend on ordering of information. In such instances, the ordinal is a nominative, modified consistently by the demonstrative *na*. It is not unusual to begin a speech or letter by using the ordinal ‘firstly’, as in the following example of greetings sent via recording:

- (658) *Ulu-lahu na iara mei greetings ka iago*
 one-ORD DEM 1SG come greetings LOC 2SG
 ‘Firstly, I give greetings to you.’

After making the first point of a public speech, the speaker could then make the second point, starting with *fa-pea* ‘second’.

- (659) *Fa-pea na iara keli ta=ḡu fara teke mei*
 make-two DEM 1SG good EXP=1SG.POSS very PSS come

agne egu

here like.this

‘Secondly, I am very happy that it was that I came here, like this.’

The speaker could stop at any of the ordinal numbering of points in the speech, or simply conclude with *legu-lahu*, ‘lastly’:

- (660) *Legu-lahu na iara cheke teḡio fara*
 Follow-ORD DEM 1SG talk thank.you very
 ‘Lastly, I say thank you very much.’

6.5.3 Summary of discussion of quantifiers and numerals

CH non-numerical quantifiers modify nouns to indicate both definite and indefinite amounts. They regularly occur pre-posed to the noun they modify. There are two modifiers, *gnafa* ‘all’, and *kmana* ‘lot.of’, that also show regular and arbitrary occurrence post-posed, both with and without placement in a relative clause. The CH counting system utilizes cardinal numbers for numerals one to nine, for multiples of ten from ten to ninety, and for hundred, thousand and million. CH employs a regular decimal system, in that numbers 11-19 take the form of the number 10, *nabotho*, plus ‘one’ *kaisei*, for 11, thus *nabotho kaisei*, and so forth up to 19. The other numbers between tens pattern the same way.

The form of CH numbers marking ‘tens’ varies widely. With adjectival function, these typically occur pre-posed to the noun they modify. The numbers *nabotho* ‘10’ and *varadaki* ‘20’ do not have any lexical connection to word forms which show one of the cardinal numbers combining with a word form designating tens, as do all the multiples of tens from 30-90. Numbers 30 and 40 are formed in the usual CH pattern of cardinal number plus some word that designates tens or a grouping of tens, but 30 and 40 each have a different tens designator. Numbers 50-90 pattern consistently with a cardinal number plus some kind of tens designator that is consistent to each multiple of tens in this set of 50-90, but that tens designator is not found in any of the tens below 50, and is noted that this designator is not found anywhere else in the language as a word form.

CH numerals can be nominalized. This occurs when an *-i* suffix is appended to the CH number. It is noted that for CH numbers that end in /i/, there is no doubling of the [i] in the surface level realization of the nominalization. The resulting nominalized form occurs as the head of a noun phrase.

CH ordinals are formed by pre-posing the causative marker *fa-* to the numeral. This ordinal number formation is irregular with six of the ten cardinal numbers, ‘first’, ‘second’, ‘fifth’, ‘eighth’, ‘ninth’, and ‘tenth’. Depending on the ordinal, the irregular formation varies. The range of variation includes the absence of a cardinal number in the ordinal formation, which is true of ‘first’ and ‘second’. The word form for ‘first(ly)’ *ulu-lahu*, also utilizes a suffix, *-lahu*, that is only found elsewhere in the language in the formation of the words for ‘last(ly)’, *legu-lahu*, and with *bi'o* in *bi'o-lahu* ‘big-end.point’ or ‘biggest’. Thus, both *ululahu* ‘first’ and *legulahu* ‘last’ are ordinals in the sense that they are words which order information, but they are not ordinals formed from cardinal numbers or their word forms. ‘Second’ is irregular in the sense that the causative prefix *fa-* is used with *pea* ‘two pieces’ instead of with the cardinal number for ‘two’ *phei*. Thus, ‘make two/second’ is *fa-pea*, and not **fa-phei*. Further, in the formation of ‘fifth’, ‘eighth’, and ‘ninth’ there is an elision of an initial consonant, and in the formation of ‘tenth’, there is an elision of the initial syllable, with both elisions occurring when prefixed by *fa-* to form the ordinal. CH ordinals function both nominally and adjectivally. The nominal function is frequently used in speech-making or narrative progression.

6.6 Summary of chapter

The inventory of CH conjunctions numbers 13. They conjoin nouns, noun phrases, clauses, sentences, and serve in disjunctive and adversative roles, and mark causal propositions.

The semantic range of CH interjections covers exclamation or emotional response. The function of each is to express surprise at an event or statement. There are six interjections in common use.

Four types of demonstrative adjectives are attested in CH. A summary description is found in section 6.3.1.7. Proximal and distal distinctives play a prominent role in distinguishing the members of Types One, Two, and Three. Type Four, which has one member, *u*, is the most different of the four types, in that it does not show the proximal/distal distinctions, it cannot serve as the head of a noun phrase, it does not distinguish between singular and plural nouns or pronouns, and it serves in a preposition to the noun or pronoun that it modifies. Demonstrative pronouns are also common in the language, with two sets of these described. One set marks specificity, and the other proximity.

The inventory of CH interrogatives numbers 9 lexical items. Each interrogative is optionally followed syntactically by the focus marker *si*.

A set of CH quantifiers modify nouns and indicate number. Quantifiers indicate either definite or indefinite amounts. CH has cardinal and ordinal numbers. CH has base numeral forms up to one million, indicated by the lexical item, *mola*. The form of CH numbers marking 'tens' varies widely. CH numerals can be nominalized when an *-i* suffix is appended to the CH number. CH ordinals are formed by preposing the causative marker *fa-* to the numeral. However, this ordinal number formation is irregular with six of the ten cardinal numbers.

