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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   gā'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   ḡeri=ḡu   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 inventory[66] 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   doḡlo   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!'.

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[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*

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[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	*na* 'this'	*ia* 'that'
Plural	*re* 'these'	*ra* '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   <u>naflahi   na</u>   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.'

An 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 ñala 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) *Ḡinei   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   ḡrafi*   *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   ḡrafi*   *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 *ḡinei*, 'earlier') present in examples (558) and (559), either the proximal or distal demonstratives can be used to modify the noun *ḡrafi*, '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 maḡra bi'o fara*
      time.before   DEM.PROX.SG 3PL   fight big   very
      'In this time before they fought hard.'

(561) *Tifa*   *ia*   *mare maḡra 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]

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[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) *Ḡoro 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	*igne/gne* 'this'	*igno/gno* 'that'
Plural	*iḡre/ḡre* 'these'	*iḡro/ḡro* '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 intial 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   khiloau 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.

(585) *Tei si   iago   e   atha khakla ḡaju 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   suḡa 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.'

Iḡre/ḡre 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) *Eguteuna   te   legu=di   thilo finoga iḡre*
     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) *Iḡre   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 pre-position 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 <u>particular</u> people, these <u>particular</u> children, and these <u>particular</u> 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 iḡro*
      pray   man DEM.DIST.PL
      'Those men from over there pray.'

(596) *Mae provins ḡro   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	*ana* 'this one'	*ao* 'that one'
Plural	*are* 'these ones'	*aro* '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   ḡaogatho 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 phei thu=mi   ḡre   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   maḡra 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 post-posed 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 *ñala.* The function of determiner *u* in this construction is a heightened emphasis of its pragmatic-marking feature. This is shown in the following examples.

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[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   ñala 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   ñala*
    good DEM just
    'THIS [is] just good', Or, colloquially, 'Things are going ok!'

(614) *Mare   te   keli   fara u   ñala 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   ñala 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 ğre
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, *ğre*, modifies the noun as well indicating the number of the noun (*mae* 'man') being modified.

(620) *Tuana te   balu=di   mae u   Honiara ğre*
      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	*t(e)u=na*	'this one'	*t(e)u=ia*	'that one'
Plural	*t(e)u=re*	'these ones'	*t(e)u=ra*	'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 ḡano 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 ḡano 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) *Ḡognaro 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) *Ḡognaro 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	*t(e)u=gne*	'this one'	*t(e)u=gno*	'that one'
	t(e)u=ana		*t(e)u=ao*	
Plural	*t(e)u=ḡre*	'these ones'	*t(e)u=ḡro*	'those ones'
	t(e)u=are		*t(e)u=aro*	

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*/ḡr**. 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
na Type One	+	-	+	+	+
igne Type Two	+	+	+	-	+
ao Type Three	+	+	+	-	+
u 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)'

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[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 ḡinau 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   ḡrafi   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	*kaisei*	*tasa
2	*phei*	*rua
3	*thilo*	*tolu
4	*fati*	*pat, pati
5	*ḡlima*	*lima
6	*namno*	*onom
7	*fitu*	*pitu
8	*nhana*	*walu
9	*nheva*	*siwa
10	*nabotho*	*sa-ngapuluq
20	*varadaki*	
30	*thilofulu*	
40	*phiatutu*	
50	*ḡlima salei*	
60	*namno salei*	
70	*fitu salei*	
80	*nhana salei*	
90	*nheva salei*	
100	*ḡobi*	
1,000	*thoga*	
1,000,000	*mola*	

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[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 ḡobi   phiatutu dola   teke kaha=di*
      two   thousand four hundred forty   dollar PSS count=3PL.OBJ

mae bi'o ḡre
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 nomimalization. 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 *ḡobi* '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   ñala te   ulu   ka   thilo-i   ḡre*
      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.'

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[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 ellision of either the first consonant, or the first syllable. With the observed regular patterning in CH, the expected form for 'fifth' is **fa-ḡlima* '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 [ň] elides, and the initial sound is "h". Thus, instead of simply initial consonant ellision, 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	*kaisei*	*ulu-lahu*
2	*phei*	*fa-pea*
3	*thilo*	*fa-thilo*
4	*fati*	*fa-fati*
5	*ḡlima*	*fa-lima*
6	*namno*	*fa-namno*
7	*fitu*	*fa-fitu*
8	*nhana*	*fa-hana*
9	*nheva*	*fa-heva*
10	*nabotho*	*fa-botho*

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 nomimalization. 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 pre-position 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 pre-posing the causative marker *fa-* to the numeral. However, this ordinal number formation is irregular with six of the ten cardinal numbers.