

Transitivity in Vinitiri

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1. Introduction

When I talk about transitivity, I'm going to be focusing on valency (syntactic transitivity). I'd welcome suggestions - in particular new ways of looking at the data. This is an area that I've had a lot of difficulty analysing.

I'm going to focus on the constructions, rather than classifying the verbs as being transitive, intransitive, ambitransitive, etc.

2. Background

2.1 *Language Situation*

Vinitiri is an Austronesian language spoken in East East New Britain Province in Papua New Guinea. It is also known as Minigir (Lynch et al. 2002) and Lungalunga. It is spoken by ~2,000 people on the corners of Ataliklikun Bay on the Gazelle Peninsula. (See map on reverse.)

There are two dialects of Vinitiri, spoken on either side of the bay. The differences between the two dialects are minimal – primarily phonological and lexical, with a few grammatical differences. The data from this presentation comes primarily from the Vinitiri Luvuani dialect.

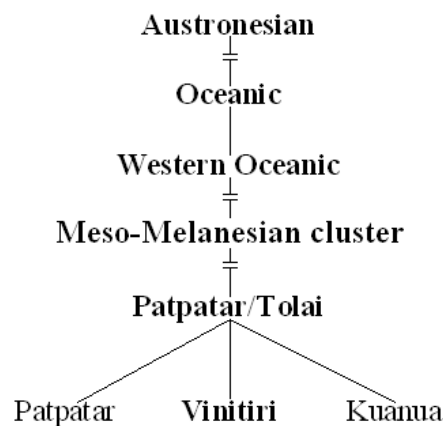
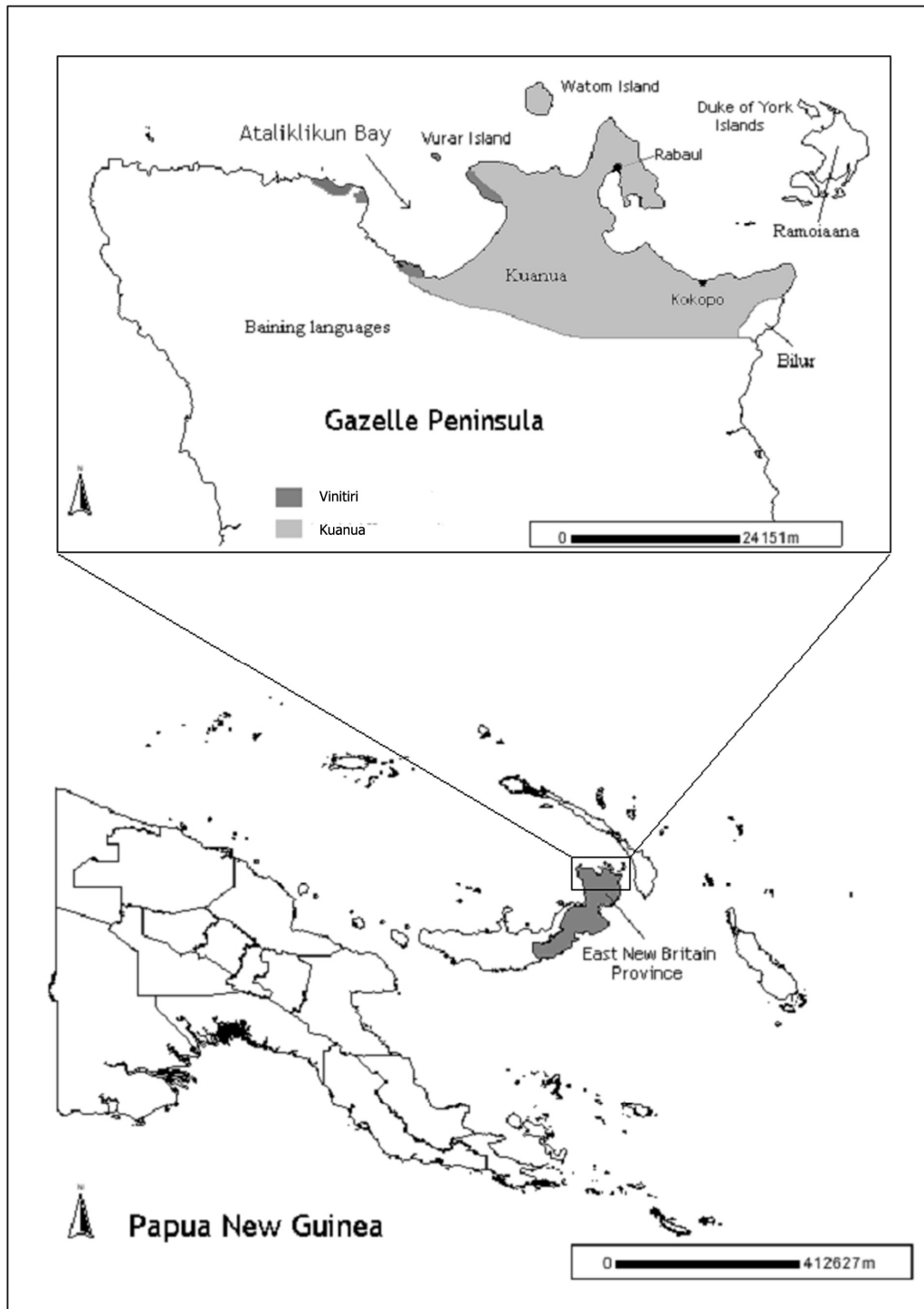


Figure 1: Important family groupings of Vinitiri (cf. Lynch et al. 2002). Note, several irrelevant branchings are not represented here.



Map 1: Languages of the Gazelle Peninsula, East New Britain
(map outline from UPNG Remote Sensing Centre)

The speakers of Vinitiri are ethnically Tolais. There are ~100,000 Tolais (cf. Lynch et al. 2002), most of whom speak Kuanua (typically referred to as Tolai in the linguistic literature). Kuanua is Vinitiri's closest genetic neighbour, and the language which has the most influence on Vinitiri due to its proximity, its prestige both within and outside of the Tolai ethnic group, and its close social ties between speakers of the two languages.

Most, if not all, speakers are bilingual in Kuanua. Additionally, most speakers are also fluent in Tok Pisin.

English is the language of instruction in schools, from grade three onwards. However, very few people actually attain fluency in English, thus its influence on Vinitiri is minimal, with most English lexemes entering Vinitiri through Tok Pisin.

Vinitiri Vunamarita also neighbours a Baining language (non-Austronesian) called Qaqet. There is very little, if any, influence from this language due to a traditional rivalry between the Bainings and Tolais, that limits contact and bilingualism between the two groups.

2.2 Verbal Predicates in Vinitiri

The sequential order of constituents is given in (1).

- (1) a. NEGATION: Optional.
 b. SUBJECT MARKER: Obligatory (except with imperatives).
 c. TENSE/ASPECT/MODALITY: Optional.
 d. VERB COMPLEX: Obligatory.
 e. ASPECT MARKER: Optional.
 f. OBJECT ENCLITIC: Optional
 g. ADVERB: Optional

Subject markers (SM) occur at the beginning of the predicate and agree in person and number with an animate subject noun phrase, as in (2).

(2) *Namuru a uráBainingi diru gá burutu palori.*

P013

na-muru	_{NP.S} [a	uruá-na-Bainingi]	
LOC-follow	NM.C	TWO-L-PEOPLE	
_{PR} [diru	gá	burutu	palori]
3DU.SM	PST	be.afraid	be.bad

‘Then, the two Bainingi were badly afraid.’

SMs are obligatory elements of the predicate, as opposed to independent pronouns, which are optional. Only the SM is needed to mark person and number of the S or A argument when the sentence consists of a single predicate.

The object enclitics in Vinitiri occur at the end of a predicate and are used when the object is not emphasised.

Unlike the SM's, the object enclitics are not agreement markers. Only one of the object enclitic or full NP is used – not both.

(3) *Di mánánau teno u kisi naluai.*

P004

^{PR}[di manana-u] teno ^{PR}[u kisi] ^{NP}[na-luai]
3PL.SM love-2SG.OBJ because 2SG.SM sit LOC-front

'They love you because you sit in the front.'

(4) *Di gá táki láviau.*

P002

^{PR}[di gá táki lávi-au]
3PL.SM PST move TEL-1SG.OBJ

'They moved me.'

3. Transitivity and Clausal Constructions

3.1 Zero-Transitive Constructions

Zero-transitive clauses are clauses which do not have any arguments.

Vinitiri has one type of zero-transitive clause which is used to mark only one semantic type of verbs; those that describe meteorological events.

Zero-transitive clauses consist of a single verbal predicate, and no NPs.

(5) *I vuvusu.*

^{PR}[i vu-vusu]
3SG.SM RED.PROG-wind

'It's windy.'

(6) **Iá i vuvusu.*

^{NP} [iá]	^{PR} [i	vu-vusu]
3SG.IP	3SG.SM	RED.PROG-wind

(7) *I batá.*

^{PR} [i	batá]
3SG.SM	rain

‘It’s raining.’

(8) **Iá i batá.*

^{NP} [iá]	^{PR} [i	batá]
3SG.IP	3SG.SM	rain

It is important to note that the subject marker *i* in (5) and (7) is an agreement marker and not an argument of the verb.

3.2 Transitive Constructions

3.2.1 Active Intransitive Constructions

Active intransitive verbs have a single S argument that occurs before the verbal predicate, as shown in (9) and (10).

(9) *Iáváu, uná ikiri.*

P004

^{NP,S} [iáváu]	^{PR} [u-ná	ikiri]
2SG.IP	2SG.SM-IRR	paddle

‘You will paddle.’

- (10) *Io, tikai ra bungu, iau ma kárigu tabu To John, To Palnakuk ma To Kubin, To Melkior, mi gá vaná.* P007

io	^{NP} [tikai	a	bungu]				
so	one	NM.C	day				
^{NP.S} [iau	ma	kári-gu	tabu				
1SG.IP	CONJ	CL.G-1SG.PSR	in-law(TP)				
To	John	To	Palnakuk	ma	To	Kubin	
MN.P.M	NAME	MN.P.M	NAME	CONJ	MN.P.M	NAME	
To	Melkior]	^{PR} [mi	gá	vaná]			
MN.P.M	NAME	1EXCL.PL.SM	PST	go			

‘So, one day, me and my in-laws, To John, and To Palnakuk along with To Kubin and To Melkior, went.’

The S argument is typically dropped in intransitive clauses, as long as it is recoverable from context.

- (11) *Uro na, diru gá ikiri.* P004

^{PP} [u-o	na]	^{PR} [diru	gá	ikiri]
DISTDEM.DIST		3DU.SM	PST	paddle

‘After that, they (dual) paddled.’

- (12) *Mi gá vaná.* P007

^{PR} [mi	gá	vaná]
1EXCL.PL.SM	PST	go

‘We went.’

3.2.2 Stative Intransitive Constructions

Some verbs in Vinitiri can be described as stative intransitive verbs – these are always intransitive. They correspond to adjectives in some languages. Like active intransitive verbs, they take a single argument. However, this argument is not an agent, but a stative subject and it typically occurs following the predicate.

- (13) *I sákainá ra roti.*

^{PR} [i	sákainá]	^{so} [a	roti]
3SG.SM	be.bad	NM.C	road

‘The road is bad.’

(14) *I kádiki ra kakigu.*

^{PR}[i kádiki] ^{so}[a kaki-gu]
 3SG.SM hurt NM.C leg-1SG.PSR

‘My leg hurts.’

Note that the single argument of both active and stative intransitive verbs are subjects – they both take the subject agreement marker.

The position of the S argument is not as strict with stative verbs as with transitive verbs. Although they typically occur after the verbal predicate, it is also possible for them to occur before it, as shown in (15) and (16), though the conditions for this require further study.

(15) *A kakimui i kádiki?*

^{NP.S}[a kaki-mui] ^{PR}[i kádiki]
 NM.C leg-2PL.PSR 3SM hurt

‘Do your legs hurt?’

(16) *A roti i sákainá.*

^{NP.S}[a roti] ^{PR}[i sákainá]
 NM.C road(TP) 3SG.SM be.in.bad.shape

‘The road is in bad shape.’

Like the active intransitives, the S NP of stative intransitives is typically dropped if the information is recoverable from the context, so stative intransitives often occur without an overt S NP, as shown in (17) and (18).

(17) *I kádiki?*

^{PR}[i kádiki]
 3SG.SM hurt

‘Does it hurt?’

(18) *I sákainá.*

^{PR}[di sákainá]
 3SG.SM be.in.bad.shape

‘It’s in bad shape.’

In fact, the occurrence of a full NP S argument with a stative clause is relatively rare, due to the fact that stative verbs modify nouns through compounding (and active verbs do not). The NPs that are made up of these compounds can stand alone as existential verbless clauses, as in (19), or can occur in any other NP position, such as the transitive clause in (20).

(19) *A kádikinakakimui?*

^{NP,EVC}[a kádiki-na-kaki-mui]
 NM.C hurt-L-leg-2PL.PSR

‘Do your legs hurt? (Lit: [Are those] your sore legs?)’

(20) *A sákainaroti i kisi ati.*

^{NP,A}[a sákainá-na-roti] ^{PR}[i kisi] ^{NP,O}[a-ti]
 NM.C be.bad-L-road 3SM sit at-IMM

‘[There is] a road in bad shape here.’

3.3 Transitive Constructions

Transitive constructions have two arguments, an S (which occurs before the predicate) and an O (which occurs after the predicate).

(21) *(Iá) i gá poko ra márau.*

^{NP}[iá] ^{PR}[i gá poko] ^{NP,O}[a márau]
 3SG.IP 3SG.SM PST cut NM.C crocodile

‘He cut the crocodile.’

(22) *(Iámámami) mi gá eni ra vudu.*

^{NP}[iámámami] ^{PR}[mi gá eni] ^{NP,O}[a vudu]
 1EXCL.PL.IP 1EXCL.PL.SM PST eat NM.C banana

‘We ate bananas.’

3.4 Ditransitive Constructions

Ditransitive constructions are quite rare in Vinitiri – I have no examples of ditransitives with two full NPs. There is a single example in my corpus with an object enclitic and a full NP, given in (23) below.

(23) *Di ga mutiau ra davai*

^{PP}[di ga mutu-iau] ^{NP.O}[a davai]
3PL.SM PST cut-1SG.OBJ NM.C tree/wood

‘They cut me a log.’

Ditransitives can also occur with complement clauses, as shown in (24) below.

(24) *I gá váseau supu ná sákátá ura ra palámáiti.*

^{PR}[i gá váse-iau]
3SG.SM PST tell-1SG.OBJ

^{CC}[supu ná sákátá u-a]
PURP IRR accompany to-seaward

a pali-na-máiti]
NM.C house-L-sick

‘She told me that she would come with me to the clinic.’

Both examples of ditransitive verbs involve object enclitics as one of the arguments. Further research is needed to determine if this is a requirement of Vinitiri ditransitives.

4. Valency Rearrangement

4.1 Valency Increasing

There are two types of valency increasing devices in Vinitiri: the object marker *-e* and the causative prefix *vá-*.

4.1.1 Object Marker *-e*

The object marker increases the valency of an intransitive verb by adding an O argument.

(25) *I momo.*

^{PR}[i momo]
3SG.SM drink

‘He drinks.’

(26) **I momo ra tavá.*

^{PR}[i momo] ^{NP.O}[a tavá]
3SG.SM drink NM.C water

(27) *I mome ra tavá.*

^{PR}[i momo-e] ^{NP.O}[a tavá]
3SG.SM drink-OM NM.C water

‘He drinks water.’

(28) *I mome.*

^{PR}[i momo-e]
3SG.SM drink-OM

‘He drinks [something].’

4.1.2 Causative vá-

The causative prefix *vá-* introduces a new argument into A position, while the original S is moved into O position.

(29) *Iá ruku mule uro Va'nábará.*

P002

^{PR}[iá ruku mule] u-o Va'nábará
1SG.SM enter again to-DIST PLACE

‘I enrolled again in Vatnabara (school).’

(30) *Iá i várukiau mule uro Va'nábará.*

P002

iá ^{PR}[i vá-ruku-iau mule]
3SG.IP 3SG.SM CAUS-enter-1SG.OBJ again

^{PP}[u-o ^{NP}[Vatnabara]]
to-DIST PLACE

‘He enrolled me again in Vatnabara (school).’

Causatives can occur on transitive verbs as in (32), ambitransitive verbs as in (34), and intransitive verbs, both active (36) and stative (38).

(31) *Iá gire ra beso.*

^{PR}[iá gire] ^{NP.O}[a beso]
1SG.SM see NM.C bird

'I see a bird.'

(32) *A tábáráni i vágire na ra umáná bulu.*

^{NP.A}[a tábáráni] ^{PR}[i vá-gire-Ø]
NM.C devil 3SG.SM CAUS-see-3SG.OBJ

^{NP.O}[na a umáná bulu]
DEM.DIST NM.C PL child

'A devil appeared to the children. (Lit: A devil made (himself) appear to the children.)'

(33) *Iá kisi.*

^{PR}[iá kisi]
1SG.SM sit

'I sat.'

(34) *Vákisi na ra bulu!*

^{PR}[vá-kisi na a bulu]
CAUS-sit DEM.DIST NM.C child

'Make that child sit!'

(35) *Uná vitiri!*

^{NP}[u-ná vitiri]
2SG.SM-IRR talk

'You talk!'

(36) *Vávitiri láviá!*

^{NP}[vá-vitiri lávi-íá]
CAUS-talk TEL-3SG.OBJ

'Get her to talk!(Talk with her)'

(37) *I sákainá.*

^{PR}[i sákainá]
1SG.SM be.bad/broken

'It's broken.'

(38) *A tu'naná i vásákainá ra bulu.*

a tu'naná PR[i vá-sákainá] NP.O[a bulu]
 NM.C man 3SG.SM CAUS-bad NM.C child

'A man hurt (using sorcery) the child.'

4.2 Valency Decreasing

4.2.1 Reduplication

The first type of valency decreasing operation is reduplication. The reduplicant prefixes to the transitive verb.

(39) *Iná kulu ra kari.*

PR[iá-ná kulu a kari]
 1SG.SM-IRR buy NM.C car

'I'm going to buy a car.'

(40) *Iná kukulu.*

NP[iá-ná ku-kulu]
 1SG.SM-IRR RED.PROG-buy

'I'm going shopping.'

Note that the primary function of this type of reduplication is to put the verb into progressive aspect. In the majority of cases, the verb is also detransitivised; however, there are some cases where an object can occur.

4.2.2 Collective *vári-*

The collective prefix *vári-* combines the A argument and the O argument into one S argument. Often this forms a reciprocal, where the participants are both agents and patients, as in (8-56). In fact, this prefix is historically a reciprocal (Ross 1988).

(41) *Diru gá tári váringánari.*

P003

PR[diru gá tári vári-ngánari]
 3DU.SM PST PERF COLL-be.angry

'They got angry at each other.'

Sometimes, this prefix does not form a reciprocal verb. In these cases both subjects are agents performing the action together.

(42) *Mi gá káulu ra bárái.* P007

_{PR}[mi gá káulu] _{NP.O}[a bárái]
1EXCL.PL.SM PST chase NM.C pig

‘We chased a pig.’

(43) *Mi gá várikáulu* P007

_{PR}[mi gá vári-káulu]
1EXCL.PL.SM PST COLL-chase

‘We [including pig] were in the act of chasing.’

All of the examples of this morpheme in my corpus involve more than one agent participant. Therefore, it cannot be considered a reciprocal.

4.2.3 Object Backgrounding -ái

The suffix -ái appears to decrease the valency of most transitive verbs.

(44) *Iá gire ra beso.*

_{PR}[iá gir-e] _{NP.O}[a beso]
1SG.SM see-OM NM.C bird

‘I see a bird.’

(45) *Uná girái.*

_{PR}[u-ná gire-ái]
2SG.SM-IRR see-OB

‘You’ll see.’

There are also several examples where it is used with other valency decreasing devices, such as with detransitivising (progressive) reduplication as in (47) and the collective marker shown in (49).

(46) *I másinge lávi na tikai ra bulu.*

^{PR}[i másinge lávi]
3SG.SM love TEL

^{NP.O}[na tikai a bulu]
DEM.DIST one NM.C child

‘He fell in love with that one kid.’

(47) *Uná mámásingái uro váváiliki.*

^{PR}[u-ná má-másing-ái] ^{PP}[u-o váváiliki]
2SG.SM-IRR RED.PROG-love-OB to-DIST RED.INT-far

‘You love someone from far away.’

(48) *Uná váseau!*

^{PR}[u-ná vás-e-au]
2SG.SM-IRR tell-OM-1SG.OBJ

‘You tell me!’

(49) *Uná várivásái, la?*

^{PR}[u-ná vári-vás-ái] la
2SG.SM-IRR COLL-tell-OB TAG

‘You’ll tell [him], right?’

However, there are several examples with the suffix *-ái* where the verb is transitive, as in (50) shown below.

(50) *Iá gá vilosái ra mukuru. Iá gá koasái ra umáná ulai...*

^{PR}[iá gá vilos-ái] ^{NP.O}[a mukuru]
1SG.SM PST go.up-OB NM.C bush

^{PR}[iá gá koas-ái] ^{NP.O}[a umáná ulai]
1SG.SM PST climb.up-OB NM.C PL mountain

‘I went up into the bush. I climbed up the mountains...’

It appears to be acting as to background the object. In the sentence above *ra mukuru* ‘the bush’ and *ra umáná ulai* ‘the mountains’ are less important than the other parts of the sentence. In this story, the speaker is focusing on the action and not where he came from. Because of the backgrounding, the verb often appears in the intransitive form, as it decreases the importance

of the object in the clause. However, in some cases, as in (8-78), the object is not lost. Its relative importance within the clause is demoted.

This morpheme appears to be a reflex of Proto-Oceanic **akin[i]*, which is used as a transitiviser in some languages and a detransitiviser in others (Evans 2003). In Kara, a Meso-Melanesian language of New Ireland, Schlie (1983:17, apud Evans 2003) describes this as a patient-defocusser.

5. What About the Morphology?

There are a number of morphemes or morphological processes in Vinitiri that appear, at first sight, to be valency changing. They are affecting the syntactic transitivity of the construction. However, upon closer examination, it's not all that clear. I have already discussed the 'object backgrounding' *-ái*, but there are some others that cause difficulties.

5.1 Reduplication

As discussed above, reduplication typically decreases the syntactic transitivity of a construction. (Speaker judgements confirm this.) However, it is possible for an object to occur.

(51) *íá gá kákápi ra pákátákumu* P006

^{PR} [<i>íá</i>	<i>gá</i>	<i>ká-kápi</i>]	^{NP.O} [<i>a</i>	<i>pákáti-na-kumu</i>]
1SG.SM	PST	RED.PROG-carry	NM.C	knife-L-greens

'I was carrying a knife (for cutting greens).'

It seems that the primary function of this type of reduplication is to form progressive aspect. But we cannot ignore the fact that it is often preferable to have no O.

Note that with the telicity markers, the non-reduplicated forms are always transitive, whereas the reduplicated forms are typically (but not always) intransitive.

(52) *Uná kulupe lávi ra tavá.*

^{PR} [<i>u-na</i>	<i>kulupá-e</i>	<i>lávi</i>]	^{NP.O} [<i>a</i>	<i>tavá</i>]
2SG.SM	fetch.water-OM	TEL	NM.C	water

'You fetch water.'

(53) *Uná kulupá lálávi, namuru uná momo.*

^{PR} [u-ná	kulupá	lálávi]
2SG.SM-IRR	fetch.water	RED.PROG-TEL
na-muru	^{PR} [u-ná	momo]
LOC-follow	2SG.SM-IRR	drink

‘You fetch [water] for a bit and then drink.’

5.2 Object Marker -e

As described above, the object marker *-e* appears to decrease the valency of a construction. However, there are some verbs that do not seem to have an intransitive counterpart – the object marker must occur with them.

(54) *Iá másinge ra buái.*

^{PR} [iá	másing-e]	^{NP.O} [a	buái]
1SG.SM	want-OM	NM.C	betelnut

‘I want some betelnut.’

(55) *Uná váseau!*

^{PR} [u-ná	vás-e-au]
2SG.SM-IRR	tell-OM-1SG.OBJ

‘You tell me!’

(56) *Iá gire ra beso.*

^{PR} [iá	gir-e]	^{NP.O} [a	beso]
1SG.SM	see-OM	NM.C	bird

‘I see a bird.’

It is important to note that when the object is third person singular, there is a zero object enclitic, making it difficult to determine transitivity of these clauses.

(57) *Iá gire Ø.*

^{PR} [iá	gir-e-Ø]
1SG.SM	see-OM-3SG.OBJ

‘I see it.’

Note that the object marker is dropped when it occurs with the second person singular object enclitic *-u* (the only object enclitic that does not begin with an /i/). In these cases, the above verbs appear to end in an *á*.

(58) *Iá giráú.*

^{PR}[iá girá-u]
1SG.SM see-2SG.OBJ

‘I see you.’

The object marker *-e* also occurs on the unmarked preposition *ta*, and the preposition *pira* ‘near’.

(59) *Mi gá takapu ma mi gá vaná te na ra pakaná biá pa ta pisá i gá burási taná.*

P001

^{PR}[mi gá takapu]
1EXCL.PL.SM PST run.away

ma ^{PR}[mi gá vaná]
CONJ 1EXCL.PL.SM PST come/go

^{PP}[ta-e ^{NP}[na a pakaná]]
PREP-OMDEM.DIST NM.C place

biá ^{NP.A}[pa ta pisá]
COMP NEG PREP earth

^{PR}[i gá burási] ^{PP}[ta-ná]
3SG.SM PST all PREP-3SG.PSR

‘We ran away and we went to that place that no dirt fell on it.’

(The use of the object marker on prepositions is somewhat different than on verbs. I won’t discuss this here, as it may be somewhat tangential, but am happy to answer any questions about it.)

5.3 Transitive Verbs Ending in *i*

Transitive verbs that do not take the object marker *-e*, tend to end in *i*.

(60) *Uná káli ramu tungu.*

P014

^{PR}[u-ná káli] ^{NP*O}[a-mu tungu]
2SG.SM-IRR dig CL.AF-2SG.PSR hole

‘You will dig your grave.’

(61) *Sá Rubat i gá pákátí ra vudu..*

P006

NP.A	[sá	Rubat]	PR	[i	gá	pákátí]
	MN.P.F	NAME		3SM	PST	cut.with.bush.knife
NP.O	[a	vudu]				
	NM.C	banana				

‘Sa Rubat cut the bananas.’

These verbs cannot occur in intransitive constructions.

(62) **Uná káli.*

PR	[u-ná	káli]
	2SG.SM-IRR	dig

Unlike verbs with the object marker, these verbs take the third person object enclitic *-iá*. (Note that all the other object enclitics have the same form in both constructions.)

(63) *Mi mutu na ra oagá. Mi kálásiá. Mi máliá.*

P008

PR	[mi	mutu]	NP	[na	a	oagá]
	1EXCL.PL.SM	chop		DEM.DIST	NM.C	canoe
PR	[mi	kálási-iá]	PR	[mi	máli-iá]	
	1EXCL.PL.SM	dig.out-3SG.OBJ		1EXCL.PL.SM	make-3SG.OBJ	

‘We chopped that canoe. We dug it out. We made it.’

However, some transitive verbs do not end in *i*, but still take the *-ia* object enclitic.

(64) *Idi di vusu ra iavi.*

P007

NP.A	[idi]	PR	[di	vusu]	NP.O	[a	iavi]
	3PL.IP		3PL.SM	blow		NM.C	fire

‘They blew a fire.’

(65) *Iá vusiá.*

PR	[iá	vusu-iá]
	1SG.SM	blow-1SG.OBJ

‘I blew it.’

Is the *i* marking syntactic transitivity, or is there some kind of transitive verb class with verbs ending in *i*? Or something else?

6. Conclusions

It seems clear that there is some kind of ‘transitivity’ which is important in Vinitiri, though it doesn’t appear to be purely syntactic. There are morphemes that seem to be encoding something – but it is not always clear what their functions are. A closer examination of other factors needs to be taken into consideration, but I don’t really know where to start, with the data that I have available.

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Abbreviations

1 – first person	INCL – inclusive	PR – predicate
2 – second person	INT – intensive	PREP – preposition
3 – third person	INTER – interrogative	PROG – progressive
A – intransitive subject	INTR – intransitive	PROH – prohibitive
ADJ – adjective	IP – independent pronoun	PROX – proximal
AF – affective	IRR – irrealis	PSR – possessor
AG – agentive	IS – indirect speech	PST – remote past tense
AMB – ambitransitive	K – Kuanua	PURP – purposive
C – common	L – linker	PWd – phonological word
CAUS – causative	LOC – locative/temporal marker	RC – relative clause
CC – complement clause	M – masculine	RED – reduplicant
CL – classifier	N – noun	S – single argument of transitive verb
COLL – collective	NAME – personal name	SEP – separation
COMP – complementiser	NEG – negation	SG – singular
CON – construct suffix	NI – noun incorporation	SM – subject marker
CONJ – conjunction	NM – noun marker	SPEECH – speech introducer
DEM – demonstrative	NOM – nominalisation	SVC – serial verb construction
DISJ – disjunction	NP – noun phrase	TAG – tag question marker
DIST – distal	NSP – non-specific	TAM – tense/aspect/mood
DS – direct speech	OBJ – object	TEL – telic
DST – distributive number	OM – object marker	TOP – topicalised clause
DU – dual	OP – onomatopoeia	TP – Tok Pisin
EMPH – emphatic	ORD – ordinal number marker	TR – trial
EVC – existential verbless clause	P – personal	TRNS – transitive
EXCL – exclusive	OB – object backgrounding	V – verb
F – feminine	PERF – perfect	VCC – verbless clause complement
G – general	PL – plural	VCS – verbless clause subject
GWd – grammatical word	PLACE – place name	VL – Vinitiri Livuan
IMM – immediate	PP – prepositional phrase	VV – Vinitiri Vunamarita