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1. Introduction

“Bim Weng”, the Bimin Language is spoken by a population of approximately 2,000 speakers. About half of them are living in the main valley of this language group, which is situated in the very South-East of the Sandaun Province of Papua New Guinea. The language itself is also spoken in a slightly different dialect towards the South, in the Western Province. The speakers of this dialect call it: “Nimtew Weng” (which means “‘What’ language”). By this they want to distinguish their language from the closest related language towards the West: Faiwol, which they call “Watew’ Weng”, using the Faiwol word for “what”. “Nimtew Weng” is spoken by about 600 to 700 speakers. It is grammatically very similar to “Bim Weng”, though there are a few differences in their lexical inventory.

The rest of the “Bim/Nimtew Weng” speaking population is either scattered geographically somewhere in between those two main groups, or living at Tabubil, at the Ok Tedi Mining.

“Bim/Nimtew Weng” (i.e. Bimin) is classified as a language of the Trans New Guinea Phylum, Central and South New Guinea Stock, Ok Family, Mountain Ok Sub-Family (Wurm 1982).

This paper was written based on data collected during a period of about five years of field work in the language group. The principal language helpers were: Pastor Tikil, Pastor Kaneng, Pastor Bulus, and Saimon.

Unless specifically mentioned, all examples in this paper are written in Bimin orthography, as analyzed in Organized Phonology Data for the Bimin Language (Weber 1992a), and its appendum (Weber 1992b).

The linguistic consultant that helped with the write up and with some of the analysis of this paper is Britten Årsjö. Thank you!!
2. Brief Description of Phonology

2.1. Phonemes

Further discussion in Weber 1992a,b.

< Aa Bb Dd Ee Ff Gg Ii Kk l Mm Nn ng Oo Ss Tt Uu Ww Yy >
/ a b d e f g i k l m n g o s t u w j /
/ [ a b d e f g i k,χ,γ l~r m n η o s t u p, w j ]

There are a couple of things worth to note; everything else is pretty straightforward:

1. As very common in PNG languages, [l] and [r] fluctuate freely. There is maybe a slightly more frequent use of [r] than of [l] with adults.

   /l/  <l>  [l] ~ [r]

2. The velar nasal is over differentiated, since it is actually only a variation of the voiced velar plosive. The plosive occurs only in syllable onsets, and the nasal in syllable offsets. Nevertheless, the Bimin Orthography Committee decided to write the velar nasal as <ng>, as it is handled in Tok Pisin.

   /g/  <g>  [g] syllable initially
   <ng>  [ŋ] never

3. The voiceless bilabial plosive becomes a voiced labio-velar approximant intervocally. The plosive is a variant of the voiced labio-velar approximant, occurring only on syllable offsets, whereas the latter occurs only syllable initially.

   /w/  <w>  [p] syllable finally
   [w] never

4. The variations of <k> tend to occur at the following places: [χ] at syllable onsets, [γ] intervocally, and [k] word initially. Nevertheless, there are differences between speakers of even the same dialect (e.g. “Bim Weng”): The Kuskis phratry\(^1\) speakers seem to use fricatives more often and even the velar affricate instead of the plain velar stop, than the Bim phratry speakers.

   /k/  <k>  [k] ~ [χ] ~ [γ] ~ [kχ]\(^*\)

\(^1\) The Bimin society is divided up in four phratries: Bim and Kuskis (Bim Weng), Kasan and Kuel (Nimtew Weng). Each of these phratries is again divided up in various clans. These four phratries speak slightly different dialects, which differ primarily in some of the vocabulary inventory.
5. All five Bimin vowels are also used in their lengthened (phonemic!) variation. Since Bimin orthography simply duplicates the short vowel in order to represent the long one, it is of no further consequence for this paper.

6. An interesting feature of Bimin phonology is the huge inventory of diphthongs. Some linguists would rather have those diphthongs interpreted as labialized and palatalized consonants. For a further discussion on that issue, see the “Organized Phonological Data” paper for the Bimin language.

2.2. Syllables


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>u</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>VC am</th>
<th>im</th>
<th>ok</th>
<th>CV be</th>
<th>ki</th>
<th>ba</th>
<th>CVC kok</th>
<th>nem</th>
<th>gel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'he'</td>
<td>'she'</td>
<td>'they'</td>
<td>'house'</td>
<td>'their'</td>
<td>'water'</td>
<td>'he is'</td>
<td>'enough'</td>
<td>'no'</td>
<td>'spec. wood'</td>
<td>'my'</td>
<td>'small'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some examples how to apply the syllable patterns:

Example (1)

kil-

CVC CV CVC

'creator'

Example (2)

fi-

CV CV CVC

'tadpole'

Example (3)

ging-

CVC VC V

'we wash'

Example (4)

ka-

VC CV CVC

'variety of arrow'

Example (5)

deng-

CVC VC

'variety of rattan'

Example (6)

gal-

CVC CV VC

'variety of cuscus'

Example (7)

a-

VC CVC

'variety of arrow'
3. Morphology

3.1. Derivational Morphology

There is a nominalizing suffix -in that goes on a verb root.

Example (1)

\[ \text{fingan} \ -\text{in} \]

afraid  NZ
‘fear’

Example (2)

\[ \text{fukun} \ -\text{in} \]

think  NZ
‘thought’

Example (3)

\[ \text{ang} \ -\text{in} \]

speak  NZ
‘speech’

3.2. Inflectional Morphology

3.2.1. Structure of Verbs

1. Sentence Final Verbs. The basic verb structure for those verbs consists of the following elements:

\[ \mu \text{ACC.PF} + N \mu \text{BEN.SF} \mu \text{ASP} + \text{TNS.SF} + \text{NOM.SF} \mu \text{PFCT} \]

Example (1)

\[ \mu \text{ACC.3SG.f } \text{du} \text{-vem } \text{-s } \text{-iliw} \]

ACC.3SG.f  give BEN.PL  GP  NOM.2/3PL
‘They gave her to them(selves).’

Intransitive verbs (e.g. un-, ‘go’) never take on some of the elements (i.e. the accusative suffix). Nevertheless, there is a minimal requirement for sentence final verbs:

\[ + \text{N} + \text{TNS.SF} + \text{NOM.SF} \]
Example (2)

\[
\text{un-} \quad \emptyset \quad e
\]

\[
go \quad PR \quad 3SG.m
\]

‘He goes.’

Example (3)

\[
\text{un-} \quad -oko \quad -liw
\]

\[
go \quad FUT \quad 2/3PL
\]

‘You (PL)/They will go.’

2. Medial verbs occur in non-final clauses. They track same or different subject and also sequence versus non-sequence time. The combination of these properties makes for four possible switch references in Bimin:

SEQ.DS: $N + TNS + NOM + DS$
SEQ.SS: $N + SS.SEQ$
NSEQ.DS: $N + TNS + NSEQ + NOM + DS$
NSEQ.SS: $N + NSEQ$

\[
\text{ad DS: The only possible TNS.SF are the three “general tense suffices”} \ -s \ \text{for past tense),} \ -ok(o) \ \text{for future tense, and} \ \emptyset \ \text{(for present tense).}
\]

\[
\text{ad SS: The vowel in parenthesis -(e)ko is optional as it drops if a preceding open syllable is joined with the SS marker. In some cases the } e \ \text{is also dropped in preceding closed syllables to indicate a closer connection between the two adjoining clauses.}
\]

\[
\text{ad SEQ versus NSEQ: Sequential construction are the unmarked forms, and do not take any affix, while the non-sequential forms need to be marked with the suffix} \ -om.
\]

The accusative prefix and benefactor suffix may also occur on medial verb forms immediately preceding or following the verb root respectively.

For further examples of switch reference in Bimin see later in chapter 9.1 Clause Chaining with Switch Reference.

Example (4)

\[
\text{du-} \quad -um \quad -om, ...
\]

\[
give \quad BEN \quad NSEQ.SS
\]

‘While S₁ give(s) to her, S₁...’
Example (5)

```plaintext
d-   -ang-   -∅   -om   -i,
ACC.3SG.m  say/do  PR  NSEQ  DS

‘While S1 say/do to him, S2 …’
```

Example (6)

```plaintext
tol-   -∅   -om   -ele   i, ...
come   PR  NSEQ  3SG.m  DS

‘While he1 comes, S2…’
```

Example (7)

```plaintext
tal-   -s   -om   -uluw   i, ...
come   SF  NSEQ  1PL   DS

‘While we1 came, S2…’
```

Example (8)

```plaintext
un-   -eko, ...
go   SS

‘He1 goes, and he1 …’
```

Example (9)

```plaintext
un-   -∅   -e   -i, ...
go   PR  3SG.m  DS

‘He1 goes, and S2 …’
```

Example (10)

```plaintext
un-   -s   -e   -i, ...
go   GP  3SG.m  DS

‘He1 went, and S2 …’
```

Example (11)

```plaintext
un-   -oko   -uluw   -i, ...
go-   FUT  1PL   DS

‘We1 will go, and S2 …’
```
3. **Serial Verbs.** There are three basic structures for this kind of verbs:

   a) + N + BEN
   
   b) + N + NOM
   
   c) + N + PV

**ad a):** The serial verb forms, that take just a plain verb root nucleus and a facultative beneficiary affix, usually have a purpose meaning. If the verb stem is reduplicated, it has the meaning of continuous action.

**Example (12)**

```
De-lew unina!
bring  BEN.3.SG.m  go.2PL.IMPV
'You (PL) take it to him! (i.e. 'go in order to give it to him!')`
```

**ad b):** The serial verb forms, that take a subject suffix, carry the meaning of some kind of a continuous action.

**Example (13)**

```
Felfel be un-e tel-e.
Swallow DEF.m  go 3SG.m  come 3SG.m
'The swallow comes and goes.'
```

**ad c):** Constructions with a pro-verb. This category is the most common of the three serial form constructions. There are two verbs that act as pro-verbs: *ke-* and *ang-* . In their function as pro-verbs, they take all the possible affixation (depending on their position as medial or final verb), while the nucleus does not take any affixation. Whether a nucleus in such a construction takes *ke-* or *ang-* is lexically determined. *Ke-* is more frequently used, but some nuclei go only with *ang-* , while some can take either one.

**Example (14)**

```
Kunum be fingan ke-e.
man DEF.m  afraid make GP 3SG.m
'The man was afraid.'
```

### 3.2.2. **Structure of Pronouns**

Pronouns take suffixes but no prefixes. There are three basic stems for pronouns (top to bottom, left to right: 1SG, 2SG, 3SG.m, 3SG.f, 1PL, 2PL, 3PL. The general pronouns also have a dual form, which carries gender: middle row, top to bottom: 1DL, 2DL.m, 2DL.f, 3DL.m, 3DL.f):
General:

- **ne(-)**
- **keso(-)**
- **nu(-)**
- **ku(-)**
- **kaso(-)**
- **yu(-)**
- **e(-)**
- **aso(-)**
- **i(-)**
- **u(-)**

Possessive:

- **nem(-)**
- **num(-)**
- **kom(-)**
- **yom(-)**
- **em(-)**
- **im(-)**
- **um(-)**

Emphatic:

- **na-**
- **nu-**
- **ku-**
- **yu-**
- **a-**
- **i-**
- **u-**

The general and the possessive pronouns can also stand alone. The emphatic pronouns, which differs from the general pronouns only in 1SG and 3SG.m, must take a suffix (see below). The general pronouns by themselves are the unmarked category, and are optional within a clause structure. Standing without suffix the possessive pronouns are the unmarked possessive pronouns. With affixation they loose their property of possession. All three sets can and do take some of the 15 different suffixes, which can themselves again be divided up into three categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1</th>
<th>Category 2</th>
<th>Category 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-li RFLX</td>
<td>-diw alike</td>
<td>-kal EMPH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-lo ACC/BEN</td>
<td>-i RFLX</td>
<td>-kalem POSS.EMPH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-sik first</td>
<td>-kal too</td>
<td>-kalti too.EMPH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-taka FOC.ENTS</td>
<td>-ikel EXCL</td>
<td>-tew alike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-te FOC</td>
<td>-isam straight</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-isik first.EMPH</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffixes of Category 1 only go with the general pronouns. Category 2 and 3 go with the possessive, and the emphatic pronouns respectively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Empathic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category 1</td>
<td>Category 2</td>
<td>Category 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffixes -te, ‘FOC’ and -tew, ‘alike’ occur also as clitics on nominal phrases.

There are a few things to be noted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set</th>
<th>- EMPH</th>
<th>+ EMPH</th>
<th>Set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td><strong>ku-sik</strong></td>
<td>⇒ <strong>kom-isik</strong></td>
<td>Possessive ‘2SG-first’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td><strong>kom-ikal</strong></td>
<td>⇒ <strong>ku-kalti</strong></td>
<td>Emphatic ‘2SG-too’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td><strong>nem</strong></td>
<td>⇒ <strong>na-kalem</strong></td>
<td>Emphatic ‘my’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These three examples suggest, that the weightiness in EMPH moves from general pronoun, over possessive pronouns, to emphatic pronoun, as the ‘heaviest’ stem in
terms of emphasis. Judging from that, there seems to be evidence to put *kuli* → *komi*, ‘yourself’ in the same pattern, making *komi* ‘yourself + EMPH’ the more emphatic over *kuli* ‘yourself - EMPH’, but that couldn’t be verified so far, as some possible structures for obvious reasons don’t occur as frequent as others.

Following are a few examples on how to apply and translate some pronouns.

**Example (1)**

\[ Ku \ -sik \ una! \]

you.SG first go.2SG.IMPV

‘You go first!’

**Example (2)**

\[ Ku \ kante? \ Ne \ -te! \]

you.SG who? 1SG FOC

‘Who are you?’ ‘(It is) me!’

**Example (3)**

\[ Aol \ be \ ais \ em- \ -diw. \]

Bush spirit DEF.m tree 3SG.m alike

‘The bush spirit looks like a tree.’

**Example (4)**

\[ Em- \ -isam \ yak \ unse. \]

3.SG.m straight there go.GP.3SG.m

‘He went there straight away.’

**Example (5)**

\[ Nu- \ -kal \ keluw \ tewe, \ kukuw \ ken \ gelewuma \ a! \]

we EMPH know do.1PL COND behavior good follow.1PL.IMPV VOC

‘If we know (it), let us do the good thing!’

**Example (6)**

\[ Em- \ -ikel \ unaka. \]

3.SG.m EXCL go.3SG.m.FOC

‘He goes by himself.’

**Example (7)**

\[ Nu- \ -kalem \ aatim \ kumelim. \]

1PL.POSS EMPH father inherited

‘Our inherited father(s).’
3.2.3. Structure of Demonstratives

There are a few basic demonstrative morphemes that are used either on their own or in connection with each other. Here are two diagrams:

Diagram 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>up</th>
<th>down</th>
<th>sideways</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not visible</td>
<td>kanis</td>
<td>kanel</td>
<td>kaneng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visible</td>
<td>kamnis</td>
<td>kamnel</td>
<td>kamneng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>minis</td>
<td>minel</td>
<td>mineng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>manel</td>
<td>maneng</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-)NIS</td>
<td>(-)NEL</td>
<td>(-)NENG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These demonstratives are naturally directed, e.g. by a river, or a valley. One can tell where the ‘head’ (above) and where the ‘tail’ (below) is.

Example (1)

Am kannis une.
House up-there go.3SG.m
‘He goes up to the house (which is e.g. up the valley, but invisible behind a group of trees).’

Example (2)

Am minis une.
House up-there go.3SG.m
‘He goes up to the house (which is e.g. up the valley, but visible from here).’

Example (3)

Kunum be kaneng une.
man DEF.m over-there go.3SG.m
‘The man goes over there (which is e.g. away from the river, up the sides of the valley, and somewhere hidden away in the bush).’
Example (4)

Am maneng teinbe.
house over-here sit.3SG.m

‘He is sitting in the house over here (e.g. close and next to the airfield).’

Diagram 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>up</th>
<th>down</th>
<th>sideways</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not visible</td>
<td>katem</td>
<td>kadak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visible</td>
<td>mitem</td>
<td>mindak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>malak</td>
<td>mayak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-)TEM</td>
<td>(-)DAK</td>
<td>(-)YAK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These demonstratives are **general** in meaning, i.e. relative to the hearer. If possible though, naturally directed directionals are preferred over general directionals. Mountain tops are always naturally directed, even though they could legally be general in meaning (e.g. the mountain referred to is across the valley, and not down or rather up the valley etc.).

① KAW-. The final consonant is in neutral position; meaning, its voicing assimilates with the following consonant. e.g.:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mu\text{voice} +\text{voice} & \Rightarrow +\text{voice} +\text{voice} \\
\mu\text{voice} -\text{voice} & \Rightarrow -\text{voice} -\text{voice}
\end{align*}
\]

② For some reason the voiced alveolar plosive in **-dak** changes its quality to a lateral (which sounds very similar anyway), after **ma-** and **kaw-**, the later even reduplicating the vowel of **-dak**: **malak** and **kabalak**.

Example (5)

Am mitem unaka.
house up go.3SG.m

‘He goes up on a house (hearer is standing e.g. next to the house on the ground).’

Example (6)

Men miyak be.
bilum on-the-side be.3SG.m

‘The string bag is over there on the side (visible from where we are sitting).’

Example (7)

Miyak unika.
over-there go.1SG

‘I go over there (sideways from where we are talking now).’

Compare this example (7) to example (8)
Example (8)

\[ Maneng \quad \textit{unika}. \]

over-there \quad go.1SG

‘I go over there (a side of the airfield)’
4. Clitics

Clitics are a closed class. They do not have their own stress, but lean on what precedes them. In Bimin orthography clitics are written as separate words.

4.1. Case Markers

kel  LOC
so   ACP

Example (1)

kunum so waneng so
man ACP woman ACP
‘men and women’

Example (2)

Nuk on so ase.
cuscs arrow ACP kill.GP.3SG.m
‘He killed a cuscus with an arrow.’

Example (3)

Abiw kale kel toloke.
place here LOC come.FUT.3SG.m
‘He will come to this place here.’

4.2. Limiters

Limiter clitics occur with nominal phrases.

gam  also, too
ke   partial
kuw  only
tew  alike

Example (1)

ne te kuw
1SG FOC only
‘It is me only!’

For more examples, cf. chapter 7.1. Nominal Phrase Structure.
4.3. Focus

tē FOC

Example (1)

ne tē kuw
ISG FOC only
‘It is me only!’

4.4. Other Clitics

sako TNT
tako OPT
tewe COND

This three clitics do not fit the structural property for Bimin clitics mentioned at the start of this chapter. They do have a more stressed first syllable, and would therefore perhaps better fit the category of particles. However, to simplify the analysis they will for the present be interpreted as clitics. These morphemes come right after a final verb.

Example (1)

Mewso iti tolokolew tako!
soon again come.FUT.2SG OPT
‘May you soon come back!’

Example (2)

Mewso iti toloke sako!
soon again come.FUT.3SG.m TNT
‘He might soon come back.’

Example (3)

Kunum unoke tewe, kut mian tolokoliw.
man go.FUT.3SG.m COND bush dog come.FUT.2/3PL
‘The wild dogs will come if the man goes away.’
5. Word Classes

Bimin has the following word classes based on the affixes they can take and their function in the phrase:

1. Nouns
2. Pronouns
3. Demonstratives
4. Modifiers
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Conjunctions
8. Particles

5.1. Nouns

Nouns are an open word class that cannot take any affixation and functions as the head of a nominal phrase.

In general the nouns are very straightforward. The only difference between “categories” of nouns is not grammatical, but rather purely semantical. As long as a statement makes sense to a speaker (or listener), nouns can be substituted freely.

Example (1)

\[ \text{Kunum mak min so am unaka.} \]

man IDEF son with house go.3SG.m.

‘A man goes home with his son.’

Example (2)

\[ \text{Kunum mak biol so am unaka.} \]

man IDEF bush knife with house go.3SG.m.

‘A man goes home with his bush knife.’

Example (3)

\[ ? \text{Kaing mak biol so am unaka.} \]

pig IDEF bush knife with house go.3SG.m.

‘A pig goes home with his bush knife.’

Obviously the first two sentences make perfect sense, while the third sentence, even though grammatically correct, does not make very much sense -- unless maybe in the specific context of a certain fairy-tale kind of story.

Nevertheless, there is one class of nouns, that behaves slightly different from all the rest: The kinship terms. They are inalienably possessed.

Any noun that needs to be specified with a possessive pronoun, has the respective possessive pronoun just in front of it. Not so with the kinship and some relational
terms. Although it is not wrong to actually have a preceding possessive pronoun, it certainly is not required, because the term itself indicates whose kin a certain person is.

Example (4)

\[
\begin{align*}
aatim & \quad \text{‘my/our father’} \\
akew & \quad \text{‘his/her/2+3PL father’} \\
kalew & \quad \text{‘your (SG) father’}
\end{align*}
\]

Example (5)

\[
\begin{align*}
yem & \quad \text{‘my/our mother’} \\
auk & \quad \text{‘his/her/2+3PL mother’} \\
kouk & \quad \text{‘your (SG) mother’}
\end{align*}
\]

In addition, a very limited number of relational terms takes something like a plural suffix -el. The number being so limited (we have only two examples in our lexicon: yelim (SG) ‘father with child’ and yelimel (PL) ‘father with children’, and yat (SG) ‘mother with child’ and yatel (PL) ‘mother with children’ and their correspondent possessive forms), they should rather be treated as different lexical entries and not as a separate grammatical category.

Example (6)

\[
\begin{align*}
yat & \quad \text{mother and her child} \\
yatel & \quad \text{mother and her children}
\end{align*}
\]

Example (7)

\[
\begin{align*}
yelim & \quad \text{father with child} \\
yelimel & \quad \text{father with children}
\end{align*}
\]

In addition to the plural marker -el, these semantically compound nouns in example (6) and (7), do also have a way to mark 1 person (i.e. n-), and 2/3 person (i.e. y-).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 person</th>
<th>2 person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nat(el)</td>
<td>vatt(el)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘my mother with child(ren)’</td>
<td>‘your/their mother with child(ren)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nulum(el)</td>
<td>yelim(el)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘my father with child(ren)’</td>
<td>‘your/their father with child(ren)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (8)

Q: Yatel nat unbiliw yak o?
Q: You, mother with children where go.2/3PL over there VOC
A: Natel kut unbuluw.
A: We, mother with children bush go.1PL
Q: ‘You, mother with your children, where are you going to?’ (And than, e.g., one of the kids, answers:) A: ‘We, my mother and us, are going to the bush.’
Example (9)

Q: *Ye*lil *yong* *unsiliw*?
Q: You, father and child new garden go.2/3PL
A: No, *nulum* *yong* *unsuluw*.
A: Yes, we father and child new garden go.1PL
Q: ‘Did you (father and child) go to the new garden?’ A: ‘Yes, we (father and child) went to the new garden.’

Body part nouns may be used as numerals and then function in the numeral phrase (cf. chapter 7.3.2 Numeral Phrases).

5.2. Pronouns

Pronouns are a closed class of words that take pronominal suffixes and function as heads of nominal phrases instead of nouns.

There are three basic stems for pronouns (top to bottom, left to right: 1SG, 2SG, 3SG.m, 3SG.f, 1PL, 2PL, 3PL. The general pronouns also have a dual form, which carries gender: middle row, top to bottom: 1DL, 2DL.m, 2DL.f, 3DL.m, 3DL.f):

General:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1SG (-ne)</th>
<th>2SG (-neso)</th>
<th>3SG.m (-nu)</th>
<th>3SG.f (-ku)</th>
<th>1PL (-kuso)</th>
<th>2PL (-aso)</th>
<th>3PL (-i)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ne(-)</td>
<td>neso(-)</td>
<td>nu(-)</td>
<td>ku(-)</td>
<td>kuso(-)</td>
<td>aso(-)</td>
<td>i(-)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Possessive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1SG (-nem)</th>
<th>2SG (-num)</th>
<th>3SG.m (-kom)</th>
<th>3SG.f (-yom)</th>
<th>1PL (-em)</th>
<th>2PL (-im)</th>
<th>3PL (-um)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nem(-)</td>
<td>num(-)</td>
<td>kom(-)</td>
<td>yom(-)</td>
<td>em(-)</td>
<td>im(-)</td>
<td>um(-)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Emphatic:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1SG (-na)</th>
<th>2SG (-nu)</th>
<th>3SG.m (-ku)</th>
<th>3SG.f (-yu)</th>
<th>1PL (-a)</th>
<th>2PL (-i)</th>
<th>3PL (-u)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>na-</td>
<td>nu-</td>
<td>ku-</td>
<td>yu-</td>
<td>a-</td>
<td>i-</td>
<td>u-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The general and the possessive pronouns can also stand alone. The emphatic pronouns, which differs from the general pronouns only in 1SG and 3SG.m, must take a suffix (see below). The general pronouns by themselves are the unmarked category, and are optional within a clause structure. Standing without suffix the possessive pronouns are the unmarked possessive pronouns. With affixation they loose their property of possession. All three sets can and do take some of the 15 different suffixes, which can themselves again be divided up into three categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1:</th>
<th>Category 2:</th>
<th>Category 3:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-li</td>
<td>-li</td>
<td>-li</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-lo</td>
<td>-lo</td>
<td>-lo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-sik</td>
<td>-sik</td>
<td>-sik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-taka</td>
<td>-taka</td>
<td>-taka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-te</td>
<td>-te</td>
<td>-te</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFLX</td>
<td>alike</td>
<td>EMPH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC/BEN</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-kal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first</td>
<td>-ikal</td>
<td>-kalem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOC.INCTS</td>
<td>-ikel</td>
<td>-kalti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOC</td>
<td>-isam</td>
<td>-lew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-isik</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The suffixes of Category 1 only go with the general pronouns. Category 2 and 3 exclusively go with the possessive, and the emphatic pronouns respectively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Category 1</th>
<th>Category 2</th>
<th>Category 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphatic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suffix -tew occurs also as a clitic tew on nominal phrases. It compares two themes: ‘like/alike’. Here it functions as a suffix after emphatic pronouns.

**Example (1)**

Kayow ataan telin tew kese.
moon sun come.NZ alike make.GP.3SG.m

‘His coming was like the moon and sun.’

**Example (2)**

Aol be ais a- -tew.
bush spirit DEF.m tree 3.SG.m alike

‘The bush spirit looks like a tree.’

Following are a few examples on how to apply and translate some pronouns.

**Example (3)**

Ku -sik una!
you.SG first go.2SG.IMPV

‘You go first!’

**Example (4)**

Ku kante? Ne -te!
you.SG who? 1SG FOC

‘Who are you?’ ‘(It is) me!’

**Example (5)**

Aol be ais em- -diw.
bush spirit DEF.m tree 3SG.m alike

‘The bush spirit looks like a tree.’

**Example (6)**

Em- -isam yak unse.
3.SG.m straight there go.GP.3SG.m

‘He went there straight away.’
Example (7)

\[Nu-\-kal\-kal\-keluw\-te\-e\-we\-\-kukuw\-ken\-gelewuma\-o!\]

We EMPH know do.1PL COND behavior good follow.1PL.IMPV VOC

‘If we know (it), let us do the good thing!’

Example (8)

\[Em-\-ikel\-unaka.\]

3.SG.m EXCL go.3SG.m.FOC

‘He goes by himself.’

Example (9)

\[Nu-\-kalem\-a\-atim\-kumelim.\]

1PL.POSS EMPH father inherited

‘Our inherited father(s).’

Example (10)

\[Ka-\-so\-\-\-wai\-al\-\-o!\]

2SG DBL alive VOC

‘Bye bye, you two!’

5.3. Demonstratives

The demonstratives are a closed class of words that function as modifiers in the nominal phrase.

Here are the two diagrams\(^{1}\) again, which were discussed in chapter 4.2.3 Structure of Demonstratives:

Diagram 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>up</th>
<th>down</th>
<th>sideways</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not visible</td>
<td>kanis</td>
<td>kanel</td>
<td>kaneng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kamnis</td>
<td>kamnel</td>
<td>kamneng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visible</td>
<td>minis</td>
<td>minel</td>
<td>mineng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>manel</td>
<td>maneng</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-)NIS</td>
<td>(-)NEL</td>
<td>(-)NENG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These demonstratives are naturally directed, e.g. by a river, or a valley. One can tell where the ‘head’ (above) and where the ‘tail’ (below) is.

---

\(^{1}\) Concerning the difference between the double set of visible and not-visible within each of the two diagrams, c.f. chapter 11.1.
Example (1)

\[ \textit{Am} \ \textit{kamnis} \ \textit{une}. \]
House up-there go.3SG.m
‘He goes up to the house (which is e.g. up the valley, but invisible behind a group of trees).’

Example (2)

\[ \textit{Am} \ \textit{maneng} \ \textit{teinbe}. \]
house over-here sit.3SG.m
‘He is sitting in the house over here (e.g. close and next to the airfield).’

Diagram 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>up</th>
<th>down</th>
<th>sideways</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>visible</td>
<td>mitem</td>
<td>mindak</td>
<td>miyak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>malak</td>
<td>mayak</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not visible</td>
<td>katem</td>
<td>kadak</td>
<td>kayak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kawtem</td>
<td>kabalak</td>
<td>kabyak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These demonstratives are \textit{general} in meaning, e.g. relative to the hearer. If possible though, naturally directed directionals are preferred over general directionals.

Example (3)

\[ \textit{Am} \ \textit{mitem} \ \textit{unaka}. \]
house up go.3SG.m
‘He goes up on a house.’

Example (4)

\[ \textit{Men} \ \textit{miyak} \ \textit{be}. \]
bilum on-the-side Be.3SG.m
‘The string bag is over there on the side (from where we are sitting).’

Interesting is the irregular absence of the morpheme connections with MA-, in the semantical meaning of ‘up’. Both “\textit{manis}” and “\textit{matem}” don’t occur in these diagrams. While “\textit{matem}” has changed its meaning to ‘physical realm’ and ‘somewhere at a specific place’, “\textit{manis}” doesn’t have any meaning, or at least the meaning is now lost with the occurring language changes.

The morphemes that are underlined (\textit{nis}, ‘up-there’; \textit{nel}, ‘down-there’; \textit{neng}, ‘over-there’ and \textit{tem}, ‘above’; \textit{dak}, ‘below’ \textit{yak}, ‘over-there’) can all be used by themselves, too. In that case they keep their feature of general vs. natural directedness, and also their direction meaning, but loose the aspect of visibility. \textit{ka}
lost its meaning of directedness and means ‘here’. There used to be an equivalent to
*ka: min* (meaning ‘here’ too?), but it sounds antique nowadays and is no longer in
general use.

**Example (5)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ka</th>
<th>kel</th>
<th>tele.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>here</td>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>come.3SG.m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘He came here.’

**Example (6)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Am</th>
<th>matem</th>
<th>tala!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>house</td>
<td>inside</td>
<td>come.2SG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Come inside!’

**Example (7)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abiw</th>
<th>nel</th>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>mak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>place</td>
<td>down-there</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>IDEF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘A man from the place down there (following the river down).’

### 5.4. Modifiers

Modifiers are an open class of words that function as heads of a modifier phrase. This modifier phrase in turn may function as a modifier within a nominal phrase or within a verb phrase, but also on its own, as a comment in a verbless clause.

The Bimin language has a fairly large modifier class. Modifiers that modify a noun immediately follow the head noun. Modifiers that modify a verb, immediately precede the head verb. With some modifiers that serve as modifying verbs as well as nouns, like *“fian”* ‘big’, *“fong”* ‘small’, there is the possibility of ambiguity. cf. chapter 7.2 Verbal Phrases.

**Example (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wanin</th>
<th>abal</th>
<th>wanbuluw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>food</td>
<td>good-tasting</td>
<td>eat.1PL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘We eat good tasting food.’

**Example (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waneng</th>
<th>attie</th>
<th>bu</th>
<th>am</th>
<th>unsu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td>DEF.f</td>
<td>house</td>
<td>go.3SG.f</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The beautiful woman went home.’

**Example (3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>fongate</th>
<th>kate</th>
<th>awkol</th>
<th>talse.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>FOC</td>
<td>quick</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>careful</td>
<td>come.GP.3SG.m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The man came quickly but carefully.’
Example (4)

Waneng kitil so fiaa so mak
woman strong ACC big ACC IDEF.f
‘A strong and big/tall woman.’

Some quantifying modifiers (ban, dem) reduplicate their root to intensify the huge number.

- ban
  plenty (general)
- dem
  plenty (cognitive with dem ‘seed, fruit’ → “not countable”?)
- bol
  plenty (occurs very rarely)
- tulun
  plenty (a loan word from Oksapmin)
- yemkel
  abundant

Example (5)

Aul gel banban
children small plenty.DUP
‘A lot of small children.’

Example (6)

Waneng aul ban so talso.
woman children plenty ACP come.GP.3SG.f
‘The woman with the many children came.’

Example (7)

Kaing bu men banban dukusu.
woman DEF.f offspring plenty.DUP give-birth.GP.3SG.f
‘This woman gave birth to a huge number of piglets.’

5.5. Verbs

The verbs are an open class of words that take verbal affixation and function as heads of verb phrases. There are intransitive, transitive, and bitransitive verbs based on their structure.


Transitive verbs take either an accusative or a benefactor affix, but don’t need to have any of them. Examples are the very common proverbs ke, ‘do/make’ (→ takes only benefactor suffixes) and ang, ‘do/make, say’ (→ takes only accusative prefixes).

Bitransitive verbs take both accusative and benefactor affixes, or either one of them, but they do not need to take any. Example: bokol, ‘say/speak’, du, ‘give’, etc.
As stated above in the chapter about verb morphology, the basic verb structure for final verbs is:

\[ \mu \text{ACC} + N \mu \text{BEN} \mu \text{ASP} + \text{TNS} + \text{NOM} \mu \text{PFCT} \]

For the structure of the medial and serial verbs, cf. chapter 4.2.1 Structure of Verbs.

5.5.1. Subject Suffix

The subject suffix is in the forth order of the suffixes. There are two basic sets of subject suffixes:

(Top to bottom, left to right: 1SG, 2SG, 3SG.m, 3SG.f, 1PL, 2.PL, 3.PL.m/f)

**Set 1**

-\( (l)i \)
-\( (l)uw \)

**Set 2**

-\( -i \)
-\( -uluw \)

-\( -elu \)
-\( -uluw \)

**Set 3**

-\( -lew \)
-\( -iliw \)

-\( -elew \)
-\( -eliw \)

The optional \( l \), comes in after preceding open syllables.

Set 1 is used in Present and Future tense. Set 2 is used for the past tense and with the IPC form in the present tense. Set 3 is used only for the verb in the speech initiating clause, cf. chapter 9.2.4 Direct and Indirect Speech.

**Example (1)**

\[ \text{un-} -\Theta -\text{uw} \text{-PR -1PL} \]
\[ \text{go-} \]
\[ ‘We go.’ \]

**Example (2)**

\[ \text{Un-} -\text{oko} -\text{uluw} \text{-FUT -1PL} \]
\[ \text{go-} \]
\[ ‘We will go.’ \]

**Example (3)**

\[ \text{Un-} -\text{s} -\text{uluw} \text{-GP -1PL} \]
\[ \text{go-} \]
\[ ‘We went.’ \]

**Example (4)**

\[ \text{un-} -\text{b} -\text{uluw} \text{-IPC -1PL} \]
\[ \text{go-} \]
\[ ‘We are going.’ \]
Example (5)

Ku boko-nem -om -elew: “No”, nagselew.
2SG say BEN.1SG NSEQ 2SG yes ACC.1SG.say.GP.2SG.
‘You (SG) said to me: “Yes” (you said to me).’

A quite common suffix appended to the general pronoun is the “in-focus-setter” (FOC) -ka. It is used in a story, when something unexpected happens (→ draws the focus to) outside of the direct story flow. These are the forms of the subject suffixes used in such cases: (Again, 2. and 3. PL have the same forms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-i-ka</td>
<td>-uw-ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-lew-ka</td>
<td>-iw-ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.m</td>
<td>-a-ka</td>
<td>-iw-ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.f</td>
<td>-u-ka</td>
<td>-iw-ka</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (6)

Mian sel tal- -a -ka.
dog big come 3.SG.m FOC
‘A big dog comes!’

Example (7)

Am un- -i -ka.
house go 1.SG FOC
‘I go home (now).’

Example (8)

Kawtiv tel- -iw -ka.
people come 3.PL FOC
‘There are (not expected) people coming.’

5.5.2. Accusative Prefix

These prefixes are exclusively accusative. Five sets of those prefixes are attached lexically to a verb stem. There isn’t any rule (except for the rule that a verb stem starting with a vowel wouldn’t take a prefix ending with a vowel), semantically or whatsoever to determine which prefix goes with which kind of verbs. In other words: the prefixes go lexically with the verb.

A possible explanation for the different prefixes may be that there are classes of verbs based on transitivity.

(Top to bottom: 1SG, 2SG, 3SG.m, 3SG.f; PL is always the same within a set.):

2 The non-regular vowel quality -a in 3.SG.m is evidence for the incomplete vowel harmony in the Bimin language, where the quality of -e adjusts to the quality of the following suffix.
Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
na- \\
\text{1SG.ACC-} \\
\text{see} \\
\emptyset \\
-3SG.m
\end{array}
\]

‘He sees me.’

Example (2)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{um-} \\
\text{3SG.f.ACC-} \\
\text{speak} \\
-s \\
-3SG.m
\end{array}
\]

‘He told her.’

Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
d- \\
\text{3SG.m.ACC-} \\
\text{say} \\
-ok \\
-1SG
\end{array}
\]

‘I will tell him.’

Example (4)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
daw- \\
\text{3SG.m.ACC-} \\
\text{rejoice} \\
-su- \\
-IPC \\
-1SG
\end{array}
\]

‘I’m rejoicing in him.’

Example (5)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
we- \\
\text{3SG.f.ACC-} \\
\text{pass on as a heritage} \\
-nge- \\
-2/3PL \\
-iliw
\end{array}
\]

‘They passed it on to her as a heritage.’
5.5.3. Benefactor Suffix

The benefactor suffixes are first order suffixes. There are two benefactor suffix sets. Again, there is no rule to be applied for which verb takes which affix. (Top to bottom: 1SG, 2SG, 3SG.m, 3SG.f; plurals are all the same within a set):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set 1</th>
<th>Set 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-(e)nem</td>
<td>-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(e)yem</td>
<td>-yem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(e)kem</td>
<td>-kem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(e)lew</td>
<td>-lew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(e)um</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Set 1 has the option of taking an e before the appropriate suffix if the verb stem is ending in a consonant.

**Example (1)**

\[boko\] -lew -Ø -u

speak 3SG.m.BEN PR 3SG.f

‘She speaks to him.’

**Example (2)**

\[angg\] -enem -s -e

wrap up 1SG.BEN GP 3SG.m

‘He wrapped it up for me.’

**Example (3)**

\[ging\] -tew -Ø -i

wash 3SG.m.BEN PR 1SG

‘I wash it for him.’

**Example (4)**

\[ke\] -yem -s -e

do BEN.PL -s GP 3SG.m

‘He did it for them.’

Although, theoretically, it is possible to have a maximum of three different participants represented in one predicate, the rules of the language allow a maximum of only two. That means, that if a predicate has the maximum extension of an ACC.PF, an BEN.SF and the NOM.SF, than any two of the three participants have to represent the same actor, giving him an additional emphasis. Examples:
Example (5)  *** incorrect ***

* nem- -boko- -kem -s -e
ACC.1SG say BEN.2SG GP 3SG.m

*** ‘He told me for your benefit.’ ***

Example (6)

nem- -boko- -kem -s -i
ACC.1SG say BEN.2SG GP 1SG

‘I, myself, told you.’

Example (7)

nem- -boko- -nem -s -e
ACC.1SG say BEN.1SG GP 3SG.m

‘He told me!’

Example (8)

nem- -du- -lew -s -e
ACC.1SG give BEN.3SG.m GP 3SG.m

‘He gave me to himself.’

Example (9)

kom- -boko- -s -e
ACC.2SG say GP 3.SG.m

‘He told you.’

Example (10)

boko- -kem -s -e
say- BEN.2SG GP 3SG.m

‘He told you.’

Example (8) sounds awkward, but it may occur in a certain context. Example (9) and Example (10) have the same translation, but Example (9) is far less frequent and therefore the marked version, giving the addressee more focus/emphasis.

5.5.4. Tense

The tense suffix is a third order suffix.

The three basic tense markers for present (PR), general past (GP) and future (FUT) are the following:

- PR -∅ pr Set 1
- GP -s pr Set 2
- FUT -ok(o) pr Set 1
These three basic tenses are rather straightforward, and there isn’t really anything to be added here. Again, the vowel in brackets in the future suffix indicates that the vowel is dropped if the subject suffix starts with a vowel.

The subject suffix set, which each of the tenses take are described earlier in this chapter.

Example (1)

$$un- -\emptyset -iw$$
go            PR   2./3.PL
‘They/You (PL) go.’

Example (2)

$$un- -s -iliw$$
go            GP   2./3.PL
‘They/You (PL) went.’

Example (3)

$$un- -ok -e$$
go            FUT   3.SG.m
‘He will go.’

Example (4)

$$un- -oko -liw$$
go            FUT   2./3.PL
‘You (SG) will go.’

The past tense has two more forms that indicate actions that have happened closer to “now”. One is the Immediate Past Continuous (IPC) which would cover the past up to around this morning, and the other is the Further Past (FP), which covers the past up to yesterday, maybe even up to the day before yesterday. The time frame is not absolutely set, but depends on the liking of the speaker.

It is hard to decide if the immediate past continuous is a tense or an aspect as it has both components of meaning. It will be listed with the aspects too.

Both forms (immediate past continuous, and further past) take subject suffix set 2, and have the following tense suffix immediately preceding the subject suffix:

IPC $-b$ + S SF set 2
FP $-es$ + S SF set 2
Example (5)

\[
\text{un-} \quad \text{s} \quad \text{-iliw} \\
\text{go} \quad \text{GP} \quad 2./3.\text{PL}
\]

‘They went’

Example (6)

\[
\text{un-} \quad \text{es} \quad \text{-iliw} \\
\text{go} \quad \text{FP} \quad 2./3.\text{PL}
\]

‘They went (yesterday)’

Example (7)

\[
\text{un-} \quad \text{b} \quad \text{-iliw} \\
\text{go} \quad \text{IPC} \quad 2/3\text{PL}
\]

‘They went (this morning/just now)’

Both immediate past continuous and further past tense are not used that much – unless a Bimin speaker wants to make a point in these time frames. In that case the order of furthest to closest past would be:

\[
\text{GP} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{FP} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{IPC} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{PR}
\]

But generally general past is used in most instances covering the whole range of past; thus the name: General past.

5.5.4.2. Irregular Verbs

There are two very common irregular verbs in Bimin. One is tal- ‘come’ and the other one is b- ‘be’.

a) The verb tal- ‘come’

With this verb the vowel of the verb root changes according to the vowel of the next syllable attached to the stem – if this attached suffix is a V(C) syllable. For C(V) syllable suffixes the verb root stays the same, i.e. a. Again, this is evidence for incomplete vowel harmony in Bimin.

The rules of change are as following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>attached SF vowel</th>
<th>vb stem change to</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>teliw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>tele</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>tuluw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>toloke</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example (1)

\[ \text{tal- -s -e} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>come</th>
<th>GP</th>
<th>3.SG.m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

‘He came.’

b) The verb \( b- \) ‘be’

This verb has two roots; one for present and future and one for past.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PR</th>
<th>FUT</th>
<th>PST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( b- )</td>
<td>( b- )</td>
<td>( a- )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subject suffix coming after this special form of the past, is not as expected set 2, but rather set 1. On the other hand the present root takes the subject suffix of set 2 instead of set 1.

Example (2)

\[ \text{al -liw} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be.PST</th>
<th>2./3.PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

‘They/You (PL) were/lived’

Example (3)

\[ \text{b- -iliw} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>be.PR</th>
<th>2/3PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

‘you(PL)/they are’

5.5.5. Aspect

Bimin aspects are expressed by verbal affixation, nominalisation, and a serial verb construction. The serial verb construction expresses continuous aspect and is described in chapter 7.2.2 Serialization.

The perfective aspect is a fifth order suffix, Durative, iterative, and copying aspects are second order suffixes. Inceptive aspect is expressed by a set phrase (nominalisation plus a pro-verb), but will still be described below.

5.5.5.1. Perfective (PFCT)

Perfective carries a kind of factual and final meaning: ‘That is how it was/is going to be, and it was not/is not going to be different’. Even though the meaning of this aspect is hard to describe in a few words, it is very common in the remote past narratives and is the unmarked construction for all the traditional stories. Modern narratives though, almost never include this aspect.

The marker for the perfective aspect is \(-\text{kale}\). This suffix has a different position than all the other aspect markers. It is last in the row of possible suffixes a final verb can take. The two tenses it goes with are general past (GP) and future (FUT). In
connection with the general past is its most frequent occurrence. Then it almost takes the function of an own category of tense: The very far, or historical past. All the traditional stories go with this construction, since they tell of times from before.

Example (1)

Kilkemin awon be un -s -e -kale
The creator bird go GP 3SG.m PFCT
‘The creator bird did go (a long time ago).’

Example (2)

Kunum mak un- ok -e -kale
A man go FUT 3SG.m PFCT
‘A man will be gone.’

5.5.5.2. Immediate Past Continuous (IPC)

The most common aspect marker in everyday life is the immediate continuous marker -b. It parallels the English use of “to be + …-ing” very much. This aspect has also been listed further up within the previous section dealing with tense. That is because this aspect can occur together with the durative aspect, taking the slot reserved for tense:

Normal verb final construction: + N μ ASP μ TNS + NOM
IPC verb final construction: + N μ DUR + IPC + NOM

Example (1)

un- -b -e
go IPC 3.SG.m
‘He (just went and) is (still) going.’

Example (2)

un- -em -b -e
go DUR IPC 3SG.m
‘He keeps on going and going.’

5.5.5.3. Durative (DUR)

The regular durative markers are -(e)m for present and future, and -(e)ma, -ena, -ame for past tense. Which one of the three past tense durative suffixes is used with which verb is determined lexically. A few examples:

Example (1)

Kunum be un- -em -∅ -e
The man go DUR PR 3.SG.m
‘The man keeps going.’
Example (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>un-</th>
<th>-em</th>
<th>-ok</th>
<th>-e</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>DUR</td>
<td>FUT</td>
<td>3.SG.m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The man will keep going.’

Example (3)

un-  
go-  
DUR.PST  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) kept going.’

Example (4)

wan-  
eat-  
DUR.PST  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) kept eating.’

Example (5)

ate-  
see-  
DUR.PST  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) kept seeing him.’

These are the regular ways to make an action durative for the regular verb. Then there is one word (there might be more!) that marks the durative aspect with reduplication, and many verbs that do not have their own durative – but rather go along with the pro-verb ke- ‘do/make’ which then carries the durative marker.

Example (6)

kili-  
hear PR  2/3PL  
kili-  
hear DUP PR  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) hear.’  ‘They/You (PL) keep hearing.’

Example (7)

tein  
sit  
PV  DUR  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) kept sitting.’

Example (8)

du-  
give PR  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) give.’

Example (9)

du-  
give BEN.3SG.m  
du-  
give BEN.3SG.m  
ke-  
PV  PR  2/3PL

‘They/You (PL) keep giving/distribute to him.’
Example (9) is a little bit different from the rest. It is a combination of reduplication and construction with a pro-verb.

5.5.5.4. Iterative

The marker for iterative actions in present is -aka, and for past -akakal.

Example (1)

\[\text{doko-} -\text{yem} -\text{aka} -\text{b} -\text{e}\]
help BEN.PL REP.PR IPC 3SG.m
‘He is helping us again and again.’

Example (2)

\[\text{un-} -\text{akakal} -\text{iw}\]
go REP.PST 2/3PL
‘They/You (PL) went again and again.’

5.5.5.5. Copying

Three verbs can take an aspect marker that indicates the exact same action happening all over again and again. The marker for this is -d.

Example (1)

\[\text{duku-} -\text{d} -\text{aka}\]
beget REP 3.SG.m.FOC
‘He begets and begets and begets…

Example (2)

\[\text{boko-} -\text{d} -\text{aka}\]
say REP 3.SG.m.FOC
‘He keeps telling the same story again and again.’

Example (3)

\[\text{aka-} -\text{d} -\text{aka}\]
sleep REP 3.SG.m.FOC
‘He keeps sleeping, but nothing changes.’

5.5.5.6. Inceptive

For the construction of this aspect the following elements are needed:

+ N + NZ µ PER + PV

That is a nominalized verb (with or without benefactor suffix) plus a pro-verb, which would take the usual verb affixation. For the periphery, could stand some kind of a modifying phrase.
Example (1)

**kuku-** -**yem** -**in** **ke-** -**s** -**iliw**
show BEN.PL NZ PV GP 2./3.PL
‘They/You (PL) started to show/teach them.’

Example (2)

**kuan-** -**om** -**in** **kis** **kese.**
die NSEQ NZ almost do.GP.3SGm
‘He almost started to die.’

Example (3)

**Fingan** -**in** **fian** **sel** **kesiliw.**
afraid NZ big INTS do.GP.2/3PL
‘They started to be very much afraid.’

Example (2) and (3) shows that the nominalized verb and the pro-verb do not need to
be immediately next to each other, but can have periphery between them.

5.5.6. Modality

The four Bimin modii are indicative (unmarked forms) imperative (IMPV), optative (OPT), and tentative (TNT). Even though optative and tentative are expressed by
enclitics rather than affixation, they will be described here.

The unmarked indicative has been addressed so far. Indicative is the most common
mode. To make it more transparent, the two indicative subject suffix paradigms are
given here again:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set 1</th>
<th>Set 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-(l)i</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(l)uw</td>
<td>-uluw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(l)ew</td>
<td>-lew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(l)iw</td>
<td>-iliw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(l)e</td>
<td>-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-(l)u</td>
<td>-iliw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although both Set 1 and Set 2 are given here, Set 2 does not go with either tentative
or optative modii. The reason is, that Set 2 goes with past tense and none of these
two modii go with past, but only with present and future. Therefore, here only Set 1
comes into focus.

5.5.6.1. Optative and Tentative

In order to make an indicative sentence/clause optative, the clitic **tako** is added
immediately after the sentence final verb.

Similarly, to make a statement tentative, the clitic **sako** is added right after the final
verb.
Example (1)

Kunum Fian e yulo bamki so dukule tako.
God 3SG.m ACC.PL blessing ACP put.3SG.m OPT
‘May God bless you (PL).’

Example (2)

Fongate iti tolokoliw tako.
Soon again come.FUT.2./3.PL OPT
‘I/we wish they/you (PL) will come back soon.’

Example (3)

Ku ‘Bayo!’ nangokolew sako!
You ‘No!’ ACC.1.SG.say.FUT.2.SG TNT
‘You might say ‘No!’ to me.’

Example (4)

Maka ilum mak elo kululei e kuanoke sako!
enemy heavy IDEF ACC.3SG.m get.DS 3SG.m die.FUT.3SG.m TNT
‘An accident might happen and he could die.’

5.5.6.2. Imperative

For the imperative (IMPV) – and as can be seen from the following diagram:

imperative includes hortative -- a whole different set of subject suffixes is used:

1SG -o 1PL -uma
2SG -a 2PL -ina

Example (1)

Un- -uma!
Go IMPV.1PL
‘Let us go!’

Example (2)

Nem weng kilil- -ina!
my talk hear IMPV.2PL
‘Listen (PL) to my talk/words!’

Example (3)

Kom van weng kilil- -o!
your answer hear- IMPV.1SG
‘Let me hear your answer! / I want to hear your answer!’
5.6. Adverbs

5.6.1. Temporal Adverbs

The temporal adverbs are a closed class of words functioning as head of temporal phrases. They take no affixation. They may take clitics.

- **soa** ‘before’
- **sow** ‘later (general)’
- **sin** ‘yesterday’
- **usin** ‘day-before-yesterday’
- **anfel** ‘finally’
- **mesik** ‘later (soon)’
- **kanesom** ‘later (maybe tomorrow)’

Example (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Soa</th>
<th>e.</th>
<th>kilkemin</th>
<th>awon</th>
<th>gel</th>
<th>alenale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3SG.m creator bird small be.GP.3SG.m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Before there was a small creator bird.’

Example (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Soa</th>
<th>kel,</th>
<th>kilkemin</th>
<th>awon</th>
<th>gel</th>
<th>alenale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STAT creator bird small be.GP.3SG.m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Before at that time, there was a small creator bird.’

Example (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kel</th>
<th>ding</th>
<th>mak</th>
<th>unsu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STAT day IDEF go.GP.3SG.f</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘She went on a certain day.’

5.7. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are a closed word class that function coordinating words, phrases and clauses.
besike\(^3\) ‘therefore’ (coordinates clauses only)
kasike ‘therefore’ (coordinates clauses only)
kate ‘but’ (occurs between words, phrases or clauses)
meni ‘or’ (occurs between words, phrases or clauses)

Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{Sin} & \text{meni} & \text{using} & \text{talse}?\\
\text{yesterday or} & \text{day-before-yesterday} & \text{come.GP.3.SG.m}
\end{array}
\]

‘Did he come yesterday or the day before yesterday?’

Example (2)

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Mian} & \text{wa} & \text{kese} & \text{kasike} & \text{e} & \text{keisuwa} & \text{fian} & \text{kese}.\\
\text{dog} & \text{bad} & \text{do.GP.3SG.m} & \text{therefore} & \text{3SG.m} & \text{furious} & \text{big} & \text{do.GP.3.SG.m}
\end{array}
\]

‘The dog did wrong and therefore he became very furious.’

Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Aul} & \text{be} & \text{sukum} & \text{kate} & \text{kitil}.\\
\text{child} & \text{DEF.m} & \text{short} & \text{but} & \text{strong}
\end{array}
\]

‘This child is short but strong.’

5.8. Particles

The particles are a closed class of words that take no further affixation. They can be grouped into four groups:

1. Onomatopoetic
2. Set Phrases
3. Grammatical
4. Question Words

\(^3\) Until now it is not clear yet what the difference between kasike and besike is. The conjunction kasike is by far more common than besike.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Onomatopoetic</th>
<th>Set Phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ai</td>
<td>aoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ebe</td>
<td>bakalik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ebo</td>
<td>bebeles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaan</td>
<td>belew yako</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kai</td>
<td>betekuw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kee</td>
<td>biliw yako</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kui</td>
<td>bulio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woo</td>
<td>kalaka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yakae</td>
<td>kane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>kaneco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kanemging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kanemok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kanesom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kano</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kawtiwo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kelelbi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kewkew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kika</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kimi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Grammatical Question Words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>akokow</td>
<td>don’t know</td>
<td>kalete</td>
<td>this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aliw</td>
<td>kind of</td>
<td>kameli</td>
<td>how?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ba</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>kante</td>
<td>who?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bayo</td>
<td>no!</td>
<td>nal</td>
<td>where?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be</td>
<td>DEF.m</td>
<td>nal em tit</td>
<td>when?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bi</td>
<td>DEF.PL</td>
<td>nano</td>
<td>how?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bu</td>
<td>DEF.f</td>
<td>nimin</td>
<td>whose?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ete</td>
<td>INTS</td>
<td>nimtew</td>
<td>what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fe</td>
<td>enough, finally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iti</td>
<td>again</td>
<td>nolin</td>
<td>how much?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kelamente</td>
<td>another kind</td>
<td>nomin</td>
<td>how much?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kis</td>
<td>almost</td>
<td>nono</td>
<td>what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mak</td>
<td>IDEF</td>
<td>uli</td>
<td>where?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>makso</td>
<td>another</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nam</td>
<td>PNEG; INTS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>VOC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>olo</td>
<td>again</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sele</td>
<td>yet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ad Onomatopoetic Particles:**

**Example (1)**

\[\text{kaan! kaan! kaan!}\]

Come! come! come!

‘Come here!’ imitating the sounds of pigs, calling them to come.

**Example (2)**

\[\text{Nem yes!}\]

1POSS missed

‘You missed me with your arrow! (Lit.: ‘(You) missed mine!’)’
Set Phrases Particles:

I describe these set phrases as particles because they have become frozen forms. For some of them it is still possible to trace the component parts, but the meaning is not necessarily the sum of the meanings of the parts.

Example (3)

\[ \text{kawtiwo!} \]
\[ \text{kawtiw} \quad \text{o} \]
People \quad VOC
‘Help!’ shouted by somebody in distress.

Example (4)

\[ \text{belew} \quad \text{yak} \quad \text{o!} \]
be.2SG \quad there \quad VOC!
‘Hi!’ Used for greeting a single person.

The verb \text{kano} ‘happen’ seems to be a very handy word for this category. There are six, maybe more, particles with this verb as a root:

\[ \text{kane} \quad \text{‘like that’} \]
\[ \text{kaneko} \quad \text{‘later’} \]
\[ \text{kanemok} \quad \text{“maski”} \]
\[ \text{kanesom} \quad \text{‘later’} \]
\[ \text{kano} \quad \text{‘yeah!’} \]
\[ \text{kaneming} \quad \text{‘what-so-ever’} \]

Grammatical Particles:

These particles can be further grouped into sub-groups:

1. Articles:
   \[ \text{be} \quad \text{DEF.m} \]
   \[ \text{bu} \quad \text{DEF.f} \]
   \[ \text{bi} \quad \text{DEF.PL} \]
   \[ \text{mak} \quad \text{IDEF} \]
   \[ \text{makso} \quad \text{another} \]

2. Pro-Sentence:
   \[ \text{akokow} \quad \text{don’t know} \]
   \[ \text{ba} \quad \text{no} \]
   \[ \text{bayo} \quad \text{no!} \]
   \[ \text{no} \quad \text{yes} \]
3. Aspect Particles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fe</td>
<td>finally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iti</td>
<td>again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nam</td>
<td>PNEG; INTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kis</td>
<td>almost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>olo</td>
<td>again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sele</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Other

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aliw</td>
<td>kind of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ete</td>
<td>INTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kelamente</td>
<td>another kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>VOC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (5)

Kunum mak am unse.
Man IDEF house go.GP.3.SG.m
‘A man went home.’

Example (6)

Q: Nomin kaing biliw? A: Ketket teben o!
Q: how_many pig be.2/3PL A: five next_to VOC
‘How many pigs are there?’ ‘Four!’

Example (7)

Kanesom kunum be iti kut unse.
later, man DEF.m again bush go.GP.3SG.m
‘Later the man went into the bush again.’

Example (8)

Kuanomin kis kesi.
die.NZ almost make.GP.1SG
‘I almost died. (Lit: I almost started to die.)’

ad Question Words. I analyzed the question words as particles, because they do not take any further affixes and they function within a clause as a place-holder for the answer that is asked for, i.e. if the information asked for is going to stand at the first place within the answering clause (usually applying to a subject), than the question particle stands at the first place in the asking clause, too. If the supplied answer is to stand second place (usually modifier), than that is the place of the question particle in the asking clause etc.

Example (9)

Kante tolokoliw? Kunum banso tolokoliw.
Who come.FUT.2/3PL man plenty come.FUT.2/3PL
‘Who (PL) will come? Plenty men will come.’
Example (10)

| Kunum | nomin | talbiliw? | Kunum | alemsal | talbiliw.
|-------|-------|-----------|-------|---------|-----------
| Man   | how many | come.3PL  | man   | three   | come.3PL  |

‘How many man are coming? Three men are coming.’
6. Phrase Structure

6.1. Nominal Phrases

Nominal phrases function as subject, object, indirect object and also in peripheral phrases like accompaniment and instrumental, as well as locative and temporal phrases.

Subject and object phrases are marked mainly by word order, pronoun copy may be used to disambiguate it, especially as there is an accusative suffix that goes with a pronoun.

Accompaniment and instrumental are marked with the clitic so, which is described later in 7.1.2.

Locative and temporal phrases, as well as numeral phrases are marked with the clitic kel, cf. 7.1.3.

Following is a set of indefinite and definite articles, that function much as the English articles ‘a’ and ‘the’ do.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{mak} & \text{IDEF} \\
\text{be} & \text{DEF.m} \\
\text{bu} & \text{DEF.f} \\
\text{bi} & \text{DEF.PL}
\end{array}
\]

I will now describe the different structures of the nominal phrases.

6.1.1. Structure

6.1.1.1. Simple Nominal Phrases

The basic Structure is:

\[\mu \text{GEN.NP} + \mu \text{NP} + \mu \text{MP} + \mu \text{NUM} + \mu \text{DEM} + \mu \text{ART}\]

The “maximal” nominal phrase:

\[
\begin{array}{lllllllll}
\text{abiw} & \text{alew} & \text{be} & \text{im} & \text{kunum} & \text{am} & \text{fian} & \text{sel} \\
\text{place} & \text{two} & \text{DEF.m} & \text{POSS.PL} & \text{man} & \text{house} & \text{big} & \text{INTS} \\
\rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
\text{gung} & \text{kel} & \text{mak} & \text{LOC} & \text{IDEF} & \text{ART} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
\text{six} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
\end{array}
\]

‘The two places’ six very big men’s houses’
Simple nominal phrases can be very long and rather complex, specially with the option of embedding (cf. below). The only restriction seems to be that the demonstrative element and the numeral element cannot go together.

The minimal nominal phrase, consists of only a noun (or a pronoun). If the head is a pronoun, it cannot take any modifiers.

Example (2)

\[
\text{Mian fon une.}
\]

Dog run go.3SG

‘(The) dog runs away.’

Example (3)

\[
E \text{ une.}
\]

3.SG.m go.3.SG.m

‘He goes.’

Example (4)

\[
Weng bokola!
\]

NP VP

‘Talk a talk!’

Example (5)

\[
kunum mak
\]

man IDEF

‘a man’

Example (6)

\[
Am kamins une.
\]

house up_there go.3SG.m

‘He goes to the house up there.’

A nominal phrase could be modified by another nominal phrase marked with so, ‘ACP’.

Example (7)

\[
\text{Kunum finik wa so mak}
\]

man spirit bad ACP IDEF

‘A man with a bad spirit’

6.1.1.2.Embedding of Nominal Phrases

The only restriction on how many nominal phrases e.g. genitive nominal phrases, could be imbedded into each other is how the speaker likes to phrase his clause – and, after a string of nominal phrases, how much of his communication he wants to
be comprehended. Similar to Greek and German the language allows these genitive nominal phrase strings, but they make communication after a certain limit awkward.

A genitive nominal phrase always immediately precedes the governing nominal phrase. A genitive construction is expressed by juxtaposition.

**Example (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tengistikin</th>
<th>abiw</th>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>am</th>
<th>ayem</th>
<th>sel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GEN.NP</td>
<td>GEN.NP</td>
<td>GEN.NP</td>
<td>N.NP</td>
<td>N.NP2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Tengistikin place’s great sacred men’s house’

A nominal phrase is not restricted to only one, but theoretically -- not practically, though -- to any unlimited number of modifying phrases after a noun. These modifying phrases could either just be added one after the other, or, which is more common, connected with the clitic conjunction so, ‘ACP; and’, i.e. a coordinated modifier phrase:

**Example (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>fian</th>
<th>kitil</th>
<th>nam</th>
<th>sel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>INTS</td>
<td>big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>MP₁</td>
<td>MP₂</td>
<td></td>
<td>→</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘A big, very strong man.’

**Example (3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>fian</th>
<th>so</th>
<th>kitil</th>
<th>nam</th>
<th>sel</th>
<th>so</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>INTS</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>ACP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>MP₁</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>MP₂</td>
<td>→</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘A big and very strong man.’

### 6.1.1.3. Nominal Phrase with Relative Clause or Phrase

The basic structure of a nominal phrase with a relative clause or phrase is as follows:

\[ + \text{REL.CL} + \text{N } \mu \text{ ART} \]

**Example (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>mamtel</th>
<th>nam</th>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>mak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man₁</td>
<td>crazy</td>
<td>INTS</td>
<td>man₁</td>
<td>IDEF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘a man who is crazy’
Example (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>mak</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>fut</th>
<th>ken</th>
<th>mak</th>
<th>dunemselew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>IDEF</td>
<td>3SG.m</td>
<td>book₁</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>IDEF</td>
<td>give.BEN.1SG.GP.2SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>→</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>→</td>
<td></td>
<td>→</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \text{fut} \quad \text{be} \quad \text{iti} \quad \text{yekut} \quad \text{kese.} \]

book₁ DEF.m again steal do.GP.3SG.m

\[ \rightarrow \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{MP} \quad \leftarrow \quad \text{V} \]

‘A man again stole the book from me, which you had given me.’

6.1.1.4 Compound Nominal Phrases

The basic structure, which is theoretically limitless expandable is:

+ NP µ NP … µ NP + NP

Example (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waneng</th>
<th>so</th>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>so</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>man</td>
<td>ACP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘woman/women and man/men’

Example (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>so.</th>
<th>waneng</th>
<th>so.</th>
<th>ikalem</th>
<th>ul.</th>
<th>gelgel</th>
<th>so</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>woman</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>POSS.PL</td>
<td>children</td>
<td>small.INTS</td>
<td>ACP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aul</td>
<td>beliw</td>
<td>so.</td>
<td>ikalem</td>
<td>mian</td>
<td>so.</td>
<td>i....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td>nursing</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>POSS.PL</td>
<td>dog</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>3PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘men, and women, and their small children and nursing babies, and their dogs, they….’

Some more examples for nominal phrases:

Example (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Katok</th>
<th>aso</th>
<th>im</th>
<th>am</th>
<th>kale</th>
<th>kel</th>
<th>bokoluw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Katok</td>
<td>3DL.m</td>
<td>POSS.2/3PL</td>
<td>house</td>
<td>here</td>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>stay.1PL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘We stay here in the two’s, Katok and his/her, house.’

These nominal phrases function the same way in the subject slot, as well as for the object, and any peripheral slots within a clause/sentence. Some examples:

Example (4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ok</th>
<th>demenu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>give.3SG.f</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘She gives him water.’
Example (5)

Yemen soul so be diw wanin ba
Taro sweet potato ACP DEF.m together eat.NZ NEG
kemaluw te.
make.1PL FOC
‘Together (e.g. husband & wife), we did not eat the taro and the sweet potatoes.’

Example (6)

Ding dim mak, kunum aul mak dukusu.
day time IDEF man child IDEF bear.GP.3SG.f
‘One day she gave birth to a baby boy.’

Example (7)

Abiw musun fian kel teinbe.
place garden big LOC sit.IPC.3SG.m
‘He is sitting in the big village garden.’

There are a few clitic case markers that may go with nominal phrases:

6.1.2. Accompanying so

An accompanying marking clitic so is most often best translated simply as “and”:

Example (1)

Kunum so waneng so unbiliw.
man and woman and go.3PL
‘Men and women are going.’

In connection with mak IDEF it becomes ‘another’:

Example (2)

Kunum mak so ase.
man IDEF and kill.3SG.m.
‘He killed another man.’

It may also have an instrumental meaning:

Example (3)

Kunum mak nuk on so ase.
man IDEF opossum arrow with kill.3SG.m.
‘A man killed an opossum with an arrow.’
It should be noted, that the usage of so is mostly based on animacy. If the accompanying argument is animat, both the nucleus and the accompanying argument would be marked with so. If the accompanying argument is different in animacy from the nucleus, then only the inanimate will be marked.

6.1.3. Locative kel

This clitic makes a general location definite, and therefore goes regularly with place names.

**Example (1)**

```
Kunum be musun kel une.
man the garden LOC go.3SG.m.
```

‘The man goes to the new garden.’

**Example (2)**

```
Yelimeli Tabubil kel unsiliw.
family Tabubil LOC go.GP.3PL
```

‘The family went to Tabubil.’

The locative clitic also goes with body parts, making them “definite”, i.e. numerals. As ordinal numbers they would precede the noun, and as cardinal number they would follow the noun:

**Example (3)**

```
Teiw kel kayow
nine LOC moon
```

‘eighth month (=August)’

**Example (4)**

```
Mian ketket kel teliw.
dog five LOC come.IPC.3PL
```

‘Five dogs are coming.’

And lastly also goes with temporal phrases:

**Example (5)**

```
Emisik ding kel kunum be talse.
First day LOC man DEF.m came.
```

‘The man came the first day.’
6.1.4. Limiter kuw and gam

The limiter kuw usually has the meaning of exclusivity: ‘only’, and the clitic gam means ‘also’.

Example (1)

\[ \text{Yatel} \quad \text{kuw} \quad \text{teiwa.} \]
Mother with her children only come.3PL
‘Only the mother and her children come.’

Example (2)

\[ E \quad \text{gam} \quad \text{du-}-\text{-nem} \quad \text{e}. \]
3SG.m also give BEN.1SG GP 3SG.m
‘He also gave me (something).’

6.1.5. Partitive ke

The partitive marker.

Example (1)

\[ \text{Ais} \quad \text{aol} \quad \text{ais} \quad \text{ke} \quad \text{kunum} \quad \text{ke}. \]
tree spirit tree partially man partially
‘A tree spirit is partially tree, partially man.’

6.1.6. Likeness tew

The clitic tew compares two themes: ‘like/alike’. After pronouns it functions as a suffix.

Example (1)

\[ \text{Kayow} \quad \text{ataan} \quad \text{telin} \quad \text{tew} \quad \text{kese}. \]
moon sun come.NZ alike make.GP.3SG.m
‘His coming was like the moon and sun.’

Example (2)

\[ \text{Aol} \quad \text{be} \quad \text{ais} \quad \text{a}-\text{-tew}. \]
bush spirit DEF.m tree 3.SG.m alike
‘The bush spirit looks like a tree.’
6.2. Verbal Phrases

6.2.1. Structure of verbal phrases

The basic structure of verbal phrases is as follows:

\[ \mu \text{MP} \mu \text{ASP} + \text{N} \]

In this formula N (nucleus) is the inflected verb and MP the optional preceding modifying phrase. ASP is an aspectual particle.

**Example (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abisom</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>fiàn</th>
<th>busulina!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>door</td>
<td>DEF.m</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>open.PL.IMPV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>(\rightarrow)</td>
<td>(\leftarrow)</td>
<td>VP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Open the door wide!’

As the modifier phrase may modify either the nominal or the verbal phrase, there will be ambiguities, where there is no article in the nominal phrase. Compare example (1) and (2).

**Example (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abisom</th>
<th>fiàn</th>
<th>busulina!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>door</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>open.PL.IMPV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>(\leftarrow)</td>
<td>VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>(\rightarrow)</td>
<td>VP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Open the door wide!’ or ‘Open the wide door!’

**Example (3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>fase</th>
<th>kelaka.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>DEF.m</td>
<td>old</td>
<td>do.3SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>VP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The man is old. (Lit: The man makes old.)’

**Example (4)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>bi</th>
<th>finganin</th>
<th>fiàn</th>
<th>sele</th>
<th>keliw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>men</td>
<td>DEF.PL</td>
<td>afraid</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>do.PR.2/3PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>MP</td>
<td>big</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>VP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The men are very much afraid.’

**Example (5)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>iti</th>
<th>tele.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>3SG.m</td>
<td>again</td>
<td>come.PR.3SG.m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>(\rightarrow)</td>
<td>ASP</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The man comes again.’
6.2.2. Serialization

A verbal phrase may have a serial verb construction as head instead of a single verb:

\[ +N_1 + N_2 \]

Each element N (nucleus) is a verb word, where \( N_2 \) is a medial or final verb, depending on whether the verbal phrase occurs in a medial or a final position. The first verb \( N_1 \) is a serial verb. There are three basic structures for serial verbs:

a) \[ +N_1 \mu \text{ BEN} \quad +N_2 \]
b) \[ +N_1 + \text{ NOM} \quad +N_2 \]
c) \[ +N_1 \quad + \text{ PV} \]

ad a): The serial verb forms, that take just a plain verb root nucleus and a optional benefactor affix, usually have a purpose meaning. If the verb stem is reduplicated, it has the meaning of continuous action.

If the serial verb has a root ending with the phoneme -l, then a vowel -u is added to the verb stem.

Example (1)

\[ \text{Beil} \quad \text{okol-} \quad \text{-u} \quad \text{teliw.} \]
leaves cut come.2./3.PL
‘They/You (PL) come to cut leaves.’

Example (2)

\[ \text{Ok} \quad \\text{dul-} \quad \text{-u} \quad \text{tala!} \]
water give/feed come.IMPV.2SG
‘Come to fetch water!’

Example (3)

\[ \text{Ok} \quad \text{sen} \quad \text{dan} \quad \text{unina!} \]
water container fill go.IMPV.2.PL
‘Go (PL) to fill the water container!’

Example (4)

\[ \text{Ok} \quad \text{sen} \quad \text{dan-} \quad \text{-nem} \quad \text{unina!} \]
water container fill BEN.1SG go.IMPV.2.PL
‘Go (PL) to fill the water container for me!’

Example (5)

\[ \text{De} \quad \text{tal-} \quad \text{-a} \]
bring come SG.IMPV
‘Bring (it)! (i.e. ‘in order to bring it, come!’)’
Example (6)

\( \text{De} \)  \text{un-}  \text{-a} \\
\text{bring}  \text{go}  \text{SG.IMPV} \\
‘Take (it) away! (i.e. ‘in order to take it away, go!’)’

Example (7)

\( \text{De} \)  \text{-lew}  \text{unina!} \\
\text{bring}  \text{BEN.3.SG.m}  \text{go.2PL.IMPV} \\
‘You (PL) take it to him! (i.e. ‘go in order to give it to him!’)’

Example (8)

\( \text{Fut} \)  \text{mak}  \text{debele}  \text{unsiliw.} \\
\text{book/letter}  \text{IDEF}  \text{send}  \text{go.2/3PL} \\
‘They did send a letter away.’

Example (9)

\text{du}  \text{-lew}  \text{du}  \text{-lew}  \text{kese.} \\
\text{give}  \text{BEN.3SG.m}  \text{give}  \text{BEN.3SG.m}  \text{do.GP.3SG.m} \\
‘He kept giving/distributing to him.’

ad b): The serial verb forms, that take a subject suffix, carry the meaning of some kind of a continuos action.

Example (10)

\( \text{Felfel} \)  \text{be}  \text{un-}  \text{-e}  \text{tel-}  \text{-∅}  \text{-e.} \\
\text{Swallow}  \text{DEF.m}  \text{go}  \text{3SG.m}  \text{come}  \text{PR}  \text{3SG.m} \\
‘The swallow comes and goes.’

Example (11)

\( \text{Ataan} \)  \text{so}  \text{kayow}  \text{so}  \text{b}  \text{-iliw}  \text{b}  \text{-iliw}  \text{-i}, \ldots \\
\text{sun}  \text{ACP}  \text{moon}  \text{ACP}  \text{be.PR}  \text{3PL}  \text{be.PR}  \text{3PL}  \text{DS} \\
‘Sun and moon were for a long time, …’

ad c): Constructions with a pro-verb. This category is the most common of the three serial form constructions. There are two verbs that act as pro-verbs: \text{ke-} ‘do’ and \text{ang-}, ‘do; say’. In their function as pro-verbs, they take all the possible affixation (depending on their position as medial or final verb), while the preceding verb does not take any affixation.

Example (12)

\( \text{Kunum} \)  \text{be}  \text{fingan}  \text{ke-}  \text{-s}  \text{-e} \\
\text{man}  \text{DEF.m}  \text{afraid}  \text{make}  \text{GP}  \text{3SG.m} \\
‘The man was afraid.’
Example (13)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  \text{On} & \text{bat} & \text{kuse} & \text{kuse} & \text{ke-} & \text{-lew} & \text{-∅} & \text{-e.} \\
\text{arrow} & \text{plenty} & \text{shoot} & \text{shoot} & \text{do} & \text{BEN.3SG.m} & \text{PR} & \text{3SG.m}
\end{array}
\]

‘He continuously shoots a lot of arrows at him.’

Example (14)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  \text{On} & \text{bat} & \text{kuse} & \text{kuse} & \text{d} & \text{-ang} & \text{-s} & \text{-e.} \\
\text{arrow} & \text{plenty} & \text{shoot} & \text{shoot} & \text{BEN.3SG.m} & \text{do} & \text{FP} & \text{3SG.m}
\end{array}
\]

‘He continuously shot a lot of arrows at him.’

Example (13) and (14) are a combination of serial construction a) and c).

6.2.3.Pro-Verbs

The verbs \textit{ke-} ‘do, make’ and \textit{ang-} ‘say; make, do’, they having a very closely related general meaning, are very common in extended verbal phrases. The Bimin lexicon so far has over 50 entries with \textit{ke-} as nucleus of a verbal phrase. Most of these \textit{ke-} nuclei verbal phrases also go with the \textit{ang-} nucleus, although some verbs tend to go more with one out of the pair. This is specially true, since the verbal phrase with \textit{ke-} tends to suggest a more causative meaning.

Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  \text{Itol} & \text{alemsal} & \text{kelaka.} \\
\text{year} & \text{three} & \text{do.3SG.m.FOC}
\end{array}
\]

‘He is three years old.’

\textit{Yol ang-} ‘to be surprised/made jump/frightened’ is usually not used with \textit{kel-}, but could be, and would then change its meaning to causative:

Example (2)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  \text{Aul} & \text{mian} & \text{vol} & \text{angse.} \\
\text{Child} & \text{dog} & \text{fright/surprise} & \text{do.3SG}
\end{array}
\]

‘The child was made to jump by the dog.’

Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
  \text{Aul} & \text{mian} & \text{vol} & \text{kese.} \\
\text{Child} & \text{dog} & \text{fright/surprise} & \text{do.3SG}
\end{array}
\]

‘The child made/caused the dog to jump.’
6.3. Peripheral Phrases

6.3.1. Modifier Phrases

Modifier phrases function as a modifier in the nominal phrase or the verbal phrase. It may also function on its own in a verbless clause.

6.3.1.1. Simple Modifier Phrase

A modifier phrase has the following structure:

\[ + \text{N} \mu \text{INTS} \]

Intensifiers (INTS) are a group formed of three clitic elements:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kuw} \\
\text{nam} \\
\text{ete}
\end{align*}
\]

The clitic \text{kuw} and \text{nam} (\text{ngam} in the southern dialect) are by far more common than \text{ete}. For Bimin speakers, there does not seem to be a strict rule whether \text{kuw} or \text{nam} or \text{ete} is used with a particular modifier. Some are just more commonly used together than others.

Example (1)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kitil} & & \text{nam} \\
\text{strong} & & \text{INTS}
\end{align*}
\]

‘very strong’

Example (2)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kitil} & & \text{kuw} \\
\text{strong} & & \text{INTS}
\end{align*}
\]

‘very strong’

Example (3)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kitil} & & \text{ete} \\
\text{strong} & & \text{INTS}
\end{align*}
\]

‘very strong’

All three of the above examples with \text{kitil}, ‘strong’ plus intensifier are correct. But Example (1) is the most common. Other modifiers like \text{wa}, ‘bad’ are more commonly used with \text{nam}, and only seldom with \text{kuw} and even more sparingly with \text{ete}.

Example (4)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{wa} & & \text{sel} & & \text{nam} \\
\text{bad} & & \text{INTS} & & \text{INTS}
\end{align*}
\]

‘very, very bad’

An example where \text{ete} is the most common follows here:
Example (5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>abal</th>
<th>etc</th>
<th>INTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good tasting</td>
<td>'very good tasting'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second choice with *abal*, ‘good tasting’ after *etc* would be *nam*, followed by *kuw*.

To really mark something as e.g. very, very strong, one can also add up to two (or more) intensifiers in an modifier phrase:

Example (6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kitil</th>
<th>nam</th>
<th>etc</th>
<th>INTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strong</td>
<td>'very, very strong'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two very commonly used modifiers that often form some sort of a “serialization for adj”: *fong*, ‘small’ and *fian*, ‘big’. Each of these two can stand as a full adj by itself – or can take a “double”: for *fong*, it would be *gel* and for *fian, sel*. In addition, both *sel* and *gel* can take a reduplication to describe something even tinier or bigger respectively: *gel* → *gelgel* and *sel* → *sesel*.

Example (7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>fong</th>
<th>gel</th>
<th>'a very small man'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>fian</td>
<td>sel</td>
<td>'a very big man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>fong</td>
<td>gel</td>
<td>'a very, very small man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>fian</td>
<td>sel</td>
<td>'a very, very big man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>gel</td>
<td></td>
<td>'a small man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>sel</td>
<td></td>
<td>'a big man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>gelgel</td>
<td></td>
<td>'a tiny man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>sesel</td>
<td></td>
<td>'a huge man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>fong</td>
<td>gelgel</td>
<td>'a very tiny man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunum</td>
<td>fian</td>
<td>sesel</td>
<td>'a very huge man'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The theoretical possibility for the maximum extension for *fian* and *fong* haven’t been observed yet.

Example (8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kunum</th>
<th>fian</th>
<th>sesel</th>
<th>kuv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>INTS</td>
<td>INTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'A very, very, very big man. (Goliath 😊)'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.1.2. Coordinated modifier phrases

Two of the conjunctions mentioned in the chapter 6.7 ‘Conjunctions’ are used to coordinate modifier clauses: meni, ‘or’ and kate, ‘but’. The clitic so, ‘and, with’ is also used as a conjunction. The structure is as follows:

+ MP + cj µ MP …. µ cj + MP (+ so)

There does not seem to be a grammatical limit to the possible number of coordinated MP. If the last modifier phrase is coordinated with the clitic so, ‘ACP’, then it has to have the clitic so, ‘ACP’ coming again after the last modifier phrase.

Example (1)

Kut mian kitil so, fian so, atul nam so mak
bush dog strong ACP big ACP hot INTS ACP IDEF

‘A strong, big, and very wild bush dog.’

Example (2)

Aut gelgel meni fian so kitil so
children small.INTS or big ACP strong ACP

‘Very small or big and strong children’

6.3.2. Numeral Phrases

The Bimin language uses body parts for numbers. The clitic kel, ‘LOC’ has to be added to get the corresponding number. The numeral phrase functions as a modifier within the nominal phrase.

Starting with the left hand thumb auk following the four fingers on the left hand side until reaching the right hand’s little finger (ketket mali). The Bimin numeral system works on a 27 base.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Left Hand Side</th>
<th>Right Hand Side</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thumb</td>
<td>auk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>index</td>
<td>auk teben</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle finger</td>
<td>yemamas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring finger</td>
<td>ketket teben</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little finger</td>
<td>ketket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wrist</td>
<td>gung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forearm</td>
<td>ben</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elbow’s inner side</td>
<td>duan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upper arm</td>
<td>teiw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoulder</td>
<td>king</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>side of neck</td>
<td>guel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear</td>
<td>kalun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eye</td>
<td>kiin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nose</td>
<td>mutum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eye</td>
<td>kiin mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear</td>
<td>kalun mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>side of the neck</td>
<td>guel mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoulder</td>
<td>king mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upper arm</td>
<td>teiw mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elbow’s inner side</td>
<td>duan mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forearm</td>
<td>ben mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wrist</td>
<td>gung mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thumb</td>
<td>auk mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>index</td>
<td>auk teben mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle finger</td>
<td>yemamas mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring finger</td>
<td>ketket teben mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little finger</td>
<td>ketket mali</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The noun *mali* means ‘the other half’. Thus a literal translation of ‘15’ *kiin mali* would be ‘the eye of the other half’. That same result could also be expressed with a possessive phrase, including the 3SG.m possessive pronoun *em*: ‘other half side’s eye’, *mali em kiin*.

A complete 27 base is called *fu deng deng*. Theoretically one could say today’s year 1997, as follows:
Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{fu deng} & \text{alew} & \text{so} & \text{meli em teiw} & \text{so} & \text{fu deng} & \text{so} & \text{auk teben mali so} \\
\text{two} & \text{and} & 19 & \text{and} & 27 & \text{and} & 26 \\
\end{array}
\]

Of course, such a number is ridiculously complicated. Making the transfer from a 27 base system to the decimal system isn’t really a natural one either. Nevertheless: It is possible to express basically any number one needs. Today at least the numbers 1 through 20 are still in use, although quite a few of the younger boys definitively do not feel comfortable using these numbers beyond maybe 10 or so. That might just change again in the future, as one of the subjects in the BVPS (Bimin Vernacular Prep-Schools) that started in 1996 is counting from 1 to 27 – and this skill is proudly being shown off by the students. ☺

All these numerals are only used in counting and adding. Taken as an ordinal number, e.g. August, which is the 8th month of the year, the case marker \textit{kel}, ‘LOC’ is again added.

If it is a cardinal number the numeral phrase comes after the noun, whereas with an ordinal number, the numeral phrase precedes the noun:

Example (2)

\[
\begin{array}{ccccc}
\text{mian} & \text{king} & \text{kel} & \text{teliw} \\
dog & ten & LOC & \text{come.2/3PL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘Ten dogs come.’

Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{ccccc}
\text{Duan} & \text{kel} & \text{kayow} & \text{iti} & \text{tolokoluw} \\
eight & LOC & moon & again & \text{come.FUT.1PL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘We will come again in August.’

There is also the option to express the numbers 1, 2, 4, and 5, in a different way, when giving the number for something:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{makmak} & \text{‘one’} \\
\text{alew} & \text{‘two’} \\
\text{alew(i)alew} & \text{‘four’ (i.e. ‘two-two’)} \\
\text{teing} & \text{‘five’ (i.e. ‘hand’)}
\end{array}
\]

Example (4)

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{Kunum} & \text{makmak} & \text{talaka} \\
man & one & \text{come.3SG}.
\end{array}
\]

‘One man comes.’

Example (5)

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{Kunum} & \text{alew(i)alew} & \text{teliw} \\
man & four & \text{come.3PL}.
\end{array}
\]

‘Four men are coming.’
Example (6)

\[
\text{Teing} \quad \text{kunum} \quad \text{unbiliw.} \\
\text{hand} \quad \text{man} \quad \text{go.IPC.3PL}
\]

‘Five men are going.’

The last example (6) shows a different word order. The reason being, that teing ‘hand’ is here obviously semantically used as a numeral, while grammatically still remains a noun, qualifying the head noun kunum. For further discussion of genitive constructions, cp. the chapter 7.1 Nominal Phrases.

6.3.3. Temporal Phrases

Temporal phrases function as modifiers in the clause structure. The unmarked position for temporal phrases is clause, or even sentence, initially. Again “kel”, the static particle, marks a certain time more specifically.

Their basic structure is as follows:

\[+ \text{N} \mu \text{kel}\]

where kel again is the case marker for locative, temporal and numeral.

The nucleus of a temporal phrase can be one of three things:

1. a temporal particle (soa, ‘before’, sow, ‘later’ etc.)
2. a nominal phrase, including some kind of a time noun, e.g. ding, ‘day’, dim, ‘time’, itol, ‘year’ etc.
3. a clause

Example (1)

\[
\text{Sin} \quad \text{mian} \quad \text{kaing} \quad \text{ase.} \\
yesterday \quad \text{dog} \quad \text{pig} \quad \text{kill.GP.3SG.m}
\]

‘Yesterday a dog killed a pig.’

Example (2)

\[
\text{Sin} \quad \text{kel,} \quad \text{mian} \quad \text{kaing} \quad \text{ase.} \\
yesterday \quad \text{LOC} \quad \text{dog} \quad \text{pig} \quad \text{kill.GP.3SG.m}
\]

‘Yesterday a dog killed a pig. (i.e. It was yesterday, not e.g. the day before it!)’

Compare example (1) with example (2). Example (2) has slightly more emphasis on sin, ‘yesterday’ than example (1); but the construction including kel is very common and does not justify an interpretation for kel as a regular emphasis marker.

Example (3)

\[
\text{Kuane} \quad \text{ding} \quad \text{dim} \quad \text{kel} \quad \text{aul} \quad \text{dukusu.} \\
die.3SG.m \quad \text{day} \quad \text{time} \quad \text{LOC} \quad \text{child} \quad \text{bear.GP.f}
\]

‘She had a baby when she died.’
Example (4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kel</th>
<th>ding</th>
<th>mak</th>
<th>unsu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>day</td>
<td>IDEF</td>
<td>go.GP.3SG.f</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘She went on a certain day.’

The reason for the fronting of *kel* in example (4) is not known at present. It seems to have discourse level function. cf. chapter 10.2 Fronting.
7. Clauses

7.1. Verbal Clauses

Bimin is a SOV language. A correct Bimin sentence always follows this structure, unless the object of a clause/sentence needs to be put into a marked position. That situation given, there is also the possibility of clauses with OSV. Where the object is emphasized like that, the context has to convey the intention of the speaker. That is true for most cases. Where necessary, or where the speaker likes it for clarifying reasons, there is the possibility to include an object pronoun, with the suffix -lo, ‘ACC’ immediately after the object nominal phrase.

The basic structure of a simple clause is as follows:

\[ \mu \text{TP} \mu \text{LP} \mu \text{NP}_S \mu \text{NP}_O \mu \text{NP}_{IO} \mu \text{NP}_{ACP} + \text{VP} \]

Temporal Phrases and Locative Phrases may also occur immediately preceding the verb. cf. chapter 10.2 Fronting.

All these arguments would not normally occur in the same clause, but they could.

A verbal clause may be either medial or final. The verbal inflection would say which function it would have in the sentence.

**Example (1)**

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Sin} & \varepsilon & \text{Sombit} & \text{kel} & \varepsilon & \text{fian} & \text{kunum} & \text{be} & \varepsilon \\
yesterday & 3SG.m & \text{LOC} & 3SG.m & \text{big} & \text{man} & \text{DEF.m} & 3SG.m \\
\text{TP} & \rightarrow & \text{LP} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \text{NP}_S & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \text{NP}_S \\
\text{weng kal} & \text{mak} & \text{eso} & \text{uso} & \text{ilo} & \text{bontem} & \text{fian} & \text{so} \\
\text{announcement} & \text{IDEF} & \text{3DL.m} & \text{3DL.f} & \text{ACC.PL} & \text{mouth} & \text{big} & \text{ACC} \\
\text{NP}_O & \rightarrow & \text{NP}_{IO} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \text{NP}_{ACP} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
bokoyemse. & \\
\text{say.BEN.2/3PL.GP.3SG.m} & \\
\text{V} & \\
\text{‘Yesterday in Sombit, the Bigman said an announcement to him and her with a loud voice.’} \\
\end{array}
\]

**Example (2)**

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Neso} & \text{yu} & \text{so} & \text{nu} & \text{alikum} & \text{Tabubul} & \text{kel} & \text{unokolu} \\
1DL & 2/3PL & ACP & 1PL & all & Tabubul & \text{LOC} & \text{go.FUT.1SG} \\
\text{‘We two and you (PL), we will all go to Tabubil.’} \\
\end{array}
\]

**Example (3)**

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Musun} & \text{kel} & \text{unsulu} & \text{kale} \\
garden & \text{LOC} & \text{go.GP.1PL} & \text{-PFCT} \\
\text{‘We did go to the garden.’} \\
\end{array}
\]
Example (4)

\[ \text{Kunum Fian} \quad \text{ais} \quad \text{dukuse.} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{God} & \quad \text{tree(s)} & \quad \text{put.GP.3SG.m} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{O} & \quad \text{V} \\
\end{align*}

‘God put the tree(s).’

Example (5)

\[ \text{Ais} \quad \text{Kunum Fian} \quad \text{dukuse.} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{tree(s)} & \quad \text{God} & \quad \text{put.GP.3SG.m} \\
\text{O} & \quad \text{S} & \quad \text{V} \\
\end{align*}

‘The tree(s): God put (them/it).’

Example (6)

\[ \text{Ais} \quad \text{ilo} \quad \text{Kunum Fian} \quad \text{dukuse.} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{tree(s)} & \quad \text{ACC.3PL} & \quad \text{God} & \quad \text{put.GP.3SG} \\
\text{O.NP} & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \text{S.NP} & \quad \text{VP} \\
\end{align*}

‘The trees: God put them.’

Example (7)

\[ \text{Kunum Fian} \quad \text{ais} \quad \text{ilo} \quad \text{dukuse.} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{God} & \quad \text{tree(s)} & \quad \text{ACC.3PL} & \quad \text{put.GP.3SG} \\
\text{S.NP} & \quad \text{O.NP} & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow \\
\end{align*}

‘God put the trees.’

Example (8)

\[ \text{Ais} \quad \text{be} \quad \text{elo} \quad \text{Kunum Fian} \quad \text{dukuse.} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{Tree} & \quad \text{DEF.m} & \quad \text{ACC.3SG} & \quad \text{God} & \quad \text{put.GP.3SG} \\
\text{O.NP} & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow \\
\end{align*}

‘This tree: God put it.’

Example (9)

\[ \text{Weng} \quad \text{kal} \quad \text{ayem} \quad \text{sel} \quad \text{mak} \quad \text{i-} \quad \text{-lo} \quad \text{bokoyemse.} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{announcement} & \quad \text{forbidden} & \quad \text{big} & \quad \text{IDEF} & \quad \text{2/3PL} & \quad \text{ACC} & \quad \text{say.BEN.PL.GP.3SG.m} \\
\end{align*}

‘He gave them a very important announcement.’

Example (10)

\[ \text{Weng} \quad \text{be} \quad \text{kunum} \quad \text{so} \quad \text{waneng} \quad \text{so} \quad \text{alik} \quad \text{alik} \]

\begin{align*}
\text{talk} & \quad \text{DEF.m} & \quad \text{man} & \quad \text{ACP} & \quad \text{woman} & \quad \text{ACP} & \quad \text{all} & \quad \text{all} \\
\text{ACC.NP} & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow & \quad \rightarrow \\
\end{align*}

‘We said this talk to all the men and women.’
Even though there are intransitive, transitive and bitransitive verbs, there does not seem to be any need to set up three different kind of clause types as even a clause with a bitransitive verb may have only a overt subject and sometimes not even that. An intransitive verb may have a locative phrase that looks like an object.

Example (12)

\[
\text{Du-} \quad \text{-um} \quad \text{-s} \quad \text{-e} \\
give \quad \text{BEN.3SG.f} \quad \text{GP} \quad \text{3SG.m}
\]

‘He gave (it) to her.’

Example (13)

\[
\text{Am} \quad \text{unika.} \\
house \quad \text{go.1SG.FOC}
\]

‘I go home (now).’

7.2. Non-Verbal Clauses

Bimin has at least three kinds of non-verbal clause:

- descriptive stative clause
- possessive clause
- negative clause

Locative and equative “stative” clauses are verbal clauses.

7.2.1. Descriptive Clauses

\[+ \text{NP}_{S} \mu \text{NP}_{pr} + \text{MP}\]

The MP is obligatory marked with the focus clitic \text{te.}

Example (1)

\[
\text{Kunum} \quad \text{be} \quad \text{fian} \quad \text{te.} \\
man \quad \text{DEF.m} \quad \text{big} \quad \text{FOC}
\]

‘The man is big.’

Example (2)

\[
\text{Kunum} \quad \text{be} \quad \text{e} \quad \text{fian} \quad \text{te.} \\
man \quad \text{DEF.m} \quad \text{3SG.m} \quad \text{big} \quad \text{FOC}
\]

‘The man is big.’
Example (3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kut</th>
<th>mian</th>
<th>kitil</th>
<th>so</th>
<th>atul</th>
<th>nam</th>
<th>so</th>
<th>te.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bush</td>
<td>dog</td>
<td>strong</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>hot</td>
<td>INTS</td>
<td>so</td>
<td>ACP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Wild dogs are strong and very hot/wild.’

### 7.2.2. Possessive Clauses

\[ + \text{NP}_S + \text{POSS}_{pr} + \text{NP} \]

The last NP is obligatory marked with the focus clitic te.

**Example (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>em</th>
<th>mian</th>
<th>te.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>DEF.m</td>
<td>POSS:3.SG.m</td>
<td>dog</td>
<td>FOC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The dog belongs to the man.’

**Example (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kukuyemin</th>
<th>aul</th>
<th>gelgel</th>
<th>alik</th>
<th>im</th>
<th>wanin</th>
<th>te.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teach</td>
<td>child(ren)</td>
<td>small.INTS</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>POSS.PL</td>
<td>food</td>
<td>FOC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The food belongs to the very small school children.’

### 7.2.3. Negative Clauses

There are two different negative constructions: The simple negative clauses, and the prohibitive clauses.

#### 7.2.3.1. Simple Negative

The simple negative has the following structure:

\[ \mu \text{NP}_S + \text{VP}_{NZ} + \text{NEG} \mu \text{PV} \]

If tense and/or aspect need to be expressed, then one of the pro-verbs (ke-, ‘do, make’ or ang- ‘say/do’) is added that takes all the necessary markers.

**Example (1)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kunum</th>
<th>banban</th>
<th>tel-</th>
<th>-in</th>
<th>ba.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>plenty</td>
<td>come</td>
<td>NZ</td>
<td>NEG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Plenty men do not come.’

**Example (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ne</th>
<th>kal</th>
<th>kel-</th>
<th>-in</th>
<th>ba</th>
<th>kesi.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>knowledge</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>NZ</td>
<td>NEG</td>
<td>do.GP.1SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP_S</td>
<td>VP</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>NEG</td>
<td>PV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘I did not know.’
Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{ccccccc}
\text{Ne} & \text{kal} & \text{ke-} & \text{lew} & \text{-in} & \text{ba} & \text{kesi.} \\
\text{ISG} & \text{knowledge} & \text{do} & \text{BEN.3SG} & \text{NZ} & \text{NEG} & \text{do.GP.1SG} \\
\text{NP} & \text{VP} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \text{NEG} & \text{PV} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘I did not know it.’

Example (4)

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{Am} & \text{un-} & \text{-in} & \text{ba.} \\
\text{House} & \text{go} & \text{NZ} & \text{NEG} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘… does/do not go home.’

Example (5)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{Am} & \text{un-} & \text{-in} & \text{ba} & \text{ke-} & \text{-iliw} \\
\text{house} & \text{go} & \text{NZ} & \text{NEG} & \text{do} & \text{GP} & \text{2./3.PL} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘They/You (PL) did not go home.’

Example (6)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{Am} & \text{un-} & \text{-in} & \text{ba} & \text{ke-} & \text{-iliw} & \text{tako.} \\
\text{house} & \text{go} & \text{NZ} & \text{NEG} & \text{do} & \text{GP} & \text{2./3.PL} & \text{OPT} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘They/You (PL) wished that they had not gone home.’

7.2.3.2. Prohibitive Negative

The prohibitive negative has a modifying particle nam, ‘PNEG’, which precedes the head verb:

\[\mu \text{ PER } + \text{ PNEG } + \text{ VP}\]

Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Nam} & \text{kula!} \\
\text{PNEG} & \text{take.IMPV.2SG} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘You cannot take (it)!’

Example (2)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\text{Ais dem} & \text{wanew} & \text{kasike.} & \text{kawin dim} & \text{kale} & \text{nam} & \text{kakamew.} \\
\text{fruit} & \text{eat.2.SG} & \text{therefore} & \text{ground} & \text{here} & \text{NEG} & \text{stroll.DUR.2.SG} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘You (SG) ate the fruit and therefore, you cannot stroll around on this land/ground anymore.’

Phrases are not negated, but an antonym is used:

Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
\text{Kunum} & \text{kitil} & \text{talbe.} & \leftrightarrow & \text{Kunum} & \text{beit} & \text{talbe.} \\
\text{man} & \text{strong} & \text{come.IPC.3SG.m} & \leftrightarrow & \text{man} & \text{weak} & \text{come.IPC.3SG.m} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘A strong man is coming.’ \(\leftrightarrow\) ‘A weak man is coming.’
7.3. Relative Clauses

The relative clause in Bimin is not expressed with a particular relative particle, but rather with the re-statement of the ruling noun. The subject and the object can be relativized. More peripheral arguments cannot be relativized. The basic structure is the following:

\[
\text{REL.CL} + \text{N}
\]

The relative clause is a normal final verb clause. It may take all the arguments of such a clause and all the affixation that a final verb takes. The relative clause may also be a descriptive clause or a nominal phrase.

Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text{Kunum} & \text{finik} & \text{wa} & \text{so} & \text{talaka.} \\
\text{man}_1 & \text{spirit} & \text{bad} & \text{ACP} & \text{come.3.SG.m} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘The man who has a bad spirit comes.’

This example is opposed to what would be the simple clause:

Example (2)

\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text{Kunum} & \text{finik} & \text{wa} & \text{so} & \text{talaka.} \\
\text{man} & \text{spirit} & \text{bad} & \text{ACP} & \text{come.3.SG.m} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘The man with a bad spirit comes.’

Example (3)

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Soa} & \text{e} & \text{man}_1 & \text{ak} & \text{so} & \text{man}_1 & \text{be} & \text{fon} & \text{unse.} \\
\text{Before} & \text{3SG.m} & \text{power} & \text{ACP} & \text{DEF.m} & \text{flee} & \text{go.GP.3SG.m} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘Before, the man who had power fled.’

Example (4)

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{Kunum} & \text{mak} & \text{e} & \text{fut} & \text{ken} & \text{mak} & \text{dunemselew} \\
\text{man} & \text{IDEF} & \text{3SG.m} & \text{book}_1 & \text{good} & \text{IDEF} & \text{give.BEN.1SG.GP.2SG} \\
\text{S} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \text{O} & \rightarrow & \rightarrow & \rightarrow \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text{fut} & \text{be} & \text{iti} & \text{yekut} & \text{kese.} \\
\text{book}_1 & \text{DEF.m} & \text{again} & \text{steal} & \text{do.GP.3SG.m} \\
\rightarrow & \rightarrow & \text{MP} & \leftarrow & \text{V} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘A man again stole the book from me, which you had given me.’

Even though relative clauses are used in the Bimin language, they are not all that common, and when used, give additional emphasis to the head noun.
8. Sentences

8.1. Clause Chaining with Switch Reference

As mentioned earlier, Bimin has a system of four kinds of switch reference that are attached as suffixes to the medial verb. The basic structure of a chain of clauses forming a sentence is as follows:

\( \mu \text{MC} \ldots \mu \text{MC} + \text{MC} + \text{FC} \)

There does not seem to be a grammatical limit to the number of MC lined up before the FC.

These are the four switch reference possibilities in Bimin: SEQ.SS, SEQ.DS, NSEQ.SS, and NSEQ.DS. Their respective structure is as follows:

SEQ.DS: \( N + \text{TNS} + \text{NOM} + \text{DS} \)
SEQ.SS: \( N + \text{SS.SEQ} \)
NSEQ.DS: \( N + \text{TNS} + \text{NSEQ} + \text{NOM} + \text{DS} \)
NSEQ.SS: \( N + \text{NSEQ} \)

ad DS: The only possible TNS.SF are the three “general tense suffixes” -s (for past tense), -ok(o) (for future tense), and -∅ (for present tense).

ad SS: The vowel in parenthesis -(e)ko is optional as it drops if a preceding open syllable is joined with the SS marker. In some cases the -e is also dropped in preceding closed syllables to indicate a closer connection between the two adjoining clauses.

ad SEQ versus NSEQ: Sequential construction are the unmarked forms, and do not take any affix, while the non-sequential forms need to be marked with the suffix -om.

The sequential constructions are the unmarked forms and do not take any affixation for this aspect, while the non-sequential constructions are always marked with the suffix -om. The sequential same subject suffix has the form -(e)ko. Different subject is marked with a -i word final.

Example (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mian</th>
<th>sel</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>tel</th>
<th>-e</th>
<th>-i</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>DEF.m</td>
<td>come</td>
<td>3SG.m</td>
<td>DS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>fongate</td>
<td>fon</td>
<td>un-</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>-e.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he</td>
<td>quickly</td>
<td>flee</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>GP</td>
<td>3SG.m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘The big dog₁ came, and then he₂ quickly fled.’
Example (2)

\[ \text{Example (2)} \]
\[ \text{Mian: sel be tel-eko, fongate fon un-}-s-\text{-e.} \]
\[ \text{Example (2)} \]
\[ \text{dog big DEF.m come SEQ.SS, quickly flee go GP 3SG.m} \]
\[ \text{The big dog, came, and then he quickly fled.} \]

Example (3)

\[ \text{Example (3)} \]
\[ \text{Ding dim fen-s-om -elif -i.} \]
\[ \text{Example (3)} \]
\[ \text{day time search GP NSEQ 2/3PL DS} \]
\[ \text{e tal-s-}-e-\text{-kale.} \]
\[ \text{Example (3)} \]
\[ \text{3SG.m come GP 3SG.m PFCT} \]
\[ \text{They/You (PL) waited while/until he came.} \]

Example (4)

\[ \text{Example (4)} \]
\[ \text{Ding dim fen-s-om -elif -i.} \]
\[ \text{Example (4)} \]
\[ \text{day time search GP NSEQ 2/3PL DS} \]
\[ \text{i tal-}-s-\text{-iliw -kale.} \]
\[ \text{Example (4)} \]
\[ \text{they come GP 2/3PL PFCT} \]
\[ \text{They waited while/until they came.} \]

The reference Bimin switch reference is pointing at, is always to next following clause, and same subject (SS) means exactly the same subject in person and number.

Example (5)

\[ \text{Example (5)} \]
\[ \text{Kunum mak tel-eko nukalem kukuw wa atem-}-om.} \]
\[ \text{Example (5)} \]
\[ \text{Man IDEF come SEQ.SS our behavior bad see NSEQ} \]
\[ \text{gaan-}-e-\text{-i. ne kilil-}-i-\text{-i.} \]
\[ \text{Example (5)} \]
\[ \text{shout 3SG.m DS 1SG hear 1SG DS} \]
\[ \text{alik nu fon un-}-s-\text{-uluw.} \]
\[ \text{Example (5)} \]
\[ \text{all we flee go GP 1PL} \]
\[ \text{A man came and watched our bad behavior and he shouted and I heard and then we all fled.} \]

8.2.Minor Sentence Types

8.2.1.Reason and Result

This sentence type is marked with the conjunction kasike ‘therefore’. The conjunction occurs always at the end of the reason. But the reason may precede or follow the result. It is more common for the reason to precede the result, as in most Papuan languages.
**Example (1)**

*Ais dem* wanew *kasike, kawin dim kale nam kakamew.*
fruit eat.2SG therefore ground here PNEG stroll.2SG

‘You (SG) ate the fruit and therefore, you cannot stroll around on this land/ground anymore.’

**Example (2)**

*Ka kel unse kasike, kame, kuanoke.*
there LOC go.GP3SG.m therefore now die.FUT.3SG.m

‘He went there and therefore, now, he will die.’

**Example (3)**

*Weng mak bokonembelew kasike, am unika.*
talk IDEF say.BEN.1SG.IPC.2.SG therefore house go.1.SG.FOC

‘You are saying (that) to me and therefore I (now) go home.’

**Example (4)**

*E kiin wa kelewko, kile atemin ba kebom kasike.*
he eye bad do.BEN.3SG.m.SEQ.SS clear see.NZ NEG NSEQ.SS therefore

‘He didn’t see clear because his eyes were bad.’

### 8.2.2. Conditional

Conditional is marked with the clitic *tewe* on the final verb of the protasis. Following is the structure of this final verb:

\[ \mu \text{ACC} + N \mu \text{BEN} \mu \text{ASP} \mu \text{TNS} + \text{NOM} + \text{COND} \]

Note that the tense suffix in the protasis can only be either present or future. If the statement in the protasis takes place somewhere in the past, a temporal modifier needs to indicate that, but the verb itself does not take any past marker; cp. Example (3). The sentence final verb in the apodosis just follows the normal rules of a final verb.

**Example (1)**

*Afam waneng makso kulokolew tewe, keisuw keloki.*
second wives another marry.FUT.2SG COND be furious.FUT.1SG

‘If you will marry another wife, I will be furious.’

**Example (2)**

*Ku ais dem be wanew tewe, atin kuw kuanokolew.*
you fruit DEF.m eat.2SG COND totally die.FUT.2SG

‘If you ate that fruit (now), you would die.’
Example (3)

\[ Soa \ e \ kuane \ tewe, \ kame \ ilum \ nam \ kulu \ tako. \]
before 3SG.m die.3SG.m COND now heavy PNEG take.3SG.f OPT

‘If he had died before, I would have thought that she would not have gotten the heavy now.’

Example (4)

\[ Soa \ e \ kuane \ tewe, \ kame \ ilum \ nam \ kulu \ sako. \]
before 3SG.m die.3SG.m COND now heavy PNEG take.3SG.f TNT

‘If he had died before, she might not have gotten the heavy now.’

As Example (3) and (4) show, there is a way to mark uncertainty in the apodosis with the modal clitic \textit{tako}, ‘OPT’ and \textit{sako}, ‘TNT’.

8.2.3. Contrast

To make a contrastive connection between two clauses, the conjunction \textit{kate}, ‘but’ is used. In this function, \textit{kate} is always between the two contrastive clauses.

+ CL + \textit{kate} + CL

A contrastive sentence cannot have more than two clauses connected with \textit{kate}, ‘but’.

Example (1)

\[ Kunum \ bi \ teliw \ kate, \ waneng \ tel-\in \ -ba. \]
men DEF.PL come.2/3PL but women come NZ NEG

‘The men come but the women don’t come.’

Example (2)

\[ Waneng \ bu \ kulew \ kate, \ nanew \ kunum \ em \ kate! \ te. \]
woman DEF.f marry.2SG but another man his wife FOC

‘You (SG) marry this woman, but she is another man’s wife.’

8.2.4. Direct and Indirect Speech

8.2.4.1. Direct Speech

For this type of sentence, Bimin uses a structure with three parts:

a) Speech initiating clause (optional)

b) The actual speech

c) Speech closing clause (optional, but used most of the times.)

Part a) is always a verb within the semantic field of saying and thinking. Possible verbs would be:
By far the most common of these speech initiating verbs is the first one, \textit{bokol-} ‘say’. The form of these speech opening verb is as follows:

\[+ \text{N } \mu \text{ BEN } + \text{ NSEQ } \mu \text{ NOM } \mu \text{ DS}\]

As can be seen, this is a medial verb form. That means that switch reference has to be taken into account. The (last) clause of the quote is a final verb, as is the verb in the speech closing quote. The structure of direct speech then is:

\[\mu \text{ MC } + \text{“FC (… } \mu \text{ FC)” } \mu \text{ FC}\]

At this stage I do not know, why the medial verb form is used. Nor do I know why some of these forms are marked with different subject.

The paradigm of the subject suffixes is the normal (set 1) one, but for the first, and the two third singular forms. These three forms expand one vowel \textit{e-} preceding the normal endings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set 1</th>
<th>Speech</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>-(l)i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-(e)lew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.m</td>
<td>-(l)e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.f</td>
<td>-(l)u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (1)

\[\text{bokol-} -\text{nem} -\text{om} -\text{ele}:\]

\[\text{say BEN.1SG NSEQ 3SG.m}\]

‘he said to me: ’

Example (2)

\[E \text{ boko-lew-om-ele-i: } \]

\[3\text{SG.m say-BEN.3SG.m-NSEQ-3SG.m-DS 1SG know do.NZ NEG FOC}\]

‘He said to him: “I do not know.”.

Example (3)

\[\text{dakala-} -\text{om} -\text{eliw}\]

\[\text{ask NSEQ 2/3PL}\]

‘they/You (PL) asked: ’

The direct speech itself follows normal Bimin sentence rules, and is usually closed by the speech closing clause. This clause is formed by only one verb \textit{ang-} ‘say/do’ which could within limits be extended to a short clause with all, or any one or two of the three main participants: subject, object, and indirect object of the sentence.
Example (4)

E | bokol | -ew | -om | -ele: | “Bayo!”,
he | say | BEN.3.SG.m | NSEQ | 3.SG.m | no
E | d- | -ang- | -∅ | -e.
ACC.3.SG | say/do | PR | 3.SG
‘He says to him: “No!”, he says to him.

Example (5)

E | bokol | -ew | -om | -ele: | “Bayo!”,
he | say | BEN.3.SG.m | NSEQ | 3.SG.m | no
E | alew | elo | d- | -ang- | -∅ | -e.
father | ACC.3SG.m | ACC.3.SG | say/do | PR | 3.SG
‘He says to him: “No!”, he says to his father.’

Example (6)

E | bokol | -ew | -om | -ele: | “Bayo!”,
he | say | BEN.3.SG.m | NSEQ | 3.SG.m | no
E | alew | d- | -ang- | -∅ | -e.
father | ACC.3SG | say/do | PR | 3.SG.m
‘He says to him: “No!”, his father says to him.’

8.2.4.2. Indirect Speech

Indirect speech is marked with the clitic kale, which comes after the repetition of the direct speech that wants to be related. This repetition has the same form as the original. It only works with short phrases and interjections.

Example (1)

SP1: “Blew yak o!” SP2: ∅ SP3: “Blew yak o kale!”
SP1: Hi(SG) SP2: ∅ SP3: Hi(SG) IDS
‘Person 1 to Person 2: “Hi!”’, but person 2 does not hear it. Person 3 to person 1: “He said ‘Hi!’”

Example (2)

“Weso kale!”
thank you IDS
‘He said “thank you”!’

8.2.5. Complementation

The complementation is constructed by nominalization. The complement clause is nominalized, and functions as an object in the main clause. Sometimes the medial non-sequential morpheme -om precedes the nominalizer. Also, the complement clause may sometimes be compounded with a more general noun like in example (2) and (3).
Example (1)

*Awon be em iti un-om -in atensu.*
bird DEF.m POSS.3SG.m again go.NSEQ NZ see.GP.3SG.f

‘Wensi saw the bird flying away again.’

Example (2)

*Nukalem tel -in ba weng bokovembiliw.*
POSS.1PL come NZ NEG talk say.BEN.PL.IPC.2/3PL

‘He told them that we would not come. (Lit: ‘He told them the story of our not coming.’)’

Example (3)

*E Kanum_Fian em kukuw ken*
3SG.m God POSS.3SG.m behavior good

*kel-om -in sawa fukunse.*
do.NSEQ NZ law think.GP.3SG.m

‘He thought of God’s law, that (e.g. we) should do good.’

If the complement clause gets more elaborate, nominalization may not be used:

Example (4)

*E bokolewomele: “Alew e*
3SG.m say.BEN.3SG.m.NSEQ.3SG.m his_father 3SG.m

*bokolomele: ‘Nam kulina!’, angse*
say.NSEQ.3SG.m PNEG take.2PL.IMPV say.GP.3SG.m

*kasike, kame, kola!” dangse.*
therefore now leave.2SG.IMPV ACC.3SG.m.say.GP.3SG.m

He said to him: “His father had said: ‘Do (PL) not take (it)!’, and therefore, now, leave it!”
9. Discourse Observations

9.1. Tail-Head Linkage

This construction is very common in all narrative texts. It is best translated as ‘thus’. This construction connects sentences.

Example (1)

Deiw mak ding mak, kunum mak kut am unsekale.
day IDEF time IDEF man IDEF bush house go.GP.3SG.PFCT

Uneko, teleko, ka kel akalsekale....
go.SEQ.SS come.SEQ.SS there LOC be.PST.GP.3SG.PFCT

‘Once upon a time, a man went to (his) bush house. Thus he came and stayed there.’

9.2. Fronting (of Locative, Object and Temporal Phrases)

Temporal phrases usually have the first slot in a sentence/clause structure. They occur at the beginning of a new time setting within a discourse. In some instances the temporal phrase does not occur at the start of a sentence, but rather has its place immediately preceding the verb. In these cases temporal phrases do function within the sentence/clause and have no function on discourse level.

Example (1)

Sog kel, kilkemin awon alenalekale.
before LOC creator bird be.PST.PFCT

‘Before there was the creator bird.’

Example (2)

Ne sowete unoki.
1SG later go.FUT.1SG

‘I will go later.’

The same also applies for locative phrases: Locative phrases preceding the subject of a sentence have their function within a discourse, and mark a new place setting. Much more often than temporal phrases, locative phrases occur immediately preceding the verb. They then function on clause/sentence level.

Example (3)

Bim am kale, kunum mak talse.
Bim house here man IDEF come.GP.3SG.m

‘A man came here to the Bim region.’
Example (4)

*Kunum mak kale talse.*

man IDEF here com.GP.3SG.

‘A man came here.’

As mentioned in chapter 8.1 Verbal Clause, the object can occasionally precede the subject, and is then emphasized.

Example (5)

*Kunum Fian ais dukuse.*

God tree(s) put.GP.3SG.m

S O V

‘God put the tree(s).’

Example (6)

*Ais Kunum Fian dukuse.*

tree(s) God put.GP.3SG.m

O S V

‘The tree(s): God put (them/it).’

9.3.Optional Pronoun on Clause Level

These optional pronouns on clause (and sentence) level help keep track of the participants within a larger discourse. It re-sets the topic of a discourse.

Optional pronoun copy is also common, marking phrases functioning as subject and object, but also in locative and temporal phrases.

Example (1)

*Yesus e talum.*

Jesus 3SG.m bridge.

‘Jesus is the bridge.’

Example (2)

*Waneng u kusu.*

Woman 3SG.f took.(it)

‘The woman took (it).’

Example (3)

*kawtiw i wanbiliw.*

people 2/3PL eat

‘People are eating.’
Example (4)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sin</th>
<th>3SG.m,</th>
<th>Sombit</th>
<th>LOC</th>
<th>3SG.m,</th>
<th>big</th>
<th>man</th>
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<td>yesterday</td>
<td>TP</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>NP&lt;sub&gt;S1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>→</td>
<td>NP&lt;sub&gt;S1&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| weng kal | IDEF | 3DL.m | 3DL.f | ACC.PL | mouth | big | ACC |
| announcement | NP<sub>O</sub> | → | NP<sub>IO</sub> | → | NP<sub>ACP</sub> | → | → |

*bokoyemse.*
say.BEN.2/3PL.GP.3SG.m

‘Yesterday in Sombit, the Bigman said an announcement to him and her with a loud voice.’

9.4. Focus *te*

This clitic is obligatory in verbless clauses, but appears “optional” in other clauses. As it then marks some kind of focus, it belongs to the discourse level, although its function is not fully understood at present.

Example (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yemen</th>
<th>soul</th>
<th>so</th>
<th>be</th>
<th>diw</th>
<th>wanin ba</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taro</td>
<td>sweet potato</td>
<td>ACP</td>
<td>DEF.m</td>
<td>together</td>
<td>eat.NZ NEG</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<th>kemaluw</th>
<th>te</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>make.1PL</td>
<td>FOC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘Together (e.g. husband & wife), we did not eat the taro and the sweet potatoes.’
10. Residue

10.1. Demonstratives (cf. 4.2.3)

The two diagrams given in 4.2.3 Structure of Demonstratives, each have two possibilities for roots meaning visible and not-visible. Unto the date of the write up of this paper it was not possible to accurately define the difference between each of these doubled up sets. e.g.

- kanis $\leftarrow ? \rightarrow kamnis$
- minel $\leftarrow ? \rightarrow manel$
- kayak $\leftarrow ? \rightarrow kabyak$
- minyak $\leftarrow ? \rightarrow mayak$

10.2. Incomplete Vowel Harmony

Every now and again the Bimin morphology shows evidence of some kind of vowel harmony. Especially morphemes with the letter $<l>$ intervocally, seem to suggest a kind of vowel harmony (cf. the verbal affixes). Nevertheless as per today, a general rule couldn’t be found and stated.

10.3. Medial Verb Forms in Speech and Complementation

At present I do not know, why the medial verb form is used with speech and complementation.

Example (1)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
E \quad \text{boko-lew-om-ele-i:} \\
3SG.m \quad \text{say-BEN.3SG.m-NSEQ-3SG.m-DS} \\
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{“Ne} & \text{kal} & \text{kelin} & \text{ba} & \text{te!”}.
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{ISG} & \text{know} & \text{do.NZ} & \text{NEG} & \text{FOC}
\end{array}
\]

‘He said to him: “I do not know.”.’
11. Sample Interlinearized Text

\ref Ataan so Kayow so 001
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Ne kame, ataan so kayow so em sang mak}
\texttt{Ne kame ataan so kayow so em sang mak}
\texttt{I today/now sun ACP moon ACP 3SG.POSS story IDEF}
\texttt{pr avt n pa n pa pron n pa}
\texttt{bokolomin kanemin tako}
\texttt{say -NSEQ -NZ happen -DUR -NZ OPT}
\texttt{vt -vinfl -vinfl pr -vinfl -vinfl pa}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
I now want to tell the story of the sun and the moon.
\end{verbatim}
\dt 30/Sep/97

\ref Ataan so Kayow so 002
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Soa e, kayow so ataan so alenaliwkale.}
\texttt{soa e kayow so ataan so a -ena -liw - kale}
\texttt{spec.pandanus 3SG.m moon ACP sun ACP be+PST -DUR -2/3PL - PFCT}
\texttt{n pron n pa n pa v -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
Sun and moon have been before.
\end{verbatim}
\dt 30/Sep/97

\ref Ataan so Kayow so 003
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{Beliw beliwi, mak kunum mak}
\texttt{b -eliw b -eliw -i mak kunum mak}
\texttt{be+PR -2/3PL be+PR -2/3PL -DS IDEF man IDEF}
\texttt{vs -vinfl vs -vinfl -vinfl pa n pa}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
They had been for a long time, when a man came.
\end{verbatim}
\dt 30/Sep/97

\texttt{unsekale.}
\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{un -s -e -kale}
\texttt{go -GP -3SG.m -PFCT}
\texttt{vi -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
They had been for a long time, when a man came.
\end{verbatim}
\dt 30/Sep/97
He went and had not seen the sun.

He walked openly on a game path and walked to the top of a mountain called Temben Tikin, and going up there, he saw a house being there.
The man of the house had just gone out for a while.

He had shut the door, and had gone for a while.

Thus he (= the man that came up to the house) sat down.

Thus he (= the man that came up to the house) sat down.
He sat there not too far away (from the house), hidden away by some roots of pitpit and a kind of grass called "bukup".

dt 30/Sep/97

ref Ataan so Kayow so 010

| t | Teinbele | bele, | aneng kuine | dim ete, |
| m | tein | -b | -ele b | -ele aneng kuine | dim ete |
| g | sit_down | -IPC | -3SG.m be+PR | -3SG.m place afternoon time there |
| p | vi | -vinfl | -vinfl vs | -vinfl n | n | n | pron pa |

| t | tem | guin | guin | angomete, |
| m | tem | guin | guin | ang | -om | -e | -te |
| g | above foot_steps | foot_steps | do | -NSEQ | -3SG.m | -FOC up_there |
| p | dem | n | n | vi | -vinfl | -vinfl | -vinfl/proninfl dem |

| t | mak | giling | giling | manel | tele | te: |
| m | mak | giling | giling | manel | tal | -e | -te |
| g | IDEF exhausted | exhausted | close_down_here | come | -3SG.m | -FOC |
| p | pa | mo | mo | dem | vi | -vinfl |

| t | Kunum sel mak | kak tukul aliw | sel mak | okil | mak kataktem |
| m | kunum sel mak | kak tukul aliw | sel mak | okil | mak kataktem |
| g | man | big IDEF bald | kind_of big IDEF wild_fowle IDEF neck_hanging |
| p | n | mo | pa | n | pa | mo | pa | mo |

| t | kolewsomelei, |
| m | ko | -lew | -s | -om | -ele | -i | am |
| g | leave | -BEN.3SG.m | -GP | -NSEQ | -3SG.m | -DS | house |
| p | vi | -vinfl | -vinfl | -vinfl | -vinfl | -vinfl | -vinfl |

| t | talsekale. |
| m | tal | -s | -e | -kale |
| g | come | -GP | -3SG.m | -PFCT |
| p | vi | -vinfl | -vinfl | -vinfl |

Bimin Grammar Essentials
He sat there for a long time, and when it became evening, there was the noise of exhausted footsteps coming slowly up and closer: A big man with a real big bold head, with a fowl hanging around his neck coming to the house.

\t30/Sep/97

\ref Ataan so Kayow so 011
\section{Abin matem baku ais mongom sel mak kingti}
\section{Abin matem bak -u ais mongom sel mak kingti}
\section{Floor specific place Bak -3SG.f wood stem big IDEF shoulder_carring}
\section{N n n n -vinfl n n mo pa vi}
\section{talsekale.}
\section{t e -kale}
\section{g come -GP -3SG.m -PFCT}
\section{vi -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl}

He came and fell down on the floor, exhausted from carrying a big tree on his shoulders.

\dt 30/Sep/97

\ref Ataan so Kayow so 012
\section{Ka ais mongom gilu duku kolewsomelei,}
\section{Ka ais mongom gilu duku kolew -s -om -ele -i}
\section{There wood stem noise put leave -GP -NSEQ -3SG.m -DS bilum}
\section{Dem n n n vt vi -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl n}
\section{mak kuw dokong duku kolewsomelei,}
\section{mak kuw dokong duku colew -s -om -ele -i kamneng}
\section{IDEF only take_off put leave -GP -NSEQ -3SG.m -DS on_the_side}
\section{pa pa vt vt vi -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl -vinfl dem}
\section{alote fit tok mak kuw fit malak ais mak kuw kawtol}
\section{alote fit tok mak kuw fit malak ais mak kuw kawtol}
\section{hither pull stone_axe IDEF only pull down_here wood IDEF only broken}
\section{dem vt n pa pa vt dem n pa pa mo}
He left the tree stem fell noisily there, and took off one bilum, pulled an axe down to himself, and while chopping this tree (stem) into pieces, a big chip of wood went, and fell next to the hiding man.

He didn’t see him.

Thus he chopped the wood.
He gathered the wood and put it into the house, and startled he saw him: "I did not see you for a while. You are afraid, but come up here!", he said to him.

Thus, the man come over there quickly and said: "Hi, how are you?"
He urged him into the house: "Ah, my friend, sit here!", and the two went quickly into the house.

Now he hurried outside to the veranda and sat there.
Thus the other man said: "Now, do you happen to have put away one tiny little taro somewhere in a corner?"

"I am covering them with ashes down there (in the fire place).", he said.

"Cover only three with ashes!", he said to him.
He was at first surprised to see such small taro, and he at first covered (some) skinny small taros and then covered more, until he had planty covered with ash, and had enough, and then he put some small twigs that had been sitting outside under the house, onto (the fire).

\dt 30/Sep/97
There were some small twigs, he broke off two very small and said to him: "Put them down there (in the fire)!".

He thought that there was only little wood, and he wanted to make a big fire, and he made a big heap of twigs.
He put (the wood) down, and while he went outside, the wrapped up pack and the flames inside the house made dum-dum (noises).

Ref Ataan so Kayow so 026

The fire place rose (i.e. became a very big fire).

Ref Ataan so Kayow so 027

"Ebe! Ku be nono kelew?" dangei, am

"Ebo! Weing mongom ais abul

keyembiliw."
"Wow! What are you doing?", he said to him, and he (=the other man) looked into the house (and said:) "Wow! The fire flames are lighting the wood put in (there)!

A frightful big taro rose, and he ... -- what did you do here the whole time?

A frightful big taro rose, and  he ... -- what did you do here the whole time?
They put out the fire together, and out it outside, and then they sat down.

They put out the fire together, and out it outside, and then they sat down.

The taro burnt and they took it out (of the fire), and sat down to eat.

Thus evening broke.

Thus evening broke.
A cicada called out.

This is a small part of the story.

(The story) is long, but this part is finished.
12. List of Abbreviations

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<th>Definition</th>
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13. Bibliography


