Grammatical Overview of Iau
Revision 3

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* After 1992, these yayans and churches sponsored my visas but supervision for work done was under SIL 1980-2008, WAP & Papua Partnerships and Wycliffe Global Partners (2008 ….)

1 NOTE: Working Paper, Archived But Not A Final Copy
The phonetic and phonological renderings have not been updated to IPA
This copy is for information only.
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Iau is a Papuan language spoken by over 1500 speakers who live along the Van Daalan River, a southern branch of the Tariku /Rouffaer River in the Western Lakes Plains area. They are located in the District of Fawi, Puncak Jaya Regency, Papua, Indonesia. (Ethnologue). GPS coordinates for the main village of Fawi are: 03 13.86S 137 43.56E

The Lakes Plains Languages were originally grouped with the Tor languages to the northeast as part of the Trans New Guinea Languages (Wurm 1982, Voorhoeve 1975), but more recently with the Geelvink/Cenderawasih Bay Languages such as Bauzi, Tunggare, and Burate (Clouse, 1997), And by some as an independent family (Ross 2005, Usher) (See also Wikipedia).

The Iau dialect trio of Iau, Turu, and Foi along with Edopi are classified by Usher (2018) as West Tariku languages as opposed to the Wapoga River, Central and Duvle-East languages. The Glottologue makes the Tariku (River) languages into a broader grouping, which includes East Tariku, Central Tariku, Duvle and West Tariku. In this classification Iau and the other 2 dialects are classed as Central Tariku. Iau is also classified as a Central Tariku language in Clouse’s classification of Tariku (1997) which consists of six families—Tause, West Tariku, Central Tariku. East Tariku, Duvle and West Lakes Plains.

2 I began this research with a background in tagmemics learned at SIL N Carolina, Norman, Oklahoma and Dallas, TX. Through field workshops especially an early workshop by Ivan Lowe in the early 1980’s, and our Indonesia Branch library, I had exposure to a wide range of linguistic writings. I was exposed to the writings of Hopper, Thompson and Li, Givon, Comrie, Longacre, Grimes, Foley, Van Valin, and others. Later at North Dakota SIL I received consultant help by Tom Dooley, as well as exposure to Foley and Van Valin in more depth. (See Bibliography.) All of these influences are reflected in this paper. I am grateful for consulting help and mentoring in writing papers given by Ken Gregerson, a consultation session with Bernard Comrie at a workshop in Papua New Guinea, consultant help on the tone and segmentals paper by Eunice Pike, and encouragement by Larry Jones through general comments on a paper he looked at.

3 The information presented in this paper is a summary and in some cases an update of a number of published and unpublished papers (See Bateman 1982–1989) In this paper basic information about Iau discourse grammar as well as some semantic and pragmatic observations is made available for others working in related languages in Irian Jaya.

4 The Tariku river is a western branch of the Mamberamo. This river is also known from Dutch days as the Rouffaer River. It has a southern branch along the central mountain range, known in Dutch days as the van Dalaan. There is a small connecting river between the northern branch of the Tariku and the southern branch along the central mountain range. This marks the central point of the current Iau territory.
There are two closely related dialects of Iau, Turu and Foi. (Early SIL Lakes Plains survey reports, McAllister 1979, Clouse, 1993) The Turu dialect area is upstream, to the west of the Iau dialect area. The Foi dialect area located to the north, midway on the northern Tariku/Rouffaer River. The Foi area is the “old country”. The great grandparents of both the current Turu and current Iau generations pushed out the Duvle and moved into their current locations from the Foi area current area in the distant memorable past.

The most closely related language to these three dialects is Edopi, located upstream on the Rouffaer River and to the slightly to the northwest of the Turu area. There is no direct river connection between the Edopi and the Turu, only over land and much of it swamp. The Turu have the most contact with the Edopi area, as was also true in their originating location on western upstream end of the Foi area, even before their move. The Iau settled to the south of the Foi area and to the east of the Turu. Both took over territory from the Duvle who speak a another Lakes Plains language. Duvle is classified as a isolate by some or with the languages spoken at Dou and Kaiy with whom they intermarry.

Edopi is spoken at villages to the west of (upstream from) the Foi dialect villages on the Rouffaer River. Edopi is approximately 70 % cognate with Iau (I have lost the original references –See Clouse?) Turu seems to be the closest of the three Iau dialects to Edopi. Iau is closer to the Foi dialect.

55 Iau input based on personal contact with fathers, grandparents and great grandparents who participated in these events as well as passed on information concerning ancestors, planned to be made available in REAP in a narrative text corpus oral and written).
1.1 Language Classification

Iau was classified by Voorhoeve (1975) as a Papuan language in the New Guinea Phylum and Tor-Lakes Plains Stock. It was later classified by Duane Clouse (1997) as a member of the Geelvink Bay Phylum, the Lakes Plains Superstock and the Western Tariku Family. See also Wurm and Malcom Ross (2005). In Clouse’s classification of the Turu family there are three dialects, Iau, Turu and Foi. The other member of this family is Edopi. The Western Tariku languages are Fayu and Kiri-Kiri. He classifies Tause which is also spoken in the Western Lakes Plains as a separate family.

1.2 Language Characteristics

Iau is a tonal language. Tone is both lexical and morphemic. In the Iau phoneme inventory, there are 6 consonants, 8 vowels and 8 phonemic tones. There are no phonemic nasals. But there is nasal allophone of the vowel /a/ and nasal allophones of some of the voiced stops. Iau, like other Lakes Plain languages has a high front vowel that is fricativized and implosive voiced stops. (Bateman, 1990)

Iau is a verb final language. It has a left dislocated positions for topics at both clause and sentence level. It has an extensive system for marking non verbal items as predicated new information in the clause. These are used to introduce or confirm, or give identifying information concerning participants, locations, time and other setting type information. Like other Papuan languages, a characteristic feature especially in narrative discourse structure is the use of repeated linking clauses (Bateman, 2020)

2.0 PHONOLOGY

2.1 Segmentals

The following are the Iau phonemes along with their allophones and the orthographic representation used in this paper. (See Bateman 1990b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orthographic Symbol</th>
<th>Phoneme</th>
<th>Phonetic Representation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>/a/</td>
<td>[a], [a]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>[ɓ], [m]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>[ɗ], [n],[l]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>[ɛ], [æ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>/θ/</td>
<td>[θ], [h], [p]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>[iz]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i/</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>[i ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>[k],[k]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>[ς],[o]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>[s]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>[t]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>[u]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v*</td>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>[ο]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y*</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>[ι]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* ‘v’ and ‘y’ are taken from the original Iau orthography based on early Dani orthography.

2.2 Tones

(See Bateman, 1990 for more detailed description)

Eight tones

The table below shows the Iau tones.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orthography</th>
<th>Phoneme</th>
<th>Phonetic**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>/1-2-3/</td>
<td>[1-2-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>/3-4/</td>
<td>[3-4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>/2-3/</td>
<td>[2-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>/1-4/</td>
<td>[1-4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>/4-3/</td>
<td>[4-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>/2-1/</td>
<td>[2-1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>/3/</td>
<td>[3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>/2/</td>
<td>[2]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** 1 is highest, 4 is lowest. There are only 2 phonemic levels 2 and 3.
Iau has 8 phonemic tones: 2 contrastive level tones and 6 contrastive contours (3 falling contours, 2 rising contours and 1 fall-rise contour) which are displayed in the illustrations below. In the current orthography, these are indicated by using the numbers 2-9.

There is a complete set of tones on nouns with the syllable “be” that are contrastive by tone alone.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tonal Level</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be⁹</td>
<td>father-in-law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be⁸</td>
<td>fire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be⁷</td>
<td>belt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be⁶</td>
<td>path</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be⁵</td>
<td>fish trap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be⁴</td>
<td>flower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be³</td>
<td>eel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be²</td>
<td>tree fern</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 8 contrastive tones /tone contours are lexically contrastive. The same 8 contrastive tones occur also on verb stems provide 8 different lexicalized and grammaticalized aspectual viewpoints. On particles, the 8 contrastive tone morphemes have a variety of meanings depending on the grammatical functions of the particles. This can be illustrated by the following list of word types using the segmental “be”. All possible meanings of the monosyllable ‘be’, are listed below. The particle ‘be’ is one of the most productive monosyllables in the language.

As A Noun
- Be⁹ father-in-law
- Be⁸ fire
- Be⁷ belt
- Be⁶ path
- Be⁵ thorn, fish trap
- Be⁴ flower
- Be³ eel
- Be² tree fern

As A Verb Stem
- Be⁹ to be TOTALITY OF ACTION PUNCTUAL
- Be⁸ to be RESULTATIVE DURATIVE
- Be⁷ there is TELIC PUNCTUAL
- Be⁶ there is TELIC DURATIVE
- Be⁵-⁶ to fill up (gas tank) TOTALITY OF ACTION INCOMPLETIVE CHANGE OF STATE

---

⁶ A Rise-Fall contour was originally designated as tone 1. However, as language analysis progressed the tone 1 rise fall contour turned out to be comprised of a number of contrastive two tone sequences, all with an over all rise fall pattern, eg 6-3, 7-8, 7-4 and 8-4.
As An Adjective
Be⁴ white
Be⁸ long

A Noun Marker
Be⁴ causative agent (acts on /causes topic)
Be⁸ patient /instrument, means by which topic is affected
Be⁷ oblique marker (eg locative, nonfocal agent etc.)

A Reality Status Marker
be Durative Bounded viewpoint of the reality status of a proposition, ie the situation is realized in multiple occurrences over a period of time.
Be⁹ establishes /asserts past progressive or past habitual situation as fact.
Be⁸ views progressive /habitual situation as actually realized and of immediate relevance
Be⁷ views situation as a possible realization at some extended temporally definite time period (Subjunctive or Hypothetical)
be⁴ views a progressive /habitual situation as actually realized as of speech time

A Mood Marker
be Information in proposition is probably true, but speaker is uncertain
be⁹ Yes-No Question Marker. speaker does not anticipate significant hearer input.
Be³ Yes-No Question Marker. Speaker is not sure of information and expects /needs hearer input
Be⁴ Yes-No Question Marker. Speaker is not sure of information content at all. He feels there is a high probability the hearer will correct him.

8.2.2 Tone Sequences
In addition to the eight basic levels and contours, there are 4 combinations of 2 tone sequences that commonly occur on single syllables, The sequences ⁷⁻⁸ and ⁴⁻⁷ are the most common sequences on verbs, adjectives and particles. The following are some examples.

da⁸⁻⁴ mountain.
sae⁸⁻⁴ machete
Bau⁷⁻⁸(‘be⁷’) three (Note ⁷⁻⁸ is a tonal variant of ⁷⁻³.)
bui⁴⁻⁷ (se⁸) will cut down (intention marking particle)

The ⁴⁻⁷ sequence which occurs on telic verbs when combined with an intention indicating particle is very common and easily elicited.

Au⁷ u⁸ bui⁴⁻⁷ se⁵
He is going/intending to cut down a tree

The ⁷⁻⁸ sequences occurs on particles, adjectives and verbs except in certain rare occurrences on some verbs, it can also be easily elicited.

Bau⁷⁻⁸(‘be⁷’) three

Dy⁴da⁴ dv⁹ si⁴ av‘bv⁹ be⁶di⁷ so⁶ fv‘ty⁹ by⁷⁻⁸.
And so wife his later child boy give-birth-to
And so his wife later gave birth to a boy child.

Y⁸ su⁴ fe⁻⁸
we die lest/might
We might die./Lest we die (contradesiderative)

There are other tone sequences that occasionally show up on verbs expressing aspeclual nuances that are extremely contextual and speaker perspective oriented. These occur in natural text but are difficult to elicite.

Sui⁻³ to die (process change of state), Lit. enter into (the world of the dead). (⁹⁻⁸ ⁶⁻⁸ and ⁶⁻⁴ tone substitution morphemes in subordinate and linking clauses)
baui⁷⁻³ to finally reach ones destination. (⁴⁻⁴ tone substitution morpheme in linking dependent clauses)
by⁴ ba⁻³ to come to/arrive at (⁶⁻⁴ and ⁶⁻⁴ tone substitution morphemes in subordinate and linking clauses)
2.3 Syllable Structure

Iau is basically a monosyllabic language. The syllable structure allows complex syllable nuclei of up to 3 vowels. There are no consonant clusters and only one type of closed syllable ending in an unreleased [p] with very limited distribution.

### ONE SYLLABLE WORDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i³</th>
<th>ai³</th>
<th>aui³</th>
<th>sa³</th>
<th>dai³</th>
<th>bau³</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tree branch</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>sister</td>
<td>eat</td>
<td>cassowary</td>
<td>jaw, chin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Complex syllable nuclei of up to 3 vowels are allowed.

The eight Iau vowels a, i, -i, y, e, u, v, o are distributed in VV complex vowel nuclei as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V₁</th>
<th>V₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>ai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ai</td>
<td>ait</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>ay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>au</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>vy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>oe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that in the first vowel slot of VV nuclei, only a, and one of the back vowels u, v and o occur. In the second vowel slot i, -i, y, e occur. The back vowel u and v also occur. The vowels a and o do not occur as V².

There are only two types of VVV nuclei allowed, the sequence aui and the sequence avy as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V₁</th>
<th>V₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aui</td>
<td>avy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The level tones and contours are distributed over the complex syllable nuclei as a whole. (See Edmundson, Miehle, Bateman)

- da³⁴ mountain.
- bau³⁴ to reach an intermediate /temporary location.
- ba³ shoot, hit
- ba³³ come to a place
- sae³³ to cut up
- bau³ arrive
- bau³ jaw, chin
- bau³⁴ finally arrive /reach an intermediate destination

### 2.4 Stress

Stress is characterized by length.
2.4.1 Word Stress
Multisyllabic words carry stress.

Stress on indigenous Iau dissyllabic words falls on the final syllable.

- *i*su³ hair (head-hair)  V-CV
- *sa*i³ clothes (leaf-skin?)  CV-V
- *e*i³ shoes (foot-skin)  V-V

As stated above, most Iau two syllable words are morphologically complex. Shoes is actually foot-skin. Shoes are viewed as a kind of skin covering. It is the pragmatically (in this case also semantic) nuclear syllable meaning skin that get the stress. The modifier -foot, is unstressed. It is the same for i'su³, head hair. The word su means fur, hair, or feathers. The hair on our heads is a type of hair. The modifier ‘head’ describes which kind of hair is being referred to. The syllable meaning ‘hair’ is stressed and the modifier unstressed.

Stress on loan words from Indonesian keep the stress pattern of Indonesian which have stress on the next to last syllable.

- *u*du³fi³a³ (rupiah)  money
- *do*ba³ (domba)  congregation /sheep
- *sa*tu³ (satu)  one

2.4.2 Phrase and clause stress

Stress placement is not only pragmatically determined on the word level, but also on higher levels eg, word, phrase, clause etc. Stress on lower levels (such as word or phrase) is placed on the word or syllable that is the pragmatic nucleus of the phrase. The sentence below consisting of a noun phrase and a verb phrase illustrates this. The words in bold are stressed and have at least twice the length of the syllables in italic. The syllables in italic in turn have twice the length of the syllables in regular type

NP    Head    Adj    NPMkr    VP    Head    Mood
Fv⁷  i*si³ba³  be⁷  da³-i⁷  dy³.

Canoe big  the  carry-go Imperative

In the case of higher level structures (such as clause or sentence) extra stress is placed on the semantic unit that is focus /comment in the clause or sentence.

2.5 Words

Words are the smallest units of speech that can be spoken with meaning in isolation. They are potentially bounded by pause, and can written bounded by a space. Words in Iau like other languages are of 5 basic types, nouns (people, places, things, or names), verbs, adverbs, adjectives, and free standing grammatical particles or markings indicating relationships of grammatical units with each other.

2.5.1 Phonological Characteristics of Words

As noted at the beginning of this section, words in Iau are identified by potential pause preceeding or following the word. Words in Iau are mostly monosyllabic with some two syllable words and a few three syllable words.

Most monosyllabic words (V, VV, VVV, CV, CVV, CVVV, or CVC /VC) are indigenous Iau words. As nouns, adjectives, adverbs they are single morphemes. But as verbs and sometimes particles, they are morphemically complex as we shall see below.

2.5.2 Grammatical Characteristics of Words

Iau nouns are unmarked grammatically, or pragmatically. They occur in the beginning and middle parts of the sentence. They are optionally marked for pragmatic and semantic roles by the be particle.

Iau adjective are optionally marked for their pragmatic role in defining which item of several options is being dicussed. They are also marked by the focus particle be⁷ with a tone 7.

Iau adverbs can be marked in some cases also by the particle be with a tone 4
2.5.3 Multisyllabic Words
Multisyllabic words are often loan words from Indonesian or morphemically complex. These two types differ in stress patterns. Indigenous Iau multi morpheme, multisyllable words have word final stress. This is because stress is pragmatically determined. Stress marks the nuclear component of the grammatical unit and is manifested by length.

3.0 MORPHEMES AND MORPHOLOGICALLY COMPLEX WORDS
In this section we will discuss morphologically complex words in Iau. We will mainly discuss verb roots, stems and words as well as nouns and the clitics /affixes(?)

3.1 Verb Roots Stems And Words

3.1.1 Phonological Structure
Iau verbs, even the monosyllabic ones, are morphologically complex structures. A verb stem in its most minimal form consists of a vowel and a tone, but most have a consonant onset. And the vowel cluster can have up to three vowels. A verb stem may have a single tone or a cluster of tones. The eight basic tone morphemes, each a composite of 2 different aspectual viewpoints, are discussed in Bateman, 1986 ‘The tone morphemes and aspect in Iau.’ How the tone meanings interact with the segmental roots and stems will be discussed in a separate section below. (See Pawley 1987, 2006 for a non tonal language with complex predicates.)

The following are some examples of Iau verbs consisting only of a vowel root and a tone.

+Vowel ROOT (1) +TONE

u⁹ go down from
o³ float
a⁷-³ scatter seed
i⁵ process sago
y³ answer, cry out

The following are examples of a few verbs consisting of a consonant onset, a vowel and a tone.

+/−Consonant ROOT +Vowel ROOT (1) + TONE

bu¹ burn down
da¹ ate it up
si³ eat, bite
te¹ lean against
ff³ grow, swell, rise (river)

The following are examples of verbs consisting of a consonant onset, two vowels and a tone.

+/−Consonant ROOT +Vowel ROOT (1) + Vowel ROOT (2) + TONE

bui³ cut down a tree
bai³ go into
(bv³) tai³ come in
da¹ cross over (river)
bae⁰ shine on/in (sun)
daes³ immerse in water
saes³ cut up into pieces
kae⁰ tie up, bundle
boe³ to get mired /sink in the mud
toe³ to throw
tav⁶ part (ie open up a space among)
bae⁶ come down to

The following are examples of verbs consisting of a consonant onset, three vowels and a tone.

+/−Consonant ROOT +Vowel ROOT (1) + Vowel ROOT (2) Vowel ROOT (3) + ASPECT

TONE
bui³ reach a certain point, arrive at
da³ build, construct, put together
tavy⁶ do, make, work on, work
savy⁶ pant, take in air with big breaths
kavy⁶ move(intransitive)

See the section on syllables in the phonology section for a listing of the vowel combinations that are allowed in complex nuclei in Iau.

3.1.2 Iau Segmental Verb Roots

In an article about Kalam, a Papuan language with a closed set of 90 verbs, Pawley (1987:336-338) says these 90 verbs are composed of fewer than 30 verb roots, all having very broad or abstract meanings. These verb roots are strung together in serial verb constructions to comprise 90% of all verbs occurring in Kalam texts. In Kalam, these strings of generic verbs are used to indicate lexically complex events such as ‘hunt’, ‘carry’, ‘send to jail’. There are also many ongoing studies in Southeast Asia concerning the phenomena of “complex verbs”, light or vector verbs, serial verbs etc.

In Iau, monosyllabic segmental verb stems likewise seem to be composed of strings of consonant and vowel root morphemes which combine to form stems with broad abstract meanings that are further defined from context, from number of arguments for the predicate in the context, and also by the aspect of the super-imposed aspect tone morphemes. This is illustrated by Iau verbs formed with the consonant “b” below.

‘b’ Motion towards and reaching /acting on a goal /location

- Some of the Iau verbs built from the root “b” +vowel
- ba³ to come (process); to shoot, kill, throw at (a rock at someone)
- ba⁶ come
- be⁹ to paint
- bi³ to arrive
- baui³ to arrive at /reach
- ba⁹ to come to
- da³ba⁹ to bring to
- bai³ beach /dock a canoe
- bae⁹ (sun /light) shine in on
- bu⁵ burn down
- bu³ cut down (tree)
- bo³ to lower into a hole, to lower to the ground
- boe³ to lower into a hole, to lower to the ground

Although the individual lexical definitions of these verbs beginning with the consonant ‘b’ vary widely, note that they all share common spatial and directional motion orientation between the participants and the action. All the “b” verbs listed above have to do with motion towards a goal location which results in contact or action on/at that goal-location. The vowels mark various viewpoints of this action.

For example, in the list above, the verbs be³ and ba⁹ /ba³ /ba⁶ all involve a locative relationship between an object and a goal location, but the vowel ‘e’ has stative qualities. To paint something involves permanently locating and coating the goal location with the paint. The vowel ‘a’ has a more generic motion viewpoint, to locate at a place. Both “ba³” and “ba⁹” involve a moving object moving towards a goal and locating there. The verb “bi³” is an action that stresses accomplishment, the total completion of the motion. To have arrived focuses on the completion of the action of moving towards a goal reaching it and being there. The verb “bæ³” to reach a location is used in travel logs to indicate an intermediate or endpoint goal achieved. The focus is more on the process of struggle or motion ending in achievement of an intermediate goal to come/get as far as that location, implying a goal beyond that one, or in some contexts a barely achieved goal.

The verb ‘ba³’ marked with a resultative aspect tone 6 means ‘to have come to’. This is illustrated more clearly in the compound verb ‘da³ba⁶’ to bring s. to a location. The addition of the more effective action completive viewpoint vowel “i”, forming the verb bai³ in a context where a person is travelling in a canoe, gives the meaning ‘to beach or dock a canoe’ meaning to

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7Note to myself --See the Rice University (Houston Tx) ‘Eleventh Biennial Symposium: Intertheoretical Approaches to Complex Verb Constructions’ for many interesting papers on this topic to apply to Iau at some later date and investigate this topic more thoroughly.)
put it to shore and tie it up there or to run it aground on the beach. “Bai³ ba⁹” means the sun comes up. But “Bai³ bae⁵” means the sunshine locates or comes onto something, that is, it shines in on something.

The list above illustrates how the meaning of the consonants and the vowel(s) interact with the context and the tone morphemes to indicate which specific meaning should be assigned to the verb. For example, the verb ba³, ‘to move towards a goal and locate there’ in the context of hunting or fighting with weapons, means to shoot at and hit something, to kill it. In other contexts it can mean just to hit as in throwing a rock and hitting the target. However in a more intransitive context with only a moving object and a location, ‘ba³’ can mean to come (durative process) as opposed to “ba⁹” come (totality of action, punctual).

The verb ‘bu⁵’ means to burn down. It is a highly effective transitive action, with the agent totally affecting the undergoer. With the addition of the complete action morpheme “i” and a telic aspect tone 5, the verb bui⁵ means to cut down /fell a tree. That, is the tree is caused to fall to the ground/move towards its inevitable and final action endpoint. This is a motion in which the totally affected undergoer moves to and contacts the goal location, the ground.

The verb ‘bo⁵’ refers to the act of sitting down -usually on the ground or the floor or often in a squatting position. The person lowers his backside to the floor. (The verb for being seated is a different verb “b” verb bau⁴de⁹—a stative verb.) The verb “boe⁵” means to lower something into a hole, or down to the ground, or to hold out something for someone to see, to demonstrate.

The following charts show the general meanings of Iau consonant and vowel verb roots that combine to form Iau verb stems.

### 3.1.2.1 Consonant Root Meanings

(These do not occur in isolation, of course)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation:</th>
<th>Spatial</th>
<th>Transitivity Actor/Agent Focus</th>
<th>Undergoer Focus</th>
<th>Become cause become</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>motion to a location</td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td>Become cause become</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>motion to a location</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>motion into a location</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>motion into a location</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>motion at /onto the periphery</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>motion at /onto the periphery</td>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3.1.2.2 Vowel Root Meanings in V and CV Verbs

In the chart below, there is a directional orientation column but also as semantic aspect column since some vowel roots have homonyms as as verbs with directional orientation and other homonyms as operators and particles that define a semantic aspect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Directional Orientation</th>
<th>Semantic Aspect Definers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>move-locate</td>
<td>Motion toward goal (ba⁸ come, came da⁸ dip in water sa³ bite, eat,) DO BECOME; CAUSE BECOME ba³, di³,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>located on</td>
<td>Location/existence (be³ there is/are) CAUSE STATE BE IN A STATE (be³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>move, travel</td>
<td>motion /travel into and through /throughout a location or path zə t= go; bi³ arrive, di³ hit, fi³ swell/grow) si³ push DO TOTALLY (Da⁸ dip in water--dai⁸ cross river, ba⁸ come bai³ (sun’s rays) shine in on)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>move, respond /react</td>
<td>limit motion to bounded location (by³ jump up and down in place) BE AFFECTED BY (sy⁸ obligation, dy⁴ do like that)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>join</td>
<td>Move away from one; (tv⁸ go away, leave went) yet move towards another (bv⁸ goal location) ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>Movement to/at the surface</td>
<td>come to surface of (o³ to float; bo³ sit down;) come off the surface of (fo³ undress, untie, fo⁴ hanging down from) o³ take, receive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>move /act on</td>
<td>move in a downward OR out and down direction (bu⁴ burn down a house bui³ fell a tree (cut off totally and cause to fall to the ground) TOTALLY AFFECTED UNDERGOER</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The monosyllabic consonant and vowel verb roots listed above encode general spatial, locational, directional and relational viewpoints, static vs dynamic viewpoints and transitivity viewpoints. As indicated in the list above, most of the vowel roots occur in isolation as verbs. But consonant roots, of course, do not occur in isolation.

### 3.1.2.3 Vowel Root Meanings Of The Second Or Third Vowels In The Verb Stem

We have seen in section 2.3 on Iau syllable structure that Iau syllable nuclei can consist of one, two or three vowels (V, VV, VVV) In verb stems with vowel clusters VV or VVV, the second or third vowel marks transitivity, that is, the degree of effectiveness, the degree of completion of the action, or some limitation on the action or affectedness of the undergoer

“e” =cause become, become; “i” indicates totally do the action, effective action; “y” has to do with a boundary or limitation at a location “u” indicates action against the undergoer, down on the undergoer location

TA ta⁸ be in/in contact to ta³ touch (with hand), ta³ push, empower, authorize/back someone
TAE (boat) tae³ run aground/beached /grounded
TAY tay³ tie up, restrain in a location
TAI tai⁶ land (a plane)
TAU tau³ to pound eg with a stick, hit repeatedly as in making bark cloth

BA to move to and arrive in a location ba⁹ come, ba¹ shoot, ba² attach to
BAE to move to and arrive in a location bae³ drop someone off somewhere and be there; sun shines in on you (in house)
BAY move to, locate in a location, and limit location to that place bay⁹ give, bay⁹ put, bay³ down under
BAI to move to and enter into a location bai⁶ go into, pulverize (by pounding)
BAU to go down bau⁶ go down out of (eg house)

KA ka² surround, be in the middle of
KAE kae⁹ to wrap, to tie in a bundle, to tie

DA da⁹ have eaten /eat up, da³ to load a vehicle, da³ (carry+ used with a verb of motion come/go etc)
DAE dae² launch a new canoe, cast a hook and line, sink/submerge/dunk; dae⁶/3 cross/ford a river; stretch out ones arm/hand
DAY; day travel across a surface (with adverb quickly =run) day⁹ travel over to/as far as a certain named place
DAI dai³ travel to/cross the intervening distance, arm full length, dai⁶ cross to the other side of lake/river

SA sa³ to bite, eat, chew; insert into; sa⁹ an arrow hits and enters s.
SAE sae³ shatter, break into pieces; sae⁹ suffer splitting pain.headache, cut up, butcher

BO move to surface of bo⁵ act of sitting, bo⁵ twist fibers around each other causing them to alternately come to the top of the string
BOE to be in a position of coming down toward boe⁴ to give to someone on lower level, to lower s. down to something boe³ sink into (mud) boe³ to show someone something
BOI to move away towards to fullest extent boi⁵⁻³ dissappear down into
3.1.2 Iau Verb Stem

The verb roots combine to form segmental verb stems. As we have seen above, each verb stem has a general abstract meaning which is a combination of the meanings of the consonant and vowel roots of which it is composed. This is illustrated again by the chart below of some of the “b” verb stems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Meaning</th>
<th>Specific Lexical Meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BA</td>
<td>to move to and arrive in a location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAE</td>
<td>to move to, arrive in a location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAY</td>
<td>move to, locate in a location, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAI</td>
<td>to move to and enter into a location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAU</td>
<td>to move down to &amp; arrive in a location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAUI</td>
<td>to move away to a location, arrive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAV</td>
<td>come off/away from?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAVY</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BE</td>
<td>be in or on a place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>to have entered into a location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BY</td>
<td>to limit location to specific location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BU</td>
<td>move down on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUI</td>
<td>to move down on a location and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BV</td>
<td>move towards do because of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BO</td>
<td>move to surface of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOE</td>
<td>to be in a position of coming down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOI</td>
<td>to move away towards to fullest extent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The semantic and grammatical contexts in which the verb stem occurs are the main factors governing the specific lexical meaning of the stem. The following are some examples.

**Stem Meaning**

**BA** to move to and arrive in a location

**English glosses**

come, shoot, attach to

Da’ bvª fe³ki³ ba³.
dog I rock hit-TOT.DUR

I hit the dog with a rock.

Bvªku³ dei³ ba³ dy³.
book wall attach-TEL.INC Imp

Attach the paper to the wall.
Fv⁷ da⁸ u⁶ ui⁶-* be⁷ ba³
plane now before fly  SCIC⁹j come-TOT.DUR
di⁹du⁸*be⁷ da⁸bi⁸ ka*di⁸ be⁷ be³ se⁷
but cloud many  BFocus-Oblq are-TEL.PUN SCIC⁹j-since
e⁹ta⁹tau⁷ tv⁹ y⁹.
again  leave-TOT.PUN Stmt

The plane was just now in the air coming here, but because there are many clouds it had to go away again.

BO move to surface of /motion onto away from act of sitting, or act of twist
fibers into string
Si⁶ a*se⁹ ui⁸ bv³* bai² da*dv³ bo³.
woman SqMkr house to enter MCIC⁹j sit-TEL.PUN
The woman came into the house and sat down.
Si⁶ a*se⁹ foe² bo³.
woman SqMkr fiber twist-TEL.PUN
The woman rolled the fibers together (into string) – (a motion down by rolling the fiber
down one’s thigh with a down and away

3.1.3 The Iau Tone Morphemes

Unlike nouns, adjectives and adverbs where tone is for the most part an integral part of the word, tones on verbs and particles are separate morphemes, modifying the meaning of the segmental components. The tones on verbs form a detailed aspect system. The table below shows the 6 parameters of aspect in Iau. They are punctual versus durative versus incompletive viewpoints of the event, and totality of action versus resultative versus telic viewpoints of the action. These 6 parameters form an 8 aspect tone system. There is no resultative-incompletive in the Iau system so that box is empty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Viewpoint</th>
<th>Punctual</th>
<th>Temporal Viewpoint</th>
<th>Durative</th>
<th>Incompletive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totality Of Action</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following sentences illustrate the differences between the three temporal viewpoints.

**PUNCTUAL**
Fv⁷ a*se³ ba³.
plane SqMkr come-TOT.PUN
The plane has come.

**DURATIVE**
Fv⁷ a*se³ ui⁶-* be⁷ ba³
plane Sqmkr fly  SCIC⁹j come-TOT.DUR
The plane is in the air on it's way here /coming here.

**INCOMPLETIVE**
Ba⁷ dy³.
come-TOT.INC Imp
Come!

A punctual viewpoint views the action as occurring as if it were a single point in time. In the example above, come has perfective viewpoint. It is viewed as having happened.

A durative viewpoint views the action as occurring over a period of time, usually overlapping with other events or the time of speech. Example * above represents a durative viewpoint of the verb ba 'come'.

An incompletive viewpoint views the action as unfinished, or in the case of Iau incompletive it includes irrealis, not yet begun viewpoints also. Example * above is a command which requires an irrealis incompletive viewpoint of the verb ba 'come'.
The following examples illustrate the differences between totality of action, resultative and telic viewpoints.

**TOTALITY OF ACTION**
Di⁹ bv⁶ doe⁷ se⁵. Dy⁴ da⁶ dv⁹ ha⁴.
You I see intended And so **come PUN.TOT**
I wanted to see you. And so I came. /I came to see you.

A punctual totality of action verb simply expresses the doing of the action of moving to a location as a unit has been done, glossed ‘came’.

**RESULTATIVE**
Da⁸ bu⁸ a⁷ se⁹ da⁶ -ba⁷.
squash I SeqMr carry-come to **PUN.RES**
I have brought this/the squash to you /Here it is, I have brought you the squash.

A punctual resultative verb view the event of coming in terms of it’s result. The squash was brought and is now here, in the current location /context.

**TELIC**
Vy⁸ fi⁸ e⁷ ba⁶ bv⁸ vy⁸ du⁷ be⁷ sai⁷ fo⁷ ba⁴ de⁴.
blood likewise this, blood that just **come-TEL.PUN-stative**
(Blood oozing out of a wound, but not dripping) This blood, likewise, is blood that is just sticking on/attached in place

Ty⁷ bo⁷ to⁸ fv⁷ da⁶ ba⁷ -e⁶."
people motor boat now come-ones that

"Ty⁷ te⁷ bai⁷ de⁷ du⁷ be⁸ ba⁷?"
people which ones that **come-TEL.PUN**

Ty⁷ da⁶ fa⁹ Do² bv⁸ tv⁹ di⁸ e⁸
people recent past Do(people) to/goal went away DefRealis -ones that

Ty⁷ by⁶ by⁶ du⁷ be⁸ ba⁷ to⁷." people its those who new-info-Agent come-Tot.Inc emph assert
"The people now coming in a motor boat." "Which people is it that are coming back here?" "It's the people that just recently went away to Do that are coming /arriving, of course."

The punctual telic tone morpheme views the event of coming to a location as the completion of a cycle so to speak. It can be glossed as come back/return, come back to one’s starting point. In other contexts like the slow small oozing of blood from a wound, the blood comes out but stays in that spot.

In the telic verb ‘come’ the endpoint location of the event come is fixed Also it is the same as the beginning point. The telic durative aspect of come is glossed as attach to /adhere to.

The aspect tones illustrated above are made up of both lexical and grammatical aspect parameters. The three aspectual viewpoints that heavily influence lexical meaning of the verb as well as indicating degree of transitivity of the action represented by the verb stem are located along the left side of the chart below. These are the **totality of action, resultative, and telic viewpoints**. These will be discussed under lexical aspect below. The three grammatical aspectual viewpoints in Iau are located across the top of the chart below. These are **perfective/punctual, imperfective /durative, and incompletive**. The grammatical viewpoints will be discussed in 3.1.3.2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Punctual</th>
<th>Durative</th>
<th>Incompletive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>⁹</td>
<td>³</td>
<td>⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⁶</td>
<td>²</td>
<td>⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⁵</td>
<td>²</td>
<td>⁴</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.3.1 Lexical Aspect And The Iau Tone Morphemes
Verbs are about events. There are inherently different types of events in the world. Some events like boil /bring to a boil, or the rising and setting of the sun are inherent processes. Some like the verb “run” inherently continue over time. Some events are processes with inherent endpoints, like a tree falling to the ground. Some events like go, or come, are spoken of and viewed in their totality, without focussing on any one part of the event. In many languages this information is mostly implicit in the lexical meaning of the verb. In Iau, however, much of this type of information is not indicated by the lexical form of the verb but by a combination of context and tone morpheme aspect.

The chart below gives various examples of sets of verbs having the same segmental stem and different lexical meanings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB ASPECT</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ba</td>
<td>tai</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totality of Action Event</td>
<td>ba° come, has come</td>
<td>tai° pull (motion towards actor)</td>
<td>i° go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totality of Action Process</td>
<td>ba³ shoot, throw</td>
<td>tai³ boil (/bubble up towards observer)</td>
<td>i³ (sun) goes down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telic Verbs</td>
<td>ba¹ circle and come back to same spot</td>
<td>tai² fall (tree)</td>
<td>i³ press down into (process sago pulp with water)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>hit(by throwing s.)</td>
<td>tai² is falling (tree)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultative</td>
<td>ba² to attach something to s.</td>
<td>tai² deº fallen (stative form)</td>
<td>/is on the ground (plane)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Some additional examples**

The Iau verb boe³ (to go down to /into) can mean “show someone something” (as in holding it out in your hand for someone to see), “to be muddied/have dirt mixed in (water)”, “to sink down into (mud), to experience (difficulties)

The following sentences using boe³ in its various meanings illustrate how different arguments plus a different semantic context, indicate it’s meaning in that sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loc Undergoer</th>
<th>Agent</th>
<th>experiencer</th>
<th>very</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A°kv³</td>
<td>i³si°ba’ au’</td>
<td>1 Seq Mkr</td>
<td>Y³ o³sy³ boe³ showed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweet potato</td>
<td>big very</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I showed my younger brother the very big sweet potato.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loc Undergoer</th>
<th>Agent</th>
<th>verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y7</td>
<td>a°</td>
<td>boe³ go down in &amp;mix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>dirt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The water was muddied/had dirt mixed down in it.
We fell into /experienced heaviness /difficulties.

The following examples of the verb stem bae illustrate the influence of context on specific meanings /lexical glosses.

Bae³ put (nails) into, OR shoot (arrow) into/hit with an arrow

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Ty}^\# & \, \text{fv}^\# \text{bo}^\# \text{ba}^\# \, \text{be}^\# \, \text{fa}^\# \text{ku}^\# \, \text{bae}^\# \, \text{be}^\# \, \text{sui}^\#. \\
\text{Wood cross} & \, \text{SubCl} \, \text{nail} \, \text{enter} \, \text{into} \, \text{SubCl} \, \text{died} \\
\text{Crossing} & \, \text{two (pieces of) wood,} \, \text{nailing} \, \text{him}, \, \text{he died.}
\end{align*}
\]

Bow SqM take SubCl arrow SqM Shoot -Telic.Durative when

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a}^\# \text{se}^\# & \, \text{bae}^3. \\
\text{Dy}^\# \text{be}^\# & \, \text{a}^\# \text{se}^\# \, \text{e}^\# \text{ta}^\# \text{fau}^\# \, \text{ka}^\# \, \text{a}^\# \, \text{bae}^3. \\
\text{SqMk shoot on target Tot.Dur} & \, \text{And then,} \, \text{SqMk again} \, \text{arrow} \, \text{another shoot} \, \text{on target} \, \text{Tot.Dur}
\end{align*}
\]

Picking up my bow, I was shooting a fi arrow into it, and I hit it (right on target). Then I shot it again with another arrow.

Bae⁵ shine in on, drop off at, shoot (arrow) into (The telic durative form is bae²)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Ty}^\# & \, \text{bi}^\# \text{si}^\# \, \text{y}^\# \, \text{a}^\# \text{se}^\# \, \text{Fai}^\# \text{tau}^\# \, \text{bae}^2. \\
\text{Person one we SqMk Faitau drop off/go to shore and let someone out of vehicle and continue journey} \, \text{We dropped someone off at the village of Faitau.} \, \text{(travelling by river in canoe)}
\end{align*}
\]

Bow SqM take SubCl arrow SqM Shoot -Telic.Durative when

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a}^\# \text{se}^\# & \, \text{bae}^3. \\
\text{Dy}^\# \text{be}^\# & \, \text{a}^\# \text{se}^\# \, \text{e}^\# \text{ta}^\# \text{fau}^\# \, \text{ka}^\# \, \text{a}^\# \, \text{bae}^3. \\
\text{Picking up my bow, I was shooting a fi arrow into it, and I hit it (right on target).}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Bai}^\# & \, \text{o}^\# \text{su}^\# \, \text{bae}^3 \, \text{da}^\# \text{dv}^\# \, \text{a}^\# \, \text{bai}^\# \, \text{su}^\# \, \text{a}^\#. \\
\text{Sun ray} & \, \text{shine in} \, \text{Tel.Dur} \, \text{and-thn} \, \text{I sun dry up} \, \text{Mult Act Fact} \, \text{The sun is shining in and making me hot}
\end{align*}
\]

Bae⁶ (punc.result) take on (water)/got in, washed up (shore)/beached

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{…fv}^\# & \, \text{fi}^\# \text{au}^\# \, \text{bi}^\# \text{bi}^\# \, \text{se}^\# \, \text{bau}^\# \, \text{da}^\# \text{dv}^\# \, \text{y}^\# \, \text{be}^\# \, \text{bae}^6. \\
\text{Canoe} & \, \text{really} \, \text{go up manner} \, \text{go down and then water} \, \text{entered} \\
\text{… the boat was plunging/bobbin up and down and so, it was taking on water /Water was} & \, \text{coming into the boat.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Di}^\# \text{du}^\# \text{be}^\# & \, \text{ty}^\# \, \text{fi}^\# \, \text{Mesir} \, \text{by}^\# \, \text{du}^\# \text{be}^\#, \, \text{sv}^\# \, \text{y}^\# \text{di}^\# \, \text{da}^\# \, \text{fa}^\# \, \text{by}^\# \text{ta}^\# \, \text{bae}^6. \\
\text{But} & \, \text{person group Egypt corpses that} \, \text{only water by carry shore edge} \, \text{washed up} \\
\text{But} & \, \text{it was only the dead bodies of the Egyptians that carried by the water, were washed up} \, \text{on the shore.}
\end{align*}
\]

3.1.3.2 Grammatical Aspect and the Iau Tone Morphemes

Grammatical aspect is used to show the relationship of actions and states to time and to the other events in the context. Grammatical aspect signals the temporal viewpoint of the event such as punctual/perfective (as single unit), durative/imperfective (occurs over extended period of time, overlapping, repetitive, gnomic or generic truth statements and the like) as well as various
temporal aspects of the event like inceptive, incompletive /interrupted etc. Grammatical aspect is governed by the grammatical context.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical Aspect</th>
<th>Punctual/Perfective</th>
<th>Durative/Imperfective</th>
<th>Incompletive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totality Of Action</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Punctual aspect** sees the action simply as something that happens or has happened. This is the aspect used most often in chains of actions related by cause-effect or chronological sequence. Each action is seen as a unit or point in time or on an eventline. It other kinds of discourse it is used on statements of fact and assertions. The three punctual aspects are totality of action, resultative events and telic events. Punctual-Totality of Action viewpoint aspect is often referred to as PERFECTIVE aspect.

**Durative aspect** sees the event as a process or extended action occurring over time. The linguistic terms progressive, continuative, durative, and repetitive /iterative all refer to actions occurring over an extended period of time, often overlapping with other events and occurring multiple times, but number and time of occurrence is indefinite. The three durative aspects are totality of action, resultative events and telic processes and events. Durative aspect verbs are often referred to as IMPERFECTIVE verbs.

**Incompletive aspectual viewpoints** view the action as incomplete in some way. Inceptive viewpoints view the action as just beginning (began to, started to). Incompletive verbs can include interrupted, or postponed actions. Or they can have no definite ending.

In Iau events that are planned, but not yet executed, about to begin but not yet, also have an incompletive aspectual viewpoint as well as discussions of events as possible or probable. Using incompletive aspect the Iau can discuss hypothetical events as well. These events are irrealis (never happened) but are being viewed as if they had happened or will happen. There are only two incompletive aspects in Iau, totality of action and telic action.

This is summarized in the following chart:

**Semantic Aspect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Aspect</th>
<th>Grammatical Aspect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Totality</td>
<td>Punctual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Durative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incompletive /Irrealis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action= unit whole Point in time</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process, Doing the action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incompletive or Irrealis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultative</td>
<td>Achievements, Affected undergoers, actors, and experiencers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accomplishment Result of Process Long term effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In process toward Natural endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Natural endpoint not reached Hypothetical, or partial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telic</td>
<td>Natural endpoint realized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.3.3 Tone Classes And Their Grammatical Variants

Sections 3.1.3.1 and 3.1.3.2 dealt with the issues of semantic aspect viewpoints of an event realized in the languages lexicon and grammatical aspect in Iau. As stated in the opening to 3.1.3.1, another way of looking at the Iau aspect tone morphemes is to use the tone morphemes to divide Iau verbs into lexical classes. This would divide Iau verbs into tone classes.

In the tone aspect morpheme chart below, there are four of the basic aspects that often result in different lexical meanings.
Three of these tone aspects are along the left side of the chart. They are the totality of action, resultative and telic viewpoints. In addition, the durative aspect on the top center of the chart sometimes results in different lexical meanings.

The four lexical aspect morphemes Totality of Action Punctual and Durative, Telic and Resultative divide lau verbs into 4 aspectual tone classes. The four classes are shown above. Each class except Resultative has one or more grammatical variants.

- **Totality Of Actions Events** have a punctual form –tone 9 and an incompletive/irrealis form tone 7.
- **Totality of Action Process verbs** have a process form –tone 3 and a resultative durative form, tone 8.
- **Telic Verbs** have a punctual form, tone 5, a incompletive form—tone 4 and a durative process form –tone 2.
- **Resultative Verbs** have only one form—tone 6 Resultative-Punctual.

The punctual forms (9,6,5) along with the totality of action durative form (3) are used to assert occurrence and assert as fact. The durative and incompletive forms (7,4,8,2) are used in grammatical contexts that require irrealis, completive, durative or resultative forms.

**Tone Class Totality of Action Events (9,7)**

Totality of Action tone 9 verbs regularly substitute tone 7 in irrealis grammatical contexts like imperatives, intentions and statements of probability or future predictions. The following are some typical uses of tone 9 and tone 7 for this tone class.

- **A⁹ ba⁹ bi⁷fa⁹**
  - I word speak-Tot.Punc
  - I speak words/ I spoke
- **Ba⁹ bi⁷fa⁷**
  - Word speak-Tot.Inc command
  - Speak words! /Speak! Say something!
  - (Speaking has not yet happened, but is proposed/commanded so that requires a tone 7 irrealis.)
- **Ba⁹ bi⁷fa⁷**
  - Word speak-Tot.Inc intend
  - I intend to speak. I intend to/am going to say something.
  - (Speaking has not yet happened, but is proposed/commanded so that requires a tone 7 irrealis.)
- **Ba⁹ bi⁷fa⁷**
  - Word speak-Tot.Inc might, will
  - He will /might speak.
  - (Speaking has not yet happened, but is proposed/commanded so that requires a tone 7 irrealis.)

In this first set of examples, there is a realis statement with tone 9. The following examples with tone 7 are all situations where the action is contemplated but has not actually happened. The next example is a medial verb clause—and if or when clause, part of a conditional sentence..

- **A⁹ ba⁹ bi⁷fa⁷**
  - da⁴dv⁹, ty⁷ to⁵ v⁷ bv⁸ dui⁸ da⁸ ae⁴.
  - I Word speak-Tot.Inc and-then peole not heart becz shake presupposed not-Emph
If I speak, no way people will be happy / will not be happy at all.

The tone class 9 event above is hypothetical, not realis and may never happen. So it is marked by a tone 7 as such.

The following example is taken from a narrative sequence of events, linked by medial verb repetitive clauses. The linking clauses signal the chain is not finished, another event follows.

\[ \text{A^3 a^5 se^9 ba^2 bi^5 fa^9.} \]

1. SqMk word speak-Tot.Punc Word speak-Tot.Inc and-then

\[ \text{ui^1 bv^7 i^9.} \]

\[ \text{Ui^1 bv^7 i^9, da^8 dv^9, di^9 sa^1.} \]

house to go. Tot.Punc house to go-Tot.Inc and-then, food eat Tot.Dur

I spoke. I spoke and then. I went home. I went home and then I ate food.

This example illustrates the substitution of a tone 7 incomplete aspect in the repeated clause that indicates the chain of events in not complete. There is more to follow. The main events of the chain are all marked by Totality of Action view points as independent main clause verbs. I spoke. I went home. I ate.

When events are irrealis in the sense of being unrealized, still in the future, tone 7 telic incompletive is substituted for tone 9.

\[ \text{Y^8 a^6 se^9 a^5 taui-9 VS} \]

we SqMkr land work-Tot.Pun

We have weeded.

\[ \text{Y^8 a^6 taui-7 se^5} \]

we land work-Tot.Inc intend

We are going to weed.

The tone 7 is also substituted for tone 9 in medial verb repeated information linking clause to signal that the chain of events is incomplete, more is yet to come.

\[ \text{Y^8 a^6 se^9 ui^1 bv^7 i^9. VS Y^8 ui^1 bv^7 i^7 da^8 dv^9} \]

we SqMkr house to go-Tot.Pun

We went to the house.

we house to go-Tot.Inc MCICj

We went to the house and then, ...

Some examples of Totality of Action – Punctual Verbs

i^9 go

u^9 come down

o^9 to take, get, catch

ay^9 put, place

doe^9 see

tau^9 do, make

davy^9 build (house)

bavy^9 sting, burn, hurt

fv^9 fa^9 go around

tv^9 went away

si^9 urinate

ui^9 si^9 put up hand, a flag, extend arms in upward direction

bi^9 fa^9 speak, say, said

ba^9 come to a location

tai^9 pull

da^9 have eaten / eaten up, ate

**Tone Class Totality of Action Process Verbs (3,8,7)**

Tone 3 verbs, Totality of Action Process verbs view the action as a process, that is as durative / continuative / as an action that starts and moves through the process of doing that thing to completion. This is illustrated by the verb “di^9” which means to hit or to kill.

\[ \text{Au^7 a^5 se^9 du^9 di^3.} \]

\[ \text{he SqMkr pig kill-Tot.Dur} \]

He killed the pig.

Another example is the process verb i^9.

\[ \text{Bai^7 a^5 se^9 i^5.} \]

\[ \text{Dy^4 da^5 dv^9 y^9 be^5 dy^4 ui^1 bv^9 i^9.} \]

sun SqMkr go down Tot.Dur And therefore we as a result house to go Tot.Pun.

The sun was going down. Therefore we, as a result went home.
When a process is being viewed in terms of its end result, a tone 8, resultative durative, is substituted for a tone 3 totality of action. Imperatives do not take the totality of action form of the verb but require the resultative aspect, since the process result is in view in a command form.

Auʔ a’seʔ duʔ di-3.
he SqMkr pig kill-Tot.Dur
He killed the pig.

VS
Duʔ di-8 dy³.
pig kill-Res.Dur Imper
Kill the pig!

The tone 8 is also substituted for tone 3 in medial verb repeated information linking clause to signal that the result of the process has been achieved

Di³ y³ a’se³ sa-3.           Sa-8 da³dv³
food we SqMkr eat-Tot.Dur      eat-Res.Dur MCICj
We ate the food

When a totality of action process verb is viewed as something possibly happening or happening in the future it takes the incompletive form, tone 7. In the example below, killing the pig is the actor’s intention but it has not happened as yet.

VS     Auʔ du³ di-7 se³.
he    pig  kill-Tot.Inc Intend
He is intending /going to kill the wild pig.

Some examples of Totality of Action – Process Verbs

i³(sun) goes down
ba³ shoot (an arrow at s.)
di³ hit someone, kill someone
du³ to go around doing something, to walk around
bi³ arrive in a place
by³ to dance (jumping up and down and also motion back and forth)
bau³ get there, arrive at a destination
boe³ put/go down in, hold out (arms extended and lowered) / show or demonstrate
sà³ bite, chew, eat, get wet (from rain)
tai³ boil (action of the liquid in the pot), enter (from perspective of people in the house)
oe³ be in (nest / the house, the jungle)
fvy³ harvest
fa³ cut, cut in pieces

Tone Class Telic Verbs (5,2,4)

In the context of a discourse, tone 4 telic incompletive is sometimes substituted for tone 5 telic punctual aspect. This occurs when the event is postponed or not completed

A³ a’se³ u³ bi-5 VERSUS A³ u³ bi³ di³du³be³
I SqMkr tree climb-Tel.Pun I tree climb-Tel.Inc but
I climbed the tree.
I was climbing the tree but ...

Tone 4 is also substituted for a tone 5 in medial verb repeated information linking clause to signal that the telic endpoint of the action is not the telic endpoint of the event chain. The following are some examples.

A³ a’se³ fa³fu³ bui³.         VS  A’se³ fa³fu³ bui-4 da³dv³
tree SqMkr all cut down- Tel.Pun  SqMkr all cut down- Tel.Inc MCICj
All the trees were cut down.      When all the trees had been cut down....

A tone 2 telic durative is substituted for a tone 5 telic punctual aspect when the action is in process moving towards its endpoint. The following is an example.

U³ a’se³ tai-5.       VS  Ty³da’y³ u³ tai² da³dv³
tree SqMkr fall-Tel.Pun  people tree fall-Tel.Dur MCICj
The tree fell to the ground.   People! When the tree is falling, (get out of the way.)
In cases where a telic verb is paired with a particle requiring irrealis such as an intention statement, tone 4 telic incompletive is substituted for the punctual form 5. But in addition, 7 totality of action incompletive must also be added forming the tone cluster ⁴⁻⁷. The verb foi⁵ ‘tell /ask’ is a telic completive verb.

Some examples of Telic Punctual Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bui⁵</td>
<td>cut down a tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sui⁵</td>
<td>has died</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su⁵</td>
<td>get sick, in some contexts = to die</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sa⁵</td>
<td>arrow hits the target</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ba⁵</td>
<td>come around to ones starting point again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti⁵</td>
<td>someone receives /is given something; give something away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bay⁵</td>
<td>give someone something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toe⁵</td>
<td>throw away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si?toe⁵</td>
<td>push away, shove s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be⁵</td>
<td>exist, be present, be in a location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bi⁵</td>
<td>draw a bow, (pull back the bowstring), aim an arrow at someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i³</td>
<td>to grate, process sago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a⁵</td>
<td>to ricochet /vibrate back and forth, to sow/cast seed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo⁵</td>
<td>the act of sitting down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bu⁵</td>
<td>burn down (house), win the game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kavy⁵</td>
<td>jump, jump in (water), jump on (dog on person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doe⁵</td>
<td>examine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ae⁵</td>
<td>has been used up, is none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ai³</td>
<td>to destroy, cause not to exist, cause there to be none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tone Class Resultative Verbs (6)**

The resultative punctual tone, forms the last class of Iau verbs. The resultative verbs focus on the result of an action. They are inherently undergoer or experiencer focus, as illustrated by the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>di⁶</td>
<td>get /be startled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bai⁶</td>
<td>beach /put to shore (a canoe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e⁶</td>
<td>to exclaim, cry out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a’)</td>
<td>touchdown! /has landed (plane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bav⁶</td>
<td>wither and die (plant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kavy⁶</td>
<td>wiggle/move (eg a rock)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These verbs do not have any other variant tone in their class. Whether in combination with various epistemic and deontic modal particles, and negatives, and in medial verb clauses as well as main clauses, their tone does not change. They view the action as punctual and resultative.

**Some examples of Resultative Action Verbs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a⁵ tai⁶</td>
<td>has landed /is on the ground (plane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fvy⁷ bai⁶</td>
<td>beach, put canoe to shore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bai⁷</td>
<td>go into /enter (from perspective of the person outside entering)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da⁶ ba⁶</td>
<td>bring something to someone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di⁶</td>
<td>get startled, jump because of being startled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kavy⁶</td>
<td>moves (rock or inanimate object as actor in response to sometime )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e⁶</td>
<td>exclaim (verbal response to something)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bau⁶</td>
<td>go down out of (building) from a height</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fvy⁶</td>
<td>bathe, swim in the river</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ae⁵</td>
<td>there is none,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tone Class Variant Summary

The variant forms in each class (7,8,4,2) are found in main clauses when negatives or the various deontic and epistemic modal particles occur, as illustrated below by tones 7,4 and 8 occurring with a question particle, a negative and an imperative.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Au}^7 & \text{ i}^7 \quad \text{ba}^3? \\
\text{I}^7 & \quad \text{ae}^7 \quad \text{ba}^3. \\
\text{A}^8 \text{ doe}^7 & \quad \text{ae}^5. \\
\text{he} & \quad \text{go Tot.Inc QMkr} \\
\text{go Tot.Inc Neg} & \quad \text{QMkr} \\
\text{I know Tot.Inc Neg.} \\
\text{Is he going? Is he not going? I do not know.} \\
\text{Y}^8 \text{ bi}^6 \quad \text{sa}^4 & \quad \text{by}^3 \quad \text{da}^9\text{be}^7. \\
\text{ui}^8 \text{ fi}^6 & \quad \text{be}^4 \quad \text{dy}^3. \\
\text{we rain eat Res.Dur might because roof-thatch sew Tel.Inc Imp} \\
\text{Because we might get wet from the rain, sew some roof thatching.}
\end{align*}
\]


\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Y}^8 \text{ a}^7 \text{ se}^9 \text{ ui}^8 \text{ bv}^9 & \quad \text{i-9.} \\
\text{VS} & \quad \text{Y}^8 \text{ ui}^8 \text{ bv}^9 \quad \text{i-7} \quad \text{da}^9\text{dv}^9 \\
\text{we SqMkr house to go-Tot.Pun} & \quad \text{we house to go-Tot.Inc MClCj} \\
\text{We went to the house.} & \quad \text{We went to the house and then, ...} \\
\text{Di}^9 & \quad \text{y}^8 \quad \text{a}^7 \text{ se}^9 \quad \text{sa}^3. \\
\text{food we SqMkr eat-Tot.Dur} & \quad \text{eat-Res.Dur MClCj} \\
\text{We ate the food} & \quad \text{We ate it and then, ...} \\
\text{U}^8 & \quad \text{a}^7 \text{ se}^9 \text{ fafu}^7 \quad \text{bui}^4. \\
\text{VS} & \quad \text{A}^8 \text{ se}^9 \text{ fafu}^7 \quad \text{bui}^4 \quad \text{da}^9\text{dv}^9 \\
\text{tree SqMkr all cut down- Tel.Pun} & \quad \text{SqMkr all cut down- Tel.Inc MClCj} \\
\text{All the trees were cut down.} & \quad \text{When all the trees had been cut down...}
\end{align*}
\]

Base Lexical Forms

The punctual and totality of action forms of the 4 tone classes (9,3,6,5) serve as the base lexical form of the verb in Iau. These can be listed as dictionary entries. Grammatically these forms can occur in main clauses while the other variant forms in each class (7,8,4) cannot.
3.1.3.4 Aspect in Narrative Discourse

It is well known that perfective aspect, that is, punctual and totality of action viewpoints, are used to mark foregrounded material (Hopper, 1979). Imperfective aspect (durative of various kinds) marks background material. Iau is no exception to this rule. The perfective tone morphemes (9,6 and 5) give a summary of the main events of the sequence. The imperfective tone morphemes 3,8,2 give background detail, actions of secondary participants and eventlines, etc. The incompletive tone morphemes tend to mark medial verb repetitive linking clauses and on main clauses, although rare, indicate points of change in the plot. This is illustrated in the chart below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Totality Of Action</th>
<th>Punctual /Perfective Foregrounded</th>
<th>Durative /Imperfective Bkgrd: Added Detail</th>
<th>Incompletive Initiated but incomplete</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sequences Of Events</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resultative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affected</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants/Props</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative Event</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chains</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Pragmatic Discourse Functions of the Aspect Tone Morphemes Illustrated

As illustrated in the chart above, punctual temporal viewpoints are used in discourse for information that progress the narrative towards it's endpoint or resolution. This is illustrated below.

```
. Y⁸ tv⁹ sa⁸ da"dv⁹
  We sago eat-RES.DUR MCICj

. y⁸ e"ta"fau¹ ui⁸ au"sy⁹ bv⁸ _i³º_
  we again house our to go-TOT.PUN

Y⁸ ui⁸ bv⁸ i⁷ da"dv⁹
  we house to go-TOT.INC MCICj

. Fai"tav⁸ _foi⁷_.
  Faitaw tell -TEL.PUN

We ate sago and then, b. we went to our house again. c. We went to our house and then, d. we told (the people) in Faitaw,....
```

In the example above the verbs `go' and `tell' in clauses b and d, progress the narrative eventline towards it's final conclusion, when the people of Faitaw come and get the crocodile meat the speaker and his friends offer them. The information in clauses a and c is repeated, and is used as a means of clause linkage. The verbs are durative and incompletive in aspect in these clauses indicating that there are further events on the eventline still to come. Medial clauses never have punctual aspect verbs.

While punctual aspect verbs are used for events that progress the eventline towards it's endpoint, durative aspect verbs are used for setting information, codas and secondary eventlines.

---

8 See CONSTRUCTING A NARRATIVE DISCOURSE IN IAU. Final -- Iau Narrative Discourse
By Janet Bateman Preliminary Draft for comment only for a more complete discussion of the discourse uses of Iau tone.
Then, we came to Faitau. We came there and then, two people asked us "Why have you come?".

In the example above, from a travel log, tone 3 marks a new setting, the arrival at the next location. The following sentence has a tone 5 Telic-Punctual verb which begins the eventline for the episode occurring in that setting.

Incomplete aspect viewpoints are used in discourse for setting or initiating events that are interrupted by another action. They mark the beginning of a new eventline. The following is an example.

"Ai'a! Oh! like that"
e. A⁸ bi⁴ be⁹du⁷
I ascend-TEL.INC MCICj

f. u⁸ te⁸ hv⁸ tai⁹⁷ be⁷
tree vine I pull-TOT.INC-RES.DUR SCICj

g. A⁸ bi⁴ be⁹du⁷
I ascend-TEL.INC MCICj

h. u⁸ te⁸ a’se⁸ si⁸,
tree vine SqMkr pull loose-RES.PUN

i. Dy⁴ a⁹ a’se⁸ bai³si³ du³be⁷
SnCj I SqMkr fall-TOT.INC but

j. u⁸ be⁷ o⁹ a⁹.
tree BFocus-Obliq grab-TOT.PUN UBD-FACT

a. Then, as we were paddling the canoes, b. (I said) Surely we can (see) a lake from this
tree. c. I'm going to climb one (a tree) here and so, d. I began to climb when f. pulling myself up by the vine on the tree, I g. climbing when, h. the vine pulled loose. i. Then, I began to fall but, j. (I) grabbed onto the tree.

3.2 Nouns And Noun Morphology
There are no grammatical noun classes in Iau. Nouns form a single grammatical class. In general, there is no inflection of nouns, ie no affixes marking for singular and plural, no marking for gender, no case marking affixes (case marking takes place on the phrase level), or affixes marking definiteness or indefiniteness. There are, however, a few locative nouns that undergo tone changes or tone plus a vowel change in certain contexts. There are also a few agent /instrument nouns that have tone and vowel changes that mark the noun as instrument or agent. These are discussed along with tone changes on adverbs and noun phrases in a separate section below (See 3.3 below)

3.2.1 Derived Nouns
Iau has many nouns that appear to be derivatives of the verb stem or formed from the same roots as the verb stems, or related to part of the verb stem. The following are some examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>u⁸</th>
<th>to descend, come down from /out of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>u⁸ki⁹</td>
<td>‘a strap, a rink, a hook, ie hangs down /descends from something’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>o⁸</td>
<td>vomit, saliva’ ie something that comes down out of the mouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb Root</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>to come out from something, to float to the surface, to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>o⁸</td>
<td>to give off light; to shine; to be lit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>o⁸su⁸; ray of light; what is given off /shines from the sun, a lamp, a fire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj</td>
<td>o⁸tu⁸ day light the time when it is light /the sun is giving off light</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb Root</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>to come out from something, to float to the surface, to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>o⁷</td>
<td>sandbar sticking up in the river; sand, gravel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>(u⁸) o⁸</td>
<td>a splinter from a board /or on a board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>o⁸su⁸</td>
<td>leaf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Iau things often have the same name as the material they are made of. The following are some examples:

| fv⁷ | a tree used for canoe making |
| fv⁷ | canoe |
| to⁸ | tree used for bark cloth |
| to⁸ | bark cloth |

3.2.2 Tone Morphology On Nouns, Noun Phrases And Adverbs
Tones on nouns, adverbs and adjectives is for the most part lexical, that is it is an inherent part of the word and distinguishes one word from the other in cases where the segmental phonemes are identical. For example the following words are minimal pairs.
be⁸ long, important (adj)
be⁴ white (adj)
da⁷ dog (noun)
da⁸⁻⁴ mountain (noun)
da⁹ you plural (pronoun)
da⁺ now (adverb)
u⁸ day (noun)
u⁶ before (adverb)

Usually tones on nouns, adjective and adverbs do not change since they are a lexical part of the word.

3.2.3 Tone Changes On Nouns
Some locative nouns change from their usual tone to a high rising tone (7) when they are referring to an already known or highly expected location in the context. This is illustrated in the following sentence taken from the introduction to a short narrative text.

Y⁸ se⁶ ko³ da⁷ vy³ be⁷ bai⁶
we school take-TOT.DUR SCImkr go in-RES.PUN
ui⁷ fe⁴ ka⁴ de⁸ du⁸
house-the sleep-TEL.INC Sta-CRLZ SCImkr
da⁷ a’se⁹ avy³.
dog SeqMkr bark-TOT.DUR

After getting out of school, we had gone in (to the house) and were sleeping there in the house when a dog barked at something.

In the example above, the noun ui⁷ 'house' is marked by a tone 7 instead of its usual tone 8. In the context, the location 'in the house' is implicit in the verb bai⁶, in that the lexical meaning of this verb implies a building or someplace a person can enter. The house is the most likely place one would enter after leaving school and so when it is explicitly mentioned it is marked as highly expected by the change to a tone 7. One way this could be translated is: “After we had had school we had gone in and we were sleeping there (in the place we entered, that is) in the house when…”

Tone changes also take place on a few common nonhuman agents when these agents are not the topic of the sentence or clause. The following is an example of a tone change.

Da’ dai³
ka“ka⁴
di³.
dog cassowary-by wound-RES.PUNDef-RLZ
The dog was wounded by the cassowary.

Other nouns that show tone or vowel changes when used as nontopical agent are:
so⁶ child sau⁶
kaf⁷ bow kav⁷
fa³ axe fav⁷
be⁷ snake bei⁹
u⁸ stick ui⁷

3.3.3 Tone Changes On Adverbs
The adverb dav⁸ ‘far away’ and the adverb foe⁴ ‘close up’ are examples of adverbs undergoing a tone change to indicate the word is nonverbal predicated information.
The goal

Bv

I went/walked (right) next

seqMkr

child

one

arrow

his

SeqMkr

throw-TEL.INC

and

then

A

a漱e

da漱-4

foe

oe.

SeqMkr

mountain

at edge of

were located

He was at the edge of

next to the mountain

A

be漱fe

foe

i.

I SeqMkr

snake

at/around edge of
go.TOT.INC

I went/walked (right) next to a snake.

Bv

i.

da漱v

be漱sy

foe

sui.

goal
go.TOT.INC and then must

distal

to

enter-TEL.PUNC

3.3.4 Tone changes on postpositions (Noun Phrase Final)

The postposition 串 normally has a tone 7 on it and fills the postposition slot noun phrase final. However, when the noun phrase is part of a clause with a stative locative verb, the postposition 串 changes to 串. And 串 becomes a clitic attached to a verb or adverb.

1. Y串 a漱e串 yo串 串 du串.

we SeqMkr water in go around

We went by water /on the river.

2. Y串 a漱e串 ur漱dy'e漱 fa漱fvy漱 fay串 ta漱bi串 be串....

we SeqMkr in-times-past all bamboo in-up were/existed

In times past we all were up inside the fay bamboo...

du串 bv漱ke串 te漱du串 du漱si串 de3 fa漱fvy漱 fay串 ta漱oe串.

wild pig and whatever bird Sta all bamboo in-lived

Both wild pigs and whatever kind of bird there is, all of them were inside the fay bamboo.

The first example above shows the postposition 串 in it’s unmarked distribution. In the second clause in the example above. The postposition 串 becomes 串 and is a clitic attached to the verb...
and means ‘live in’ Note in the first clause above that the postposition ta’ becomes ta° and is attached as a clitic to the directional adverb bi² and means ‘up inside’.

4.0 PRONOUNS

Iau has a 5 pronoun system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>a° I</td>
<td>y° we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>di° you sg</td>
<td>da° you pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>au° he/she</td>
<td>(ty° the people)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no third person plural pronoun. A generic noun ‘people /person’ substitutes as the third person plural referent. The Iau pronouns have singular and plural forms but there is no inflection or additional forms for gender.

There are remnants of a topic and case marking system for pronouns-reflecting degree of topicality or grammatical role. These are found in first person and third person singular.

NON TOPICAL AGENTS

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Bv° I</td>
<td>e° (to) me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e° ‘I’ for me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>O° he/she</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first person pronoun variant bv° is used when the speaker is non topical agent in a grammatically transitive context.

Da° bv° ty° ti°.  
dog I person give Tel.Pun  
I gave the dog away/to people/someone.

Di° bv° vy° be°. da° ui° bv° tv°.  
things I pick up SubCICj carry house to/goal went away.  
Taking the things, I carried them home /carried them and left for home.

The first person pronoun variant e° is used to mark the indirect object and benefactives in clauses di/bitransitive verbs.

E° ti° dy°.  
Me give command  
Give it to me.

Y° o°sy° e°fe° tau°.  
Yngr bro my me-benef make  
My younger brother made/did it for me.

The third person pronoun variant o°, is used in cases reporting information about someone who is not present or is not directly involved in the action or situation under discussion.

Dy° ty°tau°si a° bi°.  
And widow news intens. intens. hand things not-Nominlz this-one

Dy° ty°tau°si a° bi°.  
And widow news intens. intens. hand things not-Nominlz this-one

O° sy° A°da° be°.  
she shld God Ag-Obliq things give might/fut MedVCICj Purp

The true widow, is like this: as one who has nothing at all in her hand, this one, so that God gives her things, she night and day desiring /remembering them, continually because of them praying to God.
4.1 Possessive Pronouns

The following is the set of Iau possessive pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Iau</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>O’sy⁹ mine</td>
<td>Au’sy⁹ ours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Du’sy⁹ yours</td>
<td>da’sy⁹ yours (pl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Au’bv⁹ his/hers</td>
<td>tv⁹ sy⁹ someone else’s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bv⁹ ku⁹ o⁹ sy⁹  
book my  my book

Di⁹ tv⁹ sy⁹ di⁹ dy⁹ sy⁹ du⁹ o⁹ day³
Things someone else’s you shouldn’t secretly take prohibition
You shouldn’t take someone else’s things!

6.4 Pronoun Reference Within The Clause

Iau is a prodrop language. The following portion of a procedural text that illustrates the prodrop phenomena in Iau.

a. Ty⁷ fv⁷ ae⁶ da’dv⁹  
   person canoe is none and then
b. a’se⁹ bv⁹ i⁹ da’dv⁹  
   SeqMk to go and then
c. a’se⁹ tay³ davy⁹. //Tay⁹ davy⁹ da’dv⁹  
   SeqMk scaffold make
d. a’se⁹ bui⁹. //Bui⁹ da’dv⁹  
   SeqMk cut down
e. a’se⁹ tai². //Tai² da’dv⁹  
   SeqMk fall
f. ty’ a’se⁹ ba’day³. //Ba’day³ da’dv⁹  
   person SeqMk flee
g. fv’ a’se⁹ a’ tai⁶. //A’ tai⁶ da’dv⁹  
   canoe SeqMk land contact
h. ty’ a’se⁹ bv⁹ i⁹. //Bv⁹ i⁹ da’dv⁹  
   person SeqMk to go
i. a’se⁹ si³ fvy³. //Si³ fvy³ da’dv⁹  
   SeqMk top cut off
j. a’se⁹ ui³ bv⁹ i⁹. //Ui³ bv⁹ i⁹ da’dv⁹  
   SeqMk house to go
k. a’se⁹ di⁶ sa³  
   SeqMk food eat

a. When a person does not have a canoe, b. he goes to (a canoe tree) and c. builds a scaffolding. After he builds a scaffolding, d. he cuts it (the canoe tree) down. After he cuts it (the canoe tree) down, e. it (the canoe tree) begins to fall. When it (the canoe tree) begins to fall, f. the person flees. He flees and then, g. the canoe tree falls to the ground. When it (the canoe tree) has fallen to the ground, h. the person goes over to it (the canoe tree). When he has gets to it (the canoe tree), i. he cuts off the top of the tree (the canoe tree). When he has cut off the top of the tree (the canoe tree), j. he goes home. He goes home and then, k. he eats.**

5.0 PHRASES

In this section we will look at verb phrases and noun phrases.

5.1 The Verb Phrase

For a more detailed discussion see Bateman, 1986 and Bateman, 1990 both in NUSA.

The verb occupies the nuclear /head slot in the verb phrase. Each verb and post-verbal particle slot have an accompanying set of tone morphemes that can occur on the particles in that grammatical slot. In Iau only the verb and its accompanying aspect tone are obligatory.

In the Iau verb phrase only the head/nuclear element, the verb, is obligatory. In narrative discourse, post verbal particles are rare and highly marked. By contrast in dialogue, post verbal
particles marking epistemic, evidential and hearer-speaker dynamics are the norm. Each discourse genre has it’s commonly occurring verb phrase forms. The pre-verbal constituents of manner, directionals and locationals are found in all discourse types.

The following chart gives a list of slots in the verb phrase, the tone morpheme sets for each slot and the required order for the slots.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adv</th>
<th>dir</th>
<th>loc</th>
<th>+VERB</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>Stative+T²</th>
<th>Negative +T²</th>
<th>Temp Bound +T²</th>
<th>Evidential+T² Cl</th>
<th>Deontic Intensifier+T²</th>
<th>Deontic Modality+T³</th>
<th>Eviden+T³ Sent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Man Degr</td>
<td>Dir</td>
<td>Loc Deictic</td>
<td>Stems compnd</td>
<td>Aspect tone</td>
<td>de + Status tone</td>
<td>ae,ai+ Status tone</td>
<td>di,be,ay,adybe+status tone</td>
<td>da+status tone</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>dy, day, be/ba,bv se,fo,fe,by y,</td>
<td>to, daby, didv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
5.1.1 PREVERBAL CONSTITUENTS

Verb modifiers like adverbs, directionals and locatives preceed the verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adv</th>
<th>dir</th>
<th>loc</th>
<th>+VERB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>Degr</td>
<td>Loc</td>
<td>Deictic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.1.1 Adverbs

Adverbs can modify the verb itself, or an expanded verb phrase.

\[ Y^8 \text{e}^\text{ta}^\text{fau}^7 \text{ba}^8. \]
We again came.
We came back/came again.

\[ Y^8 \text{e}^\text{ta}^\text{fau}^7 \text{ui}^8 \text{bv}^8 \text{i}^7. \]
we again house to go
We went to the house/home again.

\[ Y^8 \text{fi}^\text{au}^7 \text{v}^4 \text{tai}^7-\text{de}^7 \text{to}^5. \]
we really heart pulled-contrary to what you think/it seems

Intensifiers \text{fi}^\text{au}^7 and \text{fi}^\text{be}^8 modify a verb or another adverb.

\[ \text{Au}^7 \text{fi}^\text{au}^7 \text{tv}^9. \]
He totally has left/gone away
He has really gone away/long for good.

\[ \text{Fo}^8 \text{fv}^7 \text{av}^8 \text{ta}^2 \text{be}^8 \text{se}^9. \]
wind canoe recipr push against since, we really slowly go
Since the wind was against us/the canoe, we went/travelled very slowly

Some common Iau adverbs are:

- \text{du}^8 \text{av}^7 \text{du}^8: slowly
- \text{av}^8 \text{be}^4: quickly
- \text{tui}^8 \text{be}^4: strongly/with force
- \text{fe}^8 \text{di}^\text{be}^4: weakly/gently
- \text{e}^\text{ta}^\text{fau}^7: again
- \text{o}^8 \text{bo}^8 \text{be}^7: two times
- \text{fi}^\text{au}^7: intensifier

5.1.1.2 Directionals

The directionals also preceed the verb. There is a set of four main directionals that reflect the significant geographical features of the Iau surroundings.

\[ \text{bi}^2: \text{up} \]
\[ \text{bay}^2: \text{down} \]
\[ \text{bui}^2: \text{upstream} \]
\[ \text{by}^4: \text{downstream} \]

\[ Y^8 \text{by}^4 \text{i}^9. \]
we downstrm go
We are going downstream

\[ Y^8 \text{bui}^2 \text{i}^7 \text{se}^5. \]
we upstrm go intend
We are going to go upstream

5.1.1.3 Locationals

Locationals immediately preceed the verb and can become clitics attached to it.

\[ \text{Bi}^9: \text{up} \]
\[ \text{ba}^9: \text{here} \]
\[ \text{ai}^9: \text{there} \]
Fv⁷ bi³ be³
canoe up is.
The plane is up there.
Ba³- ba’⁷ dy³,
here-come command
Come here
Y³ da⁴-bi³ be³,  fv³-tai³ be³ bau³.
we mt up-ascend SubCICj peak Loc-highly expected reach
climbing up the mountain, we reached the peak/ridge.

5.1.2 THE VERB PHRASE NUCLEUS
The verb phrase nucleus consists of the verb + its aspect tones + an optional stative clitic/affix + its tone morphemes as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>+VERB</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>Stative+T²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stems</td>
<td>Aspect + de + Status tone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.2.1 The Verb
As discussed above in the section on verb roots, stems and words, Iau verbs are morphemically complex. The majority are single syllables. The verb/verb phrase is always clause final. Verbs are not inherently bitransitive, transitive or intransitive. The number of arguments is contextually determined which then influences which of the possible lexical choices is to be read in that given context.

5.1.2.2 Stative Particle
Stative is an optional morpheme “de” attached to the verb stem with an accompanying tone morpheme. Tones that occur on the “de” stative particle are 9,8, 7 depending on the grammatical context and function of the verb.

A³se⁴ ui-7 tai⁷ de⁶.
SqMrkr house -in the has laid down TELPUN Stative-FACT
(He) is in the house lying down.

The following are some examples of some verbs marked as stative in Iau.

E³fai³ de⁶ hidden
B³⁴ bai⁴ de⁶ waiting
(u⁸) e⁴ de⁶ hidden behind (a tree)
bau⁴ de⁶ sitting down
tai³ de⁶ lying down
ui⁷ * de⁶ standing up

Stative verbs contrast with dynamic action. In a verb that is stative, no change or motion is taking place.
The tone morphemes on the stative particle ‘de’ could be viewed as aspectual viewpoints, limited to totality of action, punctual (9), totality of action incompletive (7), and resultative durative (8). But they are also compatible if viewed has having epistemic meanings as on the other post-verbal particles.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Au}^7\text{te}^4 \text{ be}^5? \quad \text{Ui}^{-7}\text{ tai}^4 \text{ de}^6. \\
\text{he where is Tel.Pun house-in lying-down. Sta Tot.Pun} \\
\text{Where is he? He is in the house lying down.}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Au}^{\text{ui}}\text{ tai}^4 \text{ de}^7 \text{ du}^\text{be}^7, \text{ y}^\text{s} \text{sa}^\text{dy}^4 \text{ bv}^8 \text{ bi}^3. \\
\text{he house-in lying down Sta Tot.Inc but we anyway for/to call Tot.Dur.} \\
\text{He was lying in the house but we called him anyway.}
\end{array}
\]

In the first sentence the man’s lying down is viewed as an static situation. The perfective aspect viewpoint indicates that the static situation is being viewed as a unit occurrence.

In the second sentence, the man’s siesta is interrupted in the next clause, it was incomplete, interrupted by the following event and so is marked with a totality of action incompletive aspect.

### 5.1.3 POST-VERBAL PARTICLES

Following the verb and the optional stative particle are negative and modality particles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>+VERB</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>Stative+T2</th>
<th>Negative+T2</th>
<th>Status+T2</th>
<th>Evde n+T2</th>
<th>Deontic+T2</th>
<th>Deontic+Modality+T3</th>
<th>Eviden+T3</th>
<th>Sent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stems</td>
<td>Aspe ct tone</td>
<td>de</td>
<td>ae,ai</td>
<td>Ay, be, di, a, dy, da, bede, fi</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>dy, day, be/ha, bv se, by fo, fe, y</td>
<td>da’by’5 to, di’dv’3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some examples are given below.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Au}^7\text{ da}^4\text{ di}^4\text{ ae}^5. \\
\text{he dog kill not} \\
\text{He did not kill the dog.}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Ui}^4\text{ a’s}^5\text{ u}^6\text{ dav}^7\text{ di}^3. \\
\text{House SeqMk before build Stat Realis Def} \\
\text{The house is already built.}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Au}^7\text{ te}^4\text{ bv}^8\text{ ba}^7\text{ ae}^7\text{ da}^8? \\
\text{He why come not as prev-given} \\
\text{Why did he not come as he said/was supposed to?}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Ba}^7\text{ ka}^7\text{ dy}^3. \\
\text{Come Intens command} \\
\text{I said come! Come on! Hurry up! /}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Tv}^9\text{ bv}^8\text{ di}^9\text{ ti}^8\text{ se}^6. \\
\text{sago I you give intend} \\
\text{I will give you the sago.}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{A}^8\text{ tv}^9\text{ sa}^8\text{ fo}^7. \\
\text{I sago eat Desiderative} \\
\text{I want to eat sago.}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Au}^7\text{ y}^8\text{ doe}^7\text{ fe}^8. \\
\text{he we see CntrDesid} \\
\text{No, he might see us!}
\end{array}
\]
A' ui fi taui fe'fu
I house thatch make Inabilitative
I can't make thatch.

Yi di'dv
We go you know that!
We are going! You knew that!/I told you!

5.1.3.1 Negatives
Negatives in Iau are marked either by the particle ‘ae’ ‘state of non-existence’. or the particle ‘ai’ ‘(cause) become or irrealis non existent’. These particles immediately follow the verb or the verb and the elitic stative particle if present. The following are some examples.

1. Y bui i ai y.
   1p upstream go-TOT.INC Neg-FACT Inf-SNC.NA.NDT
   We didn't /never did go upstream.

2. A to i ae.
   1s Contr go-TOT.INC Neg-NPFAC'T
   I did not go at all.

3. Bv to da da ae.
   this Contr dog RpSp-RES.DUR Neg-NP.FACT
   That is not called a dog. /That is not a dog.

4. Ui de ae.
   stand-stative neg
   He is not standing.

The first sentence above is an example of a simple negative statement, ‘The actor did not do x.’ The next two sentences, in addition to the negative particle ae also have the contradictory particle to indicating that the speaker is contradicting or refuting previous information in the discourse. The final sentence is an example of a negative negating a stative verb.

The addition of the status /epistemic modality tone morphemes to the negative particles distinguishes eight different kinds of negatives in Iau. Each of these negative types is illustrated in a sentence below.

Tone 9
Negative FACT: `did not, will not, is not, do not’
Di to ba tu sa ae ba?
2s Contr corn eat-RES.DUR Neg-FACT Uncer-RS.SA
You do not eat corn do you?
(See also example 1) in the previous set of examples

Tone 3
Negative REALIZATION: `didn't ever, hasn't ever’
Be a bi fv doe ae se
Benjamin plane see-TOT.INC Neg-RLZ.Since
dy a y
do that-TEL.INC DUBd-RLZ Inf-SNC.A.DT
Since Benjamin hasn't ever seen a plane, he
acted like that.

Tone 7
Negative HYPOTHETICAL: `could have been but wasn't,
never would be, when /if it wasn’t...’
Ty bi si di ai di y
Person one 2s kill-RES.DUR Neg-HYP Pbd-RLZ Nomin
by by du be di o di y.
true that 2S take-TOT.INC Pbd-HYP Inf-SNC.A.DT
If you had not killed that person, then you
could have taken me (as wife).
Tone 6  
**Negative CURRENT FACT: `is none'**
A³ boi⁴ ae⁶.  
1s firewood Neg-CFACT  
I have no firewood.

Tone 8  
**Negative CURRENT REALIZATION: `is not doing, is not happening'**
Te⁸ ba³bv⁴ fi³be⁴ ko³du⁴ ba³ ai⁴ y³.  
Mosquitos this Intens little/few are not Inform  
Da⁸ te³bv⁴ ke³da³bu³ ae³ du⁸ ba³⁴?"  
2pl why mosq. Net without go around ?Mrkr  
"There are lots of mosquitos here! /There are not just a few mosquitos here. Why are you going around without a mosquito net?"

Tone 5  
**Negative NONPRESENT FACT: `is not at all, didn't at all', emphatic contrastive negative.**
Ba³⁻³ y³ to³ a² i³.  
No 1P Contr land-by go-TOT.INC Neg-NPFACT  
No, we did not (emphatic contrastive) go by land.

Tone 2  
**Negative NONPRESENT REALIZATION: `didn't happen as expected'**
A⁴ av⁴ sa³dy⁴ bv⁴ av³ ae³ di⁹  
father Poss just to refuse Neg-NPRLZ 2S  
ti² be⁸?  
give-TEL.DUR Uncer-RS.SNA  
Does her father not refusing (as one might expect) give her to you (as wife)?

Tone 4  
**Negative UNREALIZED /FUTURE REALIZATION: `still hasn't, not yet, hasn't up to now, never did materialize'**
Dai³ y³ di³ ai⁴ y³.  
cassowary 1P kill-RES.DUR Neg-URLZ Info-SNC.A.DT  
We never did kill the cassowary.

5.1.3.2 Epistemic Modality: Status and Evidential Particles

**Epistemic modality** is a sub-type of linguistic modality that deals with a speaker's evaluation/judgment of, degree of confidence in, or belief in the knowledge upon which a proposition is based. In other words, epistemic modality refers to the way speakers communicate their doubts, certainties, and guesses—their "modes of knowing".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Temp Bound</th>
<th>Evidential+T² Cl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>di,be,ay,a dybe+status tone</td>
<td>da+status tone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Iau following the negative slot in the verb phrase, there is a slot for status particles and after that a slot for evidential particles. These particles comment on realis properties of the marked event, the characteristics and degree of definiteness of it’s occurrence, mark the speakers evaluation of its truth and relationship to common knowledge.

The following are some examples.

Y⁸ a³se⁶ taui⁷ di³.  
we SqMkr make Bd-RLZ  
We already made it (Temporally Bounded -Realis).
Kaf³ ha³b³ seven te³ du³be³ seven tau³ a³
bow this men NFocusMkr make UBd-FACT
It's men who make bows (Universal truth).

a³ fi³ be³ ay³.
I thatch sew UBd-RLZ
(I am going to take off the old thatch) that's why I have begun sewing (new) thatch.
(Began and is still doing it.)

A³ fv³ a³ doe³ be³ y³.
I plane land see TBd-CRLZ Stmtnt
I was (just now) looking at the airstrip. (Past Progressive)

Y³ a³se³ tau³ di³ da³ by³.
we SqMkr make Bd Obvious Probable
We have already made it, can't you see?

The first four examples illustrate four of the status particles. The next example illustrates an evidential particle $da$ which indicates that speaker thinks the hearer should know the information given. This example also illustrates a mood particle 'by³' which marks the statements of probable truth.

**Status: Realis Properties And Temporal Boundedness In Events**

The status particles in Iau define the temporal boundaries of the action as well as single versus multiple occurrences. The di and be particles because they are bounded at an endpoint, are inherently past. The be particle has no definite starting point but ends in the past lending itself to meanings like used to, were doing etc. The di particle in particular is implicitly realis and carries strong realis overtones as well as being implicitly past. The a and ay particles lend themselves to habitual, gnomic/generic truth viewpoints. A third set of particles dy and dybe refer to events that are pending but as yet unrealized. Events marked by dy are still possible. Events marked by dybe are not longer possible. They have been cancelled. These particles take epistemic modality tone morphemes instead of the aspectual tone morpheme.

The status particles mark the situation as realis vs irrealis and also the degree of temporal boundedness. The meanings are diagrammed below. See Bateman, 1986 in NUSA for a fuller explanation of meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Realis</th>
<th>Irrealis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initially Bounded</td>
<td>Terminally Bounded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ay</td>
<td>be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>began &amp; continues</td>
<td>Pst Prog/Hab</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are four particles, di, a, ay and be which contrast as Punctual/Single versus Multiple occurrence. These particles also contrast in degree of temporal boundedness.

In both areas of contrast di and a are totally opposite. Di marks a single occurrence totally bounded event. That is it has a punctual viewpoint. A marks a multiple occurrence verb that is totally unbounded. The remaining two particle are both multiple or durative but they contrast in boundedness. Ay has a definite starting point. and be has a stopping point sometime in the past. These are illustrated below.
‘Di’: Total Temporal Boundedness

The particle di is used to assert the fact that an event has been done /has occurred as illustrated by the first two examples below.

1s SeqMkr make-TOT.INC PBd.RLZ
I have already made it.

Fi'su° o'su° y° taui° di° to°.
fish leaf 1p make TOT INC PBd FACT RHc SNC NANDT
We did make the sleeping mat (Lit. fisu leaf)!

The example below shows how the di particle can also bundle up a stative situation (were waiting) into one unit. Waiting is marked as a unique, single occurrence and asserted to have occurred as reported.

Ty° bo° a° fv°ui° y° bv° bai° de°
person two SeqMkr hangar 1P for wait-TOT.INC Sta-CRLZ
di°
P Bd-FACT Info-SNC.A.DT
Those two were waiting for us at the hangar (when we arrived).

The following example shows the use of a di totally bounded particle to specify a specific definite time period. The time period “when I was up at Sai’ta” (a definite past known event) defines when the speaker habitually/continuously ate pork.

A° Sai’ta° bi° be° di° y°
1S Saita dir.up is-TEL.INC PBd-CRLZ Nomin
d° sa° be° to°.
w pig eat-RES.DUR DBd-CRLZ RHr-SNC.NA.NDT
When I was up at Saita, I ate (habitual /multiple) wild pork.

‘A’: Total Temporal Unboundedness

A contrasts with di in boundedness and in number of occurrences. In the example below, a marks habitual or generic truth statements.

Fi'su° o'su° ty° te°be°de° be° davy° a°?
pandanus leaf people which NMkr make-TOT.PUN MultUBd-RLZ
Who (ie which people) make pandanus leaf sleeping mats?

Ty° Da'di° be° davy° a°.
people Dani NMkr make-TOT.PUN MultUBd-RLZ
The Danis make them.

du° bv° i° da'dv° a°se° kaf°
w pig for go-TOT.INC MVClMkr SeqMkr bow
da° i° a°.
carry-RES.DUR go-TOT.PUN DUBd.FACT
When we go wild pig hunting, then we take along a bow

The a particle can also be used to mark an event in the current speech context as unbounded, that is, continuous /progressive

A° y° bv° i° a° y°
1P water for go-TOT.PUN DUBd-FACT Info-SNC.A.DT
I am going to get water.

The sentence below is the answer to the question “What are you making that net for?”

Fi° bv° taui° a°.
fish for make-TOT.PUN DUBd-URLZ
I am making them for/to catch fish (with them).

The example above is rather complex because the a particle does not refer to the making of the fish net but to the goal of making the fish net to catch fish (habitual, multiple time) instead it refers back to the topic fi° ‘fish’ and the accompanying goal particle bv°. There is an implicit
verb “catch (fish)” which is a multiple unbounded event which is still pending (tone 4) because the fish net is not yet finished.

The following example shows a marking an unordered list of events done multiple times over a period of time

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dy}^4 \text{tv}^9 \text{a}^7 \text{bui}^5 & \text{dy}^4 \text{a}^9 \\
\text{then} & \text{sago other NMr} \text{fell-TEL.PUN ICICj} \\
\text{a}^7 \text{se}^9 \text{tv}^9 & \text{be}^7 \text{bai}^6 \text{a}^7. \\
\text{SeqMkr} & \text{sago NMr} \text{pound-RES.PUN MultUBd-FACT} \\
\text{Dy}^4 \text{tv}^3 & \text{ay}^9 \text{a}^7. \\
\text{then} & \text{trap set-TOT.PUN DUBd-Pnng} \\
\text{Dy}^4 & \text{du}^7 \text{a}^7 \text{se}^9 \text{tav}^3 \text{tai}^2 \text{a}^7. \\
\text{then} & \text{wild pig SeqMkr trap catch-TEL.DUR MultUBd-FACT} \\
\text{a}^7 \text{se}^9 & \text{fi} \text{au}^7 \text{dy}^4 \text{dau}^7 \text{se}^9 \text{du}^3. \\
\text{SeqMkr} & \text{Intens like that Manner do-TOT.DUR} \\
\text{And, he cut down} & \text{other sago trees and pounded} \text{the sago. He set pig traps. And, wild pigs got caught in them. He kept on doing like that.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

The following is another example of a marking an unordered list of events.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{A}^7 & \text{se}^9 \text{i}^8 \text{ba}^8 \text{da}^8 \text{dv}^9 \\
\text{SeqMkr} & \text{afraid-RES.DUR MVCIMkr} \\
\text{au}^7 & \text{a}^7 \text{se}^9 \text{kaf}^7 \text{o}^9 \text{a}^7. \\
\text{3s} & \text{SeqMkr bow} \text{take-TOT.PUN DUBd-Pnng} \\
\text{Si}^7 & \text{av}^7 \text{bv}^9 \text{be}^7 \text{o}^9 \text{a}^7. \\
\text{bag} & \text{3sPoss NMr take- TOT.PUN DUBd-Pnng} \\
\text{Be}^7 \text{fu}^9 \text{o}^9 & \text{a}^7. \\
\text{lighter} & \text{take-TOT.PUN DUBd-Pnng} \\
\text{Fat}^3 & \text{o}^9 \text{a}^4. \\
\text{Axe} & \text{take-TOT.PUN DUBd-Pnng} \\
\text{dy}^4 \text{da}^9 \text{dv}^9 & \text{a}^7 \text{se}^9 \text{ba}^4 \text{day}^8. \\
\text{IndCl/SCj SeqMkr} & \text{flee-RES.DUR} \\
\text{He was afraid} & \text{so he got his bow, and he got his string bag, and he got his fire starter, and he got his axe, and he fled.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘Be’: A Prior Stopping Point

The be particle is defined as marking multiple /continuative action that has come to an end or stopped (ie it is terminally bounded) The be particle marks multiple or extended occurrences of the proposition over a temporally definite time period. The following sentences are illustrations of the particle be.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dy}^4 & \text{da}^7 \text{te}^7 \text{du}^7 \text{sa}^3 \text{be}^4 ? \\
\text{then} & \text{2p what eat TOT DUR DBd RLZ} \\
\text{And what did you eat (while there)?} \\
\text{A}^7 & \text{Sai}^7 \text{ta}^9 \text{bi}^2 \text{be}^4 \text{di}^8 \text{y}^9 \\
\text{1S Saita} & \text{dir.up is-TEL.INC Pbd-CRLZ CINominalizer} \\
\text{du}^9 & \text{sa}^8 \text{be}^4 \text{to}^8. \\
\text{w pig eat-RES.DUR DBd-CRLZ RHr-SNC.NA.NDT} \\
\text{When I was up at Saita, I ate (habitual /often /multiple occurrence) wild pork.} \\
\text{Ta}^9 & \text{y}^8 \text{u}^6 \text{di}^8 \text{be}^4 \text{tau}^7 \text{be}^4 \text{iy}^4 \\
\text{knife} & \text{1P before NMr-Me make-TOT.INC DBd-FACT Nomin} \\
\text{bv}^6 & \text{bi}^4 \text{fa}^7 \text{se}^9. \\
\text{1S} & \text{say-TOT.INC Int-FACT} \\
\text{I am going to tell you about the knives that we used to make.} \\
\end{align*}
\]
The first sentence is a generic /gnomic truth question. It could also be considered habitual action for that location. It is marked with the be particle because it refers to a period of time in the past, and an action already realized multiple times within that time period.

The second sentence could be an answer to the question above but is actually taken from a different conversation. The period of time being referred to is a definite, known time period, “when I was up at Saita”. During this definite time period the event ‘eat pork’ happened multiple times.

In the final sentence, be marks an action that was habitually done in the past but is no longer done. It can be translated “used to”.

The following is an example of be marking an event that just occurred but has now stopped. A young boy and older man who has a bad headache are alone in the men’s house. The sick man hears a very irritating knocking noise and asks what that is? The following is the boy’s answer.

It was my head that was knocking against the wall.

The following example shows the be particle with a tone 3 rlzd morpheme indicating that the proposition, he was in the process of killing the pig, is now a past situation no longer applicable and evidently unsuccessful.

Is that right? Was he about to kill the pig?

‘Ay’: A Definite Beginning

The ay particle is defined as marking a multiple unbounded event which has a definite starting point. The event is bounded initially but not terminally. The ay particle marks the proposition as a multiple occurrence situation beginning at some temporally bounded point in time and continuing on over an indefinite period of time. The following sentence illustrates the use of the ay particle to mark a definite starting point for an event which will continue on indefinitely into the future.

In the example below, the particle ay marks the action of going to the garden as having a past beginning point and continuing on into the present. The question under discussion is where is this man?

In the sentences below, a person has just died and arrived at the river to cross over into the land of the dead. The pigs he has killed are going to come to escort him over the river. When he arrives at the river they begin to grunt.

43
Oh! Many wild pigs have begun to grunt. They have begun to do that because someone has come.

'Dy': Future Pending

The particles dy and dybe mark events that have been planned or decided upon, but have not as yet been implemented. Dy is actually a deictic verb that can be glossed “do it/that”, here used as a particle with tone 4 indicating it is an unrealized but pending event. The following is an illustration.

The status markers dy and dybe mark the status of situations which are unrealized but which are planned, intended, or about to be implemented. The following are some examples.

Bv⁶ bv⁸ bai⁶ du⁷ dy⁴ be⁸du⁷
I S for go to-RES.PUN Sta-HYP Pnd-URLZ MVCIMkr
ui⁷⁸ di³.
fly-TOT.INC.CHS PBd-RLZ
I was going in to get it when it flew away.

Di⁴ y³ to⁸ bv⁶ di⁴ se⁹ dy⁸
Right/yes pig 1s kill TOT INC Int URLZ Pnd NPFACT
Yes, I am planning to kill the pig, but haven’t done it yet.

In the first sentence above, the situation marked by dy was being implemented but was frustrated and the opportunity to do it was terminated by the bird flying away.

In next sentence, the speaker marks the situation as an intention with the modality particle se⁴ and then indicates with the reality status particle dy⁸ that the situation is although still unrealized is pending implementation and will indeed be brought about.

There is a second compound particle that indicates a frustrated action that is no longer able to brought about. It is a compound of the pending realization particle dy⁴ and the cessation of durative action particle be discussed above. See the following two examples.

Di⁹ ba⁸ de⁹ dy⁸be³ be³?
2s kill RES DUR Sta FACT Pnd RLZ Uncer RS SA
Were you about to kill/shoot the pig?

In sentence above, a man was about to kill a wild pig when someone stopped him. Later, he is asked if he was about to kill the pig. The particle dy⁸be³ indicates that the situation was pending realization at one time but was frustrated.

Di⁷be³? Au⁷ to³ di³ be³ be³?
really? 3S pig kill-TOT.PUN DBd-RLZ Uncer-RS.SA
Is that right? Was he about to kill the pig?

Di⁴to³. Au⁷ to³ di³ se⁹ dy⁸be³ to³?
Yes 3S pig kill-TOT.INC Int-URLZ FPnd-RLZ RHR-SNC.A.DT
Yes, he was about to kill it

In sentence above, the man was about to kill the pig when he was interrupted. The tone 8 status morpheme on dy⁸be³ indicates that the realization of the proposition is immediately relevant.

Summary

In summary, propositions marked by di and be, both temporally bounded, refer to situations which occur at a unique particular point in time (di), or over a unique specific period in time (be). Propositions marked by ay begin at some unique specifiable point in time and continue on indefinitely from that time on. Propositions marked by a occur over some indefinite period of time with no temporal boundaries.
Evidential Particles

Evidential particles in the Iau verb phrase evaluate the truth properties of the proposition they mark and also the information source, marking what is commonly known or given information. The following is a list of evidential particles that occur following the verb with some sample sentences.

- **Da** Given /Reported speech /common knowledge (RpSp)
- **bede** Inferential (Inf)
- **da’by⁷** Obvious Truth (Obv)
- **di’dv³** Emphatic Obvious truth (EObv)
- **fi** Repeated Information (Irritation) (RIInf)

U³ ba’bv⁷ au’ te’bv⁷ ba⁷ ae³ da⁷?

day this he why come Tot.Inc Neg Hyp Evid.Rlz
Why didn’t he come today like-he-said/he-was-supposed-to?

The particle **da³** indicates that the speaker feels the proposition was a given/known, and in combination with the negative **ae⁷** means it should never should have been a reality.

**A³ te’bv⁷ bv⁹ bei⁸ ae⁷ da³?**

1S why for-stop-RES.DUR Neg-HYP Given RS.SA
Why didn’t I remember? (Lit. stop on something)/ I knew it. I should have remembered.

**Ba’bv⁷ so⁸ o⁴sy⁷ da⁷ by⁹**.

This child my don’t you know/of course give ID info
Don’t you know? /You should know this is my child.

**Ba³ dy⁶ da⁷**

Come Imp already known
I SAID, come/I already told you to come!

**Au’ da³su⁶ ba⁷ be³de³ y³**.

He tomorrow come Tot.Inc likely Statment
I think /It’s likely that he will come tomorrow.

**Bv⁹ a³sy⁹ u⁶ di⁷ foi⁴ di’dv³**.

I already before you told, come on!
Come on! Why are you asking again? I already told you!

**Ba’bv⁷ so⁶ o³sy⁶ fl⁹ y⁹**

This child my irritated Stment Assert
Like I already said, this is my child!

Epistemic Tone Morphemes

The set of epistemic tone morphemes in Iau view the temporal and realis occurrence conditions of the verbal situation and evaluate it according to degrees of factiveness or realization. They also comment on the temporal characteristics of that reality, These same status morphemes occur on stative, negative, modality, status and evidential particles.

**T2 Meanings of Status Tone Morphemes on Iau**.

**Tones Establishing A Proposition As Fact (9,5,6)**

Tones 9, 6 and 5 establish the proposition as fact. They vary in terms of when that proposition is being viewed as fact. Tone 9 is by far the most common FACT establishing tone on the Iau post-verbal particles. Tone 5 is next because it occurs so frequently on intention statements.

**Tone 9**

Tone 9 is inherently totality of the action /proposition and punctual viewpoint. So it views the situation as a fact at some time (past, present, future, or hypothetical) in order to comment on it. The following examples of tone 9 on the particles di, be and se illustrate the use of the epistemic
modality tone morphemes to assert or establish a proposition as a fact at some time in the discourse.

\[ \text{Fri'su}^\circ \text{o'su}^\circ \text{y}^\circ \text{tau}^\circ \text{di}^\circ \text{to}^\circ. \]

- pandanus leaf 1p make-TOT.INC PBd-FACT RHR-SNA.NDT
- We did make the sleeping mat.

In the example above, the factivity of the proposition has been called into question. The tone morpheme 9 on the status particle di indicates that the proposition ‘we made fishing mats’ is a fact.

\[ \text{Ta}^\circ \text{y}^\circ \text{u}^\circ \text{di}^\circ \text{be}^\circ \text{tau}^\circ \text{be}^\circ \text{iy}^\circ \]

- knife 1p before NMkr make-TOT.INC DBd-FACT Nomin

- bv\^\circ be\^\circ fa\^\circ se\^\circ.
- 1s say-TOT.INC Int-FACT
- I'm going to tell you about the knives that we used to make.

In the example above the making of knives is regarded as a fact. The particle be which marks a continuative situation that has now been stopped, indicates that the time period for the act of making knives was in the past.

The following is an example of tone 9 on a negative:

\[ \text{Di}^\circ \text{to}^\circ \text{ba}^\circ \text{tu}^\circ \text{sa}^\circ \text{ae}^\circ \text{ba}^\circ? \]

- 2s Conr corneat-RES.DUR Neg-FACT Uncer-RS.SA
- You do not eat corn do you?

The sentence about is a yes no question where the assumed answer is “No”. The negative proposition “you do not eat corn” is viewed as fact by the speaker, as indicated by the tone 9 marking on the negative. The yes-no question particle gives the person the option of refuting or clarifying the assumed fact.

Tone 9 can also occur on unbounded habitual or general truth statements

\[ \text{Du}^\circ \text{bv}^\circ \text{i}^\circ \text{da}^\circ \text{dv}^\circ \text{a}^\circ \text{se}^\circ \text{kaf}^\circ \]

- w pig for go-TOT.INC MVCIMkr SeqMkr bow

- da\^\circ \text{i}^\circ \text{a}^\circ \text{.}
- carry-RES.DUR go-TOT.PUN DUBd-FACT
- When we go wild pig hunting, then we take along a bow.

In the example above tone 9 indicates that the proposition “we take a bow when we go hunting wild pigs” is a general established fact.

\[ \text{To}^\circ \text{di}^\circ \text{di}^\circ \text{se}^\circ \text{dv}^\circ \text{be}^\circ?? \]

- pig 2s kill-TOT.INC Int-FACT IrPhd-URLZ Uncer- SA.RSP
- Is it a fact you were you intending to kill the pig and about to do it?

In the example above, the tone morpheme 9 on the intention particle se indicates that the actor's intention is a fact at the time in question

Tone 9 can also establish a current situation as fact. The person speaking below has just been asked where he is going.

\[ \text{A}^\circ \text{y}^\circ \text{bv}^\circ \text{i}^\circ \text{a}^\circ \text{y}^\circ \text{.} \]

- 1P water for go-TOT.PUN DUBd-FACT Info-SNC.A.DT
- I am going to get water.

The following example illustrates that tone 9 can also establish a hypothetical possibility as fact. It is true at some time, even if that time is in some hypothetical world. If the hunters had had more people, they could have killed the pig. The established fact is “If it were a fact that the hunters had more people...”

\[ \text{Da}^\circ \text{ka}^\circ \text{di}^\circ \text{be}^\circ \text{di}^\circ \text{y}^\circ \text{da}^\circ \text{.} \]

- 2p many is-TOT.INC PBd-FACT Nomin 2p
- kill-RES.DUR PBd-HYP Info-FACT
- If you had been many, you could have killed it.
Tone 5

Tone 5 has a different temporal viewpoint from tone 9. It points forward to future time as the time of realization of the action or fact. It can talk about a pending situation in the past or one that is future pending.

The following example is about an intended action and whether is was true and about to be fulfilled or not. The tone 5 on the particle dy indicates that it was in fact an intended action and about to be fulfilled at the time under discussion (past).

\[
\text{Di}^{9}\text{y}^{3}; \text{to}^{8}\text{ bv}^{6}\text{ di}^{7}; \text{se}^{4}\text{ dy}^{5}.
\]

Yes pig 1s kill-TOT.INC Int-URLZ IrPnd-NPresFACT
Yes, it was a fact that I was about to kill the pig.

The example is about a frustrated action. The question being answered it. Was it a fact that you were about to kill the pig yesterday but you were interrupted. The speaker uses the final particle dy with a tone 5 non present fact marker. It was indeed a fact yesterday, but no longer is true that he is going to kill the pig.

By far the most common occurrence for the tone 5 epistemic modality morpheme is on the intention particle se. It is the most common tone on statements of intention.

\[
\text{A}^{9}\text{ui}^{8}\text{ bv}^{6}\text{ i}^{7}; \text{se}^{4}.
\]

1s house to go-TOT.INC Int-NPresFACT
I am going to go to the house.

Tone 5 meaning non-present fact, also occurs frequently on negatives as a emphatic contrastive negative. that is is not at all, didn’t at all,

\[
\text{Ba}^{6}\text{ y}^{3}\text{ to}^{6}; \text{a}^{2}, \text{i}^{7}; \text{ae}^{5}.
\]

No 1P Contr land-by go-TOT.INC Neg-NPresFACT
No, we did not (emphatic contrastive) go by land at all.

The non-present orientation of tone 5 enables it to act as an emphatic contrary to expectation on negatives. The speaker here is refuting a wrong assumption for the other speakers in the conversation.

The following example is of tone 5 on the di particle. It marks the totally bounded definite event as not true at present.

\[
\text{Da}^{9}\text{ ba}^{6}\text{bv}^{9}\text{ ty}^{7};\text{ be}^{8}\text{ di}^{9}\text{ di}^{5}?
\]

dog this who NMkr hit-TOT.PUN PBd-NPresFaCT
Who shot at /hit this dog?

In the sentence above there is no one hitting or wounding or killing the dog at present. But there is some evidence someone has, or some information about something having happened.

Tone 6

Tone 6 establishes a proposition as fact in the immediate temporal context. The following is an example using tone 6.

\[
\text{Au}^{7}\text{ so}^{6}; \text{ae}^{5}; \text{y}^{9}.
\]

3s child Neg-C.FACT Info-SC.A.DT
She has no children.

The negative particle with a tone 6 means ‘there is or there are none’. In the negative statement above, tone 6 indicates that the proposition ‘She has no children’ is an immediate fact, ie a fact at speech time.

Tone 6 only occurs on the negative particle. Although tone 6 immediate/current reality only occurs on negatives. It does occur on a several temporal adverbs which all have to do with the current temporal status or the previous situation. It seems that on these particles the tone has a similar meaning a current immediate situation.

\[
da^{9}\text{ now}
\]

\[
u^{9}\text{ before now}
\]

i^{9} now for a short time (‘I^{6}\text{ bv}^{6}\text{ bai}^{7}\text{ de}^{6}\text{ dy}^{3}\text{’} means wait a minute /I will be right with you.)
Tones Viewing An Unrealized Proposition As Possible or Hypothetically Possible (7,4)
Both tones, 7 and 4 view the action as unrealized.

**Tone 7**
Tone 7 when it occurs on postverbal particles usually establishes a hypothetical fact as illustrated below:

- Da⁹ ka⁹di⁹ be⁷ di⁹ y⁹ da⁹
  2p many is-TOT.INC PBd-FACT Nomin 2p
di⁴ di⁷ y⁵.
- kill-RES.DUR PBd-HYP Info-FACT
  If you had been many, you **could have** killed it.

On negative particles, tone 7 ‘hypothetical’ means ‘could have been, but wasn’t, or never would be. The following is an example.

- Ty⁷ bi³si⁹ di⁹ di⁴ ai⁷ di⁴ y⁹
  person one 2s kill-RES.DUR Neg-HYP Pbd-RLZ Nomin

**If you had not killed that person**, then you could have taken me (as wife).

In the final example, an indirect request, the speaker views the realization of the proposition as desirable and possible as marked by the tone 7 reality status morpheme.

- Sy⁹ di⁹ bi³si⁹ a⁵ ti² di⁶ y³.
  Obl 2S one 1S give-TEL.DUR PBd-HYP Info-SNC.A.DT
  You should give me one if you will.

**Tone 4**
Tone 4 marks and unrealized action as pending. It is viewed as about to be fulfilled. This comes out in various ways when combined with various post verbal particles.

This following sentence repeated from above, illustrates the use of a tone 4 epistemic modality marker on an intention particle to mean “about to”

- Di⁹y³, to⁸ bv⁶ di⁷ se⁴ dy⁴.
  Yes pig 1s kill-TOT.INC Int-URLZ IrPnd-NPFACT
  Yes, it was a fact that I was **about to** kill the pig.

The se particle above marks plans and intentions. The tone 4 epistemic modality morpheme indicates that the realization of the intention was pending but not yet implemented. In this case it is translated as ‘about to’ (when interrupted.)

The following is an example of a pending realization tone 4 morpheme on the inceptive unbounded particle ay.

- Ty⁷ ai³bv⁶ te⁷ bv⁶ a⁵fa³ de⁷.
  person that why gather-TOT.DUR Sta-FACT
  Why have those people gathered?

- Ty⁷ ui⁸ o⁸sy⁶ dav⁸ ay⁴.
  person house 1sPos build-TOT.PUN DIBd-URLZ
  They are **about to begin** building a house for me.

The unrealized action of the tone morpheme 4 on the unbounded a particle, results in the meaning, “still doing / doing again”. The speaker is exasperated, thinking the person would have finished doing the activity by now.
Di⁹ teʻbv⁹ bväku⁹ doe⁰ a⁴ ?
2s why book see-TOT.PUN DUbd-URLZ
Why are you still looking at books? /Why are you looking at books again?

In the example below, the tone 4 indicates that the speaker feels it is a probable reality that the hearers have been lying to him and he is about to discover that that is true, but he can’t prove it yet.

A⁹ da⁰ so’dy⁴ di¹ y⁸.
1s 2s lie PBd URLZ Info SNC ACR
I think I am going to find out that you have been lying to me.

Tones Viewing The Proposition As Progressing Towards Realization (3,8,2)

Tone 3
Tone 3 views the proposition as progressing towards realization at some time. It can mean ‘has been /has done’, ‘do, or be doing’.

Fr’su⁹ o’su⁹ ty⁷ te’be’dë’ be⁴ davys⁹.
Who makes pandanus leaf sleeping mats? (ie which people)

Ty⁷ Da’sdi⁷ be⁴ davys⁹.
people Dani NMkr make-TOT.PUN MultUBd-RLZ
The Danis make them.

Ty⁷⁻⁸ be⁸ a⁵ be⁴ fvy⁸ a⁸.
who NMkr-Caus land NMkr-Mns dig-RES.DUR DUBd-RLZ
Who has been digging dirt with this stick /Is using this stick to dig with?

The question above is not about the past but about who currently is in the habit of making mats, or who is currently using the stick. Perhaps the speaker want to order one. The speaker receives the answer that the Dani people have and still are making these mats.

The di particle refers to a definite punctual viewpoint event. The tone 3 morpheme means the action has been realized. This is a commonly used stem to mean that an action has already been done /completed.

.A⁹ a’se⁹ taui⁷ di¹.
1s SeqMkr make-TOT.INC PBd.RLZ
I have already made it.

A⁹ a’se⁹ tai⁵ de⁶ di³.
1s SeqMkr lie-TEL.PUN Sta-CRLZ PBd-RLZ
I’m already lying down.

Tone 3 contrasts with tone 9 that establishes the making of the mats in the face of opinion to the contrary.

Fr’su⁹ o’su⁹ y⁸ taui⁷ di¹ to⁴.
We did make the sleeping mat (Lit. fisu leaf)

The following is an example of the tone 3 morpheme on a be particle which view the action as continuative in the past but now stopped.

Da⁸ te’du³ sa³ be⁴.
2p what eat-TOT.DUR DBd-RLZ
What did you eat there?

Over the period of time that the addressees were in that place, they ate a number of times, thus the progressive realization tone morpheme 3.

In the situation below, Benjamin who never before had an experience in a plane has now had one. The speakers are discussing his reaction to his first ride. The negative particle with a tone 3 progressive realization morpheme means (before this) had not ever, did not ever.
Be⁸a⁹bi⁸ fv³doe⁷ ae³ se⁹ Benjamin plane see-TOT.INC Neg-RLZ since
dy⁴ a³ y⁹ do that-TEL.INC DUBd-RLZ Inf-SNC.A.DT Since Benjamin hadn't ever seen a plane, he acted like that.

Tone 8

Tone 8 views the proposition or the action as being realized in that immediate time period.
The following example shows the use of a di totally bounded particle to specify a specific definite time period. The time period “when I was up at Sai'⁷ta²” (a definite past known event) defines as situation when a simultaneous action took place.

A⁸ Sai'ta² bi² be⁴ di³ y⁹ 1S Saita dir.up is-TEL.INC PBd-CRLZ Nomin
du⁸ sa⁶ be⁶ to⁴. w pig eat-RES.DUR DBd-CRLZ RefHr-SNC.NA.NDT

**When/While I was** up at Saita, I ate (habitual /multiple) wild pork.

The action marked by be⁴ in the example below, a person hitting his head against the wall, is the cause of irritation to another person in the house who has just asked what was that noise? The action is now in the past but still part of the immediate situation and discussion. So it is marked with a tone 8.

A⁹ i⁶ du'be² u³ fui⁴ 1s head that wood knock-TEL.INC
be⁴ iy³. DBd-CRLZ Info-SA.ADT

It was my head that was knocking against the wall.

The following example shows a tone 8 morpheme on a stative particle and an inceptive continuative particle meaning the achievement of that state is in /supposed to occur in the immediate present.

Tai⁵ de⁶ dy³! lie-TEL.PUN Sta-CRLZ Imp-RS.SA
Lie down!

A⁸ a’se⁹ tai³ de³ . 1s SeqMkr lie-TEL.PUN Sta-CRLZ PBd-RLZ
I'm already lying down.

Ba⁷ ka⁹ dy³. come-TOT.INC Urge Imp-RS.Sa

Y⁸ dy⁴ ba⁷ ay⁸. 1p do it come-TOT.INC Info-CRLZ
“Come!” “We are coming! /on our way!”

The following is an example of tone 8 on a unbounded a particle.

Da⁹ oi⁻⁸ du⁸ su⁸ fi⁸ a⁸ be⁴ iy³. 2P hand w pig smell come out RES.DUR DUBd-CRLZ is-TEL.INC InfoU-SNC.A.DT
Your hands have the smell of wild pork coming from them.

In the example above, the smell is emanating from the hearer’s hands in the immediate speech context. Tone 8 marks the status of the proposition as being immediately /currently realized.

Finally, the example below shows the tone 8 morpheme on a negative particle, meaning the lack of a mosquito net is of immediate relevance in the situation.

Da⁹ te’⁸bv⁸ ke¹da’⁸bu⁸ ae⁶ du⁸ ba²”’” 2p why mosq net not-IMEDRelv go around QMkr
Why are you going around without a mosquito net?”
Tone 2

Tone 2 occurs only on the negative particle in a specialized circumstance marking a contraposition.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Dy}^a & \quad \text{av}^4 & \quad \text{bv}^a & \quad \text{av}^a & \quad \text{ae}^2 \\
\text{then father Poss to refuse-RES.DUR Neg-NPresRLZ} & & & & \\
\text{di}^a & \quad \text{ti}^2 & \quad \text{be}^3? & & \\
\text{2s give-TEL.DUR Unerc-RS.SA} & & & & \\
\text{So then, did her father not\textit{without} refusing, give her to you? (as wife)}
\end{align*}
\]

5.1.3.3 Illocutionary Force

The final particles in Iau verb phrase are deontic modality particles which express mood and illocutionary force.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deontic Intensifier+$T^2$</th>
<th>Deontic Modality+$T^3$</th>
<th>Evident+$T^3$ Sent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ka</td>
<td>dy, day, Imper, Prohib</td>
<td>to, daby, didv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>be/ba, Yes-No Question Mkr</td>
<td>Contrary to opinion,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>by Request Permission</td>
<td>emphatic Given/Known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>se, by Intention, Fut Poss</td>
<td>Info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fo,fe, Desiderative, Contra-Des</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>y, An Answer, Opinion, Statement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The segmental mood particles that fill the mood/illocutionary force slot in Iau are used to indicate the speaker's intention regarding the information role of his proposition in the conversational discourse. They have to do with speaker hearer relationship and intent towards each other as well as the content of the proposition expressed. The intent may be to convey information, opinion or assert a fact. It may be to ask for information or it may be to obligate either speaker or hearer to action. A promise or statement of intent is used by the speakers to obligate themselves. A command with various levels of mitigation of that command is an attempt by the speaker to obligate the hearer. Following the mood slot is a slot used by the speaker to convey that the information is or should be already known to the hearer. It is in effect an intensifier of the command, promise or statement being made.

Segmental Mood Particles

These mood particles are optional in Iau. They occur mainly in dialogue in conversations, and as embedded dialogue in narrative or other discourse genre. When the speaker's primary focus is to convey the information in the proposition, no mood particle is used. When the speaker uses a mood particle, he is not only conveying the information in the proposition, he is also conveying information about the dynamics of the conversational discourse and his relationship to the hearer.

The following sentences illustrate this.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{A}^a & \quad \text{a’se}^a & \quad \text{u}^e & \quad \text{fvy}^e. \\
1S \text{ SeqMkr before bathe-RES.PUN} & \\
\text{I have already bathed before (you /now).} & \text{I bathed earlier.} \\
\text{A}^a & \quad \text{a’se}^a & \quad \text{u}^e & \quad \text{fvy}^e & \quad \text{to}^a. \\
1S \text{ SeqMkr before bathe-RES.PUN RHR-SC.ADT} & \\
\text{I have already bathed (It is not as you seem to think).}
\end{align*}
\]

In the first example, the speaker sees the hearer obviously on her way to bathe and volunteers the information that she, the speaker, has already bathed. In the second example, the role of the proposition in the discourse is to refute an assumption or previous statement of the hearer that the speaker still needs to take a bath or is going to bathe.

The segmental mood particles in Iau can be classified according to two basic functions. One set of particles marks propositions whose role is to give information to the hearer. The tone morphemes on these particles indicate which participant in the opinion of the speaker is controlling the conversation and also what the relationship of the information is to the discourse topic.

The second set of particles marks propositions whose role is to elicit a response from the hearer. These are imperatives of varying illocutionary force and question markers. The tone morphemes
on these particles indicate the degree of speaker authority, the degree to which the speaker needs or anticipates hearer response, and which participant controls the realization of the proposition. The meanings of the segmental mood particles are discussed below. The meanings of the tone morphemes are discussed in the following section.

Mood Particles Marking Sentences Giving Information to the Hearer

There are 6 segmental particles in Iau which mark propositions whose role is to give information to the hearer (Statements).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ASSERTIVE</th>
<th>NON-ASSERTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNMARKED</td>
<td>MARKED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIVE INFORMATION</td>
<td>Y 9/3/5</td>
<td>to 9/3/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>opinions, statements, answers</td>
<td>refute, contradict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>by³ subjunctive, probable might will, could</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REQUEST CONFIRMATION OF INFORMATION</td>
<td>be 9/3/4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROPOSE ACTION</td>
<td>dy 3/8/4</td>
<td>ka⁷ (dy³) urge (dy³) da³ repeated command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ba³ Let’s....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>day³ Don’t</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are listed below.

y give information (Info)
iy give information unknown to hearer, speaker an expert (InfoU)
by give highly probable information, predict, recommend (Subj)
be/ba (stressed) give information speaker is not certain about (Uncer)
to/ta give information that refutes the hearer (RHR)
e give information whose role in the context is to explain or justify (Exp)

Segmental mood particles whose role is to give information to the hearer receive major verb phrase stress. Mood particles whose role is to elicit a response from the hearer do not. The following examples illustrate the contrastive information giving roles of the segmental mood particles in Iau.

The y particle marks propositions when the speaker wants to indicate to the hearer that he is giving information that is either a response to the hearer, or an opinion, or further information about something in the discourse context. The following are some examples.

Di³ te³ bv³ i³ a³?
2S why go-TOT.PUN D.UBD-RLZ
For what purpose are you going?

A³ y³ bv³ i³ a³ y³.
1S water for go-TOT.PUN D.UBD-FACT Info-SNC.ADT
I’m going to get water.

Ty⁶ du³ bi³ be³?
person secretly get-RES.DUR Uncer-SNC.ADT

bv³ do³⁴ ai³⁴ y³.
1S see-TOT.INC Neg-URLZ Info-SNC.ADT
Someone may have stolen it, I don’t know.

The y particle often marks the answer to a question as illustrated in the first example above. In the second example the speaker is giving further information about discourse topic ‘Where is my axe’ which is marked by the particle y.
The iy particle indicates that the speaker is giving information on which he considers himself an expert. He considers the hearer ignorant on the subject. The following is an example.

```
Ay³ Au'sy³ ai³ bv³ ñ³ be⁸ dy³ dau³ de⁰
d³ dv⁰
okay our that Intens do that-RES.DUR Sta-HYP MVerbCj Seq
a³ se³ av³ be⁶ day⁴ te⁷ fv² a³
SeqMkr quickly husband tie-TEL.DUR D.UBd-FACT
dy³ dau³ a³ y³,
do that-TOT.PUN D.UBd-FACT Info-SC.ADT
```

Spkr 1: I see. When our (girls) are like that (ie that age), they are quickly married.

In the example above the speakers are discussing the marital status of a young girl. Speaker 2 as an inside member of the culture is informing Speaker 1, an outsider, of the marriage customs in the village. The particle iy indicates that he considers himself knowledgeable.

The by particle gives information that the speaker feels is highly likely to be true as illustrated in the example below.

```
Di⁹ bai³ si⁷ by³.
1S fall-TOT.INC Probable-SNC.ADT
You might fall.
```

The by particle frequently occurs on propositions that are the grounds for some command or prohibition in the context. It also is used on recommendations for action and predictions.

The be/ba particle is used to indicate that the speaker is giving information that he is unsure of, ie he is not sure that it is true. The following is an example.

```
Di³ so³ dy⁴ be³
Di³ fe³ tau³\lep\u200f 2S lie-TEL.INC Uncer-SNC.ADT 2S wrong do-TOT.INC

MVCICj Adv falsely news suppress-TOT.INC.CHs Uncer-SNC.ADT.
I think you are lying. You have done wrong, but you are not admitting it.
```

The be/ba particles are interchangeable according to native speakers. In the sentences above the speaker suspects that the hearer is lying but has no proof. He indicates his uncertainty by marking the sentence with the particle ba.

The to particle is used to give information that the speaker is using to refute, contradict, or deny previous information content, or the underlying assumptions of other speakers. The to particle also marks statements where the speaker is emphasizing that his own beliefs, opinions, or experiences are contrary to the hearer’s. The following sentences are some examples.

```
Bv⁷ te⁷ ae⁶ to³,
this husband Neg-RES.PUN RftHr-SC.ADT
This one has no husband.
```

The to particle is used to give information that the speaker is using to refute, contradict, or deny previous information content, or the underlying assumptions of other speakers. The to particle also marks statements where the speaker is emphasizing that his own beliefs, opinions, or experiences are contrary to the hearer's. The following sentences are some examples.

```
Bv⁷ te⁷ ae⁶ to³,
this husband Neg-RES.PUN RftHr-SC.ADT
This one has no husband.
Fe⁶ ai³ di³ to³ a³
eye glass 2S what do-TEL.INC.CHs Inten-FACT
What are you going to do with those goggles?
di³ da³ i³ a³?
```

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```
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this husband Neg-RES.PUN RftHr-SC.ADT
This one has no husband.
Fe⁶ ai³ di³ to³ a³
eye glass 2S what do-TEL.INC.CHs Inten-FACT
What are you going to do with those goggles?
di³ da³ i³ a³?
```

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```
Bv⁷ te⁷ ae⁶ to³,
this husband Neg-RES.PUN RftHr-SC.ADT
This one has no husband.
Fe⁶ ai³ di³ to³ a³
eye glass 2S what do-TEL.INC.CHs Inten-FACT
What are you going to do with those goggles?
di³ da³ i³ a³?
```

The to particle is used to give information that the speaker is using to refute, contradict, or deny previous information content, or the underlying assumptions of other speakers. The to particle also marks statements where the speaker is emphasizing that his own beliefs, opinions, or experiences are contrary to the hearer's. The following sentences are some examples.

```
Bv⁷ te⁷ ae⁶ to³,
this husband Neg-RES.PUN RftHr-SC.ADT
This one has no husband.
Fe⁶ ai³ di³ to³ a³
eye glass 2S what do-TEL.INC.CHs Inten-FACT
What are you going to do with those goggles?
di³ da³ i³ a³?
```
In the first example above, the speaker is refuting the basic underlying assumption that the woman in question is married. The second example illustrates the use of the particle ‘to’ to emphasize that Speaker 2’s own experience in using goggles to catch fish is contrary to Speaker 1’s who has never used them.

The particle ‘e’ is more rare than the other mood particles in conversational discourse. The ‘e’ particle is used on statements that the hearer is using to justify or explain his action. The following segment of conversational discourse illustrates this.

Di⁹ to⁶ ba²⁹ sa⁹ ae⁹ be³⁹?
2S Cntr corn eat-RES.DUR Neg-FACT ?Mkr-RS.SA
You don't eat corn, do you?
Ba³⁹ be⁹ be³⁹?
corn is-TEL-INC ?Mkr-RS.SA
Do you have corn?
Be⁹ du¹e’⁷ di³⁹ bv⁷ foi⁴⁺
is-TEL.INC MVCInc.Adv 2S 1S tell-TEL.INC.CHIS
se⁹ dy³⁹da⁴¹dv⁵⁷ ba⁶ e⁴.
Int-URLZ IVCIC on come-TOT.PUN Expl-SNC.NA.NDT
Yes, I have some but I came in order to ask you (first)
(if you wanted any.)

The final sentence marked by the particle ‘e’ functions in the discourse context to give information explaining why Speaker 1 came to Speaker 2 to ask him about corn.

Mood Particles Eliciting a Response from the Hearer.

There are 7 segmental mood particles which mark propositions which the speaker is using to elicit a response from the hearer. They are listed below. Syllables with tone variants do not have a tone on them in the list below

be/ba (Unstressed) Yes-No Question Marker (?Mkr)
asy Directs the hearer's attention to something (Attn)
bv Request permission /instruction /action (Rq)
dy Imperative (Imp)
dy'da Emphatic /Repeated Imperative (EImp)
day Prohibition (PRoh)

The unstressed be/ba marker is used to mark yes-no questions in which the speaker is trying to elicit certain information as a response from the hearer. The following is an example.

Fv⁹ da⁷su⁶ ba⁷ ba²⁷?
plane tomorrow come-TOT.INC ?Mkr-RS.SA
Is the plane coming tomorrow?

The particle asy which occurs with several tone variations, is used to direct the speaker's attention to something. The following sentence is an example.

Dai³⁹ dv⁹ doe⁷ a⁹sy⁸.
butterfly see-TOT.INC Attn-NRS.SA
Look at the butterflies!

The asy particle not only calls the speaker’s attention to something but also has the connotation that the speaker anticipates it is highly relevant or of interest to the hearer.

The bv particle marks requests for permission and also requests for the hearer to instruct the speaker on what the hearer wants the speaker to do. The bv particle is illustrated below.

A⁹ i³⁹ bv³⁹?
1S go-TOT.INC Req-RS.SA
May I go?
Di² teʰbeʔ uʔ⁷# bv³ʔ
2S where stand-TOT.INC.CHIS Req-RS.SA
Where do you want to stand?

The first sentence is an example of a request for permission to do something. The second sentence is from a conversation in which one person has asked another person if he would take his picture for him. The second sentence is a request for the hearer to indicate to the speaker what he wants to do.

The dy particle marks imperatives in Iau as illustrated by the following example.

I’
  dy³.
goi-TOT.INC Imp-RS.SA
Go!

The particle ‘dy*da’ occurs most frequently in contexts of parents talking to their children when they are trying to coax the child to do something. The particle dy*da has the meaning ‘I said to do it’. The following is an example.

Ba⁷
dy⁸-da⁹.

come-TOT.INC ElImp-NRS.SA
It’s a given fact/you know (you) must come! /I said, come!

The particle day³ marks prohibitions as illustrated in the following sentence.

Di⁹ dy³sy⁷ i⁷
day³.
1S Proh goi-TOT.INC Prohib-RS.SA
You shouldn’t go. /Don’t go!.

Prohibitions require both the dy*sy and day³ particles.

The Mood Tone Morphemes
The illocutionary force of an utterance can be defined as the speech act that is performed by uttering a given proposition. Lyons (1977:745) lists statements, commands and questions as examples of utterances with differing illocutionary force. The illocutionary force of an utterance in Iau is indicated by a combination of grammatical devices including modality particles, sentence final segmental mood particles and the tone morphemes that occur on them.

We have seen in the previous section that the Iau segmental mood particles indicate the intended illocutionary force of the proposition. One set of particles marks sentences that give information to the hearer. Another set of particles marks sentences whose role is to elicit a response from the hearer.

The tone morphemes which are superimposed on these segmental particles mark the dynamics of the interchange between speaker and hearer. The tone morphemes indicate whether the speaker is asserting the information as nuclear/core information about the discourse topic or not. They also indicate which speaker in the conversation is controlling the discourse topic and the flow of information about discourse topic. The tone morphemes on Iau mood particles have differing meanings depending on the illocutionary force of the sentence on which they occur. In the following sections we will discuss the meanings of the tone morphemes on Yes-No Question Markers. Then we will discuss the meanings of the tone morphemes on directives. And finally we will discuss the meanings of the tone morphemes on statements.

The tone morphemes on the mood particles indicate the illocutionary force of the utterance, i.e. how much response the speaker expects from the hearer and how forceful and immediate the requirement is.

The following lists the illocutionary force meanings of the tone morphemes on these particles.

- 3 =Assertive, expects response /or responding to previous speaker (RsA)
- 8 =Assertive, expects /needs immediate response (IRsA)
- 9 =Assertive, but does not expect response (NRsA)
- 5 =Assertive, but expects hearer resistance, both hearer and speaker obligation (SHRsA)
- 4 =Non-assertive, but expects response (RsNA)
- 7 =Non-assertive, does not expect response or compliance (NRsNA)

The following are some examples.
A⁹ fv³ a⁵ doe⁸ _be⁸ y³.
I plane land see TBd-CRLZ Stmnt-RsA
I was (just now) looking at the airstrip. (Hearer answering a question)

Sa'dy⁴ i⁷ _dy³.
GivePerm go Imper-RsA
Go ahead and go. /Okay, go.

"Ba'bv⁹ fu⁹ dav⁴ be⁴ be'de⁸ _y⁷."
this Certain lake is TEL.INC Probable Stmnt-NRSN
Surely we can (see) a lake from this (tree)

Y⁴ i⁷ _ba³.
we go let's (SHRspA)
Let's go.!

Das v'y⁹ ba⁷ _dy⁸.
Das Voc come Imp-IRspa
Das, come on! (now)

The Tone Morphemes on the Yes-No Question Marker

Yes-No Questions in Iau are marked by the unstressed particle be with one of three different tone morphemes. The tone morphemes vary according to the degree of input that the speaker feels he needs from the hearer, and also how certain the speaker is that his information is correct. The table below displays the meanings of the 3 tone morphemes occurring on the be question marker.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Anticipated Hearer Input</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Possible</th>
<th>Highly Probable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>HPI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the tone 9 morpheme indicates that the speaker is relatively certain that the information content of the question is correct. The speaker does not anticipate any significant information content input from the hearer. The following sentence illustrates the use of tone 9 on a Yes-No Question Marker in Iau.

A⁴ ty⁷ Bi'e⁵ a'se⁹ u⁶ di⁹ be⁹
father person Bie SeqMkr before kill-TOT.PUN ?Mkr-NI
So the people from Bie first killed father, right?

The speaker in the example above is using the question to prompt the hearer to retell a story about an enemy raid. The speaker already knows that the information content of the question is correct since he got the information from the hearer previously. He wants the speaker to answer the question ‘Yes’ and then begin to tell the story.

A tone 3 morpheme is used on a Yes-No Question Marker when the speaker has reason to believe that the information is correct but feels he needs input /confirmation from the hearer. This is the most common tone occurring on the Yes-No Question Marker. The following sentence is an example.

Fv⁷ ba⁷ be³?
Plane come-TOT.INC ?Mkr-PI
Is the plane coming?

In the example above, the speaker thinks the plane may be coming and he is asking the hearer for either confirmation or denial.

The tone 4 morpheme is used on the Yes-No Question Marker to indicate that the speaker is not at all sure of the information content of the question. The following is an example from a conversational text.
Da² a² tv⁰ be⁴?
2P land-by go-TOT.PUN ?Mkr-HIP
Did you go by land?

The sentence above is taken from a conversation about a trip to a new place. The speaker has never been there and is asking about the place and the hearer's trip there. He marks his question with the tone 4 morpheme to indicate that it is highly probable that the information content of his question is not correct.

The Tone Morphemes on Directives

Directives (Lyons, 1977:746) are utterances in which the speaker tries to influence the behavior of the hearer. Directives in Ia'u are indicated by the presence of an obligation particle and/or one of a set of mood particles that indicate that the speaker wants the hearer to do something. (See Section 5.1.3.3) The tone morphemes that occur on mood particles in directive sentences are displayed in below. They indicate degree of obligation and speaker attitude toward hearer response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker Attitude Toward Hearer Response</th>
<th>Degree of Obligation</th>
<th>Suggest</th>
<th>Expect</th>
<th>Try to Persuade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate Obligation</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Authoritative</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown along the left hand side of the chart, the tone morphemes on directive mood particles indicate the degree of obligation the speaker places on the hearer by indicating the degree of authoritativeness that the speaker feels towards the hearer.

When directive mood particles are marked by tones 9 or 3, the speaker regards himself as authoritative relative to the hearer. In contrast, when directive mood particles are marked by tones 5 or 4, the speaker regards himself as nonauthoritative. The tone 8 morpheme indicates that the hearer is under obligation to respond immediately.

The top line of the chart shows 3 different attitudes of the speaker towards hearer response. By using the tones in the first column, tones 9 and 5, the speaker is only suggesting or advising a certain response from the hearer. He feels that the hearer may conceivably refuse. By using the tones in the second column, tones 3 and 8, the speaker indicates that he expects the hearer to comply. The tone in the third column, tone 4 indicates that the speaker expects the hearer to be resistant, and is trying to persuade him to respond. Tones 6, 7 and 2 do not occur on directive mood particles. Each of the directive tone morphemes will be discussed and illustrated below.

Tone 9 is used on directive mood particles when the speaker is suggesting, advising, recommending, or coaxing a response from the hearer. The following is an example.

DY⁸ bi³ai² da⁴dv⁰ by⁷ uiº then tired-TEL.DUR.MVICICn Res Act house
fe⁴kaº deº toº sleep-TEL.INC Sta-HYP RHR-SRS.SA
If you are tired, then you should be asleep in your house!

In the example above the speaker is recommending an alternate action to the hearer. Since he (the hearer) is tired he should be at home resting instead of climbing the breadfruit tree. The speaker regards himself as authoritative, ie he has the right and authority to tell the hearer what to do, as marked by tone 9. Tone 9 also indicates that the speaker recognizes that the hearer may or may not choose to comply.
Tone 3 is the most commonly used tone on directive particles. Tone 3 is used for commands, requests, prohibitions, and desires. The following are some examples.

I' dy³.
go-TOT.INC Imp-RS.SA
Go!
Sy⁹ e'fe'' o³ bv³.
Obl 1s-Benef take-TOT.INC Rq-RS.SA
Would you get it for me, please? /Please get it for me.

The first example above illustrates a command in Iau. The Imperative particle dy is marked by tone 3 to indicate that the speaker regards himself as authoritative and he expects the hearer to respond to his command. The second example above illustrates a tone 3 particle on a request. The speaker considers himself as authoritative, ie he has the right to tell the hearer what to do. He also expects the hearer to respond. The request particle bv softens the directive to a request made with authority.

The tone 8 morpheme is used on imperatives when the speaker wants the command to be executed in the immediate speech context. Tone 8 particles are frequently used on commands shouted long distance as is illustrated in the following example.

Ta¹ da⁸ ba⁷ dy⁸.
knife carry-RES.DUR come-TOT.INC Imp-RS.SA.IO
Bring the knife!

The sentence above is taken from a narrative about catching an animal that had escaped down inside a hollow tree stump. The speaker is shouting to another man some distance away to bring the bush knife so they can kill the animal they have located.

Tone 5 is used on first person plural directives `Let's' as illustrated in the following example.

Y¹ i⁷ ba¹.
1P go-TOT.INC Imp-SRS.SNA
Let's go!

In the example above, as marked by tone 5, the speaker is suggesting an action to the hearer but regards himself as nonauthoritative relative to the hearer, ie he doesn't have the authority to tell the hearer what to do.

Tone 4 is used on directives when the speaker is indicating a wish or desire but he feels the hearer will probably not be willing to comply. Tone 4 is also used on indirect commands when the speaker feel he has no right to tell the hearer what to do. The following is an example.

Di³ sa'dy⁴ e⁸ ti² a⁹ e⁹
di² UrgAct 1s give-TEL.DUR D.UBd-FACT Nom Cl Mkr
da'ki⁶ y⁴.
good-Pred Adj Info-PRS.SNA
It would be good if you gave it to me.okay?

The speaker making the request above is not commanding the hearer to give him the object in question. He marks his request as indirect by using the statement mood particle y and a tone 4 morpheme which is nonauthoritative and persuades but does not command the hearer to respond.

The Tone Morphemes on Statement Mood Particles
Statements are used in conversational discourse to give information to the hearer(See Longacre 1976 for a fascinating discussion that has been helpful in analysis Iau dialogue). The tone morphemes on statement mood markers in Iau indicate the relationship of the participants and relation of the information content to discourse topic. The chart below displays the meanings of the tone morphemes that occur on mood particles in statements. Tones 6, 5 and 2 do not occur on statement mood particles in Iau.
Relationship of Participant and Information Content to Discourse Topic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assert</th>
<th>Not Assert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Info Content</td>
<td>Speaker control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About Discourse Topic</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate Relevance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not directly about topic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meaning of Tone Morphemes on Statement Mood Particles

Tone 9 in the first column of the chart above indicates that the Speaker considers himself to be the participant controlling the discourse topic and the information about discourse topic. Furthermore, tone 9 on a statement mood particle indicates that the speaker is asserting the information as nuclear or core information about the discourse topic.

Statements marked by tone 9 are used in conversational discourse on answers that challenge the information content of the question or answers that assert the speaker’s control over information unknown to the hearer. The following sentence is an example.

Dy⁴ so⁶ to'ba⁷ de⁹?
then child how many Sta-FACT
Spkr 1 And how many children does he have?
So⁶ a⁻⁷ y⁹.
child Neg-RES.DUR Info-SC.A.DT
He has no children.

In the example above, Speaker B uses a tone 9 on the statement mood particle y to indicate that he intends to challenge the basic assumption of Speaker A and assert contrastive information about the discourse topic.

In contrast to tone 9 in the first column of the chart above, tones 3 and 8 in the second column indicate that the speaker does not control discourse topic or the flow of information about discourse topic. The information content of the statement, however, is being asserted about discourse topic. Most answers to questions in Iau are marked by a tone 3 on the statement mood particle as illustrated by the following example.

Fv⁷ da'su⁶ ba⁷ ba³?
plane tomorrow come-TOT.INC ?Mkr-PI
Spkr 1 Is the plane coming tomorrow?
Diy³. Fv⁷ da'su⁶ ba⁷ a⁹ y³.
yes plane tomorrow come-TOT.PUN DUbd-FACT Info-SNC.A.DT
Spkr 2 Yes, the plane is coming tomorrow.

In the example above Speaker 1 marks his answer to Speaker A’s question with a noncontrolling tone 3 morpheme. The tone 3 morpheme indicates that while Speaker 2 is asserting the information in the statement about discourse topic, he is not the participant who is controlling discourse topic or the flow of information about discourse topic. He is responding to Speaker 1 by providing the requested information.

Tone 3 morphemes can also be used on statements that give further information on an already introduced topic as illustrated in the following example.

Ay⁸ Be'a'bı⁸ fv⁷ doe⁷ ae³ se⁹
yes Benjamin plane see-TOT INC Neg-RLZ SubClCj
dy⁴ a³ y³.
do that D.UBd-RLZ Info-SNC.A DT
Yes, since Benjamin had never seen a plane before, he acted like that.

The example above is taken from a segment of conversational text about being afraid of riding in planes. The preceding speaker has just answered that although he wasn’t afraid, his companion
Benjamin held onto him the whole way because he was so afraid. The sentence in the example above marked by tone 3 is a further comment on the topic of being afraid of riding in planes. The sentence above provides information on one of the reasons that people are afraid when they ride in planes.

In contrast, further remarks that give contrastive information are not marked with a tone 3 noncontrolling morpheme but with a tone 9 speaker controlling tone morpheme instead. The following example illustrates the use of tone 9 on a contrastive further remark.

```
Ay⁸ Au⁹ sy⁸ ai⁸ bv⁹ fi⁸ be⁹ dy⁴ dau⁸ de⁷
yes 1P-Poss that Intens like that Sta-HYP
da⁴ dv⁹ av⁹ be⁹ day⁸ te⁲ fv² a⁹
MVCICn quickly husband tie-TEL.DUR D.UBd-FACT
dy⁴ dau⁹ a⁹ y⁷.
so that-TOT.PUN D.UBd-FACT Info-SC.A.DT
```

I see. When our (girls) are like she is (the same age), then they are quickly /soon married to a husband.

The participants in the conversation above are discussing the marriage status of various people in the village. Speaker 2 is surprised that a certain girl is still unmarried. Speaker 1 explains that their custom is to wait until the girls are a little older. Speaker 2 in the sentence above then offers a contrastive statement that in his village, the girl would have already been married. The contrastive statement giving further information is marked by tone 9.

The tone 8 morpheme is also speaker non controlling. In addition, the tone 8 morpheme indicates that the information in the proposition is of immediate contextual relevance. The following sentence is an example.

```
A⁹ a⁵ taui⁷ sa⁹ y⁴.
1S land work-TOT.INC Int-FACT Info-SNC.A.CR
I am going now to work in my garden.
```

The sentence above is taken from a conversation about what each participant is doing. The example above is the answer to the question, `What are you going to do?' In the discourse context, the speaker is on his way to the garden. The information in the statement is of immediate relevance in the discourse situation since the speaker is currently engaged in bringing the action about.

The tones in the final column of the chart above, tones 7 and 4, are also speaker noncontrolling. Tones 7 and 4 also tend to mark responses such as answers and further remarks or opinions. Tones 7 and 4 contrast in that tone 7 marks statements whose information content is directly about the discourse topic while tone 4 marks statements when the information is not directly about the discourse topic.

The following is an example of a tone 7 morpheme on a statement.

```
So⁷ fi⁴ au⁹ be⁸ be⁹?
tree Inten tall ?Mkr-NI
Spkr 1 And the So tree very tall?
BY⁷ to³ ? ae⁷.
Exclam do what-TEL.DUR.CHIS Neg-HYP here go away-TOT.PUN (?) Info-SNC.NA.DT
Spkr 2 You are not kidding! It was way up there!
```

Many occurrences of tone 7, like the example above, are on highly idiomatic verb phrases. The question mark glossing the particle dv is used to indicate that the exact meaning of the particle is unknown. The general meaning of the statements is clear from the context and discussions with native speakers. In the example above, the speaker is giving a highly emotive response to Speaker 1’s question. Speaker 2 uses the tone 7 morpheme to indicate that the fact that the tree was tall should not even have been called into question.

Tone 4 morphemes mark statements that have backgrounding functions in the discourse. The information content of the statement marked by tone 4 is peripheral not nuclear to the discourse topic, ie it is not directly related to the discourse topic. The following example illustrates tone 4 marking information that is not directly about the discourse topic.
Bv³ te⁷ aœxxx to⁸,  
this husband Neg-RES.PUN RHy-SC.A.DT  
Spkr 1 She has no husband!  
Y³ Au³ iši³ ba³ be³ to⁸,  
Exclam 3S big is-TOT. INC RHr-SNC.NA.NDT  
Spkr 2 But, she is already grown.

The topic of the conversation above is the marital status of various individuals. Speaker 2's statement marked by tone 4 is a reaction /response to the information in Speaker 1's statement. However, Speaker 2's statement does not assert information about the discourse topic, ie the marital status of a particular individual.

5.1.4 COMPOUND VERB PHRASES IN IAU

Iau has several subordinating particles which seem to be operating more on the phrase level than the clause level. The particle se⁹ which is also a subordinate clause conjunction ‘since’ can also be used to mark manner as illustrated below.

Au¹ a³ se⁹ di⁸ sa⁸ se⁹ i⁷.  
he SqMkr food eat-Res.Pnc-VPCj-Smlt go.Tot.Pnc  
He went along eating /OR He ate as he went.

The stative particle de which also is used as a subordinate clause conjunction ‘since, because’ when used with a tone 7 also indicates an accompanying event which could also be marked as purpose.

Au¹ a³ se⁹ fvy⁶ de⁷ tv³.  
he SqMkr bathe-Res.Pnc Sta-VPCj gone.Tot.Pnc  
He has gone bathing (to bathe)

The particle so indicates that the event so marked is terminated prematurely.

A³ da³ ba³ di³ dy³ sy⁷ o⁷ so⁷ toe⁴ day³.  
God’s word you shouldn’t take-TOT.. INC VPCjTermin throw-TEL.. INC Prohib.  
You shouldn’t take /receive God’s word for a while and then throw it away.

In the phrases above, the first verb has an adverbial function relative to the second.

5.2 The Noun Phrase

Noun phrases in Iau are in the order of the noun followed by the modifier as illustrated in the example below.

Du⁹ a¹ biši³ a³ se⁹ ba³.  
wild pig another one SeqMkr shoot-TOT.DUR  
He shot another wild pig.

In the Iau example above, wild pig, the noun is followed by two modifiers a³ ‘another’ and biši³ ‘one’.

The chart below shows the kinds of modifiers that occur in Iau and the order in which they occur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEAD</th>
<th>Modifier1</th>
<th>Modifier2</th>
<th>Modifier3</th>
<th>Modifier4</th>
<th>Modifier5</th>
<th>Modifier6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Classifier</td>
<td>Specifier</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Quantifier</td>
<td>Demonstrative</td>
<td>Focus/Case Role Mkr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ordering of Modifiers in the Iau Noun Phrase.

5.2.1 Components of the Iau noun phrase

Classifiers

As shown in the chart on ordering of units in the Iau NP above, a classifier particle may occur immediately following a generic noun. Classifier particles usually name some semantic class which furthet identifies the noun such as nationality, or sex of the noun. The following are examples.
Noun Classifier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ty⁷</th>
<th>Da⁹di⁷</th>
<th>the Danis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>Dani</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷</td>
<td>si⁸</td>
<td>the women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>woman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷</td>
<td>fi⁹</td>
<td>people of another nationality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>group</td>
<td>another</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Specifier – see below

Specifiers
Following the classifiers are another group of modifiers, the specifiers. These particles specify certain members of a class as opposed to others.Specifier particles are words like ‘another one, some, or a different one’. The following are some examples in Iau.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ty⁷</th>
<th>a⁹</th>
<th>another person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>another</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷</td>
<td>a⁹fa⁷*</td>
<td>a different person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>different</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷</td>
<td>si⁸</td>
<td>some of the women,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>women</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷</td>
<td>fi⁹</td>
<td>people of the same nationality/clan/group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>group</td>
<td>identical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷</td>
<td>fi⁹</td>
<td>people of another nationality/clan/group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>group</td>
<td>another</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Adjectives
The descriptive adjectives follow the classifier and specifier particles. The following noun phrase is an example.

```
Du⁹ a⁹ i⁹si⁴ba⁷
wild-pig another big
a big wild-pig, another big wild-pig
```

Quantifiers
The quantifiers follow the descriptive adjectives in Iau noun phrases as illustrated below.

```
Du⁹ a⁹ i⁹si⁴ba⁷ bo⁴ be⁷
wild pig another big two
Two other big pigs
```

Demonstratives
Following the quantifiers in the noun phrase are the demonstrative adjectives such as ‘this’ or ‘that’. The ordering of the demonstrative adjectives after the quantifiers is illustrated below.

```
Ty⁷ bo⁴ ba⁴bv⁹
person two this
these two people
```

Case Marking Particles
The final particles in the Iau noun phrase are the optional particles which mark the case role of the noun relative to discourse topic. The also mark the information in the noun phrase as predicated information. For more information on predicated information see section 6.2 below about pragmatic focus – presupposition and the Iau clause.

The following is a list of the focus/case marking particles in Iau.

```
be⁷ /be⁹ /be*marks noun phrase as predicated information about the case role of noun relative to discourse topic
by⁷ same as be⁷ but refers to a specific item or individual known to the hearer
di⁷ body part as instrument
fe⁷ /fa⁷ benefactive
bv⁹ goal (for, to)
fi⁹ undergoer source (take away from)
```
The noun markers *be* and *by* are used to mark noun phrases when the noun phrase is part of the new information that is being predicated about the topic. This is illustrated by the following question and answer set.

```
Kafˈbaˈbva⁸ ty⁷⁻⁸ be⁸ taui⁷ di³?
show this who TopCMkr make-TOT.INC PBd-RLZ
Who made this bow?
Das⁷⁻⁸ be⁸ taui⁷ di³.
Das TopCMkr make-TOT.INC PBd-RLZ
Das made it.
```

In the question and answer set above, the speaker and hearer are talking about a topic, a bow that someone made. The new information that the questioner wants to know is: who made the bow. In the example above the question word 'who' and the name 'Das' are both marked with the same noun marker *be* to indicate that this noun and not the verb is the new information that is being predicated about the topic, the bow.

The tone on these particles indicates the case role of the noun. The *be* and *by* noun markers have three tone variants. The tone 8 variant *be* indicates that the marked noun is the causative agent that acted on the topic noun. In the previous example Das was the one who acted on the bow and made it. This is indicated by the tone 8 on the *be* case marker. The following sentence is an another example.

```
Ty⁷ bi⁷si⁸ a⁶ se⁸ bi⁸ be⁸ da⁸
person one SeqMkr before news Focus.Cs carry-RES.DUR
i⁷ da⁷dva⁹ ty⁷ a⁶ se⁸ fa⁸fu⁹ ba⁸day³.
go-TOT.INC MVCIMkr person SeqMkr all flee-TOT.DUR
Someone had already taken the news before (we got there) and so they had all already fled.
```

The sentence above is answering the question 'So you didn't actually kill any one on the raid?'. The answer is "No". The reason is because of the news that had been carried to the people ahead of time. The noun bi⁸ 'news' is marked by the *be* particle as the cause of conversation topic, the fact that they did not kill anyone.

When a tone 4 occurs on the topic case marker *be⁴*, it indicates that the noun is either acted on by the topic or the noun is the instrument or means of acting on the topic. This is illustrated by the following examples:

1. Fi⁸ kae² be⁴ o⁹ a⁹.
   fish net NMkr-Mns take-TOT.PUN DUBd-URLZ
   Fish are caught by means of nets.
2. Kae² fi⁹ be⁴ o⁹ a⁹.
   net fish NMkr-Mns take TOT.PUN DUBd URLZ
   Nets are the means of catching fish.

In both sentences the relationship between fish and nets is the same. Nets are the means by which the undergoer, 'fish', is affected. The first sentence answers the question 'What is used for catching fish?' The second sentence answers the question 'What are nets used for?'

The tone 7 variant *be⁷* is used to mark nouns in clauses in which some other noun is the predicated new information or it is used to mark nouns which are already partially known or highly expected in the context. The following are some examples.

1. To⁸ tai⁷ baˈbva⁹ By⁷ be⁷⁻⁸de³ Uˈdu⁷ba⁷dva⁸ bo⁸
   pig leg this Bih also Udubadus(also) two
   a⁶ se⁸ tai⁷ be⁸ o⁸.
   SeqMkr leg NMk take-TOT.PUN
   As for the pig's leg, both Bih and Udumadus grabbed it.
2. Bv⁷ da⁷ duˈbe⁸ a⁷ be⁷ di³.
   this dog that SI NMkr kill-TOT.DUR
   This is a dog that I killed.

The *be* noun markers will be discussed in more detail in a separate section below.

The first example above is taken from a portion of a text that is about catching a pig. The narrator is telling which body part each of the participants grabbed in order to catch the pig. The
fact that the participants grabbed onto a body part of the pig is highly expected in the context. The be marker with a tone 7 marks the specific identity of the body part as highly expected. The second example illustrates the use of a tone 7 on the be particle to mark a noun which is not the new or unknown noun in the context. In (2) above, the hearer already knows that the speaker is the one who killed the animal.

The particle di is used in Iau to mark a body part which is used as an instrument. The following is an example.

| Bo^de' ty' a'se° e^ -di' di°. |
| ball | person | SeqMkr | foot-Instr | hit-TOT.DUR |

He kicked the ball with his foot.

The particles fe' and fa' are used interchangeably to mark a noun phrase as a benefactive. The following sentence is an example.

| Ui° e^ -fe' davy° dy^3. |
| house | me | -Benef | make-TOT.INC | Imp |

Build a house for me.

The noun marker bv is used to indicate that the noun is the goal toward which an entity is moving. The following are some examples.

1. A° ui° bv° i°.  
   I house to go-TOT.PUN  
   I am going to the house.

2. A° du° bv° da' da° i°.  
   I wild pig for dog carry go-TOT.PUN  
   I took my dog hunting for wild pigs.

In the first example, bv marks the location toward which the moving object is moving. In the second example bv marks the goal of the action, ie what the hunter is going to get.

The particle bv occurs alone without an associated noun when it refers back to the sentence topic. The following is an example where the particle bv refers back to du° wild pig, the sentence topic.

| Du° ty° a'se° bv° da' da° i°. |
| wild pig | person | SeqMkr | for | dog | carry | go-TOT.PUN |

They have taken the dogs to go hunting wild pigs.

The particle fi° is used in Iau to mark a noun that was formerly the location or possessor of an object, but another participant took it away from him. The particle fi° marks an undergoer source. The following is an example.

| Di° a'se° y° fi° vy° be°° a'se° ui° bv° i°. |
| things | SeqMkr | we from | take | SCIMkr | SeqMkr | house | to go-TOT.PUN |

When they had taken our things from us, we went to the house.

In the example above fi° marks the pronoun y° `we' as the source from which the things were taken.

Locative postpositions also occur noun phrase final. These will be discussed in Section 2.8.1 below.

### 5.2.2 Specialized Noun Phrases

#### 5.2.2.1 Locative Noun Phrases

Locative noun phrases in Iau consist of the noun followed by its modifiers, a locative postposition and an optional phrase final focus and case marking particle be°.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEAD</th>
<th>Modifier(s)</th>
<th>PostPosition</th>
<th>Focus-Case Particle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Adj</td>
<td>See list below</td>
<td>be°</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ordering of Modifiers in the Iau Locative Noun Phrases.
The following is a list of the Iau locative postpositions and compound postpositions.

- **ta**⁷ on, in
- **foe**⁴ around or on the outside edge of
- **i**⁴ to be on top of
- **i**⁴⁻⁷ to move down onto or on top of
- **a'dv**⁸ next to, at the side of
- **o'sy**⁹ from, ie original location
- **tai**²**ta**⁹ down inside
- **ta**⁹**bi**² inside, up inside

- **ka**² in the midst of, surrounded by
- **oi**²**bay**² underneath
- **o'fo**⁷ above, over

The following are some examples of Iau locative phrases.

- **Bi**⁸**o**⁴**de**⁸**fe**³**ki**⁹**i**⁴**oe**³. Some is on top of the rock.
- **Di**⁹**au**⁷**sy**⁹**a**⁷**se**⁹**fv**⁷**ka**⁴**bu**⁵**ta**⁷**fvy**⁵**da**³. Our things were loaded into the cart.

There is one example in the data of a case marking particle be⁷ following a postposition.

- **I**⁸**au**⁷**sy**⁹**a**⁷**fai**⁴**di**⁻⁴**y**⁷**ba''bv**⁹**so**⁶ skin our ground bury RlsBd.RLZ-Nmlz this child
- **so**⁶**o''sa**⁴**ta**²**bi**²**be**³**a''ty**⁹**av**⁴**e**⁶**du''e**⁹**di''di**⁷ womb inside NMkr mother his/her cry out doing when until time that
- **so**⁶**bi**⁷⁻⁹**fai''fa''ba''de''…** child born-Nmlz the same as Our skin(ie bodies) that have been buried, these are like the child inside the womb, who as it’s mother is crying out in pain, is born

Directional adverbs can follow the locative noun phrase as shown below.

- **Ba''bv**⁹**a''ka**³**ta**⁷**bay**²**boe**⁴**dy**³. this hole in down throw-TEL.INC Imp

Throw this down in the hole.

These directional adverbs are part of the verb phrase not the noun phrase.

**Tone changes on postpositions**

There are tone changes on the postpositions **ta**⁹ ‘in’ and **foe**⁴ ‘next to, near, at the edge of’.

The following are examples of a tone change from the unmarked **foe**⁴ to **foe**⁴⁻⁷.

- **So**⁶**ko''du**⁸**bi''si**⁹**ty''fo**³**av''bv**⁹**a''se**⁹…**toe⁴**da''dv**⁹ child small one arrow his SeqMkr throw-TEL.INC and then
- **ty''fo**³**a''se**⁹**ui**⁸… **foe**⁴ **u**³.

This was a small child who shot his arrow and the arrow came down next to the house.

- **A''se**⁹ **da''dv**⁻⁴ **foe**⁴ **oe**³.

He was at the edge of /next to the mountain
A° a”se° be’fe° foe⁴ i°.  
1 SeqMkr snake at/around edge of go.TOT.INC  
I went/walked (right) next to a snake.  
Bv° i° da’dv° be’sy° foe⁴ sui°.  
goal go.TOT.INC and then must edge of/next to enter-TEL.PUNC  

Ty° i’si° dy’dau⁴ de’-y° du° davv° di° de°  
person big like that Stat.-Nmlz wild pig far away RSLT.DUR State  
da”ki’y°. Ty° ko’du⁴ by’by° du’be°  
good Stmtnt people small it is that  
du° foe⁴ de° di° a° -e° da”ki° y°.”  
wild pig (from)next to/near kill-RSLT.DUR Mubd Nominlz good Stmtnt  
People who are big like that (/like him), it would be good for them to kill /shoot wild pigs from far away. It’s the small people (young (nimble) birds) who it’s alright to shoot them from right next to them /close up.

In examples 1-4 above the postposition foe⁴ is marked with a tone 4. In example 5 the tone changes from 4 to 4-7. This example is made up of two contrastive sentences. Full grown men are contrasted with boys in the way it is advisable for them to shoot at pigs. Both contrastive manners are marked with tone 7. The word for ‘far away’ davv° is normally davv°. Davv° di° ‘shooting from far away’ is contrasted with foe⁴ de° ‘shooting from close up.’ The function of the tone 7 here is something like the function of the be particle which marks nouns as the new information being predicated by the clause.

The postposition ta° normally has a tone 7 on it and fills the postposition slot phrase final. However, when the noun phrase is part of a clause with a stative locative verb, the postposition ta° changes to ta” and becomes a clitic attached to a verb or adverb.

1. Y° a”se° y° ta” du³.  
   we SqMkr water in go around  
   We went by water /on the river.

2. Y° a”se° u’dy’e⁸ fa’fvo⁷ fay° ta”bi² be⁴….  
   we SqMkr in-times-past all bamboo in-up were/existed  
   In times past we all were up inside the fay° bamboo…
   du° bv”ke° te”du° du”si° de³ fa”fvo⁴ fay° ta° oe°.  
   wild pig and whatever bird Sta all bamboo in -lived
   Both wild pigs and whatever kind of bird there is, all of them were inside the fay° bamboo.

The first example above shows the postposition ta” in it’s unmarked distribution. In the second clause in the example above. The postposition ta° becomes ta” and is a clitic attached to the verb and means ‘live in’ Note in the first clause above that the postposition ta° becomes ta” and is attached as a clitic to the directional adverb bi° and means ‘up inside’.

There are two compound postpositionals, tai’ta° ‘in/down in (eg the ground)’ and ta”bi² ‘be inside /up inside’.

tai’ta° tai⁴ -ta°  
fall to-TEL.PUNC -be in  
‘in/down in (eg the ground)’
ta”bi² ta° -bi²  
in -up(directional adv)  
‘be inside /up inside (eg a box, or container of some kind)’

These compounds are combination of the particle ‘ta”’ meaning ‘in’ and either a verb stem or a directional adverb. The following is an example of each used in a sentence.

Sv’di° bi’si° u° av° ta”bi² be⁴ du°  
possum one tree stump inside is-TEL.INC ScJ-when  
(We saw) a possum was up inside a tree stump when,
u⁸ tai⁸ta⁹ bay² boi⁻³.
tree go-in down disappear-down-in
he disappeared down into the tree/stump.

5.2.2.2 Possessive Noun Phrases
There are four different kinds of possessive noun phrases in Ia. The first type of possessive noun phrase consists of the item possessed followed by the possessor followed a possessive marker. There are two alternative possessive markers in Ia. The following sentences are examples.

1. Da⁷ Das⁷⁺⁺ bešy⁹⁺⁺
dog Das PossMkr
Das’ dog

2. Da⁷ ty⁷ a⁹ bv⁹ du’be⁷ a’se⁹ au’ ti⁹.
dog person other belong to that SeqMkr him give
It was someone else’s dog (It was a dog belonging to someone else) that they gave to him.

3. Ba bv⁹ sai⁹ si⁹ bv⁹.
this clothes woman belong to
These are women’s clothes

The possessive marker bešy⁹ is more definite. It is used with named persons. The possessive marker bv⁹ is used with generic class nouns and descriptive phrases.

In the second type of possessive phrase, a possessive pronoun is used to identify the possessor. In these types of phrases, no possessive marker is used as illustrated below.

Da’ av bv⁹

dog his
his dog

The third type of possessive noun phrase in Ia consists of the possessor followed by the item possessed followed by a possessive marker as illustrated below.

Ty⁷ da’ av⁹
person dog owner
the owner of the dog

The fourth type of possessive noun phrase is used for body parts and consists of the possessor followed by the body part followed by a possessive pronoun. The following is an example.

A⁹ y⁵ ošy⁹
I  ear mine
my ear

Possessive phrases can be complex. The following are examples of a phrase within a possessive phrase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEAD</th>
<th>Possessor</th>
<th>Possessive Mkr</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>si⁶</td>
<td>ty⁷ a⁹ bv⁹</td>
<td>the woman/wife belonging to someone else /someone else’s wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so⁹</td>
<td>boi⁹ av⁴ bv⁹</td>
<td>the child belonging to the oldest sister /the oldest sister’s child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.2.3 Appositional Noun Phrases in Ia
Appositional noun phrases are two noun phrases placed side by side in which the second noun phrase identifies the participants in the first noun phrase. The following are some examples in Ia.
Joining Nouns in Iau

5.2.3 Distribution of Iau noun phrases in the clause and sentence

The chart at the beginning of this section, laid out so neat and orderly, can be misleading. When I first started studying Iau and encountered sentences like the one below, I started thinking Iau had "split" noun phrases.

\[
\text{Du}^9 \text{ a'se}^9 \text{ bo}^7 \text{ be}^7 \text{ v}^3 \text{ fe}^9. \quad \text{Wild pig SeqMkr two-adj coming-to-ref. pt appeared}
\]

Wild pigs,\(^9\) introduce ptc/Mrk Chron Seq) two (of them) came into view/appeared.

The head noun and its descriptive quantifier are separated by what Dooley\(^9\) calls a "spacer particle" This is a clause level particle that separates a left located topic slot from the clause proper. What looks like a split noun phrase is the head noun, being marked as clause or sentence topic. Then this head noun, having been already unambiguously mentioned as topic, is zeroed in the clause proper. Only the modifying adjective occurs marking the noun phrase location in the clause. The spacer particle slot will be discussed further in the section on layered clauses and is also pertinent to narrative discourse study because a'se\(^9\) marks participants as thematic and is often used in narrative settings. It also functions to mark the events predicated in the clause as part of a chronological sequence of event.

5.2.4 Joining Nouns in Iau

Two or more nouns in Iau can be joined either directly by juxtaposition, or by use of one of the three Iau noun conjunctions, \text{bv}^7 \text{ ke}^7 \text{'also'}, \text{be}^7 \text{ 'de}^1 \text{' and'} (Complete list), and \text{da}^8 \text{ 'ba}^3 / \text{da}^8 \text{ 'ba}^3 \text{ 'and'} (Representative list). The following are some examples.

1. \text{Fe}^4 \text{te}^4 \text{dus}^4 \text{ Kau}^4 \text{be'sa}^3 \text{ ba bv}^9
   - Petrus Kauibesa this
   - Petrus and Kauibesa,

2. \text{Kaf}^7 \text{ be}^7 \text{ 'de}^1 \text{ s}^7 \text{ be}^7 \text{ 'de}^1 \text{ da}^7 \text{ 'be}^7 \text{ 'de}^4
   - bow and net bag and dog and
   - (His) bow, net bag and dog ....

3. \text{Boi}^8 \text{ av bv}^9 \text{ bv}^7 \text{ ke}^7 \text{ y}^3 \text{ bv}^7 \text{ ke}^7
   - oldr bro his also yngr bro also
   - His older brother and his younger brother

4. \text{Boi}^8 \text{ av bv}^9 \text{ da}^8 \text{ 'ba}^3 \text{ soe}^8 \text{ av bv}^9 \text{ da}^8 \text{ 'ba}^3 \text{ a}^4 \text{ av bv}^9 \text{ da}^8 \text{ 'ba}^3
   - oldr bro his and uncle his and father his and
   - His older brother, his uncle, and his father

Example (1) above illustrates two nouns joined without a conjunction. Examples (2) through (4) illustrate the use of each of the three noun conjunctions in Iau. The conjunctions follow the noun they mark indicating that it is joined to another noun in the context. In the examples above, each noun in the list of joined nouns is marked with a conjunction. However, it is not obligatory in

---

\(^9\) I don’t have any references available in my current location. Look up later. I got this through North Dakota SIL one summer when Dooley was lecturing and also helping with my papers.
Iau to mark each noun in the list as is illustrated in the following examples. Unmarked nouns are in italics.

\[
\begin{align*}
Y^8 \text{ baui}^7 & \quad \text{be}^7 & \quad E^7\text{fi}^8 & \quad T^7\text{v}s^3 & \quad \text{bv}^*\text{ke}^7 & \quad y^8 \\
\text{we} & \quad \text{three} & \quad \text{NMkr} & \quad \text{Efi} & \quad \text{Tius} & \quad \text{also} & \quad \text{we} \\
\text{We} & \quad \text{three}, & \quad \text{Ef} & \quad \text{i} & \quad \text{along} & \quad \text{with} & \quad \text{Tius}, & \quad \text{we} & \quad \text{...} \\
B^7 & \quad \text{be}^*\text{de}^3 & \quad U^*\text{fu}^*\text{ba}^*\text{dus}^* & \quad \text{bo}^4 \\
\text{Bih} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{Udumadus} & \quad \text{two} \\
\text{Bih} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{Udumadus} & \quad \text{both} & \quad \text{...}
\end{align*}
\]

The examples above show that not all nouns in list have to be marked with a conjunction in Iau. Some may be marked and others unmarked.

5.2.5 DISCOURSE: The Significance Of Noun Conjunctions In Iau Discourse

The choice of noun conjunction and the choice of whether a noun is marked by a conjunction at all is determined by the relationships of the participants to the action and to each other in performing the action. In general, nouns are simply juxtaposed and not marked by a conjunction, when both nouns are participants that are major participants in the action and the discourse context. The following example is the first sentence of an Iau short story which introduces the participants as major participants using juxtaposed nouns.

\[
\begin{align*}
Y^8 \text{ baui}^7 & \quad \text{A}^8 \text{de}^7 & \quad \text{e}^7 \text{bi}^9 & \quad y^8 \\
\text{we} & \quad \text{three} & \quad \text{Adea} & \quad \text{Jimmy} & \quad \text{we} \\
\text{We} & \quad \text{three}, & \quad \text{Adea} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{Jimmy}, & \quad \text{we} & \quad \text{...} \\
K^7 & \quad \text{be}^*\text{de}^3 & \quad \text{si}^7 & \quad \text{be}^*\text{de}^3 & \quad \text{da}^7 & \quad \text{be}^*\text{de}^3 \\
\text{bow} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{net bag} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{dog} & \quad \text{and} \\
\text{a}^7& \quad \text{se}^9 & \quad \text{o}^9 & \quad \text{Seq Mkr} & \quad \text{take-TOT.PUN} \\
\text{He} & \quad \text{got} & \quad \text{his} & \quad \text{bow,} & \quad \text{string bag} & \quad \text{and dog.}
\end{align*}
\]

The example above is from a portion of narrative in which the man is going to have to flee from the village since he just murdered someone. The items marked by the conjunction be^*de^3 in the example above have no major role in the narrative. They represent the usual things that a man takes with him when he goes leaves the village for a jungle stay.

When one noun is marked by a conjunction and the other is not, the unmarked noun has the major role in the performance of the action or is the more topical participant in the narrative. The following is an example.

\[
\begin{align*}
A^9 & \quad a^7\text{se}^9 & \quad T^7\text{bo}^7\text{ti}^8\text{v}s^3 & \quad \text{bv}^*\text{ke}^7 & \quad \text{be}^7\text{ta}^9 & \quad \text{du}^3. \\
I & \quad \text{SeqMkr} & \quad \text{Timotius} & \quad \text{also} & \quad \text{village} & \quad \text{walk-TOT.DUR} \\
I & \quad \text{was} & \quad \text{walking} & \quad \text{around} & \quad \text{the} & \quad \text{village} & \quad \text{with} & \quad \text{Timotius.}
\end{align*}
\]

The example above is the opening line of an Iau short story. The story is about how the speaker tricked Timotius as they were walking around the village. Timotius is marked by the noun conjunction bv^*ke^7 as a less topical participant.

The noun conjunction bv^*ke^7 as illustrated in the previous example is used in Iau to mark accompaniment and is best translated by the English glosses ‘with’, ‘along with’, or ‘also’. Nouns marked by bv^*ke^7 usually have a minor role compared with unmarked nouns. In contrast, nouns marked with the Iau noun conjunction be^*de^3 have a more topical role in the narrative. This is illustrated by the following example.

\[
\begin{align*}
A^7 & \quad a^7\text{si}^7 & \quad T^7\text{bo}^7\text{ti}^8\text{v}s^3 & \quad \text{be}^*\text{de}^3 & \quad \text{a}^7 & \quad \text{bv}^*\text{ke}^7 & \quad t^9 & \quad \text{bv}^* & \quad ?^9. \\
\text{Ausi} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{Timotius} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{father} & \quad \text{also} & \quad \text{sago} & \quad \text{go-TOT.PUN} \\
\text{Ausi} & \quad \text{and} & \quad \text{Timotius} & \quad \text{along} & \quad \text{with} & \quad \text{father} & \quad \text{went} & \quad \text{to get sago.}
\end{align*}
\]

The example above is taken from a narrative about how the speaker and his friend ambush Ausi and Timotius as a joke while they are in the jungle getting sago. Ausi and Timotius are less topical participants than the speaker and his friend so they are marked by the conjunction be^*de^3. The speaker's father is the least topical participant since he being an adult was not
involved in ambush. The speaker’s father is marked by the noun conjunction bv*ke⁷ to indicate his nontopical role in the action.

The Iau noun conjunction da*ba³ is used when the nouns in the list are a representative listing, i.e., they represent the kinds of items or people who participated in the action but not necessarily all the actual participants.

The following is an example.

Dy⁸ a⁴ another also go ahead and threaten-TEL.INC
A’s⁸ se⁹ another also go ahead and threaten-TEL.INC
SaMkr uncle his is-TEL.INC Uncer therefore
Sa’dy⁸ v³ bi⁹.

So then, any other fathers he has (i.e., father’s brother’s) come and threaten him. If he has any uncles (i.e., mother’s brothers), then they come over and threaten him.

The example above is taken from a scene in an Iau narrative in which a murderer has returned to his village after a long absence. The relatives of the murdered boy confront him and threaten to shoot him in retaliation. In the narrative above, the speaker is telling the hearer the kinds of relatives that might threaten to kill the murderer if they happened to be present at the time the murderer returned. He marks the noun phrase ‘other fathers’ with the noun conjunction da*ba³ to indicate that this is representative of the kind of relative that opposed the murderer when he showed up again.

6.0 LAYERED CLAUSE STRUCTURE: NUCLEUS, CORE, PERIPHERY

Words and particles combine to form phrases. Words and phrases combine to form clauses. Clauses like phrases have language specific structure.

Clauses in various languages are sometimes classified on the basis of verb types such as stative, equative, intransitive, transitive and bitransitive. The classification of Iau clauses on the basis of verb types, is not a very helpful classification, since Iau verb stems do not have inherent lexical transitivity. The following are some examples of clauses varying in transitivity but using the same verb.

BE = be in or on a place
NP   ADJ    V

a. DESCRIPTIVE VERB
Be⁸ tai² be⁹
path slippery is-Tel.Pun
The path is slippery.

b. EXISTENTIAL VERB
Au⁷ fv⁷ be⁵
he canoe has-Tel.Pun
He has a canoe.

c. Ba⁷tu³ be⁵ y³
corn exist-Tel.Pun StmntMkr
Yes, there is corn.

d. TRANSITIVE
Ty⁷ a*se⁹ bae³ be⁹
people SqMkr red clay smear-Tel.Pun
They smeared red clay on themselves.

e. O*sy⁹ bv* a*se⁹ u⁶ be⁹ y⁹
mine I SqMkr before given Stmnt
I have already given / turned in mine.
BOE to be in a position of coming down toward/having come down on

a. IDENTITY

Ba⁷ bv⁹ Das⁷⁻⁸ boe⁻⁵
This Das
This is Das

b. TRANSITIVE

U⁸ y⁷ a’se⁹ boe⁻² be⁸ du⁷
Stick we SqMkr put down in -Tel.Dur when
We were lowering the stick down (into the hole) when...

c. BITRANSITIVE

Di⁷ au⁷ a’se⁹ e⁸·fe⁷ boe⁻⁵
things he SqMkr me-Benfac lower-Tot.Pun
He handed the things down to me

d. Bv⁷ ku⁷ bv⁶ a’se⁹ ty⁷ boe⁻⁸
book I SqMkr people show-Res.Dur
I showed the people the book. (eg hold out to)

A=to locate

NP NP V

a. TRANSITIVE

Di⁹ fe⁷ fe⁶ bv⁶ a’se⁹ a⁻⁹
thing seed I SqMkr sow-Tot.Pun
I have already sown the seeds.

b. INTRANSITIVE

Fy³ kav³ ka⁹ a’se⁰ a⁻⁹
Ironwood treetop SqMkr spring back -Tot.Pun
The top of the ironwood tree sprang back up into place.

BAY =located in a specified place

NP NP NP V

a. TRANSITIVE

0 0 ba⁹ bay⁻⁷ dy³
(you) (it) here put -Tot.Inc Im
Put it here!

b. BITRANSITIVE

Tai⁷ a⁸ y⁷ a’se⁹ ty⁷ a⁹ bay⁻⁵.
thigh other we SqMk people other give-Tel.Pun
We gave the other leg (of pork) to some other people.

6.1 Constituents Of Iau Clauses

The layered clause structure presented in Van Valin (1993) is a helpful model for discussing clause constituents and their ordering in Iau. In Van Valin’s model, the clause constituents are defined semantically rather than grammatically. The clause consists of three layers, nucleus, core and periphery. Each layer is separated from the others by operators. The operators are particles carrying grammatical categories such as aspect, modality, directionals, negation, evidentials and mood. The operators are juxtaposed to the clause level constituents they modify or operate on. For example nuclear operators are located at boundaries between nuclear and core constituents. Likewise core operators are located at boundaries between core and peripheral constituents, and peripheral operators are located at the clause periphery. Each of the three clause layers and their operators will be discussed below.

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10 NOTE: the following sections on clauses were for the most part researched at University of North Dakota SIL under Dooley following the Foley and Van Valin model (Foley, William A and Robert D. Van Valin, 1984).
6.1.1 CLAUSE NUCLEUS

The clause nucleus consists of the verb, adverb, and the nuclear operators of aspect, stative and directional. Iau is a SOV language so the clause nucleus is clause final. So the clause nucleus is the default unit of predication.

The following are some illustrations of the Iau clause nucleus. The nucleus is in bold.

1. Ba⁹ o³sy⁹ ba³bv⁹ e³-fe³ da³'ki³ au⁷ bi³'bay -4
dey³. de-8
Sta- CRlz Imper
Heart my words well.

2. Aⁿ av*be⁴ bui² i -7 se⁵.
I quickly upstream go-TOT.INC intend
I am **going to go quickly upstream**

The constituents of the clause nucleus are both segmental and suprasegmental. Their ordering is illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adv + Directionals</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>+Stative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da³'ki³ au⁷</td>
<td>bi³'bay⁴</td>
<td>de⁵</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>well</td>
<td>hear-TEL.INC</td>
<td>stative- CRlz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The unmarked position of adverbs preceding directional and the verb, but juxtaposed to them is illustrated in example 2 above. The tones on adverbs and directional appear to be lexically and not grammatically determined. While adverbs normally are adjacent to the verb, a noun which is closely tied to the predicate can come between the adverb and the verb as illustrated below.

3. Aⁿ sai³'fo⁴ du³'av'du³' be³ ta³ du⁷ se⁵.
   I just slowly cleaning in go-TOT.INC intend
   I am just going to slowly walk around the village (go in clearing =idiom for walk around).

Aspect is realized as a set of tone morphemes occurring on the segmental verb stems.

The verb may be followed by a stative particle de.

4. Bv⁴ bai⁷ _ de⁵ dy³.
   for wait-TOT.INC Sta-CRlz Imper
   Wait!

The tones on the stative particle have status meanings and will be discussed in the section on clause periphery, since they also occur on both core and peripheral particles/operators. Note that these tone morphemes are located at the very edge of the clause nucleus where it juxtaposes with the clause core. (So perhaps they actually totally belong to the clause core?)

6.1.2 CLAUSE CORE

The clause core is located on both sides of the clause nucleus. The clause core contains the NP’s that relate to the verb in the clause nucleus, that is it’s core arguments and an other NPs. The clause core is bounded by a set of core operators on either side.

The following are some examples of clause core constituents. Clause core constituents are in bold.

5. Au⁷ da⁷ di³ ae⁴.
   he dog kill not-NPFact
   He did not kill the dog.

6. Tv⁹ bv⁴ di⁸ ti⁴ -7 se⁸
   sago I you give intend-NPFact
   I will give you the sago.
Clause core constituents consist of obligation modals and noun phrases preceding the clause nucleus, and negatives and intention, desiderative and inablilative modals following the nucleus. The following diagram shows the ordering of clause core constituents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRENUCLEAR CORE</th>
<th>Nucleus</th>
<th>POST NUCLEAR CORE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Segmentals: +/- NP +/- Obligation &amp; Resultative Modals</td>
<td>+Neg</td>
<td>+Status +Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suprasegmental Morphemes</td>
<td>+Status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No special meanings have been isolated for the tones on the obligation particles. Each of the core constituents diagramed above will be discussed in the sections below.

### 6.1.2.1 POST-NUCLEAR CORE SLOTS

Note in the chart above that there are two core slots following the clause nucleus, negative and modality particles. These have been discussed previously in the section on Verb Phrases 5.1. Some examples are given below.

8.  Au⁷ da⁷ di⁸ ae⁸.
    He did not kill the dog.

9.  Tv⁹ bv⁰ di⁸ ti⁴⁻⁷ se⁸
    I will give you the sago.

10.  A⁹ tv⁹ sa⁸ fo⁷.
    I want to eat sago.

11.  Au⁷ y⁸ Doe⁷ fe⁷⁻⁸
    No, he might see us! (and I don't want that)

12.  A⁹ ui⁸ fi⁸ tauthi⁷ fe⁹fu⁷
    I can't make thatch.

As illustrated above, the modality post-verbal particles have intention, desiderative and inabilitative meanings. The tones that occur on these particles, have status meanings. **Status deals with the reality or factuality of the situation.**

The following chart shows the 8 tone morphemes and their status meanings. These same status morphemes also occur on stative particles and on some of the peripheral operators. See Bateman, 1986 in Nusa for more information and examples of these status particles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACT</th>
<th>REALIZED</th>
<th>IRREALIS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establish as relevant</td>
<td>Fact 9</td>
<td>Realized 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently relevant</td>
<td>Current Fact 6</td>
<td>Realized CurrentRelev 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assert realization at some time</td>
<td>Non Present Fact 5</td>
<td>Expected To Be Realized 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1.2.2 PRE-NUCLEAR CORE CONSITUENTS

Nouns and obligation modals preceed the clause nucleus in Iau. Each will be discussed below.

**Core Nouns.**

The following are some examples of nouns in the Iau clause core. The nouns are in bold.

13. **A³ av³⁸ be³⁸ bui² i -7 se⁹.**
   I quickly upstream go-TOT.INC intend
   I am going to go quickly upstream.

14. **A³ tv³⁹ sa⁹.**
   I sago eat
   I ate sago.

15. **Tv³⁹ bv⁶ da⁹ y⁹.**
   sago I eat up Stmt
   I ate up the sago.

16. **Au⁷ tv⁹ e⁹ ti⁴ to⁹.**
   he sago me give CntraExpct
   But he gave me sago! /or Contrary to what you think, he gave me sago!

As illustrated above, Iau is an verb final language. The nouns in the clause core preceed the clause nucleus. Examples 14 and 15 also show that ordering of nouns in the clause is not determined by semantic role. In example 14 the order of the nouns is Agent followed by Undergoer. In example 15, the order is Undergoer followed by agent. In example 14, the agent `I' is also the clause topic, or what the clause is about (Dik 1978). But in example 15, the undergoer, `sago' is the clause topic.

Examples 14 and 15 illustrate that ordering of nouns in Iau clause s is pragmatically determined.

Regarding the ordering of NP’s, the more topical nouns are placed to the left of less topical nouns.

Examples 14 and 15 differ in another way. In 14, the unmarked pronoun form a³ for first person singular is used. In 15, when 1st person singular agent is not clause topic, the marked pronoun form bv³ is used. This illustrates that the unmarked expectation in an Iau clause is that agent will also be topic. If not, and if the agent is first person singular pronoun, it must be marked as non-topical agent. None of the other pronouns have a separate form for non-topical agent.

As also illustrated above, Iau nouns and pronouns are normally unmarked for semantic role. Under certain discourse conditions, nouns in Iau are marked for semantic case roles. This will be discussed in Section *.

Iau is a pro-drop language with no verb agreement. The following portion of a procedural text (See 3.7 for full text), illustrates the pro-drop phenomena in Iau. The clauses illustrating prodrop are in bold in the text.

16a. **Tv³ fy³ ae³ da³dv³**
   person canoe none and then

b. **a³se³ bv³ i³ da³dv³**
   SeqMk to go and then

c. **a³se³ tay³ dav³ //Tay³ dav³ da³dv³**
   SeqMk scaffold make

d. **a³se³ bui³ //Bui³ da³dv³**
   SeqMk cut down

e. **a³se³ tai³ //Tai³ da³dv³**
   SeqMk fall
f. tyʰ a’seʰ ba’day³. /Ba’dayʰ da’dvʰ
   person SeqMk flee

g. fvʰ a’seʰ a’ taiʰ. /A¹ taiʰ da’dvʰ
   canoe SeqMk land contact

h. tyʰ a’seʰ bvʰ i’. /Bvʰ i’ da’dvʰ
   person SeqMk to go

i. a’seʰ siʰ fvy³. /Siʰ fvyʰ da’dvʰ
   SeqMk top cut off

j. a’seʰ uiʰ bvʰ i’. /Uiʰ bvʰ i’ da’dvʰ
   SeqMk house to go

k. a’seʰ diʰ sa³
   SeqMk food eat

a. When a person does not have a canoe, b. he goes to (a canoe tree) and c. builds a scaffolding. After he builds a scaffolding, d. he cuts down the tree. After he cuts down the tree, e. it begins to fall. When it begins to fall, f. the person flees. He flees and then, g. the canoe tree falls to the ground. When it has fallen to the ground, h. the person goes over to it. When he has gets to it, i. he cuts off the top of the tree. When he has cut off the top of the tree, j. he goes home. He goes home and then, k. he eats.

Exceptions to this will be discussed in a section on participant reference. (Section not yet written)

The Obligation Modals, Clause Core or Periphery?
The root modal, obligation, is listed by Van Valin (1993) as a core operator. The following are some examples of what happens in Iau clause structure when the obligation modals are present.

18. Yʰ tvʰ sa³
   we sago eat
   We eat sago.

19. Yʰ dy’sy⁷ tvʰ sa³ day³
   we NegOblig sago eat Prohib
   We shouldn't eat sago.

20. Au⁷ syʰ tvʰ e⁹ ti⁴
    he Oblig sago me give Probable
    He should give me sago.

21. Tvʰ syʰ au’ e⁹ ti⁴
    sago Oblig he me give Probable
    He should give me the sago

When these modality markers occur in an Iau clause, they act as 'spacers', separating the most topical noun from the other nouns in the clause, and forming a left dislocated position (LDP). Spacers are defined as 'pause-like' elements whose position indicates discontinuity in the information structure of the utterance. (Dooley 1990:477-478)

The position of pause relative to the LDP and the spacer in the Iau clause varies as is illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>Pause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Agent</td>
<td>Modality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yʰ</td>
<td>dy’sy⁷</td>
<td>tvʰ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>NegOblig</td>
<td>sago</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We shouldn't eat sago.
In example 22, the modality spacer particle precedes pause. In example 23 it follows pause. The position of pause depends on whether the LDP is Agent /Actor or Undergoer. Spacers in Iau clauses attach themselves only to agents /actors as phonological hosts, but are separated from undergoer or other semantic role nouns by a pause.

More than one noun can be placed before the modality spacer, forming multiple left dislocated positions. The following is an example.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRIMARY LDP</th>
<th>PAUSE</th>
<th>SECONDARY LDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergoer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tv⁹</td>
<td>dy⁷</td>
<td>dy⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sago</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>NegOblig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>eat Prohib.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Don't eat the sago.

As shown in the example above, when there are multiple LDP's, a hierarchy is formed. The left most LDP is primary and is followed by a pause. The secondary LDP to the right is followed by a place of slowing and potential pause.

There are other particles in the peripheral layer of the clause which also function as spacers, forming left dislocated positions and separating the most topical nouns from the rest of the clause. These will be discussed more fully in the section below on peripheral clause constituents and the formation of LDP's.

6.1.3 THE IAU CLAUSE PERIPHERY

The peripheral layer of the clause in Iau is located on either side of the clause core as diagramed below.

```
PERIPHERY         CORE NUCLEUS         CORE         PERIPHERY
```

6.1.3.1 CLAUSE FINAL PERIPHERAL SLOTS.

Status particles, evidentials and mood particles are located clause final in Iau clauses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segmental Morphemes</th>
<th>NUCLEUS</th>
<th>CORE</th>
<th>PERIPHERY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>status +evidential +mood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone Morphemes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>status</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are some examples.

25. Au⁷ i⁷ ae⁷ da⁹
    he go not Evid:as expected/known
    He didn’t go as he was expected to

26. sa⁴dy⁴ i⁷ dy³
    GivePerm go-Hyp Imp-RsA
    Go ahead and go. Okay, go.

27. Y⁸ a⁸se⁹ taui⁷ di⁹
    we SqMkr make-Tot.Inc Bd-Rlz
    We already made it.

28. Y⁸ a⁸se⁹ taui⁷ di⁹ da⁹ by⁹
    we SqMkr make-Hyp Bd-Rlz Evid:known Prob-NRsA
    We have already made it, can’t you see?
Status particles as discussed in the section above in 5.2 on Iau Verb Phrases, mark the situation as realis vs irrealis and also indicate the degree of temporal boundedness.

The evidential particle da illustrated in example 28 above, indicates that the speaker feels the hearer knows or should know the information content of the utterance. In example 25 it marks the generally known expectation, that the man was going to leave, which was never actually realized.

The mood particles in Iau indicate the communicative function of the utterance and the degree to which the speaker is asserting the utterance. See the section on Iau Verb phrases 5.1 above for more information.

6.1.3.2 THE CLAUSE INITIAL PERIPHERY
The clause initial periphery consists of an LDP slot followed by one or more spacers as illustrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERIPHERY</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LDP</td>
<td>+SPACER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seq</td>
<td>Modality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrkr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal Adv</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are examples of the clause initial periphery slots.

29. Y² a′se⁹ ui³ dav⁹ di³. we SqMkr house build PBd
We have already (ie sequentially preceeding speech time) built the house.

30. Y² a′se⁹ u⁶ oi² da⁶. we SqMkr before hands wash
We first washed our hands.

31. E⁷ bv⁶ a′se⁹ u⁶ di³. ant I SqMkr before kill
I killed the ants first.

32. Y² be³di³ tv⁹ sa³ we later sago eat
Later, we ate sago.

33. Di⁹ dy⁷sy⁷ u⁶ tv⁹ sa³ day⁹ you NegOblig before sago eat Proh
Don't you eat sago first.

34. a′se⁹ be⁸sy⁹ bi³fa³, SeqMk Rslt spoke
(Then he saw him), and so inevitably he told (the others).

35. Au⁷ be⁸sy⁹ dv⁹ui³ da⁸ ba⁷ka⁷ dy³. He Rslt lift up take come EmphImp Imp
If that's the way he is then, pick him up and carry him here.*
(*Context: A wounded man's friend has come to the health worker to tell him of the injury. After hearing about the injury, the health worker responds with sentence * above.)

The clause initial peripheral constituents are the left dislocated positions, followed by three spacer positions. Example 31 above shows a clause with 2 LDP's. As shown in the examples above, the temporal adverbs, interclausal relations particles, and the sequence marker act as spacers in the same way as the modality particles discussed in the clause core section. They separate the most topical noun from the other nouns in the clause forming one or more left left dislocated positions.
Spacers in Iau attach themselves only to agents as phonological hosts, but are separated from undergoer or other roles by a pause. So, pause follows the spacer if there is an agent in the preceding LDP. But if the noun in the LDP is undergoer or some other role, pause follows that noun. This is illustrated in the following examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP</th>
<th>SPACER</th>
<th>PAUSE 1</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Y⁶ be³di⁹</td>
<td>tv⁹ sa³</td>
<td></td>
<td>we later sago eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>We ate sago later.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Undergoer</th>
<th>PAUSE 1</th>
<th>SPACER</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37. Tv⁹</td>
<td>be³di⁹</td>
<td>sa³</td>
<td>sago later eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>We ate the sago later.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Undergoer</th>
<th>LDP</th>
<th>SPACER</th>
<th>PAUSE 2</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38. Tv⁹</td>
<td>y⁸</td>
<td>be³di⁹</td>
<td>sa³</td>
<td>sago we later eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>We ate the sago later /the sago was eaten later.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the examples above P1 is a primary pause, ie always realized as a pause. P2 is a secondary pause indicated by slowing and potentially by pause. As shown in the examples above,

6.1.4 THE LEFT DISLOCATED POSITION (LDP).

6.1.4.1 FORMING A LEFT DISLOCATED POSITION (LDP).

As we have already seen, an LDP can be formed by moving a constituent to the the far left of the sentence or clause and adding a spacer. In the absence of a spacer, an LDP can also be formed by simply fronting a non agent. The space following an LDP is always a place for slowdown or potential pause.

Undergoer as LDP

    sago I eat upStmt
    I ate the sago.

40a. Y⁶ ay⁴⁻⁸ be⁶ Da⁶bi⁶de⁶ baui⁶ da⁶dv⁶ bav⁶fu⁶ ay⁶.
    we begin to Nabire arrive MCICJ hungry I Bd

Nominalized Clause as LDP

b. Y⁶ be³di⁶ da⁶ -y⁹  y⁶ to⁶ bav⁶fu⁷ ae⁹ y⁸.
    we later RpSp-Nmmlz we CntrExp hungry Neg Stmt

a. Since we first arrived in Nabire, we have been hungry.
b. But we don’t expect to be hungry, later /in the future.
   (because they had planted a garden which would be producing soon).

Example 39 shows a fronted undergoer forming an LDP. Ex 40 shows a fronted nominalized temporal adverb forming an LDP. The fronted temporal adverb is contrastive to the non fronted temporal adverb in the first clause.

LDPs are also formed by fronted noun phrases ending in a demonstrative. All noun phrases ending in a demonstrative are fronted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41. Ty⁷ si⁴ bi⁷si⁶ ba⁶bv⁶</td>
<td>y⁸ bv⁶ke⁷ i⁷ ae⁴.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>person old one this we Accomp go Neg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>This old man did not go with us.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1.4.2 The Function Of The Left Dislocated Position And Noun Phrase Structure In The Clause

One of the main functions of LDP’s is to promote a clause constituent to discourse or local topic.

43.

We intended/too to go to the garden. And so we took our dog and our machete and we went. We went and then, we put the dog on the ground (sometimes carry draped over their necks). We put the dog on the ground and then, as we were going, the dog barked at a wild pig.

In the example above the story begins with the speaker and his companion “we” as unmarked topic. “We is in the far left position of the clause as a topical NP. It is then promoted to an LDP in the following sentence.” This is a common strategy in narratives, to mention the topical participants, locations etc in some unmarked position and then elevate them to topic in an LDP.

As the story progresses the dog becomes prominent because going to the garden is only as action framework through which the real story about the hunt on the way is brought on stage. The dog is introduced in an unmarked list of things the speakers take with them. Then at the two points in the action where the dog begins to be significant it is elevated to the LDP in the first case as an UNDERGOER. Then a second time as the actor that begins the hunt that the story is all about.

Another function of the LDP is to directly introduce thematic participants or other consituents.

The following example is part of a travelog. It introduces a locally thematic participant in a hunting episode that is a represents a highly emotive part of such stories. This is the first mention of the crocodile but the sighting of game is a highly expected part of the these narrative, so it is in effect partially known.

LPD | Spacer | Clause
--- | --- | ---
Dav⁴ crocodile | a’sē⁹ Seq Mrk | bo’be⁷ doe⁹.

(We) saw two crocodile

This example also illustrates a phenomena that will be discussed in 6.1.4.3—some interesting things that happen with descriptive noun phrases when LDP’s are present.

Using an LDP to introduce global participants, time and place is a frequent strategy in narrative settings as illustrated in the following example.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP1</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>LDP2</th>
<th>LDP3</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y⁸ bau⁻⁸</td>
<td>We three</td>
<td>A’dē’a° Ye’bi° Adea,Yimmy</td>
<td>y⁸ we</td>
<td>a’sē° SqMk</td>
<td>da’si° bv³ tai° birds for search se° du³ manner do/go</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We three, Adea, Jimmy (and I) we were hunting birds.
In the example about there are actually three LDP’s in one sentence. The first two are higher sentence or narrative setting topical participant introducers. The third one I think is clause level and marks the beginning of the narrative as part of an action framework for the story that is to be told. See the next section 6.1.4.2 for more on multiple LPD’s.

6.1.4.3 Multiple LDP’s
A clause can have more than one LDP as illustrated below.

### Example 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP1</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>LDP2</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Au² he</td>
<td>sa³ contr² Opinion</td>
<td>a³ I</td>
<td>sa³ contr² Opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>di³ you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>boi³ older brother</td>
<td>sa³ contr² Opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a³ father</td>
<td>sa³ contr² Opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>y³ younger brother</td>
<td>sa³ contr² Opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bv⁴ bai³ de⁵ watches over.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Free translation: In contrast to what you are thinking/saying,, He cares for me for you for older brother, for father, for younger brother.

### Example 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP1</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>LDP 2</th>
<th>LDP³</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A² I</td>
<td>a’se⁹ Sq Mrk</td>
<td>fvy³ tree type</td>
<td>bv³ I N-Top</td>
<td>a’se⁹ Sq Mrk</td>
<td>‘Tay³ davy³ da’dv⁹ Scaffolding make and-then,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bv³ I N-Top</td>
<td>a’se⁹ SqMrk</td>
<td>Bui³ se³…. Cut down intend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Free translation: I made a scaffolding for a Fui tree and then I was going to cut it down,…… (so I....)

Multiple LDP’s are separated by pause (primary LDP’s), or by a slowing or potential pause in the case of secondary LDP’s. In the examples above, primary pauses are indicated by an empty column in the display. Secondary pauses are marked following the LDP by leaving no empty column.

In the first example LDP1 is a zeroed reference to the clause topic but the space is marked by a clause relation spacer and followed by a pause. There are 5 subsequent LDP’s each marked by the spacer sa⁴ and followed by pause. In the second example both LDP1 and LDP³ are also marked by the repetition of the same spacer. This use of the a’se⁹ spacer is a common participant introduction strategy.

In certain discourse contexts, such as introduction of participants and narrative peak the first LDP noun or pronoun can be repeated in the second LDP or final LDP position as illustrated below.
Example 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP1</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>LDP 2</th>
<th>LDP3</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y° bauì⁻⁸</td>
<td></td>
<td>A'de°a° Ye'bi°</td>
<td>y°</td>
<td>a'se°</td>
<td>du°si° bv° tai° birds for search se° du³ manner do/go</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We three, Adea, Jimmy (and I) we were hunting birds.

Example 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LDP1</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>LDP 2</th>
<th>LDP3</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y°</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>da'fa° u°</td>
<td>Recently before di'v° it happened</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ty° bauì⁻⁸</td>
<td>We three</td>
<td>Benyamin, Des, Daud</td>
<td>Y°</td>
<td>a'se°</td>
<td>To° bv° i° pig for /to get went</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We recently, three people Benjamin, Des and Daud (and I) we went to get a pig.

Example 3

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| dai³ | the cassowary | au' | he | a'se° |

The cassowary went up (the bank) again b. and Des shot him.

In example 1 above, the first pause is a secondary pause (ie a potential pause marked by a slowing) and marks the following appositional noun phrase. The appositional noun phrase is followed by the LDP1 primary pause.

In example 2 above, the temporal framework of the second clause is nominalized and placed in the second LDP, making it contrastive to the temporal framework of the first clause. The topicalization of a clause peripheral item may require the restatement of the first LPD topic

Example 3 occurs in the peak of a narrative eventline. One of the marking features of peak is the use of pronouns for normally zeroed participants.

6.1.4.4 Descriptive NP’s and adaptations in the presence of an LDP

A Review of Descriptive NP’s

Noun phrases occur in the following order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEAD</th>
<th>Specifier</th>
<th>Descriptive</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Du°</td>
<td>a°</td>
<td>i'si°b°</td>
<td>bi°si°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wld pig</td>
<td>another</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another big pig

The following clauses illustrate unmarked noun phrase ordering in Iau.

Example 1

Kei° bv° tai° se° i'° da°dv° dav² i'si°b° bi°si° doe°.  
turtle for lood Manner go MCICj crocodile big one see  
l) hunted turtles and then, b. (l) saw a big crocodile.
Zeroed Head Nouns With Descriptions In The Clause

When participants with full descriptive noun phrases are being activated in a discourse in the LDP of a clause, the Head noun is placed in an LDP and NP is repeated as a clause constituent with a zeroed head noun. This is illustrated in two examples below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LPD</th>
<th>Spacer</th>
<th>Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dav²</td>
<td>a’se⁹</td>
<td>bo’be⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crocodile</td>
<td>Seq Mk</td>
<td>doe⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Two(of them)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(We) saw two crocodiles.

In the examples above, it looks like the descriptive adjectives and quantifiers modifying the LDP Head are separated from it and placed in the clause core. But since Iau zeroes topic and clauses unless they are ambiguous, I think it is really a case of a full information NP with a zeroed head that appears in the clause proper.

A Different Strategy For Additional Information About The Topic

Additional information about the noun in the LDP can also be stated in full noun phrases and as appositional noun phrases within the LDP. The following are some examples.

**LDP 1**

Y⁸ a’se⁹
we SqMkr

**LDP 2**

Ty⁷ Tu’du’bo⁸ fa³ i’ta⁹ o’sy⁹ ba’by⁹

person Turumo bank middle from this

**LDP 3**

Ae’fe’di’ by⁷

Ayhedi it was

**CLAUSE CONTENT**

y⁸ a’se⁹ bo’-fa³ ko³ sa³
we SqMkr two-together breadfruit eat

We and someone from (a place) halfway to Turumo, (Ayhedi), we ate breadfruit together.

In the example above LDP 1 is marked off by the usual spacer and topicalizes the narrator. The next LDP (2) topicalizes a man who ate breadfruit with them. Eating and hunting are highly emotive parts of a travelog. So this man is topocalized in an LDP. In order to give additional information about his identity, the speaker by pauses and the use of the identity particle by⁷ blocks off a third LDP. The fourth LDP is used to bring the narrative back to the highest topicalized participant and what the narrator wants to say about him, that they ate breadfruit together.

**LDP 1**

Tav³ u¹ ba³
trap log old

**LDP 2**
people before trap with set Nmnlz

LDP 3 CLAUSE

bv' a'se' sa' i³ fvy' be' 8
I SqMkr CntrsAction vine cut SCICj

I trap I SqMkr place Narrative peak marker

An old pig trap log, one that someone had set a trap with before.
I, in spite of (what my brother said), cutting some vine……….I set the trap. In the story it turns out his pig trap caught a pig and his older brothers did not/ Vindicated!

This sentence is from the middle of the story, not the setting. While his brother is working, the younger brother is trying to entertain himself, looking for sago grubs, and then wanting to set his own pig trap. But the older brother vetoes everything he wants to do. So LPD 1 in the sentence above is the beginning of his attempt to rebel and set his own trap any way. The old pig trap is the important prop that enabled him to succeed, the point of the whole story how he triumphed over his older brother. So that prop is introduced in a LDP with additional info about it given in a second LDP. After that the third LDP, a lower level importance is followed by the clause content.

Coordinate NP's in the LDP slot

Coordinate noun phrases can also occur in the LDP as illustrated by the following examples from narrative texts.

Example 1
Ty' bo' be 7, boi' av'bv' bv'ke' y 3 av'bv' bv'ke' a'se' ...
people two Focus-Obliq OldrB his also YngrB his also SqMkr
Two people, an older and a younger brother …..

Example 2
Kaf' be' *de 3 si' be' *de 3 da' be' *de 3 a'se' ...
bow and net bag and dog and SqMkr
(He got) his bow, his dog and and his net bag.

The examples above show two types of coordinate noun phrases in LDP's.

6.1.5 THE SPACERS

As shown in the sections on the LDP above, each LDP can be followed by a spacer, a pause, or a potential pause. Most of the examples of spacers in the preceding sections have been with the sequence marking particle a'se'. But other core markers are also used in the spacer slot.

The following are used as spacers in Iau.

Modality Markers:
sy' Obligation
dy'sy' (+Mood day³) Prohibition, shouldn't do it (presupposition)

Negative:
to' (+Negative) Deny /Negate False Presupposition

Intraclausal Relators:
sa' Contrastive Action
sa'dy' Contrastive Result /Resultative Exhortation
sa'dy' Exhort Contrastive Action based on previous Grounds
Grant Permission for Contrastive Action
be'sy' Exhortation/Action Proposal -Based On Grounds Already Presupposed
Focussed Event -Result of Previous Means Eventline or of Collateral Results
Intermediate Endpoint -Result of Previous Means Eventline
be'dy' Event is Result of Previous Reason Eventline
Event is Conclusion /Exhortation on Basis of Previous
Temporal Adverbs:
\[ \text{be}^a \text{di}^b \text{ later} / \text{Future} \]
\[ u^a \text{ before} / \text{Past} \]
\[ da^a \text{ now} / \text{Present} \]

Event Sequence Marker
\[ a'se^a \text{ SqMkr} \]

6.1.5.1. The Sequence Spacer \( a'se^a \).

In addition to its spacer function and topic introducing function, the \( a'se^a \) particle is used in Iau in discourse to mark events that are in a sequential relationship either to each other or to the time of speaking as illustrated in the following examples.

**Sequence Example 1**

\[ Di^a\_a'se^a\_ taul^7 \ di^b bai^7? \]

you SqMkr make Bd ?Mkr

Have you \_already\_ made it?

**Sequence Example 2**

a. Ty\^7 \ fa\^7 ae\^6 \ da\^8dv\^9

person canoe NegExist MCICj

b. \_a'se^a\_ bv\^4 i\^7 \ da\^8dv\^9

SqMkr for go MCICj

c. \_a'se^a\_ tay^9 \ dav\^y\^9.

SqMkr scaffold build

a. When a person does not have a canoe, then b. he goes to (a canoe tree) c. and builds a scaffolding. (1st step is cutting down a tree for the canoe)

As illustrated in example 1, the \( a'se^a \) particle marks the event as occurring prior to speech time. It can be translated ‘already’. Example 2 shows the \( a'se^a \) particle marking a procedural eventline. It marks the first event and all subsequent events on the eventline.

The \( a'se^a \) particle is used in combination with the temporal adverbs \( u^a \) ‘before’ and \( be^a \text{di}^b \) ‘after’ to mark chronological gaps in the eventline.

**Example 3**

a. Y\^8 da\^7 da\^8 i\^7 se\^9

we dog take go intend

b. dy\^7da\^8dv\^9 y\^8\_a'se^a\_ u\^6 \ di\^8 bay\^4.

IndClCj \ we SqMkr before food give

When we are going to take a dog hunting, then we \_first\_ give him some food.

**Example 4**

a. Y\^8 a'se^a doe\^7 \ da\^8dv\^9

we SqMkr see MCICj

b. y\^8 a'se^a fu\^9 fu\^7 ba\^8day\^8 a\^3

we SqMkr all flee UBd

c. dy\^7da\^8dv\^9\_a'se^a\_ be\^3di\^b\_ taul^7 \ o\^7 \ da\^8dv\^9

IndClCj Square later knife take MCICj

d. be\^7fe\^7 a'se^a di\^3.

snake SqMkr kill

a. When we saw (the snake), b. we all fled c. and then later we got a bush knife d. and killed it.
Example 5

a. dy³\(\text{da}^6\text{dv}^8\) ty⁷ ui⁸ o\(\text{sy}^6\) a\(\text{sy}^6\) fa³\(\text{fu}^7\) i⁹.
   IndClCiCj people house from SqMkr all go

b. Fa³\(\text{fu}^7\) i⁷ da\(\text{da}^6\text{dv}^8\)
   all go MCiCj

c. ty⁷ bi³\(\text{si}^9\) e⁸ ai⁶ y⁹ _ a\(\text{se}^9\) be³\(\text{di}^9\) ty⁷ fai² i⁹.
   person one feet not Nmlz SqMkr later people follow go

d. Fai² i⁷ da\(\text{da}^6\text{dv}^8\)
   follow go MCiCj

e. au³ a⁷\(\text{se}^9\) be⁶ bv⁸ tai⁹.
   he SqMkr path for look

a. and so, the people who had stayed home in the houses all went (to help some men who had been attacked by a pig). b. They all went and then, c. the man who can’t walk later followed them. c. He followed them and he got lost (in the jungle).

As illustrated in 1 above, a\(\text{se}^9\) +u⁶ means prior to previous event. a\(\text{se}^9\) +be³\(\text{di}^9\) is used to mark a new segment of the eventline, as either a new course of action or a new participant as illustrated in 2 and 3 above.

As shown in the previous set of examples, a\(\text{se}^9\) +0 indicates that the events in the marked clauses are part of the narrative eventline. In narrative, as a spacer and marker of the left dislocated position, a\(\text{se}^9\) also has specialized participant activating functions and specialized functions in marking setting frameworks.

6.2. The pragmatic structure of Iau clauses

The information structure of a clause is divided into two parts, focus/comment and topic. Focus or comment is the part of the clause which is being asserted (Lambrecht 1987) See also Dooley and Meyer, 1993. Focus either adds new information or modifies an already activated propositional framework. Topic is the part of the clause which is pragmatically presupposed.

6.2.1 Topic-Focus/Comment

The information structure of a clause is divided into two parts, focus and topic. Focus or comment is the part of the clause which is being asserted (Lambrecht 1987). It can also be defined as ‘the part of an utterance intended to make a change in the mental representation of the hearer’ (Dooley and Levinsohn 1993). Focus either adds new information or modifies an already activated propositional framework. Topic is the part of the clause which is pragmatically presupposed. The predicate focus structure, most often called a topic comment structure, represents the unmarked information structure of the clause. The following are examples of predicate focus structure in Iau

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Comment /Predicate Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Y⁸</td>
<td>da³(\text{su}^8) i⁷ se⁹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>tomorrow go intend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>will go tomorrow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Comment /Predicate Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Da⁷</td>
<td>y⁹ di⁸ ae⁹ y³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>we kill Neg Smnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>didn't kill the dog.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In an unmarked information structure, the verb and it's arguments are being asserted about a topical noun/noun phrase. The verb phrase is the head of the focus structure and is located in the comment part of the clause. In an unmarked predicate focus clause in Iau, nouns are unmarked.
In Iau topic comment clauses, there is a special marking structure for discourse contexts in which a noun rather than the verb becomes the primary information which is being asserted about the topic as illustrated below.

\[ \text{Di}^\omega \text{te}^\nu \text{bv}^\gamma \text{ y}^\nu \text{ a}^\gamma? \]
You why cry are doing
Why are you crying?

\[ \text{Da}^\omega \text{o}^\nu \text{sy}^\gamma \text{ ty}^\omega \text{ di}^\nu \text{ to}^\gamma. \]
dog my people killed RefuteHr
Someone killed my dog.

\[ \text{Y}^\gamma! \text{ Ty}^\nu \text{ be}^\gamma \text{-8} \text{ di}^\nu? \]
Oh! who FocusHd-Cs kill
Oh, who killed it?

\[ \text{Das}^7^\nu \text{ be}^\gamma \text{-8} \text{ di}^3. \]
Das FocusHd-Cs kill
Das killed it.

In the example above, in the second sentence the dog is established as topic and the verb ‘killed’ is the focus – the information being asserted/predicated about the dog. But in the following sentences the new information being asserted shifts from the verb to the identity of the agent. The clause structure however has not changed. The focus shift from verb to noun is marked by the \( \text{be} \) particle on the noun indicating that it is focus head.

Topic-comment structure is the normal unmarked clause structure in Iau. Topical nouns are placed to the left in order of degree of topicality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A^\nu \text{ bv}^\nu \text{ku}^\gamma \text{ doe}^\gamma \text{ se}^\nu | I book see intend
I am going to look at books |
| a. \text{ Sa}^\nu \text{ si}^\nu \text{ be}^\gamma \text{ da}^\gamma \text{dv}^\nu | clothes SqMkr dry is MedCIDj |
| b. \text{ ty}^\nu \text{ ta}^\gamma \text{fau}^\gamma \text{ da}^\nu \text{ ui}^\nu \text{ bv}^\nu \text{i}^\gamma. | people again take house to go
When the clothes are dry, then
b. people take them to the house again |

The topic-comment construction primarily marks the fronted nouns as topical and presupposed. The rest of the clause is comment and focus.

### 6.2.2 Focus presupposition clauses

The focus -presupposition clause is characterized by a reversal of the pragmatic roles of nouns and verbs. In a focus presupposition clause the fronted noun phrase is not topic but focus /comment, that is, the new information being asserted about the topic. The topic, that is, the known given information that is being talked about, is not a noun but a verb. In these kinds of clauses, which are fairly common in Iau, the fronted predicated noun is marked by a special marker as shown in bold below. These kinds of clauses are also sometimes referred to as cleft constructions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOCUS</th>
<th>PRESUPPOSITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Te^\gamma \text{ du}^\nu \text{be}^\gamma</td>
<td>\text{Ber}^\nu \text{bi}^\gamma \text{ be}^\gamma \text{-8} \text{ di}^3?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
what FocusMkr Benjamin Presupp.-Cause kill -3 Tot.Dur
What was it that Benjamin killed?

| Dai^3 \text{ du}^\nu \text{be}^\gamma | \text{Be}^\nu \text{a}^\nu \text{bi}^\nu \text{ be}^\gamma \text{-8} \text{ bv}^\gamma \text{ da}^\gamma \text{ tv} \text{-9}. |
cassowary FocusMkr Benjamin PredInfo.-Ag for dog take go away -Tot.Pun
It was for cassowary that Benjamin took the dog out hunting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOCUS</th>
<th>PRESUPPOSITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Te^\nu \text{bai}^\gamma \text{ de}^\gamma \text{dv}^\nu</td>
<td>\text{bv}^\nu \text{ o}^\nu \text{ bv}^\nu^3?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
which FocusMkr I take RequestPermission
Which is the one that I should take?
Notice that the ‘be’ markers are also used in these kinds of clauses, marking nouns that are being asserted as additional information about the topical event but are also already given /known.

6.2.2.1 MARKING CLEFT CONSTRUCTIONS IN IAU

The equivalent of a cleft construction (It is “x” that ...) in Iau is composed of a noun marked by formulaic particles in a topicalized position. The topicalized noun in a cleft construction is the new predicated information in the clause, while the rest of the clause is the given /known information. The cleft construction equivalent occurs in Iau in sentence initial position in topic slot, is followed by slight pause. The topicalized item can be a noun, a noun phrase or a clause.

**NARRATIVE TEXT**

fa³ be⁷(by⁷ du¹be²) o² dy³.
I threw away the sago grubs and then,

and so, trap oldr bro belong that trap pulling Tel.Dur Neg. EmpFact
And it was my older brother’s trap that caught nothing.
Ba⁹ be⁹ ae⁹.
words are not
That's all the words.

PROCEDURAL TEXT
Da⁹ kei⁹ davy⁷ se⁵
2p dish make TOT.INC Intend EmphFact
And you are going to make the wooden dish,
dy*da*dv⁹ tay³ bv*ke⁷ so⁷ bv*ke⁷ bo⁴ by*by* du*be⁹
and so tree type and tree type and two it-is-that
da⁹ kei⁹ davy⁷ se²
2p dish make TOT.INC Intend EmphFact
(when) you are going to make a wooden dish

dy*da*dv⁹ bo⁴ by*by* du⁷
and so two it-is-that
it's these two (woods) that
bui⁴ da*dv⁹
cut down TEL.INC and-then
you cut down and then,
kei⁹ be⁴ davy⁷ dy³.
dish by-means-of make TOT.INC command
Make a dish with it.
Bo⁴ bv⁶ da⁶ u⁶ hi*fa⁷ be*y⁹ by*by* du⁷
Two Is now before speak TOT.INC Initial Ubd.Pst BnD
It's the two that I just now was mentioning that
kei⁹ fai*fa*ba*de⁸ davy⁷ dy⁹.
Dish like make TOT.INC command
you should make into the likeness of a wooden dish
Be⁷ ae⁹.
Is not
There is no more /That's all.

The following examples show the cleft construction marker used in explanatory text.

EXPLANATORY TEXT

Spkr 1
...tv*ya⁴
...tu ih

Spkr 2
Tv*ya⁴ bv⁷ te*de⁴?
go away TOT.PUN –Rsp/Statement this what?
Tu ih, what does that mean? /What is that?

Spkr 1
A'vy⁴ tv*ya⁴ dy⁹ e⁹
Explan go away TOT.PUN –Rsp/Statement do that TE./INC Nmlzr
Well it’s like this. “Tu ih”, (is explained) like this

ba*by* du⁹ ba*day⁹ ba³,
this wild pig flee RES.DUR perhaps
It is when a wild-pig runs away
ty⁷ i⁷ ba³, fv⁷ a*se⁹ i⁷ ba³,
person go TOT.INC perhaps, canoe SqMkr go TOT.INC perhaps
when people go, when the canoe has already left,
and so, if it’s the word that is just said like that, then, that’s what

goad away TOT.PUN – Rsp/Statement do that TEL.PUN

“tu ìh” means/is like.

Another example:

O’ba⁸ bi’si⁸ ba’bv⁹ di⁶ fe’di⁷ ba⁸ y⁹ medicine one this 2s now weak become Nomlzr
This pill is for you because you are weak,

its-that-that in place of eat RES.DUR command
take it for that.

6.2.2.2 Left Dislocated Positions, SPACERS AND FOCUS IN IAU

LDP activation of participants and props
Section 6.1.5 showed how the spacers in Iau form LDP’s which are used to activate and maintain discourse topical participants. Clauses with LDP’s that activate discourse topical participants and give identificational information about them have broad sentence focus. In these sentences both the information in the LDP and the predicate are being asserted.

Props, minor participants and non-topical temporal and locational frameworks are activated and identified within the clause.

The following examples are some examples of participants and props being activated in LDP’s.

a. Marked activation
LDP 1
Y⁸ da’fa⁸ u⁶ -di⁸ -y⁹
we recent before - Bd - Nmlz

LDP 2
ty⁷ buui⁷-a Be⁶’bi⁷ Des⁸ Davt⁴ y⁸ a’se⁹ to⁸ bv⁸ i⁹ people three Benjamin Des Daud we SqMkr pig for go TOT.PUN.

It was not long ago, there were three (others), Benjamin, Des and Daud (and I), we went to get a pig.

b. Clause activation

b. Y⁷ bo’fa⁴ bo’fai⁴ de⁷ Be⁶’bi⁷ Des⁸ Davt⁴ to⁸ bv⁸ i⁷ se⁹ we a pair a pair Benjamin Des Daud pig for go intend
We four, Benjamin, Des, Daud (and I) intended to go get a pig.

The examples above show the same information presented in two alternative ways. The first activates the participants as well as the time of the narrative in LDP’s, a more marked way of introducing participants and time.

The following set of examples are from narrative eventlines where a local participant is also introduced in two alternative ways.

Marked Activation

LINK LDP SPACER CLAUSE

c. ɪ’ be’du⁵ ba’v⁵ a’se⁹ bi’si⁶ doe⁵,
go when lizard SqMkr one saw TEL.PUN
(We) were going along when, there was a lizard we spotted.

LINK CLAUSE

d. Y⁷ i⁷ du’e⁵ ba’v⁵ bi’si⁶ doe⁵,
we go while lizard one see TOT.PUN
As we were going along, we saw a lizard.
The first sentence in the set introduces the lizard in a clause level LDP and then refers to it within the clause with a NP having a zeroed head. The second sentence show a more unmarked way of introducing a lower level participant within the clause itself ‘a lizard’.

Participants introduced with LDP’s occur in narrative settings, while clauses unmarked mention within the clause occurs most frequently within the narrative eventline or at subunit settings in the narrative.

If LPD’s are indeed broad sentence focus structures, then the spacers can be interpreted by implication as participant activators. We have seen how predicate focus can be shifted in Iau by two mechanisms. by adding presentational LDP’s to a clause and by marking NP’s within the clause core as focus head with the be marker.

Cleft constructions or Narrow Focus Structures as focus structures in Iau

The following is an example of another focus structure.

```
Bv7 te8 de9? Bv7 da9 du9be7 d10 sa3.
this what Sta this dog NFocus eat food
(Looking at pictures.) What is this? This is a dog that is eating food.
```

In the example above, a noun, ‘dog’ is focus, or what the speaker is asserting about the topic. The narrow focus marker du9be7 follows the focus noun to form an LDP and is followed by a pause. The predicate that follows is not being asserted about the discourse topic.

Another example,

```
a Da9 kei9 davy7 se8 dy9da9dv9
you pl dish make intend IndClCj

b tay9 bv9ke7 so8 bv9ke7 bo4 _by9by9 du9be7_
Tay and So and two Excluder NFocus

c. da9 kei9 davy7 se8 dy9da9dv9
you pl dish make intend IndClCj

d. bo4 by9by9 du7 bui4 daa9dv9
two Excluder NFocus cut down MCICj

e. fav8 fvy4 be7 du9ki9 daa9dv9
piece cut SCICj split MCICj

f. kei9 fai9fa9ba9 de9 davy7 dy3.
dish same Sta make Imper
```

a. If you are going to make a wooden dish, then b. it’s the tay and so trees that c. if you are going to make a wooden dish then d. it’s only those two that you should cut down e. and cutting them in pieces and splitting (the pieces), f. make them like a wooden dish.

The example above is taken from a procedural text. The cleft construction /narrow focus marker by9by9 du9be7 marks the two kinds of wood as being the main thing the speaker is asserting about the topic, making a wooden dish. The narrow focus marker by9by9 du9be7 is a more emphatic form of the narrow focus marker du9be7. The examples above represent the reverse of the topic-comment clause structure. In the examples above, the LDP is focus and the remainder of the clause is presupposition. The tone on the narrow focus markers varies with the relationship between the focus noun and the presupposition predicate. A narrow focus marker with a tone 4, du9be4, is used to indicate a means relationship between focus information and the information in the clause.

This is illustrated in the clause below.

```
a. Dy9 to4 du9be-4 10 a99?
And do what? NFocus-Mns go UBd
```
b. "U⁸ kay⁷ du'be⁴ i?.
  tree go on surface NFocus-Mns go TOT INC

c. "U⁸ kay⁷ se⁹ i⁸ da'dv⁹ by/by⁷ du'be⁴
  tree go on surface Manner go MCICj Excluder Focus-Mns

d. bi⁸ boe⁸ da'dv⁹
  top reach MCICj

e. e'ta'rfau⁷ to⁸ a²?
  again what happen Ubd

(A sermon about pride and how it goes before a fall. Illustration-- a
vine that has no strength in itself, but gains height by climbing the tre)
a. "And how /by what means does it (the vine) go (climb up high)?"
b. "It's by going along the surface of the tree that it goes."
c. "When it goes along the surface of the tree it’s then when.
d. it gets to the top, e. then what happens to it again? (Answer: it
  falls back down because it has no support)

The example above also illustrates a clause as LDP narrow focus instead of a noun. ("When it
goes along the surface of the tree it's then when).

This illustrates that the force of the Iau narrow focus marker is to mark only one element of the
information structure as being asserted about the topic, in contrast to predicate focus in which the
entire predicate verb and associated information is being asserted.

The be focus marker

The be focus head marker can occur within the clause in a narrow focus construction as
illustrated by the following examples.

82a. Te⁸ du'be⁷ Be⁸a.bi⁸ be⁸ da⁷ bv⁸ da⁸ tv³?
  what NFocus Benjamin FocusHd dog take go away

b. Dai⁳ du'be⁷ Be⁸a.bi⁸ be⁸ bv⁸ da⁷ da⁸ tv⁹.
  cassowary NFocus Benjamin FocusHd Goal dog take go away

a. What was it that Benjamin went hunting for with a dog?
b. It was a cassowary that Benjamin was hunting for with a dog.

Another example

83a. Te⁸ du'be⁷ da⁷ be⁴ bv⁸ da⁸ tv³?
  what NFocus dog InfstrHd Goal take go away

b. Dai³ du'be⁷ da⁷ be⁴ Be⁸a.bi⁸ be⁷ bv⁸ da⁸ tv⁹.
  cassowary NFocus dog InfstrHd Benjamin FocusHd Goal take go away

a. What was it that the dog was taken to hunt for?
b. It was a cassowary that Benjamin took the dog to hunt for.

We have seen previously that the be marker marks nouns as focus head of the clause structure in
topic-comment constructions. The examples above illustrate the be marker as also marking a
head within in the clause structure of the focus -presupposition construction. In a focus -
presupposition construction, the LDP is focus and the remainder of the clause is presupposition.
In the examples above the be marker marks the discourse topical nouns as head of the
presupposition structure and as what the LDP focus noun is about. As in the topic-comment
clauses where a noun is information head of the comment, the verb provides additional
information about the relationship between LDP focus and the marked noun presupposition
heads.
6.3 Word Order In Iau Clauses

6.3.1 Verb Final
As we have seen in preceding sections, in Iau the verb with its associated particles always occurs clause final as is re-illustrated in the following example.

A’ bv^ku^ doe^ se^.
1s book see-Tot.INC Inten
I am going to look at books.

In the Iau clause above, the verb follows the two nouns. The intention particle “se” is part of the verb phrase and functions as part of the clause periphery.

6.3.2 Nouns Ordered by topicality
Nouns in Iau clauses are not ordered according to their grammatical function. That is, they can occur in the order subject followed by object, or in the order object followed by subject. It is in fact difficult in Iau to find criteria for labeling a noun as subject or object. The rule of thumb for the ordering of nouns is as follows: if a noun is the topic of the clause, then it is placed at the beginning of the clause to the left of other nouns. Other nouns are positioned from left to right in order of topicality. The following set of sentences illustrate this.

1. A’ bv^ku^ doe^ e^ da^ki^ y^.
   1s book see-Tot.INC Nomin good Info-SNC.NA.NDT
   It would be good if I could look at books.

2. Bv^ku^ bv^ doe^ e^ da^ki^ y^.
   book 1s see-Tot.INC Nomin good Info-SNC.NA.NDT
   It would be good if I could look at the books.

In the first sentence the pronoun a’ ‘I’ is topic of the clause and is also the fronted NP. In example 2 books the undergoer is the topic of the clause

When three or more nouns occur in a clause, they are ordered on a sliding scale of topicality and definiteness. The topical nouns are placed to the left of nontopical nouns. Definite nouns precede indefinite nouns. The question and answer set illustrate this.

1. Te^da^be^ Be^a^bi^ be^ da^ bv^ da^ tv^?
   what Benjamin Cause dog for carry leave- TOT.DUR
   What was it that Benjamin took the dog to hunt for?

2. Dai^3 du^be^ Be^a^bi^ be^ bv^ da^ da^ tv^?
   cassowary that Benjamin for dog carry leave-TOT.PUN
   It was a cassowary that Benjamin took the dog to hunt for.

In each of the sentences above there are three participants involved in the action-- Benjamin, the dog, and the animal being hunted. In the examples above, the ordering of the particle bv and the noun da ‘dog’ is reversed. In (1) bv ‘goal’ occurs after the noun da and in (2) it occurs before `da’ dog.

The first sentence is a question which asks for the identity of the animal being hunted. The particle “bv” ‘for (it)’ refers to some unknown animal. The noun `da” on the other hand refers to a specific animal known to the speaker and hearer. Since the noun da ‘dog’ is definite and the animal referred to by the particle bv ‘for (it)’ is indefinite, the speaker places the indefinite particle bv to the right of the more definite noun da’.

In sentence (2) however the identity of the animal hunted is specified as a cassowary. In (2), the particle bv now refers to a definite noun, dai ‘cassowary’, which is also the sentence topic as indicated by its position to the far left of the sentence. Because bv refers to a noun that is both definite and topical it must precede the noun da’ which is definite but not topical.

The following sentence is another example of a topical noun preceeding a less topical noun.

Y^ da^ se^ko^da^ o^ da^dv^ bau^ da^dv^?
we now school take-TOT.PUN MVCIMkr go down-RES.PUN MBCIMkr
a^ ku^da^ be^sy^ y^ taui^ bau^.
land teacher Poss we work-TOT.INC 1P-Imp
When we have finished school today, and when we have gone out (ie when school is over) let’s all go to work in the school teacher’s garden.
The topic of this portion of the conversation is the teacher's garden. The speaker wants the hearers to work on it after school. The sentence above consists of three clauses. The first two clauses have only one participant, Y `we'. The final clause in the sentence has two participants y `we' and a ku`du' be`sy` the teacher's garden'. Since the noun phrase `the teachers garden' is what the sentence is about, it must precede the pronoun y `we'.

6.3.3 Order in focus-presupposition clauses.
As we have also seen above, focus presupposition clauses in the form of cleft constructions are also common in Iau (It was the dog that…). In these kinds of sentences, the word order is reversed. The new predicated information is placed on the left side of the clause, the already given /known /topical information is placed to the right as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Predicated Info</th>
<th>Topic/Given/Known</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IO</td>
<td>Subj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dai³ da`be⁷</td>
<td>Benyamin be-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tv</td>
<td>-9?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cassowary</td>
<td>it was that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benjamin</td>
<td>PredInfo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Ag</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for</td>
<td>carry go away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Tot.Punc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was cassowary</td>
<td>that Benjamin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>took the dog</td>
<td>to hunt for.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the example above the given known topical information is that someone took a dog out hunting. The statement above identifies what they were hunting, the main new information and who was the agent. The topical information is placed on the right, the new information is placed on the left. The identity of the agent is known but important to be specified so it is placed in the middle position, partially predicated but also known information.

6.5 Clauses, The Building Blocks Of Sentences.
Clauses are primarily the building blocks that form sentences. They can be embedded within other clauses in noun slots as nominalized clauses in order to describe or identify participants in terms of events. They can also form complex sentences by being embedded in temporal adverbial slots in the form of dependent clauses. Or as independent with no embedded temporal adverbial clauses, clauses can combine with each other in additive relationships to form compound sentences. (See the section on sentence types below)

So, clauses in Iau can be classified into 4 types according how they are used in other sentences and clauses. These four types are independent clauses, medial clauses, subordinate and nominalized clauses. The following section of a narrative text consisting of one long sentence (which is very common in Iau narrative) illustrates all four types of Iau clauses. In the example below, nominalized clauses are on the far left margin, independent clauses next, medial verbs next and subordinate clauses the most indented.

Words About Stealing Food When I Was Small by Benjamin

**Nominalized clauses**

A’ u di -8 -e’
I before did_occur -RlzdCurrentRelevant -Nominlz
I, in the past, (Global Participant, Time)

Fi`be`fvy’ by’ be -4 di -8 -y’
Fi`be`fvy’ downstream is/are -Tel.Inc did_occur -RlzdCurrentRelevant -Nomnlzr
when I was at Fibehui, (Location)

**Medial Verb Clauses**

a’ a se’ da’fau’ da’dv’
1 SeqMkr; get_dark and-then
it was evening and then,

**Subordinate Clauses**

a’ a se’ tv’ bvy -7 be’
1 SeqMkr; sago(starch/palm) ask_for -Tot.Inc OvrlapSClCj
I, asking for sago,

a’ ty’ fo`be’ y -7 du`be’
mother facing cry -Tot.Inc but
was crying in front of my mother but,

a’ a ty’ be’ tv’ bay -4 ae’
I mother NMkrAg sago(starch/palm) give -Tel.Inc without my mother, not giving me any sago,
These four Iau clause types contrast in their distribution within sentences, permitted verb stem tones, and in types of conjunctions. Each of these clause types will be illustrated and discussed below.

### 6.3.1 Independent Clauses

Iau independent clauses are characterized by the following structural features. They allow the full range of aspect tone morphemes on the verb and the full range of postverbal particles, including the illocutionary force marking particles. Independent clauses in Iau are not marked by an obligatory conjunction or clause marker. The following sentences illustrate these features.

- **A⁹ y⁹ bv³ i⁹ a⁹ y⁹**
  - 1 water for go-Tot.Inc MUbd-FACT Statemt
  - I am going to get water.

- **Ui³ fi³ fe³be⁴ da³dv⁹ y³ bi³ sa³.**
  - house thatch bad MVCICj we rain eat-Tot.Dur
  - The roof thatch was bad and so, we got wet from the rain.

The first example above illustrates an independent clause with a clause final illocutionary force statement marker ‘y’ and a preceeding status marker ‘a’. The sentence stress falls on the clause final illocutionary force marker. The second example consists of two clauses. The second clause in bold is the independent clause. The tone 3 aspect morpheme on the verb sa³ does not occur on medial verb clauses but is allowed on verbs in independent clauses. Sentence stress is located on the verb sa³ in the final independent clause.

The first example above also illustrates another factor which distinguishes independent clauses from the other clause types in Iau. Independent clauses have a distinct grammatical function from the other clause types. Independent clauses function as the nuclear component of sentences. That is, an independent clause in itself can also be a simple sentence. The other clause types by themselves do not form complete sentences but must occur in combination with an independent clause.

### 6.3.2 Medial Verb Clauses

Medial verbs are a class of verbs characteristic of the non Austronesian languages of Papua, Indonesia and Papua New Guinea. Medial verbs in these languages do not carry the full tense, aspect, and mood information marked on independent verbs. They are frequently used to form sentences with long strings of dependent clauses ending in a final independent clause. Many languages with medial verbs are also characterized by switch reference marking systems in which a marker on the medial verb indicates whether its subject is the same subject or a different subject than the subject of the main clause or a subsequent clause. No evidence of this kind of system has been found in Iau.

Medial verb clauses in Iau are also characterized by an obligatory 2 syllable clitic conjunction which occurs clause final and marks dependent relationships such as temporal sequence, reason, grounds, adversative, temporal margins, prerequisite events and chains of events as illustrated below.
Da⁹ a’se⁹ su -6 da’dv⁹. y⁸ a’se⁹ e’ta’fau⁷ fvy⁹ sui -5. Sky/dark SeqMkr erase -Res.Pun and then we SeqMkr again canoe-into enterTel.Pun

When/after the night had past (Lit when the dark was erased), we got into the canoe again.

Bi⁹ ba -7 da’dv⁹. y⁸ a’se⁹ ui⁸ bv⁸ i -9. rain come -Tot.Inc and so we SeqMkr house to go Tot.Pun

Because it rained, we went to the house.

Y⁸ kei⁹ bv⁸ tai⁸ se⁹ du -8 be’du⁷ dav² bi’si⁹ doe -9. We turtles for search Circust limited -Res.Dur when crocodile one see -Tot.Pun

We were hunting for turtles when (interruptive), we saw a crocodile.

A¹ i -7 du’be⁹ bi⁸ ba -7 be’se⁹ e’ta’fau⁹ ui⁸ bv⁸ ba -9. I go -Tot.Inc but rain come -Tot.Inc since I again house to come -Tot.Pun

I went but since the rain came, I went home again.

Since medial verb clauses are dependent in nature, the events in them are not final events but events that lead up to, result in or culminate in some other more thematic event. They mark less foregrounded events. See the preceding examples. Because the events in medial clauses are not final events, some of the punctual and totality of action aspect view points do not occur on medial verb clauses. Specifically, tones 9 (totality of action, punctual), 3 (totality of action durative), and 5 (telic, punctual) do not occur on medial verbs. Instead, incomplete and resultative tones are substituted. Tone 7 (totality of action, incomplete) is substituted for the punctual tone 9. Tone 4 (telic incomplete) is substituted for the punctual tone 5. And tone 8 (resultative durative) is substituted for the process verb tone 3 (totality of action, durative) as illustrated below.

A² a’se⁹ tau² -⁸. A’se⁹ tau² da’dv⁹ ty⁷ ti⁹.

I SeqMkr make Tot.Pun SeqMkr make Tot.Inc MVcj person give-Tel.Pun

I made it. After I made it, then I gave it to them.

A² a’se⁹ ty⁷ foi -⁸.

I SeqMkr people tell-Tel.Pun

A² a’se⁹ ty⁷ foi -⁴ du’be⁹ bi⁶ bay -⁷ ae⁶.

I SeqMkr people tell-Tel.Inc MVcj but listen -Tot.Inc not I told them. I told them but, they did not listen.


pig meat we SeqMkr eat -Tot.Dur eat Res.Dur and then sleep -Tot.Pun

We ate the pork. After we had eaten, we slept.

Modality, status, evidential, and illocutionary force particles are by nature about the relationship between speaker and hearer and the attitude of the speaker towards the information in the clause. These kinds of particles do not occur in dependent medial verb clauses.

The following is an example of a chain of medial verb clauses taken from the narrative text Words About My Cutting Down a Tree When I Was Small’ by Benjamin.

**Medial verb clauses**

A’ a’se’ a’ty’ bv’ke’ be’ bv’i -⁷ da’dv’

I SeqMkr; mother also/and fish_trap for go -Tot.Inc and-then I went with my mother to check a fish trap and then, a’ty’ sa’ be’ bi -⁷ da’dv’ mother SimlitCntrst fish_trap acquire -Tot.Inc and-then mother got the fish trap and then, a’ a’se’ ta’ ka’bu’ o -⁷ da’dv’

I SeqMkr; knife short take -Tot.Inc and-then I took a small knife and,

**independent clause**

a’ a’se’ a’ty’ foi -⁵.

I SeqMkr; mother tell -Tel.Pun I said to my mother,……

In the example above the string of medial verb clauses is used to mark a secondary /preliminary eventline to the main events of the story which begin with the author’s statement to his mother in the final independent clause of the sentence.
Medial verb clauses can have embedded dependent clauses in them. The following is another sequence of medial verb clauses, broken by the inclusion of one subordinate clause, taken from the same narrative ‘Words About My Cutting Down a Tree When I Was Small’ by Benjamin.

The subordinate clause is in italics below.

dy’dad’bv’ a’se’ bv’ bi’4 da’dv’n therefore I SeqMkr; because_of go_up -Tel.Inc and-then so then, I climbed up (on the scaffolding) and then,

Therefore I seqMkr; therefore I climbed up on the scaffolding and then, then, I seqMkr; scaffolding accompany I; along with the scaffolding fell then. When the scaffolding broke. I fell along with it.

The main eventline sequence is marked by medial verb clause above are the sequence

I climbed up
I fell
my testicles were speared by a piece of wood
the wood/plintert was pulled out,
my testicles were wrapped with a leaf
INDEPENDENT CLAUSE
they healed.

The subordinate clause verb is a background clause about the scaffolding “It broke”
The independent verb is the final outcome: healing.

6.3.3 Subordinate Clauses
Adverbial subordinate clauses are clauses which are embedded in other clauses and function like adverbs in the clause. The following are some examples.

\[
\begin{align*}
Y^*_8 fv^*_6 ae^*_6 se^*_9 & \quad y^*_9 i^*_7 ae^*_9, \\
\text{we canoe not-Res.Pun GrdsSCICj we go-Tot.Inc Neg} \\
\text{Since (grounds) we have no canoe, we did not go.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
A^*_9 se^*_9 bay^*_9 be^*_9 bui^*_2 & \quad -be^*_7 sui^*_8 be^*_7^* \text{ SeqMkr peninsula path upstream AdvMkr enter_into -Rlz.Dur MnsSCIMkr} \\
f^*_a a^*_9 dav^*_2 baui^*_8^* 4 \\
\text{shore the_other_one on_far_side(of_river) arrive -Res.Dur-Tel.Inc} \\
\text{By (means of) going to the upstream path we crossed the river and, we arrived on the far bank of the river.}
\end{align*}
\]
The examples above illustrate subordinate clauses as means, sequence, purpose and circumstance clauses.

Iau adverbial subordinate clauses are characterized by the following structural features. They do not take major sentence stress and are marked by an obligatory monosyllabic particle. The examples above illustrate the use of the three most common subordinate adverbial clause marking particles, be⁷, be⁷⁻⁸, se⁹ and de⁹.

Iau adverbial subordinate clauses allow all of the aspect tone morphemes (including 3, 9, 5) to occur on the verb, but do not take status, evidential or illocutionary force particles. The following example illustrates the use of a tone 3 on the verb in an adverbial subordinate clause.

Taking his machete, he left.

Adverbial subordinate clauses frequently are used to give information about factors which affect, facilitate or characterize the performance of the verb they modify. The following sentences are examples.

Because I was asking for sago, I was looking up to my mother, crying but ....(she didn't give me any)

Like medial verb clauses, subordinate clauses can occur in narrative clauses in chains, but usually with only two or three clauses in the sequence, as illustrated from the text above as well as the following text below.

word this mother I belong person Bi e NMkrOb first kill -Tot.Pun Cause given info

Regarding these words, because Idus mother had first been killed by some Bie people,

left and came (back) here,
The following is a rare example of three subordinate clauses in sequence.

Dy'be** a' a'ty' be' tau' fo -4 be**
and_then I mother PredInfoAg sling take_off -Tel.Inc PreReqSClMkr
Then, my mother, taking me out of the sling,
te' da -3 be**
flooring put_down_on -Tot.Dur PreReqSClMkr
and putting me on the floor

di' fvy' o'sy' bv' boi ' du'

I then, my mother, taking me out of the house to get the things in the canoe when.

and had gone down out of the house to get the things in the canoe when.

I later hand ground push_on -Tot.Inc when

I, later (after she left) was crawling when,

6.3.4 Combined Clause Chains

Any number of medial and subordinate clauses can also be combined in clause chains as illustrated below.

Example 1
Clause Chain
A' ko'du' be -7 di -8 -y' I small is/are -Tot.Inc Bounded.Realis -RlzdCurrentRelevant -Nomnlzr
When I was small,
du'si' o'su' a'y'be' ba' be' -8 du'be'
bird name bird_type I shot -Rlz.Dur but

when (on the occasion that) I shot an aibe bird,
a' ty' be' vy -3 be**
mother PredInfoAg taking -Tot.Dur PreReqSClMkr
and my mother taking it

tui' bay -4 de'
breast give -Tel.Inc RsSClCj

because she put it to her breast,

a' fi'au' v' bv' dui -8 du'e'
I very/always heart for shake -Rlz.Dur as/until

I happy all day until

bai' i -3 to 9.
sun go -Tot.Dur FactCntraryToHearer
the sun went down.

The following is another example

Example 2
Clause Chain 1
A' u' ko'du' be -7 di -9 -y' I before small is/are -Tot.Inc Bounded.Realis -Establish_as_fact -Nomnlzr
When I was small,
a' a'ty' be' da -8
I mother NMkrAg carry -Rlz.Dur

Sai' Bv'si' be' da -8 ba -7 be'du'

my mother took me and brought me to the mouth of the Sai river when (interruptive),

y' bi' ba -7 da'be'
we rain come -Tot.Inc because(given_info)
because it started to rain,

Sy' v' Ba'fi'ta' by' be' ba -9.
should coming there *** downstream Loc/DirAdvMkr come -ChStateRes.Pun-Tot.Dur
we went downstream to Bafita.
And then, my mother, taking me out of the sling, flooring put_down_on -Tot.Dur PreReqSClMkr and putting me on the floor (of the house at Bafita),

A mother NMkrAg sling take_off -Tel.Inc PreReqSClMkr when she had gone down out of the house to get the things in the canoe when, a ty be oy da 7 be du'

I later hand ground push_on -Tot.Inc when I, after (she left) was crawling when, a ty be ao a fi o 7 da dv'

corpse body I eat -Rlz.Dur when I ate (ie put in my mouth) a human bone when, a ty be ao a fi o 7 da dv'

mother PredInfoAg SeqMkr; me away_from, take -Tot.Inc and then my mother took it from me and then, a se do 7 da dv'

SeqMkr; see -Tot.Inc and then looked at it and then, by i a se do 7 da dv'

corpse body SeqMkr; see -Tot.Inc and then she saw it was a human bone and then, a ty a se e 6 da dv'

mother SeqMkr; exclaim -Res.Pun and then mother exclaimed and then, a a se o di 8 I SeqMkr; by/with_hand hit -Rlz.PstMultiple she spanked me with her hand.

6.3.5 Nominalized And Topicalized Clauses

6.3.5.1 Nominalized Clauses

Nominalized clauses are marked clauses which can fill noun slots in the clause or sentence. They are used to identify a participant in terms of an event or an attribute or they are used to topicalize an event or state.

Nominalized clauses are structured in Iau as follows:

CLAUSE + NOMINALIZER -e/-y

The following is an example of two nominalized clauses taken from part of a sermon. They are used in the context as quote margins in a chiastic construction, one preceding and one following the quote.

Ty a se v dy dau e person SeqMkr heart like this Nmlz

People who think like this,

"A ba bv sai fi au tui be. A au sai fi au be."

I this by self really strong am I self by self always will be "I am very strong in and of myself. I myself will always be /exist."

O I "Ty fi au tui be y

! people very strong are Stmnt

Or am I wrong? (Exclamation) "People are very strong."
The two nominalized clauses from the example below are diagrammed below to show the clause structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLAUSE</th>
<th>NOMINALIZER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ty⁷ v⁴ dy⁴dau⁴ e⁹</td>
<td>person heart like-that (Verb)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ty⁷) v⁴ dy⁴dau⁴ bi⁸fa⁷ se⁹du⁸ e⁹</td>
<td>(people) heart like-that (Adv) say manner do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second clause has no explicit subject because it is implicit from the context.

The following are some additional examples taken from narrative and conversational text.

*The two who were out hunting with their dogs*

They_two dog carry go -Tot.Inc be_...-ing+ Nominlz IndefEv/Prtc -Nominlz this

were attacked by the pig

**Chair dv⁴ui -7 -e⁹ ba⁹ be -7 ae -6.**

That's all the words about holding up the chairs.

"Yo'si³a³ v³y⁸ dav² e⁸ y⁷ bo⁴ da⁶ o⁷ by⁶ be³"

"Yosia, the crocodile whose tracks we saw in the sand downstream that we were speaking about,

ba⁶ be -4 y³.“

“Hey, when we were just now coming,

The two nominalized clauses are ‘I, in the past’ and ‘when I was at Fibehui’.

6.3.5.2 Topicalized Clauses

Whole clauses can also be made topics as illustrated in the following example where the clause “when we were just now coming here” is nominalized and topicalized by it’s fronted position.

"Ty’day⁸ y⁴ da⁸ bi -8 -y⁹ people! we now arrive -Rlz.Dur -Nominlz

"Hey, when we were just now coming,
when the plane’s tail dropped down, 

lifting up the chair, 


In the following example a hypothetical situation is topicalized and then commented on. 

If it was true that you would not have killed one of us, 

If it was true that you had not killed one of us, then you could have had me as your wife. (A dead man’s brother had just killed one of his brothers two wives and now wanted to take the other for his own wife)

The example above with the status particle ‘di’ ‘would have’ in the nominalized clause shows that nominalized clauses can take postverbal status and evidential particles. However they do not take the sentence final illocutionary force particles.

Another example of another Iau structure in which a clause is topicalized and commented on is given below. 

It’s the young boys that if they shoot the pigs from close up, it would be good, don’t you think?

6.3.5.3 Descriptive Clauses 

A third type of construction acts as a kind of descriptive relative clause. The statement could be a response to an unidentified sound, a unidentified picture, or something the speaker and hearer can both see. 

This is a chicken that is being bit by a dog.

6.6 Clause Conjunctions 

Iau clause conjunctions are clitics that occur clause final. They are of two types. Medial verb clause conjunctions are two syllable clitics that occur clause final on medial verb clauses as illustrated below. 

my mother took it from me and then,
Subordinate clause conjunctions are one-syllable clitics that occur clause final on subordinate clauses as illustrated below.

A° a°ty° be° tau° fo° be° a°
I mother NMrk sling take off SCICj
Taking off the sling.
te° da° be° a° di° bv° i°.
floor put on AdvSubCl things for go Tot.Pun
and putting me on the floor, mother went after (the rest of) the things.

The Iau clause conjunctions in addition to marking the type of clause as medial versus subordinate also mark the semantic relationship between the medial or subordinate clause and the subsequent clause. The following are some examples of relationships marked by medial verb conjunctions.

Y° kei° bv° tai° se° du -8 be°du° dav° bi°si° doe -9.
We turtles for search Cirumst do -Res.Dur when crocodile one see -Tot.Pun
We were hunting for turtles when (interruptive), we saw a crocodile.

A° i° - 7 du°be° bi° ba -7 be°se° a° e°ta°fau° ui° bv° ba -9.
I go - Tot.Inc but rain come - Tot.Inc since I again house to c ome - Tot.Pun
I went but since the rain came, I went home again.

The following are examples of relationships marked by subordinate clause conjunctions.
I SeqMkr sago ask -Tot.Inc SCICj
Because I was asking for sago,

mother facing-up AdvMkr cry -Tot.Inc but
I was looking up to my mother, crying but ...(she didn't give me any)

Taking off the sling,

floor put on SCICj things for go Tot.Pun and putting me on the floor, mother went after (the rest of) the things.

He has gone to (purpose) bathe.

We came eating as(circumstance) (we came) /We ate as we came.

We got them and then,  

seqMkr; peninsula_of_land path upstream LocAdvMkr enter -Rlz.Dur SqMnsSCIjMkr going to the upstream path we crossed the river and,

Clause Nucleus: Independent Clause
shore the other one on far side (of river) arrive -Res.Dur-Tel.Inc
we arrived on the far bank of the river.

Iau sentences also have optional fronted elements. These optional fronted elements consist of response particles, vocatives, paragraph or sentence cluster level conjunctions as shown below

**Response Particle**
"Ai tv sa fu to.
emotional Rsp I sago eat desire Cntr to Hrer
"Oh how I long to eat sago.

**Response Particle**
"Ay da bei de dy.
ok 2p wait-Stu command
"Okay you all wait.

**Response Particle**
"Ba by sv i da dv y to.
No we alone go and then we cry as manner go ContrtoHrer
"No, if we go on alone, we would go crying.

**Vocative**
"Ty da y a i dus be sy y bv y di -9 ae -4 du be people! father P dus belong we because enemy kill -Tot.Pun not -yet but
"People, we haven't killed in revenge for Idus father, but, ku du ba -7 to -4.
preacher come -Tot.Inc CntraryToHearer -NAssert.ExpRsp the teachers have come." (the teachers are the evangelists who forbid killing)
A se dy dau av foi -4 a.
SeqMkr; like that each other tell -Tel.Inc PstHab
They said like that.

**Paragraph /Sentence Conjunction**
Dy a sy dy dau foi -5
then already like that tell -Tel.Pun
So then, they said like this,
"Ty da y tu i b i si ba bv y y di -4 be s people! Enemy one this we kill -Tel.Inc SqPreReqSCIrmkr
"People, killing someone in revenge,
A da ba o -7 ba -5.
" God word receive -Tot.Inc let's -Assert.HrResis.Persuade " let's receive God's word."

**Paragraph /Sentence Conjunction**
Dy dai au ba bv bai sui -7 se and cassowary he this get into -Tot.Inc intend to
And then, the cassowary was going to go into (the river)
dy da dv y ta i -7 du be therefore river in/at go -Tot.Inc but so it went to the river but,
y sa dy fai i -9.
we still follow go -Tot.Pun
we just followed it.

There are three basic sentence types in Iau: simple sentences, compound, and complex.

**7.1 Simple Sentences**
Simple sentences consist of a single independent clause plus or minus any left dislocated topics.
The following is an illustration.
Ty a se bi si su.
person SqMkr one died -Tel.Pun
One person died. OR There was one person that died. (This would reflect a context where the fact that people had died was known)
Ay^{-8} \text{ di}^9 \text{ bv}^{ai^8} \text{ fvy}^7 \text{ se}^8.

Ok, 2s I shadow cut intend
Okay I am going to take your picture.

Ui^{-9} \text{ du}'sy^8 \text{ foe}^2 \text{ bai}^{-7} -\text{ de}^8 \text{ dy}^8,
house yours s at-edge wait/stand –Sta command
Stand beside your house.

7.2 Compound Sentences

Compound sentences consist of two or more sentence types joined together by the sentence level conjunctions dy"da'dv* and so (resultative)’ di'\text{ du}'be’ but (adversative) dy"be'se" (conclusion), or dy"be'du’ when..' (changed/interrupted by following event). See sections 6.6 and 7.4. The following are some examples

Ay^{-8} \text{ da}'dv^9 \text{ be}^8'si^9
refuse and then left behind
When they refused, he left them

dy"da'dv^9 y^8 \text{ be}^7 \text{ bv}^8 \text{ ba}^9
and so we Nmkr to came
and so he came to us.

Fv^7 a''se^9 \text{ ui}^{-8} \text{ be}^7 \text{ ba}^3
plane SeqMkr fly SClMkr come (process)
The plane had already taken off and was coming
di'\text{ du}'be’ da'bi' ka'di^8 \text{ be}^8 \text{ se}^9 \text{ au'}te'di^8 \text{ a'} tai'.
SentCj-but clouds many are since 3S again land land on
but, since there were many clouds, he landed again.

Boi^9 \text{ au}''sy^9 \text{ Ye'}su^7 \text{ y}^8 \text{ bv}^8 \text{ bai}^7 -\text{ de}^8.
older bro our Jesus we for wait-Tot.Inc Sta-Fact
Our older brother Jesus is watching over us.

Fai'fa'ba' \text{ de}^7 \text{ da}^8 \text{ bv}^8 \text{ bai}^7 \text{ de}^8.
same Sta 2p for wait-Tot.Inc Sta-Fact
In the same way he is watching over you.

Dy"be'se^9 \text{ y}^9 \text{ to}^8 \text{ su}^7 \text{ ae}^8 \text{ y}^9.
therefore we not die-Tel.Inc not Mood
Therefore we do not die.

7.3 Complex Sentences

Complex sentences consist of a combination of dependent clauses (either medial verb clauses, adverbial subordinate clauses or a combination of the two) and a simple or compound sentence. The following is an example of a complex sentence formed by a medial verb clause with an independent clause nucleus.

Dy* \text{ su}^4 \text{ da}'dv^9
so died MVCj
'So when he died,
y^7 \text{ ba}^9 \text{ dy}^9\text{ dau}^4 \text{ bi'fa}^4
people words like this say
people said words like this.

The following example of a complex sentence is a subordinate clause and an independent Head clause..

Y* a''se^9 \text{ kaf}^7 \text{ taui}^{-7} \text{ be}^7*\text{ x}\text{ se}^7
we SeqMkr; bow taui -Tot.Inc SqPreReqScMkr
"Making some bows,
y^7 \text{ bo}^4 \text{ y}^8 \text{ di}^{-8} \text{ ba}^{-5}.”
they_two we hit -Rlz.Dur let's -Assert.HrResis.Persuade
lets go shoot those other two.”
There are many examples of complex sentences in Iau narrative discourse especially. Sometimes these clause chains function as paragraphs or a whole short story.

Starting sentence
A’ u’di’e Fr’be’ fvy’ by’ be’ di’ y’
I in past Fibefvy downstream was fact-past ~Nominalizer
In the past (at the time) when I was at Fibefvy,

a’ a’se’ da’fau’ da’dv’
I SqMk evening and-then
Regarding me, it was evening and-then

I SeqMk sago ask- for SCICj. Mother look- up- toward cried but,
I, asking for sago, cried looking up towards my mother but,

a’ a’se’ da’fai’ fe’isi’ da’dv’
I SeqMk night/dark woke-up and-then

di’ du’ be’ it could have happened-TEL.INC
be’ be’ du’ but

The sentence level conjunctions as illustrated above are a combination of the deictic verbs dy ‘do like that’, di ‘happen’ with a telic incompletive tone morpheme and one of four clitic medial verb conjunctions da’dv’ ‘chronological sequence, conditional, cause’; du’be’ ‘adversative’; be’du’ ‘interrupted by...’ and be’se’ ‘grounds, since’.

8.0 SENTENCE CHAINS, CLUSTERS, AND PARAGRAPHS
Just as there are clause chains in Iau, there are also sentence chains. Sentence chains are regularized or patterned sequences of sentences. One frequent regular pattern happens when the next section repeats the final independent clause of the preceeding sentence and turns it into a link by making it a medial verb clause, or in some instances a subordinate clause.

Starting sentence
Dy’*da’dv’ a’se’ Fau’i ba’ be’ fvy’ sui -5.
therefore SeqMk Fau’i right_here/there Loc-Mkr into_the_canoe enter-Tel.Pun
And so we got into our canoes here at Fau’i.

Link Sentence 1
Medial Verb Clause
Fvy’ sui -4 da’dv’
into_the_canoe enter -Tel.Inc and-then
We got into out canoes and then,

Independent Clause
a’se’ Si’bav’ta’ be’ fvy’ bai -6
SeqMk LocMkr canoe beach -Res.Pun
We docked /put our canoes to shore at Sibauta.
In some styles of narrative discourse, the discourse is organized around intention statements followed by sequences of sentences beginning with the sentence conjunction dy*da*dv* ‘and so’ as illustrated below.

a’se⁹ a³ Be’fae² bui² i -7 se -5
SeqMkr; land *** upstream go -Tot.Inc intention -Assert_NPres_Fact
(we) were going upstream to the place (called) Behae,

dy*da*dv*fe*aïa³ a’se⁹ o -9.
therefore goggles SeqMkr; take -Tot.Pun
And so, we got our underwater goggles.

Example 2 Intention statement

dav² e⁸ a’se⁹ doe -9.
crocodile footprint SeqMkr; see -Tot.Pun
we saw crocodile tracks.

dy*da*dv* y⁸ bo⁴ a”se⁹ ba⁸ bi’fa -9,
therefore we two (incl.) SeqMkr; word speak -Tot.Pun
so then, we two spoke words.
"Te⁷ be⁷ be -4?
**where is/are -Tel.Inc
"Where is it?"
Bui² i -7 be -8?
upstream go -Tot.Inc perhaps -Assert.ExpRspASAP
Did it go upstream?
by⁶ tv - 9 be -4?
downstream leave -Tot.Pun - perhaps NAssert.ExpRsp
or perhaps it went downstream?

Y" bo⁶ a’se⁶ bai*sui -7 se -5.”
we two (incl.) SeqMkr; get into -Tot.Inc intention -Assert_NPres_Fact
We are going to get into the water.”

dy’dā’dv⁶ fe⁶ a’se⁶ fai*tau -9.
therefore goggles SeqMkr; get ready -Tot.Pun
so then, we got our underwater goggles ready

In other styles of narrative discourse, long complex sentences divide the narrative eventline into smaller sequences of related events as illustrated in the following example.

**Sentence 1**
A’ u⁶ di -8 -e’ I before did_occur -RlzCurrentRelevant -Nominlz
I in the past,
Fi’be fv’ by⁶ be -4 di -8 -y’
Fi’be fv’ downstream is/are -Tel.Inc did_occur -RlzCurrentRelevant -Nomnlzr

**Episode 1: Attempts to get sago**
a’ a’se’ da’fau’ da’dv’ I SeqMkr; get_dark MVCICj
it was evening and then,
a’ a’se’ tv⁶ bvy -7 be’ I SeqMkr; sago(starch/palm) ask_for -Tot.Inc OvrlapSClCj
I asking for sago,
a’ty’ fo’be’ y’ -7 du’be’
mother facing cry -Tot.Inc MVCICj but
was crying in front of my mother but,
a’ a’ty’ be’ tv’ bay’ -4 ae’ I mother NMkrAg sago give -Tel.Inc SCICj
my mother, not giving me any sago,
fe’ka’³ da’dv’
fe’ka -Tot.Inc MVCICj
slept and then,
a’ a’se’ da’fau’ fe’si’ -7 da’dv’ I SeqMkr; night fe’si -Tot.Inc MVCICj
I woke up in the night and then,
tv’ a’ty’ be’ sy’ bvy’
sago(starch/palm) mother belonging_to I
a’se’ du’ bv’ui’ -3’
SeqMkr; secretly for stand_up -Tel.Inc-Tot.Dur
I secretly got up to get mother's sago.

**Outcome**

**Sentence 2**
Tv’ bv’ a’se’ fav -7 be’du’
sago I SeqMkr; fav -Tot.Inc when MVCICj
I broke off some sago when,
a’ a’ty’ be’ da’ ba -8 be’
I mother NMkrAg dog cause_become -Rlz.Dur OvrlapSClCj
my mother, thinking I was a dog
8.2 Sentence Patterns In Expository Text

In the example below taken from an expository text embedded in a conversation, sentences are juxtaposed one after another to give examples of the situations described by the word in question "tv⁸y⁶"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spkr 1</th>
<th>Expl Mkr</th>
<th>go away TOT.PUN –Rsp/Statement  do that TEL.PUN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ba⁷bv⁶</td>
<td>ba⁷day⁶</td>
<td>ba³, this wild pig flee RES.DUR perhaps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ba⁷bv⁶</td>
<td>ba⁷day⁶</td>
<td>ba³, person go TOT.INC perhaps, canoe SqMkr go TOT.INC perhaps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dy⁷da⁸dv⁹</td>
<td>by⁷by⁹</td>
<td>du⁷be⁷ fo⁸ dy⁷da⁷ be⁷ da⁰dv⁹</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.0 PRAGMATIC FUNCTIONS OF SENTENCES IN IAU DIALOGUE

In narrative discourse sentences function to give information, that is, tell a story. In conversational dialogue, sentences are used to get information from the other speaker (ask questions), to give opinions/make statements of fact or to get the other speaker to do something (commands). For more detail see section 10 below.

9.1 Questions In Iau

Questions are used in Iau mainly to get information from the hearer that the speaker does not know. Rhetorical questions exist, but are used mainly for scolding, not for topic introduction.

There are two kinds of questions in Iau: yes-no questions and content questions. An example of each kind of question is given below. The bolded words are the question markers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes-No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fv⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plane come ?-UnCertain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Is the plane coming?
Content Question
Ty⁷ “boe⁴ du⁷ be⁷ bi³.
who that arrive
Who is it that has arrived?
The first question above is a yes-no question. A speaker asks a yes-no question to find out if the information in the question is true or not. When the speaker asks a yes-no question, he wants the hearer to confirm or deny the information in the question. In the example above, the speaker is not sure whether the plane is coming or not.

The second question above is an example of a content question. Content questions are who, what, when, where, why, how questions. The speaker asks a content question when he doesn't know some specific bit of information in the sentence. In the Iau content question in (2) above, the speaker doesn't know the identity of the subject so he asks the hearer, "Who is it that arrived?" The question word 'who' is underlined in example (2) above. Each of the two kinds of questions in Iau will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

9.1.1 Yes-No Questions in Iau
Yes-no questions are formed in Iau by adding a yes-no question marker be or ba, which can be used interchangeably, and by changing the tone on the verb stem according to the verb class requirements. In the example below, the first sentence is a simple statement. The second sentence is a yes-no question formed from this statement.

1. Au⁷ du⁸ bv³ i?.
   he wild pig for go
   He went hunting. (Lit. He went to get a wild pig.)
2. Au⁷ du⁸ bv³ i⁷ ba³?
   he wild pig for go ?-Uncertain
   Did he go hunting?

The bolded words in the second sentence above illustrate the changes used in Iau to form a yes-no question. The question marker ba³ is added to indicate that the speaker thinks it is true that the man has gone hunting, but he is not sure. The example above also illustrates how the tone is changed on tone 9 verbs in yes-no questions. A tone 9 (high level tone) is changed to a tone 7 (high rising tone). In the sentences above i⁸ becomes i⁷.

The following pairs of sentences show the tone changes for tone 3 verbs and tone 5 verbs. The tone 3, low falling tone, is changed to a tone 8, low level tone. A tone 5 high low falling tone is changed to a tone 4 high falling verb in the question form.

1. Tone 3 change to tone 8
   Au⁷ fv⁷ da³ du³.
   he plane carry go along
   He flies the plane.
   Au⁷ fv⁷ da³ du³ ba³?
   he plane carry go along ?-Uncertain
   Does he fly the plane?

2. Tone 5 change to tone 4
   Au⁷ a³se³ ty⁷ foi³.
   he SqMk person tell
   He told them.
   Au⁷ a³se³ ty³ foi³ ba³?
   he SqMk person tell ?-Uncertain
   Has he already told them?

The other tones on verbs, 6, 2, and 8 do not change when a yes-no question marker is added.

Different tones are used on the sentence final question marker to show different degrees of uncertainty on the part of the speaker. There are three different tones that can occur on a be yes-no question marker. A tone 3 indicates that the speaker thinks the information in the question is
correct but he is not sure. All the previous examples in this section have had a tone 3 on the question marker.

A tone 9 on the question marker means the speaker thinks the information in the question is correct and doesn’t expect the hearer to correct him. However, he does want the hearer to answer him. This kind of question can occur in an interview or a teaching situation where the speaker is trying to get the hearer to give him a yes answer. The following question is an example.

Dy*be*a a*se* ui* bv* tv* be*?
then father already house to go away ?-Certain
So then, father went home?

The speaker in the example above knows that father has gone home but he wants the hearer to say it.

A tone 4 on the question marker means that the speaker is not at all sure that the information in his question is correct. He thinks it is highly likely that the speaker will correct him. The following sentence is an example of tone 4 on a question marker.

Da*a tv* be*?
you pl land-by go away ?-Vuncertain
I guess you traveled by land?

In the question above the speaker has never been to the place they are talking about so he is just guessing. This is indicated by the tone 4 marker be*.

9.2 Iau Content Questions

Content questions are used to obtain unknown information as illustrated in the following dialogues.

Du -i*a da -e* bv* bi* taui* e* ba*
wild pig-by bite --Nominlz because of wonder --Nominlz word
Words wondering about an attack by a wild pig
Ty* be* du*i* be*? da*?
who ID that wild pig -by eat/bite

Who was it that got bit/attacked by the wild pig? Eaten/bitten
Au* to* be*du* dai* da*? Da* da* i* be*du* dai* da*?
He what happened when wild pig -by bite? Dog carry go when wild pig-by bite.
What was he doing when he got attacked by pig? (be*du* interruption in expected flow of event)? He was taking his dog out hunting when he was attacked by a pig.

Note that in the examples above, most of the information in the clause is already known /given. The unknown item indicated by the question becomes the focus, that is the new predicated information about the topicwhich is the given part of the clause.

The following is a list of content question words in Iau.

ty* be* de* who? (Ty* be* or Ty* be*)
te* de* what?
te*du*/te* be*? what?
te*be* de* what kind of? (class identity of the thing)
te* --- de* What kind of? (specific name of a generic item)
te* bai* de* dv* which one?
te* /te* be* where?, what place?
te* bv* why?, for what purpose?
te* dau* de* how?
to* /u* to* when?
to* ba* de* how many?
to* what happened? doing what?
to* y* what did --- say?
/what do you say /call --(person/thing)--?

In general, te* means ‘what’ or ‘where’. ty* be* means ‘who’ and to* refers to questions about events ‘what happened?’ The other syllables on the end of the question words are various noun and verb markers which identify the function of the word in the sentence as well as it’s focus status.. Each of the types of question words will be discussed below.
9.2.1 Who */"Ty⁻⁸*: questions about identity

Who questions are used when the normal focus item in the clause, the event, is known, but the identity of the actor or agent for that event is unknown. The question word becomes the new focus information about the topic, the rest of the clause.

There are two main `who' compound question words in Iau.

\[\text{ty}^\text{⁻⁸} \text{ boe}^4\]
who? person identity marker

\[\text{ty}^\text{⁻⁸} \text{ be}^8\]
who? agent as focus/new unknown information

The word `boe^4' (identity marker) used in the example below is in a topic as predicate focus type sentence where the new predicated information is on the left side of the clause and marked by `du/be'.

\[\text{ty}^\text{⁻⁸} \text{be}^8 \text{ du}^7 \text{be}^7 \text{ bi}^3? \quad \text{Si}^9 \text{da}^3 \text{ boe}^4 \quad \text{du}^7 \text{be}^7 \text{ bi}^3.\]
who ID that came Janet ID Mkr that arrive
Who is it that came? It's Janet that arrived.

\[\text{ty}^\text{⁻⁸} \text{be}^8 \text{ du}^7 \text{be}^7 \text{ du}^9 \text{ da}^9? \quad \text{Epi boe}^4 \quad \text{du}^7 \text{be}^7 \text{ du}^9 \text{ da}^9.\]
who ID Mkr that w.pig-by bitten Epi Iden Mkr that w.pig-by bitten
It was Epi who was bitten by a wild pig.

The question word with the boe^4 identity particle can also be used when the `who' question word occurs in the normal predicate position as illustrated below.

\[\text{Ba}^7 \text{bv}^9 \text{ ty}^\text{⁻⁸} \text{ boe}?\]
this who ID mkr
Who is this?

\[\text{A}^9 \text{ boe}^4 \text{ y}^3.\]
I Iden Mkr Statement Mkr
It's me.

As indicated above, the question word ty⁻⁸boe^4 consists of the question word ty⁻⁸ `who' and the identity marker boe^4. The particle boe^4 is used to mark statements of personal identity. The use of the personal identity marker boe is also used to mark the identity information in the answers to the questions in the illustrations above.

The question word ty⁻⁸be^8 consists of the question word ty⁻⁸ and the noun marker be^8. Be^8 marks nouns or noun phrases within the clause when they are focus, predicated information. The tone morpheme 8 marks them as causative agent. The following is an example of the use of the content question word ty⁻⁸ `be'.

\[\text{Da}^7 \text{ ba}^7 \text{bv}^9 \text{ ty}^\text{⁻⁸} \text{ boe}^8 \quad \text{di}^9?\]
This dog, who NMkFocus/Ag killed (it)?
Who killed this dog?

In the question above the question word `who' uses the noun marker be^8 because the person the speaker wants to know about is also the one who brought about the action. That is the speaker wants to know who acted on the dog and brought about his death.

9.1.2 What Questions

The four what question words in Iau are listed below.

\[\text{te}^\text{de}^9 \text{ what}? \quad \text{predicate form}\]
\[\text{te}^\text{du}^7 \text{ what thing}?\]
\[/\text{te}^\text{du}^7\text{be}^7\]
\[\text{te}^\text{be}^8\text{de}^7 \text{ what kind of}? \quad \text{from where?}, \text{which place}?\]
\[\text{te}^8 (\text{o'su})^9 \text{ de}^9 \text{ what kind of (leaf)}?\]
\[\text{te}^8 (\text{bi})^9 \text{ du}^8 \text{ what kind of (news)}? \quad \text{Content}\]

The question te^de^9 is the predicate form of the `what' question word in Iau. It consists of the question word te` what' and the stative particle de^9. The following question and answer set illustrates the use of the question word te^de^9.

\[\text{Bv}^7 \text{ te}^\text{de}^9?\]
this what
What is this?
Ba’bv* u*.
this tree
This is a tree.

The `what' question word te*du* consists of the question particle te* and du* a left dislocation as focus info particle. Te*du* is used to ask about the identity of a thing when it is new information placed in a left dislocated topic position. Normally information in this position would be already given, not new predicated information. This is in contrast to the previous form te*de* which is used as a predicate in the sentence, the normal location for new predicated information. The following are some examples.

1. Bv* te*du* du*be* ba*?
   this what that come
   What is this that is coming?

   Bv* da* du*be* ba*.
   this dog that come
   It's a dog that is coming.

2. Di* te*du* bv* be* ba*?
   you what for go Pres Prog
   What (thing) are you going for?

   A* du* bv* bi* a*.
   I wild pig for go Pres Prog
   I am going to get a wild pig.

The te*du* form of the `what' question word is a abbreviated version of the question marker te*du*be*. There are two examples below.

1. Te*du*be* di* be* da* bi*?
   what you NMkr carry arrive
   What kind of thing did you bring?

2. Au* te*du*be* di*?
   he what kill
   What kind of thing did he kill?

The question word te*be*de* means `what kind of/from where' and is usually used in reference to people to ask what group or race they belong to. It is a description question word. (See also the section on `Where Questions.) The following question and answer set is an example.

Ty* te*be*de* fi'su*³ o'su*³ dav*³ a*³.
   person what kind pandanus leaf make Habit
   What kind of people make pandanus leaf mats?

Ty* Da*di* fi'su*³ o'su*³ dav*³ a*³.
   person Dani pandanus leaf* make Habit
   The Danis make pandanus leaf fishing mats.

When the generic term is known but the specific identity of the item is unknown, the following construction is used in Iau to ask about the identity of the item.

Bv* te* o'su*³ de*³?
   this what leaf is
   What kind of leaf is this?

Ba’bv* ko³ o’su*.
   this breadfruit leaf
   This is a breadfruit leaf.

Any noun can be substituted in the position between the question word te* and the stative particle de*.

The `what' question particle te* can also occur in the left dislocated position marked as new information by the particles dv*, du* or du/be* to ask `what thing?'. These are illustrated in two sample questions below.

Te* bi³ dv*³ bi*³ be*³ da*³ i³ a*³?
   what basket that you NMkr carry go Pres Prog
   What is it in that basket that you are carrying?
What news are you carrying around?

9.1.3 Where Questions

Either the simple question word te₈ or te₈ plus the noun as focus marker be₇ can be used to ask the identity of a location. The following sentences are examples.

1. Di₈ te₈ i₉ a₉?
you what(place) go Pres Prog
Where are you going?
A₉ bui₂ i₉ a₉ y₉.
I upstream go Pres Prog Statement Mrkr
I am going upstream.

2. Ty’ bo₄ te₈ be₄ di₉?
person two where are Past
Where were those two people?
Ty’ bo₄ a’se₄ ui₄ oe₄ di₉.
Those two were in the house.

3. Be₆ te₈ be₇ be₅?
path where is
Where is the path?

4. Di₈ be₆ te₈ be₇ kui₉ fvy₇ se₉?
1s path where grass cut-TOT.INC Inten-NPFACT
Where are you going to cut the grass?

The `where' question words illustrated above are the words used when the speaker wants the hearer to inform him of the location of something.

The following sentences illustrate the use of the question word te⁷ be⁷ `where' to ask for the source location of something.

1. Di₈ a₉ te⁷ be⁷ o’sy₉ de⁷?
2s land where from Stat
Where do you come from?

2. Di₉ te⁷ be⁷ bi₉?
2s where arrive
Where did you come from?

The `where' question words te₈ and te⁷ be⁷ in Iau are not used in Iau in situations where the speaker is using location to identify which of several objects is being discussed. These are discussed in the following section on which question words.

9.1.4 Which Questions

`Which' questions are asked when the speaker has a choice of several items. The speaker uses a `which' question word to get information about the identifying characteristics or the identifying location of the item. `Which' questions in Iau are marked by the question words te⁷ bai⁷, te⁷ bai⁷ de⁷ dv⁷ or te⁷ be⁷ de⁷. The following are some examples of `which' questions in Iau.

1. Bv³ ku’ te⁷ bai⁷ de⁷ dv⁷ a₉ sy₉ o’⁷ by₉?
book which I should take Request
Which book should I take?
Bv³ ku’ bay₄ be⁷ t’sy₉.
book yellow is Statement Mrkr
The yellow one.
Take the one in the upstream direction.

In the examples above there are several different choices of locations. The ‘which’ question word tebaid is used in situations where the speaker has all of the specific choices in front of him and wants the hearer to point out which of these choices he is referring to. The ‘which’ question word tebebade is used when the speaker knows there are several possible locations but does not know where they all are. For example in (3) above he can’t see the place where the path is and so he asks the hearer to point it out for him.

‘Which’ question words can also be used to ask about the source location of something, ie which place it is from. The following are some examples.

1. Di a tebaidde?
   2s land which from
   Which place do you come from? /Where do you come from?

9.1.5 Why Questions

‘Why’ questions in Iau can mean either ‘for what reason?’ or ‘for what purpose’. The following are some examples.

1. Fv teqv ba e daa?
   plane why come not Reported Speech
   Why didn’t the plane come, as it was supposed to?

2. Di teqv tait dai si da i a?
   you why machete hold carry to Pres Prog
   Why are you carrying that machete?

The first example above illustrates a why question word teqv to ask ‘for what reason?’ The second example above illustrates the use of the question word teqv to ask ‘for what purpose?’.

In Iau ‘why’ questions are frequently used as rhetorical questions to indicate that the speaker feels that the situation never should have happened. The following is an example.

A teqv beiv ei e daa?
1s why for stay-TOT.INC Neg-HYP RpSp-RLZ
Why didn’t I remember it! (Lit not stay for it = not remember)

Disambiguating reason and purpose questions

Reason and purpose questions can be disambiguated by using a complex multi-clause sentence structure.

Di to se daibe, bi da i a?
you what-do intend MedialC ICj-purpose basket carry go UNBD. DUR
What are you going to do, and so you are carrying that basket? /You are carrying that basket for what purpose /intending to do what?

Di te duv bv daa, di bi da -i a?
you what-that goal go stative, you basket carry go unbounded durative
What thing is it that you are going to get, (so) you are carrying a basket.

Di to Dydaiv di y se i?
you what happened? And therefore you cry as you go?
What happened? And therefore you are going along crying?
How Questions

How questions are used to elicit procedures. The basic 'how' question word in Iau is either te³dau⁴ or te³fau⁴. These two question words appear to be interchangeable. The event question word to⁴ can also be used in Iau to elicit either descriptions or demonstrations of the procedure for using something. The following are some examples of 'how' questions in Iau.

1. Da³ du⁸ bv⁸ du⁸ e⁹ da³ te³dau⁴ de⁷ du⁸ bv⁸ du⁸?
   1p wild pig for go-RES.DUR Nmlzr 2p how Sta-HYP wild pig for go-TOT.DUR
   You (pl) who go hunting wild pigs/when you go hunting pigs, how do you hunt them?

2. Fe⁶ ai⁸ ba⁷ bv⁸ te³dau⁴ da³ du⁸ da³dv⁹ fi⁸ be⁸ ba²?
   eye glass this how carry-TOT.INC MVCICOn fish NMkr-Instr kill-TOT.DUR
   How do you wear these goggles to shoot fish?

3. Da³ to⁴ be³ fi⁸ be⁴ ba³?
   2p what do SCIMkr fish NMkr-instr kill-TOT.DUR
   You (pl) kill fish by doing what with them? /How do you use them to catch fish?

4. To⁴ da³dv⁹ be⁴ o⁹ a²?
   what do MVCICOn NMkr-Instr catch-TOT.PUN DbD-URLZ
   What do (you) do so that you catch them with it?

When Questions

When questions about the time of an event are asked, the 'when' question word to⁶ is placed in the time slot in the clause. The following questions are examples of the use of the time question word to⁶ in Iau.

Di³ u³ to⁶ ba⁷ se⁹ i⁹ a⁹?
   2s day when come-TOT.INC Inten-FACT go-TOT.PUN DbD-URLZ
   You going (now, ) when (Lit day when?) do you intend to come back?

A³ A³kv⁴ bi³ da³dv⁹ ba⁷ se⁹.
   1s Saturday MVCICOn come-TOT.INC Inten-NPFACT
   I will come on Saturday.

To⁹ tay⁷ sa³?
   when knife-with cut-TOT.DUR
   When was he cut with the knife?
   Da³fa³du⁴ tay⁷ da⁹ y⁹.
   last night knife-with cut-TOT.PUN Info-SC.ADT
   He got cut last night.

Quantity Questions (How Many?)

The Iau question word to³ba³de³ 'how many' is used to ask about the quantity of an item. The following question is an example of an Iau quantity question.

U³ to³ba³de³ sa³ ai³si³toeo³ a³?
   day how many eat-RES.DUR finish-RES.PUN DbD-FACT
   How many days do you eat it (before/until) it is gone? (ie eaten up)

A³ bi³si³ sv³de³ da³dv⁹ bv⁷ fi³be³ u³ ka³di³ be³.
   1s one only MVCICOn this very many is
   If I am alone, then I eat it for many days.
9.1.9 Questions about Descriptions
Iau has a variety of ways of asking for a description of an unknown object. The following questions can all be asked to elicit a description of an object.

1. Kei⁹ bv⁷ te¹de⁸?
turtle this what
What is a turtle? (more of a request for explanatory discourse – includes description)

2. Kei⁹ bv⁷ te³du⁴ de⁹?
turtle this how
What is a turtle like? (more of a descriptive request)

3. Kei⁹ bv⁷ te³du⁴ fa³ba¹de⁸?
turtle this what same
What thing is the turtle like? (request for an analogy)

9.1.10 Event Questions
The Iau question word to⁹ is used to ask `what happened?’ or `what did he do?’ The following questions illustrate the use of the event question word to⁹ in Iau.

1. Da⁷ du³sy⁹ to⁴ di⁷-*?
dog your what do PDd Chng Stat
What happened to your dog?

2. Di³ to⁴-* se⁹ di⁷ da⁸ i⁹ a⁷?
2s what do-FUTRLZ Inten-FACT 2s carry go-TOT.PUN DUBd-URLZ
What do you intend to do with it that you are carrying it?

3. Das⁷-* di³ to⁴ y⁹ be⁸ foi⁴
Das 2s what do say-TOT.INC SCIsmkr tell-TEL.INC
be³du⁴ fe⁸ a³ se⁸ di³fe³ tau⁷ di³ SCIsmkr eye glass Seqsmkr you-Benef make-TOT.INC PBd-RLZ
What did you say to Das that caused him to make those (underwater fishing) goggles for you?

9.2 Commands In Iau
Commands are one of a class of utterances used to get the hearer to do something for the speaker. Requests, wishes, desires, suggestions, and prohibitions are examples of other kinds of utterances that are used to express what the speaker wants the hearer to do in a less direct way (mitigated commands). These utterances all differ in the degree of obligation that the speaker places on the hearer. Iau has several different kinds of particles and tone morphemes that are used to express varying degrees of obligation. Each of the different types of commands will be discussed and illustrated individually below.

9.1 Simple Commands
A simple command in Iau is formed by adding the command particle dy³ following the verb and by changing the verb stem tone. The following command is an example.

1. I⁷ dy³.
go-TOT.INC Imp-SA.RS
Go!
The verb i⁷ `to go’ usually has a tone 9 on it. In commands, just like yes-no questions, the tone 9 is changed to a tone 7. Tone 7 means that the action is either incomplete or that it has not happened yet. Tone 5 verbs change to a tone 4 and tone 3 verbs change to a tone 8. These tone changes are illustrated in the commands below.

1. Au⁷ foi⁴ dy³.
3s tell-TEL.INC Imp-SA.RS
Tell him!
The verb foi is a telic verb, usually a tone 5 verb. Tone 4 telic incomplete is used on a telic verb to indicate that the action is either unfinished, has not happened yet, or has been planned but has not yet been implemented.

The verb tai `to come in to /toward' is usually a tone 3 process verb. The tone 8 means that the speaker is envisioning the results of the process /action of coming in. That is, he wants the hearer to come in and be in the house where the speaker is. In contrast, a tone 3 on the verb in Iau focuses on the process of coming into the house.

There are two different tones that can occur on the command particle dy. A tone 3 is the tone most commonly used. A tone 3 indicates that the speaker feels he has the right to tell the speaker what to do. A tone 3 also indicates that the speaker feels that the hearer should and will respond to his command by obeying. All the preceding examples of commands use a tone 3 on the command particle dy.

A tone 8 is used on the command particle when the speaker wants the hearer to respond immediately. A command particle dy with a tone 8 can be more emphatic than dy but it need not be. One use of the command particle dy is used in Iau for long distance shouted commands since these occur in situations where the speaker most likely requires immediate response. The following command is an example.

```
Ta\³ da⁹ ba⁷ dy⁸.
knife carry come-TOT.INC Imp-SA.IRS
Bring the knife!
```

9.2 Emphatic Commands

There are two different types of emphatic commands. The first is formed by adding the particle ka between the verb and the command particle dy. This is illustrated in the command below.

```
Ba⁷ ka⁷ dy³.
come-TOT.INC Emph Imp-SA.RS
Come!!
```

The ka particle is used when the speaker wants to strongly urge the hearer to do what he says.

The other type of emphatic command is made by using the compound particle dy⁸da⁹. This particle means `I said to do x'. The particle dy⁸da⁹ is a compound of the command particle dy and the reported speech particle da. The use of the dy⁸da⁹ particle is illustrated below.

```
Ba⁷ dy⁸ da⁹.
come-TOT.INC Imp-Emph.RpSp Already Given-FACT
I SAID to come!!
```

Both types of emphatic commands use the same tone changes on the verbs as do the ordinary commands. That is tone 9 verbs change to tone 7, tone 3 verbs change to tone 8, and tone 5 verbs change to tone 4.

9.3 Requests

Requests are softened commands. The speaker uses a request when he wants the hearer to do something but doesn't feel he can command him to do it. There are three different forms of direct requests in Iau. These are illustrated below.

```
1.sy⁹ e¹fe⁷ tauï⁷ di⁷ y³.
shld me-for make-TOT.INC Pbd-HYP Info-SNC.ADT
You should make it for me, if you would.
```

```
2.di⁹ e¹fe⁷ tau³ e⁸ da'ki⁶ y⁴.
2s me-for make-TOT.PUN Nommlz good Info-SNC.NA.NDT
It would be good if you would make this for me.
```

```
3.sy⁹ e¹fe⁷ o⁹ bv³.
shld me-for take-TOT.INC Rqst
You should get it for me if you will? I would like you to get it for me if you would.
```
I go TOT.INC Rq Permission
Is it okay if I go?

The first two requests are marked with the statement particle y which in Iau indicates that the speaker is giving the information to the hearer. The first request is a stronger request than the second request. That is, the speaker puts more pressure on the hearer to comply. This is indicated by the obligation particle sy ‘should’ and by the tone on the declarative particle y in (1). The tone 3 on the y particle indicates that the speaker is not presuming to control the conversation or the hearer, but he is asserting his utterance as important in the conversation.

The second request has no obligation particle and no overt command particle. It is a statement that conveys the speakers opinion or evaluation of the topic under discussion. The verb stem tone does not change in this type of request. The tone 4 morpheme on the declarative particle not only indicates that the speaker is not trying to control the conversation or the hearer, but it also indicates that the speaker feels it is highly likely that the hearer will be unwilling to accept his statement.

The third type of request is marked by the bv³ particle which means that the speaker is requesting the hearer to tell him what to do. When the bv³ particle is used as a request, it is the hearer who is controlling and directing what should be done.

9.4 Suggestions
The particle ba⁵ is used in Iau to mark suggestions or cohortatives where the speaker is saying to the hearer ‘Let's ...’. The following is an example.

Y³ sa(dy³ ui³ bv³ i⁷ ba³.
Ip UrGeAct house to go-TOT.INC Suggest

Like commands, the verbs in suggestions marked by ba⁵ undergo a change of tone. Tone 7 is substituted for tone 9, tone 8 is substituted for tone 3, and tone 4 is substituted for tone 5.

9.5 Wishes and Desires
Wishes and desires in Iau are statements that the speaker makes informing the hearer of his desire. The speaker would like the hearer to fulfill his desire but puts no obligation on him. There are two different forms that Iau speakers use to express desire. These are illustrated below.

1. A⁹ da⁹ bu⁸ sa⁸ fo⁹ a⁹ y⁹.
   Is squash eat-RES.DUR Desire DUbd-FACT Info-SC.ADT
   I want to eat some squash.

2. A⁹ bv⁹ ku⁷ doe⁷ se⁴ di⁴ du³‘be⁴ di⁴ y³.
   Is book see-TOT.INC Inten but happen- URLZ Info-SNC.ADT
   I intend to look at books but maybe it won't happen. (ie you may not be willing to let me)

The first example above uses the particle fo which means ‘to want to’ to express desire. The tone 9 on the final particle y⁹ indicates that the speaker is using his statement to control the conversation and the hearer with his statement. That is he wants to talk to the hearer about his desire for squash and he wants the hearer to help him fulfill his desire.

The second example is an example of a statement of desire which is used in a situation where the speaker feels the hearer may not be willing to fulfill his desire.

9.6 Reporting Exciting Action
In Iau there is a special particle a'sy⁴ which is used when the speaker wants to call the hearer's attention to something he feels is of interest or of importance to him. The following sentence is an example.

Dv³ ku⁷ du³'sy³ doe⁷ a⁹ sy⁴!
book your see-TOT.INC Report
You should notice/be noticing your book!

The sentence above is used in a situation where the speaker sees or knows that something has happened to the hearer's book. The speaker is calling the hearer's attention to it thinking the hearer may want to take action on it.
9.7 Third Party /Indirect Commands
In Iau there are two different ways that a command can be passed through a intermediary. The following examples illustrate these two ways.

1. Au’sy³ i⁷ bv³.
   3s shld go-TOT.INC Request
   He should go. /(Tell him) he should go, if he is willing.

2. Y⁸ boi⁸ bv³ i⁷ se³.
   1p firewood for go-TOT.INC Inten
   Ba’ dy³ di²⁻⁷ to³.
   come-TOT.INC Imp shld happen RiHr-SNC.NA.NDT
   We are going to get firewood. You are supposed to come /should be coming too./(She said) you have to come too.

The first example above passes the command along in the form of a polite request. The bv³ particle in Iau is used to request permission or instruction from the hearer as to what he wants to be done. The second example above uses the particle di²⁻⁷ to indicate that the speaker and the originator of the command expect the hearer to comply but feel that the hearer may be resistant. The verb is marked by the command particle dy.

9.8 Requests for Permission or Direction
The bv³ particle in Iau is also used to mark requests for permission to do something or requests for the hearer to tell the speaker what the speaker should do. the following are some examples.

1. A⁹ i⁷ bv³?
   1s go-TOT.INC Rqst
   Shall I go? /May I go?

2. A⁹ te³bai³ ui⁷ bv³?
   1s where stand-TOT.INC Rqst
   Where shall I stand? /Where do you want me to stand?

In both of the examples above the speaker is giving the hearer the opportunity to tell him what he, the hearer, wants the speaker to do.

9.9 Prohibitions
Prohibitions are negative commands. They command the hearer not to do something. In Iau prohibitions are marked by two different particles that occur together, dy⁴sy³ meaning `shouldn't' and day³ meaning `negative command'. The following prohibition is an example.

Di⁹ dy⁴sy³ i⁷ day³.
2s shldnt go-TOT.INC Prohib
Don't go! /You shouldn't go!

Iau also has statements which are used as indirect prohibitions. These statements are marked by a contrary to desire particle fe in Iau. The negative obligation particle dy⁴sy³ `shouldn't’ can also be used in these statements. The following are some examples.

1. Si³a³da³ doe³ fe” œ.
   Janet see-TOT.INC CntrDesire
   Janet might see it! /Lest Janet see it.

2. Ty³ dy⁴sy³ y³ di³ fe” œ.
   person shldnt 1p kill-RES.DUR CntrDesire
   They might kill us (and we don't want that to happen).

The examples above are used in contexts where the speaker is protesting against or rejecting a proposed action because he foresees an undesirable consequence.

9.3 Statements
Statements in Iau that convey information to the speaker can be marked by a number of sentence final particles that indicate the speaker's attitude toward the information content of the sentence. The following is a list of the Iau statement marking particles.

   y  an answer, opinion, observation, announcement
   iy speaker is an expert, hearer is ignorant
The statement particle y is the most commonly occurring statement particle in Iau. The particle y marks answers, opinions, observations, comments, announcements, and statements of wishes or desires. The following are some examples.

1. A. Di⁹ te⁹ bv⁸ i⁹ a⁹. 2s what for go-TOT.PUN MUBd-RLZ
   What are you going to get?

   B. A⁹ y⁷ bv⁸ i⁹ a⁹ y⁹. 1s water for go-TOT.PUN MUBd-FACT Info-SNC.ADT
   I am going to get water.

   C. Sī⁶ au⁹ sy⁹ av⁶ day⁷ te⁷ fv² a⁹ be⁴. 3s woman ours quickly man tie to-TEL.DUR MUBd-FACT InfoU-SNC.ADT
   Our women quickly get married (ie marry young).

The example above is taken from the same conversation as the previous example. The first speaker has given information about marriage customs in his culture. The following speaker gives information about a contrastive custom and indicates that this is contrastive inside knowledge as compared with what the hearer knows by using the particle iy.

The particle to in Iau is used to indicate that the speaker is using the statement to contradict the hearer in some way or he is expressing surprise or shock. The following are some examples.

1. Bv⁶ te⁶ ae⁶ to⁹. this man Neg-FACT RHr-SC.ADT
   She has no husband!

2. Aï⁶ av²! Dy⁴ so⁹ av⁹ bv⁴ fe’su⁷ to⁴. Exclam then child his for feel pity RHr-SNC.NA.NDT
   That's too bad! I'm shocked and sorry for his children.

In the first example above, the speaker is contradicting the previous speaker's assumption that the woman is married. The particle to indicates that she is not just informing the hearer that the woman is not married but is also indicating that the previous speaker's question is not relevant because the assumption on which it was based is wrong. The second example illustrates the use of the particle to to indicate that the speaker is shocked or surprised by the news he has heard.

The Iau particle e is used to indicate that the speaker is using the statement to justify or explain his action. The following conversational excerpt illustrates the use of this particle.

A. Di⁹ to⁶ baⁿtu³ sa⁸ ae⁹ be³? 2s Cntr corn eat-RES.DUR Neg-FACT ?Mkr
   You don't (want to) eat any corn, do you?

B. Baⁿtu³ be⁴ ba³? corn is-TEL.INC ?Mkr
   Do you have corn?

A. Be⁴ duⁿbe’ di⁹ bv⁴ foi⁴⁻⁷ is-TEL.INC but 2s 1s ask-FUT URLZ
   I have some but I came so I could ask you (if you wanted any).
In the example above the statement marked by the particle e is the speaker's explanation for why he is asking the hearer if he eats corn.

The particle by is used to mark statements which are predictions or speculations about what will or should happen based on the speaker's knowledge and experience. The following sentence is an example.

```
Da³⁴ ba³bv³ y³ doe³ y³ by³
mountain this 1p see-TOT.DUR Nomnlz we then
da⁴ da³dau³ doe³ by³.
now lake see-TOT.PUN Predict
```

After this mountain we are now looking at, we should see Danau Bira any minute.

The Iau statement particles be or ba are used when the speaker wants to indicate that he is uncertain whether the information in the sentence is correct or not. The following is an example.

```
Di³ so³dy³ be³.
```

I think you may be lying.

Iau has another set of particles that are used on comments or answers when the speaker wishes to indicate that the information in the proposition should have been obvious to the hearer from the context. The following examples illustrate the use of the particles da³by³ and di³dv³ in Iau.

1. A³ y³ bv³ i³ da³by³.
   1s water for go-TOT.PUN Obv Truth
   I am going for water, of course.

2. Tae³ ka³ dy³! Au³ be³ u³ di³dv³!
   move over-RES.PUN Empth Imp 3s Nmkr come down -TOT.INC Empth Obv Truth
   Move over! Can't you see that she is coming down (the steps)?

Both of the particles illustrated above indicate that the speaker feels that the hearer should have known the information in the statement. The particle di³dv³ is more emphatic and reproachful than the particle da³by³ which does not have connotations of reproof.

Not all statements in Iau use these statement marking particles. The statement marking particles are used when the speaker wants to convey information about his relationship to the hearer in addition to the information in the sentence. For example in example 1 above, the speaker not only wants to inform the hearer that he is going to get water, he also wants to convey the fact that he is giving information to the hearer that he thinks the hearer ought to know. When the speaker is not focussing on his relationship to the hearer, but is just conveying the information in the sentence, no final mood particles are used. The following an example of a statement which is not marked by a mood particle.

```
1. A³ a³ se³ fvy³ di³.
   1s SeqMkr bathe-RES.PUN PBd-RLZ
   I have already bathed.

2. A³ fvy³ se³.
   1s bathe-RES.PUN Inten-NPFACt
   I am going to bathe.
```

In the first example the hearer is on his way to the river to bathe when he meets the speaker. The speaker, assuming that the hearer is going to bathe volunteers the information that he has already bathed. The speaker is using the sentence to convey that information to the hearer. In the second sentence that speaker informs the hearer of his intention. Neither of the examples above uses a statement marking particle because the speaker's purpose in uttering them is only to give the hearer the information in the sentence.

The following example shows the same sentence marked with the mood particle to which is used when the speaker is using the information to contradict the hearer.

```
A³ a³ se³ fvy³ di³ to³.
1s SeqMkr bathe-RES.PUN PBd-FACT RHR-SNC. ADT
I have bathed.
```
The sentence above is being used by the hearer to contradict the hearer's assumption that he hadn't bathed. The sentence not only conveys the information that the speaker has bathed but also that he is contradicting a previous assumption or statement by the hearer. Statement marking particles in Iau are used by the speaker to indicate a specific role of the sentence in the conversation.

9.4 Promises And Statements Of Intention

Commands are proposals of action in which the speaker tries to get the hearer to do what he wants. Promises are statements of intention. They are proposals of action in which the speaker informs the hearer of what he/she obligates him/herself to do. The speaker is not expecting any input from the hearer. Statements of consent are proposals in which the speaker responds to the hearer's previous proposal by agreeing to do it.

9.4.1 The Intention Particle

In Iau, statements of intention, promise and consent to a proposal are marked by the particle se. A statement marked by se indicates that the person doing the action of the verb has committed himself to bring about the action. The particle se marks promises, consent, or statements of intention. The tone morphemes that occur on the intention particle se indicate the degree of probability that the intended action will actually occur. The following are some examples of statements marked by the se particle in Iau.

Consent
1. Ay⁸ bv⁶ foi⁴⁻⁷ se³. okay 1s tell-FUT-URLZ Inten

Bv⁶ bai⁷ de⁶ dy³. for wait Sta-IRLZ Imp
Okay. I will tell him. Wait for me.

Promise
2. A⁹ be³ di⁹ ti⁴⁻⁷ se⁵. 1s later 2s give-FUT-URLZ Inten
I will give it to you later.

Intention /Planned Action
3. Di⁹ to⁴⁻⁷ se⁴ di⁹ da⁸ i⁹ a³. 2s what do-FUT-URLZ Inten 2s carry go-TOT.PUN DUbd-RLZ
What are you intending to do with that so that you are going carrying it.

Example (1) illustrates the se intention particle marking a statement of consent to do something. Example (2) illustrates the use of the intention particle se to mark a promise. Example 3 illustrates the use of the intention particle se to mark a simple intention. The speaker wants to know what the hearer intends to do.

9.4.2 Status Tone Morphemes on The Iau Intention Particle

The tone morphemes on the intention particle indicate the degree to which the speaker feels the intention will indeed become fact. The tone morphemes also indicate when the intention is or was likely to be a fact. A tone 9 on the intention particle se indicates that the speaker regards his statement of intention as fact. Intention statements marked by tone 9 are usually used as the grounds for some other statement or command. The following sentence is an example.

Bv⁶ kae⁷ se⁹. I⁸ si⁷ dy³. 1s wrap-TOT.INC Inten-FACT Untie-TOT.INC Imp
I am going to bandage it for you. Take off the (old) bandage.

A tone 3 on the intention particle indicates that the speaker is about to actually bring about the intention or that he regards it as an accomplished fact. The following is an example.

Y⁸ boi⁶ bv⁶ i⁹ se³ 1p firewood for go-TOT.PUN Inten-RLZ

Tl'bo⁴ti⁵ vs⁹ foi⁴ dy³. Timotius tell-TEL.INC Imp
We are going to go for firewood. You tell Timotius.
In the example above the speaker and his friends are on their way to get firewood and stop to get Timotius, another member of the group that is to go. The speaker uses a tone 3 on the intention particle to indicate that the intention is about to be realized. A tone 5 is used on the intention particle when there is some question as to whether the speaker will bring about the intention or not or when the intention is contrastive to some other proposed action in the context. The following are some examples.

1. Sy⁹ ui⁸ o⁸ sy⁹ bv⁸ ba⁹ bv³.
   shld house my to come-TOT.INC Rqst
   Ay⁷. Au⁷ ba⁷ da⁴ dv⁷ bv⁶ foi¹⁺⁷ se⁵.
   okay he come-TOT.INC MVCICOn I tell-FUT-URLZ Inten-NPFACT
   He should come to my house. ’Okay, if he comes, I will tell him.’

2. Sa⁴ dy⁴ i⁷ dy⁴ da⁴ ki⁴ y⁴.
   Urge Act go-TOT.INC Imp good Info-SNC.NA.NDT
   A⁹ sa⁴ ba⁹ be¹⁺⁷ se⁵.
   1s Cntrs Act here is-FUR-UNRLZ Inten-NPFACT
   Okay, you go ahead and go. I am going to stay here.

In the first example, the speaker is not sure if he will see the person he is supposed to give the message to but he promises to give the message when the person comes. The tone 5 morpheme is used in situations where the speaker is assuring the hearer that he will perform the action if he can. The second example illustrates the use of the tone 5 morpheme to mark a contrastive intention. The hearer is taking his leave of the speaker. The speaker gives his consent that the hearer may go. The intention particle with the tone 5 morpheme marks a contrastive action. The speaker is not going to accompany the hearer.

A tone 4 morpheme on the intention particle indicates that there is a possibility that the intention will not be fulfilled. The following are some examples.

1. A⁹ di⁹ doe⁹ be⁷ o⁸ ba⁹ sa⁷ se⁴.
   1s 2s see-RES.DUR SCICon medicine eat-TOT.INC Inten-URLZ
   dy⁴ da⁴ dv⁷ ba⁹ a⁹ y⁴.
   therefore come-TOT.PUN DUbd-FACT Info
   I need to get some medicine and so I have come.

2. Du⁷ sy⁹ be⁴ da⁴ dv⁷ sa⁴ dy⁴ taui⁹.
   yours is-TEL.INC then Urge Act make-TOT.PUN
   a⁹ y⁹ da⁴ ki⁴ y⁴.
   DUbd-FACT Nomin good Info-SNC.NA.NDT
   Y⁸ faiⁱ fa⁴ ba⁴ de⁷ fi⁷ bv⁹ du⁹ se⁵.
   1p same fish for go-RES.DUR Inten-URLZ
   If you have some (glass), then go ahead and make yourself some (underwater goggles). We can /will go fishing together.

In the first example above, the speaker has come to the village health worker for medicine. The speaker is dependent on the health worker for the medicine, so he uses the tone 4 morpheme on the intention particle to indicate that his intention may never be realized. In the second example above, the speaker is suggesting an event that is dependent on the willingness of the hearer to make himself a pair of underwater goggles. It is an intention that could possibly be realized but also may not be realized.

10.0 SPEAKER VIEWPOINT & IT’S DISCOURSE IMPLICATIONS

10.1 Conversational Control

According to Longacre (1976), conversational exchanges between speakers can be thought of as a game in which each speaker either tries to take control of the conversation on his terms or submits to the terms of the other speaker. For example, when a speaker gives an answer to a question he is submitting to the terms of the previous speaker by providing the requested information. This is a very useful idea when analysing the meaning of particles that occur in the discourse genre, dialogue.
The tones on the statement particles in Iau indicate which participant, the speaker or the hearer is controlling the topic of the conversation and also whether the information in the statement is about the topic or not. The most commonly used tones on the statement particles are tones 9, 3 and 4.

10.1.1 Tone 9: Speaker Controlling

A tone 9 on a statement particle indicates that the speaker is using the information in the statement to control the conversation or offer contrastive information. The following is an example.

A. Dy⁹ so⁶ to’ ba’ -de⁹?
then child how many Sta-FACT
And how many children does he have?
B. So⁶ ai⁶ y⁹.
child Neg-RES.DUR Info-SC.A.DT
He has no children.

In the statement above, the speaker uses a tone 9 on the y statement/answer marking particle to indicate that he is offering contrastive information in his answer to the hearer. The first speaker thinks the person being talked about has children. The second speaker responds with the contrastive information that he doesn’t have any children. The following is another example.

Ay⁹. Au⁸y⁹ ai³ bv³ fi’be’ dy³ dau⁹ de⁷
yes 1P-Poss that Intens like that Sta-HYP
da’dv⁸ av⁶be’day⁸ te⁷ fv² a⁹
MVCICn quickly husband tie-TEL.DUR D UBd-FACT
dy³dau⁹ a⁹ y⁹.
so that-TOT.PUN D UBd-FACT Info-SC.A.DT
I see. When our (girls) are like she is (the same age), then (it’s not that way). They are quickly /soon married to a husband.

The statement above is taken from a conversation about a girl of marriageable age. After hearing about the customs of the hearer's language group, the speaker uses the statement above to offer information about a contrastive culture in which girls marry at an earlier age. The tone 9 indicates that the speaker is using the statement to offer contrastive information about the topic.

10.1.2 Tone 3: Speaker Responding

A tone 3 on a statement particle indicates that the speaker is not trying to control the information about the topic. The tone 3 occurs frequently on answers to questions. The speaker uses the tone 3 to indicate that he is not trying to control the conversation but is responding with the requested information. The use of a tone 3 also indicates that the information in the statement is about the topic. The following sentence is an example.

A. Fv⁷ da’su⁶ ba’⁷ ba’? plane tomorrow come-TOT.INC ?Mkr-PI
Is the plane coming tomorrow?
B. Di³y³. Fv³ da’su⁶ ba’⁷ a³⁷ yes plane tomorrow come-TOT.PUN DUb-FACT Info-SC.A.DT
Yes, the plane is coming tomorrow.

In the example above, the second speaker marks his answer to the question with a tone 3 to indicate that it is a response to the first speaker's lead.

A tone 3 is also used on statement particles to mark additional comments that a speaker may want to make on an already introduced topic. The following statement is an example.

Ay⁹ Be’a³bi⁴ fv⁷ doe⁷ ae⁹ se⁹ dy⁴ a³⁷ y³.
yes Benjamin plane see-TOT INC Neg-RLZ Int-FACT do that D UBd-RLZ Info-SNC.A DT
Yes, Benjamin had never seen a plane before so he acted like that.

The statement above is an excerpt from a conversation about riding in a plane for the first time. The speaker is offering the statement above as an additional comment on the topic of how Benjamin reacted to the plane ride.
10.1.3 Tone 4: Reactions, Opinions, Comments

A tone 4 is used on statement particles in Iau to indicate that the speaker is not using the statement to control the conversation and is not giving information that is directly about the topic. A tone 4 is frequently used on statements of opinion, reactions to previous statements or side comments. The following is an example.

A. Bv⁷ te⁷ ae⁶ to⁶. This husband Neg-RES.PUN RHR-SC.A.DT
   She has no husband!

B. Y¹ Au⁻⁷ i’si ‘ba’ be⁷ to⁶. Exclam 3S big is-TOT.INC RHr-SNC.NA.NDT
   But, she is already grown.

The statement above is taken from a conversation about the marital status of various people. The statement above is a surprised reaction to the previous speaker’s statement that the girl in question is not married. The statement marked by tone 4 is not directly about the topic of the marital status of various people. The speaker is giving it as a reaction and reason why he said what he said, but is not using it to oppose the hearer or to control the topic, so he marks it with a tone 4.

10.2 Responses And Exclamations

Iau has a variety of particles used to indicate positive and negative responses. The following is a list of positive response particles and their meanings.

di⁴ to³ Yes, of course that’s right.
Y¹ y¹ Yes, that’s right.
di⁴ da’by⁷ Yes, didn’t you know that?
di⁴ be’də to⁴ Yes, that must be right /Yes, that seems right.
e’fe⁴ Yes, that’s right.
by’by⁷ That’s true. /That’s the way it is.
ay⁴ Yes, I will; Yes, I understand; Okay
dy⁴ dy⁷ Yes, you go ahead and do that.

The following is a list of negative response particles used in Iau and their meanings.

Bai⁶ e³ No, that’s not right; No, I won’t.
Ba⁶⁻³ No; Well, actually....
ba⁶ I don’t know.

The final group of response particles listed below are used to express the speaker’s feelings in response to a given situation.

Y⁶t! ‘expresses displeasure’
Y⁶! ‘expresses need to comply with speaker opinion/proposal’
Ariav²! ‘a lament, response to something negative’
Y⁶v⁶ ‘Oh! Oh! (A⁶ bai’si? to” I slipped/fell)

The exclamation y⁶t! indicates displeasure over something that has happened. It is heard frequently in the village when an owner returns to find that a dog has eaten his food, or when a child has gotten into mischief. The speaker uses the particle y⁶t! to announce and assert his displeasure to the community at large.

The exclamation particle y⁶ emphatically emphasizes the speaker’s viewpoint or the need for the action he is proposing. The following is an example taken from a conversation between a health worker and a villager reporting to the health worker about a man with a bad cut.

A. Fi⁴au’ di⁴ be⁹ y⁴. Intens hot is-TOT.PUN Info-SNC.NA.NDT
   Y¹! Be⁹sy⁶ dv”ui⁷
   Exclam-SC.A.NDT Oblig lift
da⁶ ba⁷ ka’ dy³. carry-RES.DUR come-TOT.INC Emph Imp-RS.SA
   Well then lift him up and bring him (here).

By using the particle y⁶, the speaker indicates that the situation requires action. The speaker takes control of the conversation by ending the discussion of symptoms and changing the discussion to what should be done about the problem.
The exclamation particle \(y^v\) also occurs in contexts where the speaker is reiterating something that has already been said in a more emphatic way. The following is an example.

Spkr 1
Fi⁹ da⁸ sa⁴ dy⁴ i⁷ bai⁶ ta⁷ doe⁸ be⁷ ba³?
fish 2pl just clearly see-RES.DUR SCIMkr Uncer-RS-SA
You all are seeing the fish clearly and killing them?

Spkr 2
\(Y^v!\) fi⁹ be⁸ i⁷ bai⁶ ta⁷ doe⁸ be⁷
Exclam-SC.A.NDT Intens clearly see-RES.DUR SCIMkr
ba³ fai⁵ fa⁸ ba⁴ de⁴.
kill-RES.DUR same-Stat-URLZ
They sure are! They can be clearly seen and killed.
Fi⁹ fi⁹ be⁸ ko⁴ du⁴ ba⁷ ae⁷.
fish Intens few is-RES.DUR Neg-NPF.ACT
There are not just a few!

In the following example, the particle \(y^v\) shows disbelief on the part of the speaker.

Spkr 1
Bv⁷ teº ai⁶ toº.
this husband Neg-CFACT RHr-SC.A.DT
This one doesn't have a husband!.

Spkr 2
\(Y^v!\) auº i⁷ si⁴ baº beº toº
Exclam-SC.A.NDT 3s big is-TOT.INC RHr-SNC.NA.NDT
But she is already grown!

The exclamation particle \(aiav²\) is used to lament or express the speaker's opinion that a situation should not have happened as it did. The Iau exclamation \(aiav²\) occurs in one text when the speaker almost fell out of a tree he was climbing because some vine he was pulling himself up with pulled loose. Afterwards he talks to himself, saying. "Oh no!, I almost slipped."
Appendix 1  Meanings of the Segmental Verb Phrase Particles and Their Abbreviations

The postverbal particles in Iau are listed below in order of occurrence with the abbreviations used in this paper. Each word of an abbreviation for the segmental particles begins with a capital letter.

Stative Marker

de Stative (Sta)

Negative

ai /ae Negative (Neg)

Modality

se Intention, Commitment to (Inten)
sa Intention/Obligation Being Realized (IntRlz)
fe Future Certain Contradesiderative (CtRds)
fo Desiderative (Ds)
fe fu Desiderative Inabilitative (Inab)

Reality Status

di Realis: Punctiliar Bounded Realization (PBD: A single unit occurrence realized at some specific temporally bounded time
be Realis: Durative Bounded Realized (DBD): Multiple or extended occurrence over some specific temporally bounded period of time
a Realis: Durative Unbounded Realized (DUD): Multiple or extended occurrence over some undefined temporally unbounded period of time
ay Realis: Durative Initially Bounded Realized (DIBD): Multiple or extended occurrence over some terminally unbounded time period beginning from some temporally specific starting point.
dy Irrealis: Pending Realization (Pnd)
dy be Irrealis: Pending Realization Frustrated (FPnd)

Evidential

da Reported speech /hearsay (RpSp)
bede Inferential (Inf)
da’by’ Obvious Truth (Obv)
di’dv³ Emphatic Obvious truth (EObv)
fi Repeated Information (Irritation) (RIInf)

Mood

y Give information (Info)
iy Information Unknown to the Hearer (InfoU)
by Give Information: Subjunctive (Subj) /Directive: Advice /Recommendation (Recom)
be /ba Information Probable /Uncertain (Uncer)
to /ta Information Contrary to Hearer Beliefs, Customs Expectations, etc Refute Hearer (RHr)

e Give information: Explain, Justify (Exp)
asy Direct Hearer's Attention to Something (Attn)
by Request Permission /Instruction /Action (Rq)
dy Imperative (Imp)
dy da Emphatic Imperative (EImp)
day Prohibition (Proh)
da Negative Subjunctive ‘never should have been’ (NSubj)

Appendix 2: Tone Morphemes

On Verb Stems: Aspect

9 TOTALITY OF ACTION PUNCTUAL (TOT PUN)
3 TOTALITY OF ACTION DURATIVE (TOT DUR)
7 TOTALITY OF ACTION INCOMPLETIVE (TOT INC)
6 RESULTATIVE PUNCTUAL (RES PUN)
8 RESULTATIVE DURATIVE (RES DUR)
5 TELIC PUNCTUAL (TEL PUN)
2 TELIC DURATIVE (TEL DUR)
4 TELIC INCOMPLETIVE (TEL INC)

Tone clusters: various kinds of CHANGE OF STATE (CHS)
Reality Status Tone Morphemes

(Meaning of tone morphemes all other particles)

9. Is, was, used to be reality; did happen (FACT)
3. Have been, have done, do; accomplished reality or viewed as reality (RLZ)
7. Would have, could have, might have; or about to be; Hypothetical (HYP)
6. there is / is; a current fact (CFACT)
8. Currently being realized; accomplished reality with immediate relevance (CRLZ)
5. Did happen, was true but no longer in effect /true; nonpresent fact (NPFACT)
2. Highly expected /usually realized but not realized at present time (NPRLZ)
4. Is or was probable, planned, being brought about but not yet realized (URLZ)

On Mood Particles: Illocutionary Force

On Directives /Yes-No Questions

9. Speaker does not need /demand /expect Hearer compliance (NRS) Speaker Authoritative /Information Asserted (SA)
3. Speaker needs /demands /expects a response from Hearer (RS) Speaker Authoritative /Information Asserted (SA)
8. Speaker needs /demands /expects a response from Hearer (RS) Speaker Authoritative /Information Asserted (SA) Situation is being brought about in the immediate context or is of current /immediate relevance (CR)
5. Speaker does not need /demand /expect Hearer compliance (NRS) Speaker is authoritative /assertive (SA) Both Speaker and Hearer participate in /bring about the situation. (SHR)
4. Speaker needs /demands /expects response from the Hearer (RS) Speaker is not authoritative /not assertive (SNA)

On Statements

9. Speaker controlling discourse topic and or information about discourse topic (SC) Speaker assertive (A) Information is discourse topic or is about discourse topic (DT)
3. Speaker is noncontrolling (SNC) Speaker is assertive (A) Information is discourse topic or is about discourse topic (DT)
7. Speaker is noncontrolling (SNC) Speaker is nonassertive (NA) Information is discourse topic or is about discourse topic (DT)
8. Speaker is noncontrolling (SNC) Speaker is assertive (A) Information is of current relevance (CR)
4. Speaker is noncontrolling (SNC) Speaker is nonassertive (NA) Information is not directly about discourse topic (NDT)
### Appendix 3: List of Other Abbreviations

Note: The abbreviations in all capital letters indicate Tone Morphemes.

Abbreviations with only the first letter capitalized indicate the meanings of the segmental stems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>SPEAKER ASSERTIVE (Mood Tone)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attn</td>
<td>Direct Hearer's Attention to Something (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFACT</td>
<td>CURRENT FACT (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHS</td>
<td>CHANGE OF STATE (Aspect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cntrds</td>
<td>Contradesiderative (Modality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>OF IMMEDIATE/CURRENT RELEVENCE (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRLZ</td>
<td>CURRENT REALIZATION (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBd</td>
<td>Durative Bounded (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIBd</td>
<td>Durative Initially Bounded (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ds</td>
<td>Desiderative (Modality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DT</td>
<td>ABOUT DISCOURSE TOPIC (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUBd</td>
<td>Durative Unbounded (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DUR</td>
<td>DURATIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elmp</td>
<td>Emphatic Imperative (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EObv</td>
<td>Emphatic Obvious (Evidential)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp</td>
<td>Explain, justify (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FACT</td>
<td>IS, WAS, USED TO BE A REALITY; DID HAPPEN (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFnd</td>
<td>Frustrated Pending (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HYP</td>
<td>HYPOTHETICAL (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp</td>
<td>Imperative (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inab</td>
<td>Desiderative Inabilitative (Modality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INC</td>
<td>INCOMPLETIVE (Aspect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inf</td>
<td>Inferential (Evidential)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Info</td>
<td>Gives Information (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InfoU</td>
<td>Gives Information Unknown to Hearer (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inten</td>
<td>Intention (Modality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IntRlz</td>
<td>Intention/Obligation Being Realized (Modality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>SPEAKER NONASSERTIVE (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDT</td>
<td>NOT ABOUT DISCOURSE TOPIC (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPRLZ</td>
<td>DID HAPPEN, WAS TRUE BUT NO LONGER IN EFFECT/TRUE; NONPRESENT FACT/REALIZATION (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRS</td>
<td>SPEAKER DOES NOT NEED/DEMAND/EXPECT HEARER RESPONSE (Mood)</td>
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<tr>
<td>NSubj</td>
<td>Negative Subjunctive (Mood)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pbd</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pnd</td>
<td>Pending Realization (Reality Status)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Proh</td>
<td>Prohibition (Mood)</td>
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<tr>
<td>PUN</td>
<td>PUNCTUAL (Aspect)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obl</td>
<td>Obligation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obv</td>
<td>Obvious Truth/Fact (Evidential)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recom</td>
<td>Recomendation/Advice (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RES</td>
<td>RESULTATIVE (Aspect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RInf</td>
<td>Repeated Information (Evidential)</td>
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<tr>
<td>RLZ</td>
<td>HAVE BEEN, HAVE DONE, DO; ACCOMPLISHED REALITY, VIEWED AS REALIZED (Reality Status)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rq</td>
<td>Request for Permission, Instruction or Action (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td>EXPECT/NEED/DEMAND HEARER RESPONSE (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>SPEAKER AUTHORITYATIVE (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>SPEAKER CONTROLLING (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHR</td>
<td>BOTH SPEAKER AND HEARER PARTICIPATE IN OR BRING ABOUT THE SITUATION (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNA</td>
<td>SPEAKER NONAUTHORITYATIVE (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNC</td>
<td>SPEAKER NONCONTROLLING (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SqMkr</td>
<td>Sequence Marker; Indicates situation is in Chronological Sequence with Other Events in Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sta</td>
<td>Stative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subj</td>
<td>Subjunctive, Advice, Recommendation (Mood)</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEL</td>
<td>TELIC (Aspect)</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOT</td>
<td>TOTALITY OF ACTION (Aspect)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uncer</td>
<td>Information Uncertain or Probable (Mood)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URLZ</td>
<td>IS OR WAS PROBABLE, PLANNED, TO BE BROUGHT ABOUT, NOT YET REALIZED, UNREALIZED (Reality Status)</td>
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### Appendix 4 The Verb Phrase

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>adv</th>
<th>dir</th>
<th>loc</th>
<th>+VERB</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>Stative+T²</th>
<th>Negative +T²</th>
<th>Temp Bounded ness+T²</th>
<th>Evidential+T³</th>
<th>Deontic Intens+T³</th>
<th>Deontic Modal.+T³</th>
<th>Eviden+T³ Sent</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Av⁸be⁸</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>de + Status tone</td>
<td>ae, ai no, not, none +Status tone</td>
<td>di, initial final bd be, final bd ay, initial bd a, no bd dybe pending, cancelled +status tone</td>
<td>da known,given +status tone</td>
<td>ka urge</td>
<td>dy, day, Imper,Proh be/ba, Y-N?, bv Permis se, _by Intend, Poss fo, Desire, fe ContraDes y, State, Opinion</td>
<td>to, daby, didv</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bui²</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>8</td>
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#1 Av⁸be⁸ i⁷ dy³. Go quickly.
# 2 Bui² i⁷ dy³. Go upstream.
#3 Ba⁷ba⁷ dy³. Come here.
#4 Ba⁷ ka⁷ dy³. Come here (hurry/immediately).
#5 Ba⁷ dy⁸ da⁹. I said “Come!”
#6 A’se⁸ ba⁹. He/she/we/I/they have come.
#7 (Dont you see) (I ) have come?
#8 E¹fai⁶de⁹. (He/she/I/we) are hiding.
#9 Bv⁸ bai⁶de⁸ dy³. Wait!
#10 Ba⁷ ae⁷ da⁹. (He/she/they) did not come (as expected)/no show.
#11 A’se⁸ taui⁷ di³. (I/he/she) already made it.
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