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SERIAL VERBS IN THE CREOLE LANGUAGES

Bert Jansen, Hilda Koopman, and Pieter Muysken

In many Creole languages we find constructions such as the following:

(1)  am a flieg lo (NEGERHOLLANDS)
    he ASP fly go
    'he flew away'

(2)  châche zwazo yo bâ mwê (HAITIAN)
    get 'bird PL give me
    'get the birds for me'

This type of verb concatenation is commonly referred to as serialization.

Ever since Schuchardt pointed out that the serial verb constructions occurring in some West African languages are shared by the Creole languages of the Caribbean, they have been recognized as one of the focal points in the study of Creole syntax (Meijer & Muysken, 1977: 33).

A number of recent articles (Williams, 1972; Givôn, 1974; Huttar, 1975; Roberts, 1975; Voorhoeve, 1975) have been trying to deal with two central questions:

(a) What is the relationship between the serial verb constructions in the Creoles and in the West African languages?

(b) What is the syntactic structure of the serial verbs in the Creole languages?

In this paper, both questions are discussed. After trying to give a tentative working definition of what may be a serial verb, the results will be presented of a survey of a number of Creole languages as to verb serialization.

Following a discussion of the implications of the survey data for the monogenetic vs. polygenetic controversies, verb serialization in the West African languages will be discussed briefly, and the problem of substratum influence. Then the ground will have been prepared for the question of the structure of the serial verbs in the Creole languages, which will be dealt with in detail on the basis of Sranan data.

1. Rough working definition

Serial verb constructions are constructions which:

(a) contain only one overt subject, and more than one verb;

(b) contain no overt conjunctions or complementizers;

A further characteristic of serial constructions is that:

(c) if one of the verbs in the construction serves as an auxiliary or a modal auxiliary to another verb, it is not a serial construction;

(d) if one verb serves as an infinitive complement to another verb, it is not a case of serialization;

(e) often there is in the construction one "lexical" verb, selected from a large class, and one or more "grammatical" verbs, selected from a very limited, closed class.

Some examples of how to apply these criteria will be given using Jamaican Creole data (Bailey, 1966). We would like to say, on the basis of criterion (b), that (3) is not a serial construction, since it contains an 'and':
Similarly, (4) is not a serial construction since it contains the complementizer fi 'for ... to':

(4) im waan fi go
'he/she wants to go'

By criteria (c) and (d) we want to exclude modal and true auxiliaries from the discussion, as in sentence (5):

(5) Jan wuda hafi ron
'John would have to run'

These criteria are a little harder to apply, but a useful distinction may be made as follows:

(f) the configuration V NP V NP is indicative of serialization;

(g) in the configuration V V ... V V, only V can be the "lexical" verb in serial constructions, and only V in infinitival complements or constructions with modal auxiliaries.

More examples of serial constructions will be presented in the next section.

An important question to answer is: when is there any basis to assume that we are dealing with a verb at all? Here the simple criterion has been applied of lexical origin, since Creole languages do not distinguish verbs morphologically. If the item is a verb in the European lexifier language, we may assume that it is in the Creole language as well.

Thus, for instance, Haitian Creole sifi 'be enough' is regarded as a verb since in French there is a verb suffire 'be enough'. Similarly, Sranan gi 'give, for' is included in the survey since it corresponds to English give.

Although this criterion might seem ad hoc, it has some initial plausibility if we take the original relexification process into account, in which items in an African language (or possibly in some intermediary pidgin) were replaced by the corresponding European item. There is no reason to assume that give was selected for purely semantic reasons: in the English of the relevant period, both the prepositions to and for were available to express dative and benefactive.

It is possible, of course, that in the development of the Creole, a given element has lost its verbal status, as will be pointed out in the next section.

2. A Survey

The following section will present the result of a survey made of a number of Creole languages. It is based almost entirely on texts and written descriptions of those languages.

We found that the serial constructions differ markedly in their distribution across languages. The directional was found to be very frequent, while e.g. the locative hardly occurred at all. Although the survey will have to be corrected and amended on many points of detail, we hope (and will assume) that on the whole the results stand. A question about which we have no clear ideas at all is whether the grammatical status of the serial constructions is the same in different languages.

Thus, for instance, the lexical item give in a construction such as:
(6) \(NP_1 \ 'buy' \ NP_2 \ 'give' \ NP_3\)

which occurs in several different Creole languages, may have either a verbal or a prepositional character. Therefore (6) could be assigned either structure (7) or (8), to take just two of the possibilities.

(7)

```
S
   ▼
   ▼
NP_1  VP  VP
   ▼  ▼
    V  NP_2  V  NP_3
```

(8)

```
S
   ▼
   ▼
NP_1  VP  VP
   ▼  ▼
    V  NP_2  P  NP_3
```

It may well be the case that in one language (6) should be assigned structure (7), and in the other, structure (8). And so on and so forth. A detailed analysis will have to be made for each individual language to establish its precise structure. We will make a beginning of this for Sranan in the second part of this paper.

The interest of the survey is primarily a historical one. It provides us with a partial basis for evaluating different theories accounting for the genesis of the Creole languages.

3. The Substratum Problem and Mongenesis

There are several Creole languages in which none of the serial constructions occur; among this group is Philippine Creole Spanish, Mauritian Creole, and Sénégal Portuguese Creole.

This suggests that substratum influence played a central part in the emergence of the serial constructions in the Creole languages: only those languages with a direct Kwa substratum evidence serialization and a language such as Sénégal Creole shows a Fula and Wolof substratum, not a Kwa substratum. In fact, it appears that within the Kwa group, the distinction can be made between those languages that possess serial constructions with a verb like take, and those that don't. In the Creole languages, the same distinction can be made. (Although it may be the case that particular Creole Languages which originally possessed serial constructions with take, have lost this construction) (cf. Hyman, 1975: 140 - 141).

The list of both types is as follows:

(INSERT SURVEY CHART HERE)
Kwa languages with **take**:  
- Akan  
- Nupe  
- Yoruba  
- Yatye  
- Twi  
- Ewe  
- Igbo  
- etc.  

Kwa languages without **take**:  
- Gwari  
- Kru  

Creoles with **take**:  
- Krio  
- Sranan  
- Jamaican  
- Gullah  
- Guyanais  
- Saramaccan  
- etc.  

Creoles without **take**:  
- Haitian  
- Sao Tomé  
- Príncipe  
- Negerhollands  
- Papiamentu  
- etc.  

Thus we find three groups:  

1. Creoles without any serial verbs;  
2. Creoles with serial verbs, but without the **take** construction;  
3. Creoles with serial verbs, including the **take** construction.  

Besides, we find many individual differences between the particular serial verb constructions available in groups (2) and (3).  

This distribution has important consequences for the monogenetic hypothesis. A first possibility is that West African Portuguese Pidgin (WAPP), the hypothetical ancestor of many Creole languages, was so limited that it did not express grammatical relations in a consistent manner, and serial verbs developed later on the basis of substrata available in the individual Creoles. A second possibility is that WAPP did not exist at all as the ancestor to many of the present Creole languages. In any case, the question of whether WAPP existed or not becomes trivial.  

There appears to be a rather close connection between the degree in which a given Creole language is a serializing language and its stage of decreolization. Thus the first six Creoles in the chart, with the widest variety of serial constructions, have not developed a post-creole continuum. Of course the results presented here are not entirely reliable since various Creoles mentioned, such as Príncipe, Saramaccan and Guyanais Creole, have not been studied in enough detail even for the survey made here. They may well have to be ranked higher on the scale. Papiamentu, which has not so far developed a post-creole continuum, presents a problem for the hypothetical correlation.  

Thus it appears that the implication only goes in one direction. If a language shows a large variety of serial constructions a post-creole continuum is absent. The converse is not the case.  

The major exception to the claim that serialization in the Creole languages must be due to the Kwa substratum influence is Tok Pisin. While Tok Pisin is linked fairly closely to other Pacific English Pidgins such as Samoan Plantation English (Mühlhäusler, 1976), and maybe indirectly to Chinese Pidgin, it would be untenable to claim Kwa substratum for Tok Pisin via some form of WAPP. A major reason is that, as was seen just now, WAPP could not possible have been structured and complex enough to transfer Kwa features to the Creole languages.  

Thus Tok Pisin serialization, which appears to be widespread, must be due either to universal features of creolization or to New Guinea substratum influences. Since the issue of Tok Pisin substratum influences is an exceedingly complex one (due to the large number of contributing languages), we will leave this matter for further study.
Perhaps we should not ask ourselves why some Kwa serial constructions were lost in the Creole languages, but why they were maintained at all, considering that so many of the features of the Kwa languages and other West African languages were not transferred to the Creoles. Thus the simple question of substratum becomes a complicated one: why were some forms maintained and others lost?

The survival issue is probably a very complex one. Almost certainly, constructions which are crucially dependent upon complex morphology do not survive, since the process of pidginization and subsequent creolization implies the morphological reduction of both the substratum and target languages.

Probably, the factor of markedness also plays a part. Marked constructions disappear, unmarked constructions may survive. Voorhoeve (1975) hints at the possibility that serialization appears in the Creole languages because of its maximally unmarked character, not particularly because of the Kwa substratum in the Creoles. An intermediate hypothesis would be that serialization survived the process of pidginization / creolization due to its unmarked character.

But what evidence do we have that serializing constructions represent the unmarked case? None, possibly. On the contrary, at least two facts would suggest that serial constructions represent the marked case:

(a) The fact that they appear to be relatively rare among the languages of the world (we write 'appear to be' since no systematic research has been done on this issue);

(b) the fact that in those languages where they do occur, they are highly unstable (Li & Thompson (1975) for Chinese, Lord (1973) for Kwa languages, Duyysken (1977) for Quechua), and tend to evolve into non-serial constructions.

Thus we may be left with the rather paradoxical fact that the serial constructions have survived in spite of their being marked. This leaves the problem of Tok Pisin and its frequent serialization out of consideration.
(a) He ASP fly go  
He fled away

(b) He walk go at house  
He walked home

(c) He brought that give me  
He brought that for me

(d) Catch some flies give me  
Catch some flies for me

(e) My brother is stronger than I am  
My brother is more strong pass me

(f) He is bigger than I am  
He bigger pass me

(g) I brcusht the cassava tc the house  
I brought the cassava come LOC house

(h) You came up to Furcv  
You come up from Fisi

(i) Kofi hid something for God  
Kofi hide something gi Sait

(j) He talked to them  
He talk give them

(k) John's clothes are torn because he was fighting  
John PAST PROG fight make his clothes tear off

(l) He killed them with a stick  
The man beat the boy with the stick

(m) I mean say you must go  
I mean that you must go

(n) Kofi's clothes are torn because he was fighting  
Kofi know say it true

(o) I don't have money enough to be responsible for a family  
I don 't have a big fund suffice for me PAST responsible a family

(p) They are going back in company  
They go take him go back

(q) After I've finished washing, I'll show you  
After I wash done, mi yi shuo yu...

(r) They are going back in company with his sister  
They go take his sister go buy clothes

(s) They are going back in company with his sister  
Kofi take shells carried went to overside

(t) Kofi bought clothes with the help of his sister  
Kofi bought shells to the other side (of the road)

(u) He returned the sugar  
He return go hand over sugar

(v) I don't have money enough to be responsible for a family  
I not PAST have a big fund suffice for me PAST responsible a family
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CAUSATIVE / make

INSTRUMENTAL / take

COMPLEMENTIZER / say

PERFECTIVE / done / finish

COMITATIVE / take

DIRECT OBJECT / take

ITERATIVE / return

ENOUGH / suffice
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- **LOCATIVE / be**
- **TOO MUCH / pass**
- **AROUND / surround**
- **CONTINUATIVE / be**

Examples:

- (w) Er i get kon i stop (TP)
  - He PART has corn PART stay
  - It has corn on it
- (x) N-kum pa'la (ST)
  - I eat pass
  - I ate too much
- (y) Gè bwa atouré kay-la (HAIT)
  - There is a wood around the house
- (z) Em i harim i stop (TP)
  - He PART hear PART stay
  - She was listening
5. Introduction.

In some Creole languages we have morphological evidence bearing on the problem of the verbal status of the serial elements. In São Tomé, for example, the personal pronoun is marked for case, and in the 1sg pronoun there is an overt distinction between the pronoun when it is governed by a verb and when it is governed by a preposition:

(9) bi ku amá 'come with me'
bó manda mu 'you send me'

With serial da 'give' in São Tomé we find the objective, and not the oblique pronoun:

(10) komplá sapé da mu 'buy a hat for me'
buy hat give me

(11) e fa da mu 'he talked to me'
he talk give me

Quite obviously this is evidence for the verbal status of da 'give, for', even though da can not only be used to express benefactive, but also dative.

In many cases however, there is no morphological evidence available, and we must rely on syntactic evidence. This we will do for Sranan.

We will contrast serial verb constructions (SVC) with Prepositional Phrases (PP's), as to their behavior in wh-questions, relative clauses, topicalized clauses and emphatic predicate cleft constructions. First we will present a brief sketch of these constructions and give a preliminary account for them. Then we will contrast PP's with SVC, where we will limit ourselves to some of the serial verbs, since the overall picture turns out to be highly complex and needs more thorough investigation. We will attempt to determine their syntactic status. Finally we will discuss some possible analyses for these constructions.

We will adopt the framework of the EST, in particular Chomsky (1975,1977). In Chomsky (1977), a uniform analysis for e.g. wh-questions, relative clauses, and topicalization is presented in terms of wh-movement, since these constructions show many similarities.

Thus we find the following derivations for wh-questions:

(12) \[ S \quad [ S \text{ John eats what }] \quad \Rightarrow \quad [ S \text{ what } [ S \text{ does John eat } \_\_? ] ] \]

and for relative clauses:

(13) \[ S \quad [ S \text{ John saw [wh] }] \quad \Rightarrow \quad [ S \text{ who } [ S \text{ John saw } \_\_ ] ] \]

We will adopt the diagnostic criteria for wh-movement as proposed in Chomsky (1977):

(i) it leaves a gap;
(ii) where there is a bridge, i.e. where it applies across S-boundaries, there is an apparent violation of subjacency, the Propositional Island Constraint, and the Specified Subject Constraint;
(iii) it observes the Complex Noun Phrase Constraint;
(iv) it observes the wh-island constraints.
We will use these criteria to see whether wh-movement is involved in Sranan wh-questions, relative clauses and topicalized sentences.

6. Wh-questions

In Sranan direct and indirect questions are formed by fronting the questioned element. Sranan has the following interrogative pronouns:

(14) 

<table>
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<th>Pronoun</th>
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<tr>
<td>suma 2</td>
<td>'who'</td>
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<tr>
<td>san</td>
<td>'what'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pe</td>
<td>'where'</td>
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<tr>
<td>fa</td>
<td>'how'</td>
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Thus we find the following direct questions:

(15) suma e go na foto?  
who ASP go to town  'who is going to the town?'  

(16) san den fisi nyam ___ ?  
what the fish eat  'what do the fish eat?'

(17) suma Meri gi ___ wan kado?  
who Mary give a present 'to whom did Mary give a present?'

and indirect questions:

(18) Meri aksi suma ___ e go na foto  
Mary ask who ASP go to Paramaribo  'Mary asked who is going to Paramaribo'

(19) Roy aksi ensefri san fisi nyam ___  
Roy ask himself what fish eat  'Roy wondered what fish eat'

(20) mi e · verteri suma mi ben gi ___ a buku  
I ASP tell who I TNS give the book  'I'm telling to whom I have given the book'

In these examples we find the questioned subject, direct object, or indirect object to the left of the clause. Furthermore we find a gap on its normal position.

When we question PP's, the pattern turns out to be more complex. All PP's can occur in front of the clause, with a gap on their normal position, as shown in the examples (21) - (23). In these cases fronting is obligatory.

(21) nanga san a pikin e pre ___ ?  
with what the child ASP play  'with what does the child play'

(22) foe suma Meri e bai bromki ___?  
from who Mary ASP buy flowers  'from whom does Mary buy flowers'

(23) abra san joe waka ___?  
over what you walk  'on the other side of what did you walk?'

We can also find the pronoun pe which replaces a whole PP:

(24) pe a e go ___?  
where he ASP go  'where is he going?'
For at least one preposition (tapoe 'on'), the PP can be fronted, or the preposition can optionally be left behind:

(25) \[ \text{tap san joe e sidon } \]
    on what you ASP sit
    'on what do you sit'

(26) \[ \text{pe \_ joe e sidon na tapoe } \]
    where you ASP sit on
    'what do you sit on ?'

We can't get (27):

(27) \[ * \text{pe tap joe e sidon } \]
    where on you ASP sit

We would like to make some remarks about the cases where tapoe stays behind:
1. It is the pro-PP pronoun pe which shows up, and not the pronoun san or suma:

(28) \[ * \text{san wi e wakti na tapoe } \]
    what we ASP wait on
    'where are we waiting for ?'

(29) \[ * \text{suma Joe e reken na tapoe } \]
    who you ASP count on
    'who do you count on ?'

2. In fact, we are dealing with a compound preposition na tapoe, where na can be deleted under some conditions. Na, however, is obligatory when we question or pronominalize the NP, as illustrated by (26) and (30):

(30 a) \[ a e sidon (na) tap a sturu \]
    he ASP sit on the chair
    'he sits on the chair'

( b) \[ a e sidon na en tapoe \]
    he ASP sit it on
    'he sits on it'

( c) \[ * a e sidon en tapoe \]
    he ASP sit it on

Concluding, we may say that, disregarding the special case of na tapoe, PP's have to be fronted in wh-questions.

Let's return to the question of whether wh-movement is involved in wh-questions.
As to criterium (i) we can conclude that it leaves a gap.
The fronting of the wh-element can occur across S-boundaries, without violating the Tensed-S (31) and the Specified Subject Constraint (32). This conforms to criterium (ii):

(31) \[ \text{pe Kofi taki a ben go } \]
    where Kofi say he TNS go
    'where did John say that he had been ?'

(32) \[ \text{san joe e bri bi a e taki Meri nyam } \]
    what you ASP believe she ASP say Mary eat
    'what do you believe that she said that Mary ate ?'
A wh-element can't be fronted out of a Complex Noun Phrase (criterium (iii)):

(33a) Meri verteri a tori taki a bai brompki gi en m'ma
Mary tell the story that she buy flower give her mother
'Mary told the story that she bought flowers for her mother'

(b) * san Meri verteri a tori taki a bai ___ gi en m'ma
what Mary tell the story that she buy ___ give her mother

A wh-element can't be fronted out of a wh-island (criterium iv):

(34) * suma Roy aski ensefri san ___ nyam
who Roy ask himself what ___ eat

Thus we may conclude that the facts for wh-questions conform to the diagnostic criteria for wh-movement, and we will assume that wh-movement is involved in question formation.

7. Relative clause formation

Relative clauses can be introduced by san (or by die, the Dutch relative pronoun, which seems to be replacing san), or by pe. The latter appears when a locative PP is relativized.

The following examples show that when a subject, direct object, or indirect object is relativized, we find a gap in the relative clause:

(35) a oso san ___ e k'napoe.dape bigi
the house that ASP stand there big
'the house standing over there is big'

(36) den man san ___ e waka dape go na Paramaribo
the man that ASP walk there go to Paramaribo
'the man walking over there went to Paramaribo'

(37) a pikin san mi gi ___ wan buku no ben lesi en
xhe child that I give a book not ASP read it
'the child to whom I gave a book has not read it'

In the case of relativized PP's, almost the same pattern occurs as in wh-questions: All PP's can be fronted, in which case we find the P followed by the vh-pronoun:

(38) Meri e teki a nefi nga san ___ a e koti a brede
Mary ASP take the knife with wh she ASP cut the bread
'Mary takes the knife with which she cuts the bread'

(39) mi sabi den man over suma joe e taki ___
I know the man of whom you ASP talk
'I know the man about whom you are talking'

(40) a e si foe suma a bai brompki ___
he ASP see for whom he buy flower
'he sees for whom he bought flowers'

It is impossible to leave these prepositions stranded:

(41) * .. a nefi san ___ a e koti a brede nga
(42) * .. den man suma joe e taki over
(43) * .. suma a e bai brompki foe

Again, there are two possibilities in the case of tapoe 'on': the whole PP can be fronted, and tapoe can optionally be left behind. We find the following paradigm:
(44) a sturu tapoe san jo e sidon ___ broko
the chair on which you ASP sit broken
'the chair on which you are sitting is broken'

(45a) ... pe ..... na tapoe ...

b) * ... pe ..... na en tapoe ...

c) ... san ..... na en tapoe ...

d) * ... san ..... na tapoe ...

From these examples we may conclude that when pe 'where' introduces the
relative clause, we must have a gap, and the pronominal element en 'it,
him, her' can not show up. When san introduces a clause in which tapoe
is relativized, en must show up. With tapoe the same difficulties occur
as in the case of wh-question formation. Locative PP's in Sranan merit
much further study.

Let us return to the question of whether wh-movement is involved in
relative clause formation. Apart from the case of tapoe, there is always
a gap. As to Chomsky's criterium (ii), we see that when there is a bridge,
subjacency is violated:

(46) a meti Meri e bribi taki den pikin ben nyam ___ ....
the meat Mary ASP believe that the child TNS eat
'the meat Mary believes that the children have eaten ...'

It also observes the Complex Noun Phrase Constraint (criterium iii):

(47) * a meti Meri e verteri a tori taki den pikin ben nyam ___
the meat Mary ASP tell the story that the children TNS eat

Similarly, in the case of the wh-island constraint.

Concluding, we may state that, if the problem of tapoe can be resolved,
a coherent account of relative clause formation can be given in terms of
wh-movement.

8. Topicalization

We did not make a detailed analysis of topicalization. Therefore we
will only present some cases relevant to the subject of this article.

We find the topicalized element in front of the sentence, optionally
preceded by na or a. We maintain here the traditional spelling of the intro­
ducer element, although in actual speech it is often reduced to a or
left out altogether.

Thus we find:

(48) na Kofi ___ teki a buku gi mi
is Kofi take the book give me
'it is Kofi that took the book for me'

(49) na a buku Kofi teki ___ gi mi
is the book Kofi take give me
'it is the book that Kofi took for me'

(50) na Kofi mi gi ___ wan buku
is Kofi I give a book
'it is Kofi I give a book'

When a subject, object, or indirect object is topicalized, we find a gap
in its normal position, and no overt complementizer. For PP's we find the
following pattern:
In the case of tapoe we find:

(53) na tap a sturu mi e sidon ___
    'it is on the chair that I am sitting'

(54) * na a sturu mi e sidon na tapoe ___
    'it is the chair that I am sitting on'

Thus, although tapoe can stay behind in relative clauses and in wh-questions, this is not the case in topicalized sentences.

Here again, we will adopt Chomsky's analysis of Topicalization, where the topicalized element is base generated under the TOP-node, the corresponding element is moved into COMP by wh-movement, and then deleted:

9. Emphatic predicate cleft

In Sranan, we find, as well as in several West-African languages and in other Caribbean Creole languages, a construction in which a verb or an adjective is preceded by na and followed by a full sentence with an identical verb or adjective. Examples of an emphatic verb are shown in (56) and (57), an example of an emphatic adjective in (58).

(56) na teki Kofi e teki a buku gi mi
    'Kofi really takes the book for me'

(57) na go a e go na Paramaribo
    'he is going to Paramaribo'

(58) na moi a e moi
    'it is really beautiful'

The verb following na can't get aspect-or tense markers:

(59) * na e teki Kofi e teki a buku gi mi
    'Kofi is really taking the book for me'

(60) * na ben go mi ben go na Paramaribo
    'I have really gone to Paramaribo'
It can be preceded by the negator no, but then no cannot precede the second verb:

(61) na no teki Kofi ben teki a buku gi mi
    is not take Kofi TNS take the book for me
    'Kofi had not taken the book for me'
(62) * na no teki Kofi no teki a buku gi mi
    is not take Kofi not take the book for me

We can't find a VP in this position:

(63) * na teki a buku Kofi e teki a buku gi mi
    is take the book Kofi ASP take the book for me

In the case of a 'complex VP', we can front either of the verbs:

(64) a go luku
    he go look
    'he went to look'
(65) na go a go luku
    is go he ge look
    'he really went and looked'
(66) na luku a go luku
    is look he go look
    'he went and really looked'

or both verbs:

(67) na go luku mi go luku
    is go look I go look
    'I really went to look'

However, it appears that we cannot have any verb in this position, although we must be very careful when interpreting the facts, since judgments vary rather drastically. For some people certain modals can't occur in this position (e.g. man 'can'), while others can (e.g. moesoe 'must').

(68) * na man mi man lesi a buku
    is can I can read the book
    'I'm really capable of reading the book'
(69) na moesoe mi moesoe waka go na wowojo
    is must I must walk go to market
    'I really must walk to the market'

In some cases fronting out of an embedded clause seems to be unacceptable,

(70) * na ferteri Jan e bribi a e ferteri a tori foe a pikin
    is tell Jan ASP believe he ASP tell the story to the child
    'John believes that she really told the story to the child'

but in others it is acceptable:

(71) na suari mi bribi a fisi suari aka
    is swallow I believe the fish swallow the hook
    'I believe the fish really swallowed the hook'

Summarizing, we can say that there are the following possibilities:

(a) na +(no) +verb(s) of main clause, and under some conditions verbs of embedded clauses.
(b) na + adjective
(c) na + (some ?) modals
Impossible are:
(d)  na + TNS/ASP + V, with a full sentence
(e)  na + \{ V NP \} + V, with a full sentence, in which the NP or PP is repeated.

As we have seen the position after na is preserved for a verb or an adjective. We can characterize this position by using the syntactic feature [+ V]. This will exclude NP's and PP's. We will assume the following structure:

(72)

The precise mechanism for guaranteeing the identity of the two verbs has to be worked out.

10. SERIAL VERBS

As we saw in table 1, Sranan has, following our working definition of serial verbs, the greatest number of them. Due to limitations of space and as the matter is complex, we will not analyze in detail the following SVC's:

nofo 'suffice, enough'
: mi abi nofo
I have suffice
'I had enough'

teki 'comitative'
: mi e tek Meri go na foto
I ASP take Mary go to town
'I bring Mary to the town'

kaba 'finish'
: na kaba mi kaba nyam
is finish I finish eat
'I just finished eating'

... : Kofi nyam en kaba
Kofi eat it finished
'Kofi ate it already'

taki 'complementizer'
: Jan e feni taki a buku a e lesi moi
Jan ASP find say the book he ASP read beautiful
'John likes the book he is reading'

psa 'overtake'
: a sani disi psa marki
the thing this pass mark
'this is too much'

moro 'more than, pass'
: a langa moro mi
she long pass me
'she is taller than me'

We will be concerned with the following serial verbs:

go 'direction away'
kon 'direction towards'
gi 'dative/benefactive'
teki 'instrumental'

These verbs can occur as independent verbs as well as in serial verb constructions.
(73a)  
mi m’m’a e go na wowajo
my mother ASP go to the market
‘my mother goes to the market’

b)  
mi m’m’a e waka go na wowajo
my mother ASP walk go to the market
‘my mother walks to the market’

(74a)  
a e kon
she ASP come
‘she comes’

b)  
a e waka kon
she ASP walk come
‘she comes walking’

(75a)  
ibri dé a e gi den dagoe meti
every day she ASP give the dog meat
‘every day she gives meat to the dogs’

b)  
Kofi go na Paramaribo gi mi
Kofi go to Paramaribo give me
‘Kofi went to Paramaribo for me’

c)  
Kofi tjari den fisi kon gi mi
Kofi carry the fish come give me
‘Kofi brought me the fish’

(76a)  
mi e teki a buku
I ASP take the book
‘I take the book’

b)  
Meri e teki a gon kiri a sneki
Mary ASP take the gon kill the snake
‘Mary kills the snake with a gon’

11. PP’s and serial verbs:go and nanga

In this part we will contrast PP’s and serial verbs in terms of their behavior in wh-questions, relative clauses, topicalized clauses and emphatic predicate cleft constructions. First we will present the paradigm case of a verb go ‘go’, and a preposition nanga ‘with’. Then we will discuss, one by one, kon, gi and teki, while contrasting them with prepositions.

(a) wh-questions

As we saw, PP’s like nanga NP, have to be fronted in the case of wh-questions. When we question go na NP however, this can’t be fronted. This gives us the following paradigm:

(77a)  
Kofi e koti a brede nanga a nefi
Kofi ASP cut the bread with the knife
‘Kofi cuts the bread with a knife’

b)  
nanga san Kofi e koti a brede ___
with what

c)  
* san Kofi e koti a brede nanga ___
what with
(78a)  Meri e tyari a pikin go na en m'ma
      Mary ASP carry the baby go LOC her mother
      'Mary takes the baby to her mother'
      b)  na suma Meri e tyari a pikin go ___?
          whom
      c)  *go na suma Meri e tyari a pikin ___?
          go to whom
      d)  pe Meri e tyari a pikin go ___?
          where
      e)  *go pe Meri e tyari a pikin ___?
          go where

      There is an asymmetry between the behavior of the PP with nanga and the
      serial construction with go: whereas the PP must be fronted, go must stay
      behind.

      (b) relativization

      We find the same pattern for relativization:

      (79a)  Kofi e teki a nefi nanga san a e koti a brede ___
            Kofi ASP take the knife with which he ASP cut the bread
            'Kofi takes the knife with which he cuts the bread'
      b)  *Kofi e teki a nefi san a e koti a brede nanga ___

      (80a)  daps na a skoro pe Meri e tyari a pikin go ___
            there is the school where Mary ASP carry the child go
            'there is the school where Mary takes the child'
      b)  *daps na skoro go pe Meri e tyari a pikin ___

      (81a)  en m'ma, na suma Kofi tyari a pikin go ___...
            his mother to whom Kofi carry the child go
            'his mother, to whom Kofi took the child, ...
      b)  *en m'ma, go na suma Kofi tyari a pikin, ...

      (c) topicalization

      Here again we find the same pattern:

      (82a)  na nanga a nefi Kofi koti a brede ___
            is with the knife Kofi cut the bread
            'it is with the knife that Kofi cut the bread'
      b)  *na a nefi Kofi koti a brede nanga ___

      (83a)  na skoro a e tyari a pikin go ___
            is school he ASP carry the child go
            'it is to school that he brings the child'
      b)  *na go na skoro a e tyari a pikin ___

      For all these constructions there is a clear asymmetry between the behavior
      of PP's and the behavior of serial go: where the PP has to be fronted, serial
      go can not be fronted. If go were a preposition, it would show a very different
      type of behavior, and we can conclude that it is not a preposition.

      (d) predicate cleft

      We have assumed that the possibility of occurring in the predicate
      cleft construction constitutes a crucial test for the verbal status of a
      given form. With nanga and go we find the following distribution:
(84) * na nanga Kofi koti a brede nanga a nefi

(85) na go a e tyari a pikin go na skoro

Again, go behaves differently from the preposition.

If go is not a preposition, maybe it is a verbal particle. Consider (86):

(86) a waka go
    he walk go   'he walked (in a different direction)'

What prevents us from assigning a structure such as (87) to (86)?:

(87)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \\
\text{NP} \quad \text{VP} \\
\text{Pro} \quad V' \quad \text{Prt} \\
\quad a \quad waka \quad go
\end{array}
\]

First of all, waka and go can not be fronted together:

(88a) * na waka go a waka go

As was seen, they can be fronted separately:

(88b) na go a waka go
    c) na waka a waka go

This in contrast with a complex verb form such as go luku 'go (and) look', which can be fronted as a whole and presumably has a \( V \{ go \ luku \} \) structure:

(89) na go luku a go luku
    is go look he go look
    'he really went and looked'

In the second place, go can be separated from the other verb by an NP, as we saw in (78), (80), (83), etc.

In the third place, serial go can take the same locative prepositional complements as non-serial go:

(90) a go na oso
    he go LOC house 
    'he went home'

(91) a waka go na oso
    he walk go LOC house
    'he walked home'

This same set of examples (90) and (91) provide an argument against analyzing go as an adverb or intransitive preposition:

(92)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
S \\
\text{NP} \quad \text{VP} \\
\quad V \quad \{ \text{Adv} \} \quad \{ P \} \\
\quad a \quad waka \quad go
\end{array}
\]
Another argument against analysis (92) is that locative PP's and adverbs can be fronted without leaving a copy, while go cannot:

(93a) a kan plei a fesi  
he can play LQC_face  
'he can play in front'

b) na a fesi a kan plei ___

(94) * na go a waka ___

We may conclude that go is not a preposition, particle or adverb, and indeed has the status of a verb. The structure of sentences such as (86) is a question to which we will return in the final section of this article.

12. kon

For kon 'come' we find exactly the same distribution as for go.

(a) wh-questions

kon can't be fronted in wh-questions:

(95a) a tjari den fisi kon a oso  
she carry the fish come the house  
'she brought the fish to the house'

b) pe a tjari den fisi kon come  
where

c) * kon pe a tjari den fisi come  
where

(b) relativization

kon can't be fronted in a relative clause:

(96a) a oso pe a tjari den fisi kon bigi  
the house where she carry the fish come big  
'the house she brought the fish to is big'

b) * a oso kon pe a tjari den fisi bigi

c) topicalization

kon can't occur under the TOP-position

(97a) na a oso a tjari den fisi kon  
is the house she carry the fish come  
'it is to the house that she carried the fish'

b) * na kon a oso a tjari den fisi ___

d) predicate cleft

kon can occur in predicate cleft constructions:

(98) na kon a tjari den fisi kon a oso  
is come she carry the fish come the house  
'she really brought the fish to the house'
We see that kon shows exactly the same pattern on these four constructions as go. Also in other respects kon shows the same behavior as go, cf. (88), (90), (94). Thus we may conclude that kon just like go, is not a preposition, particle or adverb, but indeed has the status of a verb.

13. gi

For gi the pattern turns out to be a different one.

(a) wh-questions

In wh-questions [gi + NP] can be fronted.

(99a) mi e venteri wan tori gi Meri
    I ASP tell a story give Mary
    'I tell a story to Mary'

b) gi suma mi e venteri wan tori____?
    give who

(100a) Meri teki watra gi den plantjes
    Mary take water give the plants
    'Mary took water and gave it to the plants'

b) gi san Meri teki watra____?
    give what

For some people fronting of the whole constituent is the only possibility, for others gi can be fronted or stay behind. (cf. Voorhoeve 1975)

(101) (') suma Meri e venteri wan tori gi____
      who
give

(102) (*) san Meri teki watra gi____
      what
give

(b) relativization

In relative clauses we find gi + NP in front of the relative clause. A peculiarity of this construction is, that we can find a gap on the place of the moved constituent (103a), but also a second gi (103b), while there is no difference in meaning.

(103a) Kofi na boi gi suma Meri teki a buku____
    Kofi is boy give who Mary take the book
    'Kofi is the boy to whom Mary gave the book'

b) Kofi na boi gi suma Meri teki a buku gi
    give who

It is impossible to front the NP, and leave gi behind:

(c) topicalization

For topicalization we find the same pattern as for relative clauses. gi + NP can occur under the TOP-position, in which case we have a gap on the place of the moved constituent, or a second gi.

(104a) na gi mi Meri teki a buku____
      is give me Mary take the book
      'it is to me that Mary gave the book'

b) na gi mi Meri teki a buku gi____
      give me
Judgments vary as to the occurrence of the NP under the TOP node. For some speakers (104c) is grammatical, while for others it is not:

(104c) (*) na **mi** Meri e teki a buku **gi**

is me
give

There is a great deal of similarity between the behavior of **gi** and that of a canonical preposition like **nanga**. Although there remain some problems, it seems that **gi** functions as a preposition.

(d) predicate cleft

We find the same variation in judgments for the occurrence of **gi** in predicate cleft sentences. For some speakers (105) is ungrammatical, while for others it is not.

(105) (*) na **gi** Kofi teki a buku **gi** **mi**

is give Kofi take the book give me

'Kofi gave the book to me'

The informants who judged (101) and (102) grammatical, also found (104c) and (105) grammatical. This supports Voorhoeve's contention that for conservative speakers **gi** may still have verbal status.

At first sight, the sentences in which the second **gi** turns up (e.g. (104b)), that we will repeat here for convenience,

(104b) na **gi** **mi** Kofi teki a buku **gi**

constitute a problem for the assumption that wh-movement is involved in the generation of these sentences, since there is no way to account for the second **gi**. These sentences seem to suggest that there has been no movement at all, but rather base-generation.

Alternatively, we could assume that the underlying structure of (104b) is something like,

(106) [ S', na **gi** **mi** [ S Kofi teki a buku[ v **gi**] [ pp] **gi** **mi** ] ]

where **gi** **mi** is moved into COMP and then deleted, and [ **gi** ] v is either generated, or not. In the latter case [ **gi** **mi** ] pp is a complement of the verb teki.

Returning to the question of whether **gi** should be considered to be a verb or a preposition, we can safely assume, considering the similarity of the behavior of **gi** to that of canonical prepositions, that **gi** is present in the lexicon as a preposition and as a verb. Speakers differ as to which particular cases are interpreted as prepositions, and which as verbs.

14. **teki**

Instrumental in Sranan usually is expressed by **nanga**:

(107) mi e koti a brede **nanga** a nefi

I ASP cut the bread with the knife

'I cut the bread with the knife'

An other possibility is to use a serial verb construction with **teki**:

(108) mi e teki a nefi koti a brede

I ASP take knife cut the bread

'I cut the bread with the knife'

In (108), we see that **teki** NP precedes the other verb, while **go**, **kon** and **gi** followed the other verb.

Although (107) and (108) are translated in the same way, there is a difference between them: (107) seems to be exactly equivalent to the English instrumental

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Although (107) and (108) are translated in the same way, there is a difference between them: (107) seems to be exactly equivalent to the English instrumental
while (108) implies that there have been two consecutive actions.

We find the following results on our four constructions:

(a) wh-questions

\[ \text{teki NP can't be fronted.} \]

(109) \[ * \text{na teki san Kofi koti a brede} \]
\[ \text{is take what Kofi cut the bread} \]
\[ \text{'with what did Kofi cut the bread'} \]

The first NP can be questioned:

(110a) \[ \text{san Kofi teki ___ koti a brede} \]
\[ \text{what} \]

However, judgments vary as to the questioning of the NP of koti. (For a summary of the variability of judgments see table 2)

(110b) \[ * \text{san Kofi teki a nefi koti} \]
\[ \text{what} \]

(b) relativization

\[ \text{teki + NP can't be fronted in relative clauses.} \]

(111) \[ * \text{a nefi teki san Kofi ___ koti a brede srpoe} \]
\[ \text{the knife take what Kofi cut the bread sharp} \]
\[ \text{'the knife with which Kofi cut the bread was sharp'} \]

The first NP can be relativized:

(112a) \[ \text{a nefi san Kofi teki ___ koti a brede srpoe} \]

As to the questioning of the second NP, we find the same variation in judgments. Some speakers only accept (112a).

(112b) \[ * \text{a brede san Kofi teki nefi koti ___ srpoe} \]

(c) topicalization

We can't find teki + NP under the TOP position.

(113) \[ * \text{na teki a nefi Kofi ___ koti a brede} \]

The topicalization of the NP's gives us essentially the same pattern as in relative clauses. Thus (114a) is grammatical for all speakers:

(114a) \[ \text{na a nefi Kofi teki ___ koti a brede} \]

judgments vary for (114b):

(114b) \[ * \text{na a brede Kofi teki a nefi koti ___} \]

(d) predicate cleft

\[ \text{teki can occur in a predicate cleft construction}. \]

(115a) \[ \text{na teki Kofi teki a nefi koti a brede} \]

Judgments vary as to the occurrence of the second verb in the predicate cleft construction:

(115b) \[ * \text{na koti Kofi teki a nefi koti a brede} \]

We can conclude from these examples that teki is a verb and has no prepositional characteristics.
We can summarize the variability of judgments as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2</th>
<th>teki NP₁</th>
<th>koti NP₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GRAMMAR 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP₁, questioned</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP₂, questioned</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP₁, relativized</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP₂, relativized</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP₁, topicalized</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP₂, topicalized</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V₁, predicate cleft</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V₂, predicate cleft</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus we see that of the surface structure . .V NP . .V NP, both verbs and NP's are available for syntactic operations in grammar 2, while only the first verb and NP are in grammar 1.

In this section (10-11), we tried to establish the syntactic status of several serial verbs. On the basis of their behavior in several constructions we came to the following conclusions:

- so, kon and teki are present in the lexicon as main verbs and serial verbs, gî is present as a main verb, a preposition and a serial verb.

15. THE VP ANALYSIS

We will assume that serializing languages differ in fundamental respects from non-serializing languages. Our main task then is to decide where the locus of the differences lies.

Earlier generative treatments (e.g. Stahlke, 1970; Bailey, 1966) have assumed that the main difference lies in the transformational component. Serial verbs are generated either as S-complements in matrix VP's:

\[(116) \quad S \rightarrow \text{NP} \quad \text{VP} \]

\[\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{NP} \quad \text{VP} \quad (S)\]

or as coordinated S's. Later, all non-surface NP's, complementizers and auxiliaries are deleted through Equi-NP deletion and similar rules, and possibly the complements are raised (in the complement-S version).

Schachter (1974) has provided a number of arguments against this type of analysis. As an alternative, he proposes that the main difference between serializing and non-serializing languages has to be accounted for on the level of Phrase Structure rules, and suggests the following rule for the African cases:

\[(117) \quad S \rightarrow \text{NP} \quad \text{AUX} \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{VP}^* \]

\[\text{VP} \rightarrow \text{V} \quad \text{NP}\]
The arguments are given for Akan and related West-African languages, and one of the first questions which comes to mind is whether his analysis applies for the Creole languages. We will illustrate our points with examples from Sranan, but they apply equally well to other languages.

Schachter's first argument is that there is only one superficial subject in serial constructions, while a multi-sentential source would have one subject for each verb in deep structure, which would then have to be deleted. This argument applies equally well to the Creole languages, as is illustrated by (118) and (119):

(118) Roy teki nefi koti a brede
Roy take knife cut the bread
'Roy cut the bread with a knife'

(119)* Roy teki nefi Roy koti a brede

A second argument of Schachter's involves tense/aspect marking. Since serial clauses contain only one Aux-node, all the verbs carry the same aspect or tense marking, or alternatively (as in Yoruba), only the first verb is marked for tense/aspect. If serial constructions had a multi-sentential source, the different verbs would have their own AUX-node, and the identity of the tense/aspect markers would remain unexplained. This argument applies as well to the Creole languages:

(120a) Roy e tyari a pikin go na oso
Roy ASP carry the child go LOC house
'Roy took the child home'

b)* Roy e tyari a pikin e go na oso
   ASP_i

(120c)* Roy e tyari a pikin sa go na oso
   ASP_i

Schachter's third argument applies equally well to the African and to the Creole cases. If serial constructions have a multi-sentential base, why are there no subordination or coordination markers in evidence, as with ordinary multi-sentential structures? Adopting a VP analysis neatly accounts for the absence of these markers.

The remaining two arguments of Schachter's are not as convincing. The first one involves 'idiomatic compounds' of serial verbs, where the two verbs separately have a widely different meaning from when they are combined. (qye die = believe, jye = receive, di = eat). If the two verbs are indeed present in the lexicon as a single discontinuous lexical element, as Schachter claims, then it is indeed an argument against a multi-sentential base analysis, but not really an argument for a multi-VP base analysis. Equally possible is that the elements of the idiomatic compound are inserted into one single VP.

The last argument of Schachter involves historical considerations: the string of VP's directly dominated by S in Fe'fe' is argued to be historically derived from a series of S's linked by consecutive markers. The transition from consecutivization to serialization is claimed by Schachter to be a natural one. Similarly, the serial construction may give rise to new auxiliaries and prepositional phrases, through reanalysis, in a rather simple way, if we assume the VP analysis of Schachter's:

(121)
This argument is only valid, and even then only in part, if we can demonstrate that the resulting structures are indeed the appropriate ones for the later stages, and it presupposes a specific view of syntactic change; which needs to be substantiated.

Concluding, we may say that Schachter argues convincingly against a multi-sentential analysis for serial verbs and in favor of a VP analysis.

Another argument against a multi-sentential analysis for serial verbs is based on the fact that serial verbs are lexically constrained in various ways. As far as we know, we do not find idiomatic compounds in Caribbean Creoles, as are present in several West-African languages. Nonetheless, the verbs in a serial construction are subject to several subcategorization restrictions which limit their cooccurrence. Thus serial go and kon can only occur with an earlier verb of movement, serial teki when followed by a verb which can take an instrumental argument, etc.

If lexical insertion is local, i.e. constrained by the principle of sub­jacency, by the Tensed-S condition etc., this is an additional argument for analyzing the SVC as a construction involving no S-constituents.

On the basis of Schachter’s arguments and this last argument we conclude that SVC are VP’s and not S’s. This assumption leaves us with the following possible base rules:

(i)  $VP \rightarrow V(NP) V(NP)$
(ii) $VP \rightarrow VP VP^*$
(iii) $VP \rightarrow VP V NP$
(iv) $VP \rightarrow V NP VP$
(v)  $S \rightarrow VP VP^*$

where (i) - (iv) are VP-expansion rules (presupposing an S-expansion rule of the type $S \rightarrow NP VP$) and (v) is an S-expansion rule.

An appropriate test to decide on the constituent status of a given string of elements is VP-deletion, although we must be very cautious when interpreting the facts, while VP-deletion crucially depends on the existence of an AUX-node, under which Tense and Modals are generated. We do not know for certain if there exists a separate category modal in Sranan.

Let’s look at the process of VP deletion, which yields the following results for Sranan:

(122) Meri no moesoe go na skoro , ma Jan moesoe
Mary not must go to school, but Jan must
'Mary does not have to go to school, but John has to'

(123) mi moesoe go luku pe a boi e tan, nanga jo moesoe toe
I must go look where the boy is with you must also
'I must go and look where the boy is, and you must too'
Although we did not make a detailed analysis for this construction, we can safely assume that the bracketed constituents are VP's, since they delete (or are interpreted) as a whole. (e.g. Sag (1976), Williams (1977)).

When we look at serial constructions, it appears that they function as a single constituent:

(125) Meri no moesoe teki a nefi koti a brede, ma Kofi moesoe 
Mary not must take the knife cut the bread, but Kofi must 
'Mary does not have to cut the bread with the knife, but Kofi has to'

(126) Ibride Meri moesoe tjari den fisi kon a oso, ma Jan no moesoe 
Every day Mary must carry the fish come the house, but John not must 
'every day Mary has to carry the fish home, but John does not have to'

(127) Sama wani go na Paramaribo gi mi? Wi wani
who want go to Paramaribo for me? we want
'who wants to go to Paramaribo for me? We want to'

Concluding we can say that serial constructions function as a single constituent, and therefore we will not accept base rule (v) as a suitable candidate for the description of the serial verb construction.

A version of the first base rule has been proposed by Roberts (1975). He gives a VP-expansion rule for serial verb constructions in which a single VP is expanded into several non-adjacent V's. Thus for a construction such as:

(129) Mi go upa im yaad go tek (im auts im yaad)
he proposes base expansion rule (130):

(130) VP V mo (PP) L V...

So that (130) has the following structure:

```
    VP
     /\        
    V         PP
     /\       /\ 
    P    NP   L   V
     /\                   
    go upa im yaad go tek
```

The argument for base rule (130) seems to be primarily a semantic one: "One of the outstanding points in the above proposal is that the verb phrase has more than one element. This analysis avoids the falseness of the deep structure of Williams (here repeated as (131), which puts keri in a higher cycle than go and both keri and go in a higher cycle than gi. It also avoids the deep structure of Bailey which makes a clearly repeated semantic element like the second go the main feature of an independent S." (Roberts 1975 p. 7)
The main problem with Roberts' analysis becomes clear when we expand the structure (130) to cover the whole sentence (132):

(132)

Roberts is forced to assign the correct grammatical relations between V's, NP's, and PP's on the basis of contiguity. His interpretation rule would presumably be something like:

(133) When you encounter a V, all NP's and PP's following it until the next V have to be interpreted as arguments of that V.

So far, semantic theory has excluded this type of rule, and there is no reason at present to increase the power of interpretation rules, if other devices are available, e.g. the definition of grammatical relations in terms of structural configurations, in this case of the VP. On the basis of these considerations we will not accept rule (i) as a possible candidate for SVC.

So we are left with rules (ii), (iii) and (iv). There is no evidence for rule (iii) except for the superficial semantic similarity of teki NP and nanga NP. However, in the case of the teki construction, we do find some evidence for the following configuration (rule (iv)):
Two sets of arguments could be given:

(a) The inaccessibility of the elements in VP to fronting and predicate cleft in one of the dialects. (see section 14)

(b) The similarity of the teki NP V NP constructions to teki NP S' constructions:

(135) Mi teki a nefi koti a brede ...cut the bread
(136) Mi teki a nefi foe koti a b'rede ...for to cut the bread

Indeed, it is not immediately clear that teki serial constructions do not involve S' complements as in (136).

Two things could serve to distinguish serial constructions from constructions involving infinitive complements:

(a) The absence versus presence of the complementizer, in this case foe. However, we know that in other cases, foe can be either present or deleted:

(137) Mi wani foe go
(138) Mi wani 0 go

The same could occur in complements of teki, and account for the difference between (135) and the 'serial' cases discussed.

(b) Differences in the interpretation of the 0 tense marker. The absence of a tense marker on the second verb could be due to foe complements being tenseless, as well as to the serial character of the teki constructions. Note, however, that different predictions are made about the interpretation of the tense of the second verb.

Infinitive complements are interpreted as being tenseless, serial complements as having the same tense as that of teki. It would appear that the following data crucially distinguish between the two analyses:

(139) a teki a nefi koti a brede , ma no koti 'en 
    'he took the knife cut the bread, but not cut it'
(140) a teki a nefi foe koti a brede , ma no koti en
    for
    'he took the knife to cut the bread, but did not cut it'

We can conclude that infinitive complements differ from serial constructions in important respects.

The differences can be accounted for either by saying that serial constructions should have a different configuration from infinitive complements, or that the difference follows from the difference in the semantics of S' and of VP complements. Little is known about this, but it is possible that(134) could be maintained and that the contrast between (139) and (140) is due to the fact that S' functions as a propositional island in logical form, being opaque to the contradiction in truth value of the two propositions CUT BREAD , NOT CUT BREAD, while VP does not.

The same analysis can be adopted for kon, go and gi (when gi functions as a serial verb). There is a problem, however, and that is that the elements under VP are, in contradistinction with teki, available for syntactic operations for all speakers. Nevertheless we do find a great deal of similarity with infinitive complements, and the same difference in the interpretation of tense:
Meri tjari den pikin go na Paramaribo, ma no kon a Paramaribo
Meri carry the children go to Par. but not come to Par.
"Mary carried the children to Paramaribo, but not from Par.

Meri tjari den pikin go na Paramaribo, ma no kon a Paramaribo
Meri carry the children to go to Paramaribo, but not come from Par.
"Mary carried the children to go to Paramaribo, but not to come to P.

The analysis given in (134), which is the expansion of base rule (iv)
has additional advantages if we take the notion of c-command into account.
C-command is defined as follows (Reinhardt 1976 (36)):

Node A (constituent)-commands node B if neither A nor B dominates
the other and the first branching node which dominates A dominates
B.

Thus, A c-commands B in the following configuration:

\[ \text{(144)} \]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
A \\
\text{\ldots} \\
\text{\ldots} \\
B
\end{array}
\]

Semantic interpretation would be constrained in the following way:

(145) Grammatical relations (subject-of, object-of, etc) are defined in
terms of c-command configurations.

If we accept this principle, the analysis given by Schachter for
(146), that is (147), is unvalid.

mede aburow migu nsum
I-take corn I-flow water-in
'I pour corn into the water'

In this case, /aburow/ 'corn' can never be interpreted as the subject of
/migu/ 'I flow', since it is not in a c-command relation with this form.
(/mede/ c-commands /migu/)

It would be preferable to assume an analysis such as:

\[ \text{(148)} \]

Here, /aburow/ 'corn' properly c-commands /migu/, and can be interpreted
as its subject.

Quite similarly, there is a Sranan example, in which the object of
the first verb is interpreted as the subject of the second verb(Voorhoeve,
1962.p 43).
(149) mi har mi bruku go t a m kindi
    I pull my trousers go till LOC my knees
    'I pull my trousers up to my knees'

Presumably, this example also needs to be assigned a structure such as (148).

Of course, the examples in which the object of the first verb is the subject of the second verb constitute the unusual, the 'marked' case. Normally, the subject of the first verb is also the subject of the second one.

If we assume configuration (150) for serial constructions:

(150)
\[ S \rightarrow NP \rightarrow VP \rightarrow V_1 \rightarrow NP_2 \rightarrow VP \rightarrow V_2 \rightarrow \ldots \]

the marked character of (146) and (149) follows from two additional assumptions:
(a) the 'subject-of' relation is assigned as follows: the NP which is the sister node of the node dominating V is its subject;
(b) the A-over-A principle defines the unmarked case.

Thus, in (150) NP_1 is generally interpreted as the subject of V_2. Only in exceptional cases, NP_2 is interpreted as its subject. (Here semantic factors probably play a part, such as the fact that in (146), 'I' cannot FLOW into the WATER.)

16. CONCLUSION

Concluding we can say that serial verbs have VP status on the basis of the absence of tense-aspect marking, the absence of a complementizer, the absence of a lexical NP subject, and their semantic characteristics.

They must be considered to form one constituent with the matrix verb and its complement. Possibly they have the following structure:

(151)
\[ VP \rightarrow V \rightarrow (NP) \rightarrow VP \rightarrow V \rightarrow (NP) \rightarrow (VP) \rightarrow \ldots \]

This structure can be produced by a rather simple base rule:

(152) \[ VP \rightarrow V \rightarrow NP \rightarrow VP \]

Structure (151) can be assigned a semantic interpretation in a simple way, as was sketched in the previous section. The special character of the serial construction is accounted for on the level of semantic interpretation rules and lexical insertion rules, which only allow specified verbs in one of the positions of (151).
Although we hope to have brought the discussion about serial constructions in Creole languages a little further, many more questions remain open than have been answered.

This is primarily so because little is known about VP's in general. In the case of Sranan, for instance, there is a number of elements which have to be contrasted with serial verbs, but on which little, if any, work has been done. The main problem is: what syntactic arguments are there to distinguish serial constructions from other complex verbal constructions.

(a) Modals. Does Sranan have a separate category Modal, like English may, \( \text{can} \), or do we have verbs which can take infinitive complements, like English \( \text{want} \)?

(b) Causatives. Can Sranan causatives be distinguished from serial constructions?

(c) Complements of perception verbs. Which syntactic differences are there between complements of perception verbs and serial verbs?

(d) Comparatives. Do Sranan comparatives, 'involving' moro and \( p'sa \), behave like serial constructions, or do they have special characteristics?

A major difficulty is that the serial constructions (even the ones which do show the transition from VP to PP, such as \( gi \)) are a rather marked and highly variable type of construction in the Sranan speech community. This is particularly the case for the teki construction (see also Huttar (1975) on this point).

For this reason, a detailed study of serialization in Sranan (or for that matter, in any language) will need to be based on a large-scale investigation of Sranan speech in a natural setting.
FOOTNOTES

1) The first part of this paper is an outgrowth of a seminar held in the spring semester of 1977 on serial verbs. Participants were Henk Ali Alimohammed, Edgar Cairo, Eddy Charry, Miep van Diggelen, Jacques Hendrickx, Helène van Leynseele, Linda Richardson, Catherine Snow, as well as the three co-authors. August Dutenhofer, Philibert Derveld, and Carmen Lie helped with the Sranan data in the second part of this paper, and contributed much good advice. Finally, we wish to thank Raul Romer and Peter Milhäusler for general comments. The responsibility for the ideas, good or bad, expressed here remains with the authors, of course.

2) The sources from which the examples are drawn can be found in the bibliography with the particular language involved mentioned in capital letters between parentheses. The spelling of the non-Sranan examples is that of the original source from which they were taken. The spelling of the Sranan examples is somewhat inconsistent, particularly: oe and u for /u/ (e.g. joe, suma), and v and j for the glide /y/ (e.g. tyari, tjari).

3) It is unclear whether take functions as a serial verb taking direct object complements in the Creole languages, for the following reasons: (a) the direct object relation is almost always expressed in a non-serial way; (b) all the examples we found of take NP as a serial verb include a verb of movement as well:

(153) Kofi teki skropu t.ia go na abrasey (SR)
Kofi take shells carried went to overside
'Kofi brought shells to the other side'

4) In this case we use the broader definition of c-command.

5) An argument against base rule (ii) is that the Coordinate Structure Constraint (Ross, 1967) would prohibit the extraction of either NP of structures of the type:

(154) [NP] [VP[VP V NP] [VP V NP]]

Since it is perfectly possible to extract either NP (e.g. san Meri e teki teki koti a brede?), we will not consider rule (ii) VP → VP VP as a suitable candidate for the serial verb construction.