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A grammatical sketch of Ngarla **(Ngayarta, Pama-Nyungan)**

Torbjörn Westerlund

A-PL 016

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Ngarla, a critically endangered Pama-Nyungan language of the Pilbara region, has received very little scholarly attention. This book presents the first grammatical description of the language, and focuses particularly on the complexity of verbs and verbal clauses. The grammar sketch is complemented by a small collection of Ngarla texts, and a word list.



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*Nyayi nganarna wangka wanyjarnu
mirlimirlingura ngarla wangka pananga
warnpartarra.*

*This language, the Ngarla language, we
have written down for the benefit of the
Wanbarda people.*

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Uppsala, 15th May 2015

Torbjörn Westerlund

Abbreviations

Ø	Ø conjugation; zero marked morpheme
1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
A	transitive subject/answer
ABL	ablative
ACC	accusative
ALL	allative
ANT	anticipatory
ANTIP	antipassive
AREA	in the area of
ASSOC	associative
AVERS	aversive
BEN	beneficiary
CAUS	causative
COM	comitative
COMP	completely, exclusively
CPST	continuous past
DAT	dative; also marks genitive
DEM	demonstrative
DOUBT	doubt (particle)
DS	different subject
DU	dual
DWELLER	dweller of
END	sudden end (nominal suffix)
EP	epenthetic morpheme
EPI	episteme
ERG	ergative; also marks instrumental
EX	exactly (at)
EXCL	exclusive
FREQ	frequentive
FUT	future; also marks imperative mood
GEN	genitive
HORT	hortative
IMP	imperative
INCAUS	indirect cause
INCH	inchoative
INCL	inclusive
INSNOM	instrumental nominalisation
INTNS	intensifier

L	L conjugation
LOC	locative
NEG	negation/negative
NMLZ	nominaliser
NOM	nominative
NP	noun phrase
OPT	optative
P	transitive object
p.c.	personal communication
PL	plural
PRIV	privative
PRS	present
PRSCONTRA	present contrafactual
PST	past
PSTCONTRA	past contrafactual
PURP	purposive
Q	question particle/question
RECP	reciprocal
REFL	reflexive
REL	relative
RELPRS	relative present
RELPST	relative past
REMPST	remote past
RESP	respect
S	intransitive subject
SCE	source
SEQ	sequential
SPEC	speculative
SS	same subject
TAM	tense, aspect and mood
USI	usitative
V	verb

1. *The community & the material*

1.1 Introduction

This work constitutes a modified version of Westerlund's Ph.D.-thesis *Finite verbs in Ngarla (Pama-Nyungan, Ngayarta)*. The basic grammatical structure of the Ngarla language is described in this volume. It should from the outset be pointed out that Ngarla is not known to have had any dialectal variation (Thieberger 1993). And although a revitalisation programme is underway, it is at present not a living, everyday language in the community (Wangka Maya 2011). Previously, this language has received very scant scholarly attention.

This chapter presents the Ngarla community and their language. In section 1.2 below, the Ngarla community is introduced. The classification of the language is discussed in section 1.3. The decline of the Ngarla language is the focus of section 1.4, and previously collected material in the language of section 1.5. The Ngarla material used in this work is introduced in 1.6, and in 1.7, the language consultant Alexander (Nyapiri) Brown is presented.

1.2 Ngarla – the community and its language

In 1862, when the northwestern part of Western Australia was opened for colonisation, the Ngarla community lived in the northernmost part of the Pilbara region, as indicated in Figure 1 below.¹ The Ngarla community lived around the mouth of the De Grey River, their territory extending inland to Mulyie Station, eastwards beyond Cape Keraudren and westwards toward the present day town of Port Hedland (Thieberger 1993; Tindale 1974).

In available literature, the community and their language have been referred to by a number of different designations. Curr (1886) introduces the terms Ngurla and Ngirla. Davidson (1938) mentions these two terms, and adds Ngarla, Gnalla and Ngerla. In O'Grady, Voegelin & Voegelin (1966; henceforth referred to as OVV), the designations Ngarla and Wanbarda are used. Tindale (1974) lists most of the labels just mentioned, and also includes Nga:la, Ngala, Ngalana and Kujunguru (the last of which is explained to be a Nyamal word meaning 'coastal dweller', by that group used for the Ngarla and Kariyarra communities). Thieberger (1993) also includes most of the designations mentioned above, and adds Ngalawanga, Ngalawarngga and Ngalawonga. It should however be noted that the last three terms in fact usually designate a community with

¹ The Pilbara region is located approximately 1200 kilometres north of Perth, the capital city of Western Australia. It covers 505 000 square kilometres and is bordered in the south by the Tropic of Capricorn, in the west by the Indian Ocean, in the north by the Kimberley region, and in the east by the Northern Territory (Walker 2009).

another language. The latter community traditionally lived on the upper Ashburton river, in a territory neighbouring the Panyjima, Wawula, Watjarri and Yinhawangka communities (cf. Horton 1994).



Figure 1: Indigenous Australian languages of the Pilbara region, northwestern Australia.

© Wangka Maya Pilbara Aboriginal Language Centre. Used with permission.

1.3 Classification of Ngarla

The first detailed classification of the languages of the Australian continent, utilising a lexicostatistical method, was presented in OVV (1966). In the classification, all Australian languages are presented as being related and belonging to one big macro-phylum. Ngarla was in this classification placed in the Ngayarda subgroup of the larger Pama-Nyungan family. (In modern literature, the preferred spelling of the subgroup name is ‘Ngayarta’; Evans & Jones 1997; Koch 2004; Miceli 2004; OVV 1966.)

The OVV classification was revised in later works, e.g. in Wurm (1972) and in Walsh & Wurm (1981), where not only lexical similarities, but also morphosyntactic criteria were taken into consideration (Austin 2008; Koch 2004). On morphosyntactic grounds, Dench (1994) also proposed a subdivision of the Ngayarta languages into a Northern Ngayarta group, consisting of Ngarla and Nyamal, and a Central Ngayarta group, including remaining Ngayarta languages. Some of the classifications of the Ngayarta languages within the Pama-Nyungan family are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 The Ngayarta languages within Pama-Nyungan (Koch 2004:37).

Language	OVV 1966	Wurm 1972	Walsh & Wurm 1981	Koch 2004
Palyku	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Wati	Ngayarta
Panyjima	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Inland Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Ngarla	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Inland Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Nyamal	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Inland Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Jurruru	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Inland Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Yinhawangka	-	-	Inland Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Ngarluma- Kariyarra	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Coastal Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Martuthunira	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Coastal Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Nhuwala	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Coastal Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Yinjibarndi- Kurrama	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Coastal Ngayarda	Ngayarta
Warriyangka	Mantharta	Mantharta	Inland Ngayarda	Mantharta
Thiin	Mantharta	Mantharta	Coastal Ngayarda	Mantharta
Jiwarli	Mantharta	Mantharta	Coastal Ngayarda	Mantharta
Pinikura	Ngayarda	Ngayarda	Coastal Ngayarda	Kanyara

The OVV classification, and later revisions thereof, have been strongly criticised by some linguists (see e.g. Dixon 1980, 2002a), while others have accepted its validity as a genetic classification, albeit with a certain amount of hedging (Evans & Jones 1997; Wurm 1972).

Bowern & Atkinson (2012) presents the results of a phylogenetic Bayesian analysis made with cognate lexical items in Pama-Nyungan languages. The study shows that the languages together labelled Pama-Nyungan are in fact likely to constitute a language family. It is also concluded that the division of the Ngayarta languages in a Central and a Northern group apparently is a valid one. Due to that, Ngarla is described here as a Northern Ngayarta language of the Pama-Nyungan family.

1.4 The decline of the Ngarla language

According to Curr (1886:288), the Ngarla community consisted of ‘several hundred souls’ in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and presumably the language of the community had at least as many speakers. The 20th century, however, saw a rapid decline in the number of speakers. Thus, O’Grady (1966) states that Ngarla most likely would become extinct within a few years. von Brandenstein (1967) writes that the language at the time of his investigation had ten speakers at the most. We however need to be cautious to rely on these sentiments. The most thorough searches for Ngarla speakers during the past decades have been undertaken by Geytenbeek (p.c.). Geytenbeek’s 1985 count indicated that there were 30 speakers of the language at the time. By 1997, 13 of these speakers had passed away. Presently, few of the speakers in the 1985 count remain alive.

1.5 Previously collected Ngarla material

Comparatively little Ngarla linguistic material has earlier been collected, analysed and published. This section describes the available material. Songs, which constitute a linguistic genre separate from the everyday speech-style, are excluded here.²

Concerning lexical and grammatical information, Thieberger (1993) lists four Ngarla vocabularies, one by Harper, published in Curr (1886); one by Davidson (1932)³, comprising a comparison of vocabulary in 19 Western Australian languages; one by Smith, the ‘Ngarla lexical test list’, which was included in O’Grady (1959; cf. O’Grady 1966); and Brown & Geytenbeek’s dictionary project (including circa 3000 lexical entries).⁴ In addition, there are fieldnotes by O’Grady (1954, 1968) containing Ngarla material⁵, information about certain Ngarla lexical items in Ray & Betham Rigby (1897) and an anonymous Ngarla-Italian wordlist from the 1860s.⁶ Ngarla material was also collected by Dench (p.c.) on two field trips in 1993 and 1994.

Ngarla vocabulary is also included in Bates’s manuscripts ‘Initiation – Miscellaneous’ (undated), ‘Native vocabularies – Miscellaneous’ (undated), and ‘Outline of grammar [2] – Pronouns’ (undated; Thieberger 1993).

1.6 Materials used

All Ngarla material used in this work has Alexander (Nyapiri) Brown as its source. It consists of twelve short stories, eight handwritten pages (written by Brown) and about 4500 sentences (both elicited sentences and sentences volunteered in the fieldwork

² It is however worth noting that Ngarla songs were recorded at different points in time during the past century. Published Ngarla songs can be found in Brown & Geytenbeek (2003) and in von Brandenstein & Thomas (1974:33), the latter song also being included in Murray (1986:238).

³ AIATSIS collection no.: MS 1097.

⁴ Among published wordlists, Goddard & Thieberger (1997) also include Brown & Geytenbeek (1989-90), in which only a short list of Ngarla vocabulary is included.

⁵ AIATSIS collection no.: MS 312.

⁶ AIATSIS collection no.: AILEC 0427.

setting). The data has been collected primarily by Geytenbeek and by Westerlund.⁷ Smaller amounts of material have also been contributed by Alan Dench (see above) and Eleonora Deak (the material having been recorded in a session between Brown and Deak in 2009, and in a session between Brown, Deak and Jessica Mathie (née Denniss) in 2010. Both of the latter sessions were performed on behalf of Westerlund. At the time, Deak and Mathie were employed by the Wangka Maya Pilbara Aboriginal Language Centre in South Hedland.)

Note in this context that Brown was frequently reluctant to be recorded, which, in many cases, led to the linguist having to transcribe Brown's Ngarla statements directly when uttered. This means that most of the material used in this work exists in written form only.

1.7 Introducing the consultant

Alexander (Nyapiri) Brown was born in 1930 to Ngarla woman Cissie (Warrjiringu) and the Chinese cook Ah Fong (cf. Hardie 1988; personal information about Brown is, unless otherwise indicated, based on Brown, p.c. and Geytenbeek, p.c.). While growing up, partly on the De Grey Station and partly at Wariyarranya homestead, Brown learnt to speak three Aboriginal languages, Ngarla and the neighbouring Nyamal and Nyangumarta languages. Later on he also learnt English. In December of 1946, Brown joined the strikers of the Pilbara Walkoff. During the years to come, he took part in, for example, hunting and skinning kangaroos and goats together with other strikers (see section B.2 in Appendix B). In May 1949, he participated in a droving trip from Ethel Creek to Meekatharra (B.3 in Appendix B), and from there continued south. After this, he spent most of his time working outside of the Pilbara region, until he eventually returned home in 1970.

From the first half of the 1980s, Brown took a great interest in Ngarla and neighbouring languages. For example, he took part in the translation of the New Testament to Nyangumarta, he did some work on the Nyamal language together with Dench (p.c.), and also worked with SIL-linguist Brian Geytenbeek on documenting his native Ngarla.

Brown had very little active knowledge of Ngarla in 1984 when he and Geytenbeek started to record and discuss material in the language. However, recovery happened when he started describing pictures of friends and family in an old photo album. Brown and Geytenbeek met regularly between 1984 and 2004 to work with Ngarla. Their work together has resulted in the acclaimed book *Ngarla Songs* (2003) and in the *Ngarla-English Dictionary* (interim editions printed in 1990, 1991, 2002, 2004, 2006). Brown died in his home in South Hedland on Friday, 22nd October 2010.

⁷ Two fieldtrips were undertaken by Westerlund during his time as a Ph.D.-student. The first one, in November-December 2008, was sponsored by Olof Gjerdmán's Foundation. The second one, in August-September 2010, which also included a longer stay in Australia, was sponsored by Håkansson's Foundation and Sederholm's Foundation (all three of the aforementioned foundations being associated with Uppsala University, Sweden).

2. *Phonology & prosody*

2.1 Phoneme inventory & transcription conventions

Ngarla has a fairly typical Australian phoneme inventory (cf. Dixon 2002a), which is illustrated in Table 2 – Table 3 below.⁸ Ngarla linguistic examples are in this work rendered in the (mostly) phonemic orthography developed for languages of the eastern Pilbara by Geytenbeek, Geytenbeek, Hudson, Marsh, Marsh and Richards (Geytenbeek, p.c.).⁹ Table 4 – Table 5 show which letter(s) in the orthography represent which sound.

Table 2 Ngarla consonant phonemes (OVV 1966).

Place of articulation/ Manner	Bilabial	Apico- alveolar	Retroflex	Lamino- palatal	Dorso- velar
Rhotic		r	ɽ		
Lateral		l	ɭ	ʎ	
Nasal	m	n	ɳ	ɲ	ŋ
Stop	p	t	ɖ	c	k
Semi- vowel	w			y	

Table 3 Ngarla vowel phonemes (OVV 1966).

	Front	Back
High	i i:	u u:
Low		a a:

⁸ Ngarla phonology is discussed in OVV (1966); Sharp & Thieberger (1992); and in Westerlund (2007), albeit not in great detail.

⁹ Notes on transcription and glossing occur in a number of sections in this work. They are however all collected in Appendix A.

Table 4 The rendering of Ngarla consonant phonemes in the ortography developed by Geytenbeek, Geytenbeek, Hudson, Marsh, Marsh and Richards (Geytenbeek 2006).

Place of articulation/ Manner	Bilabial	Apico- alveolar	Retroflex	Lamino- palatal	Dorso- velar
Rhotic		rr	r		
Lateral		l	rl	ly	
Nasal	m	n	rn	ny	ng
Stop	p	t	rt	j	k
Semi- vowel	w			y	

Table 5 The rendering of Ngarla vowel phonemes in the ortography developed by Geytenbeek, Geytenbeek, Hudson, Marsh, Marsh and Richards (Geytenbeek 2006).

	Front	Back
High	i ii	u uu
Low		a aa

There are no words that start with a vowel in the orthography employed here, but it should be noted that some words spelled with an initial *yi* or *wu* frequently are pronounced with initial *i* or *u*. It should also be noted that the syllable *rr* at the end of verb stems of the Ø conjugation (see section 4.2 below for information about verbal conjugations), and also at the end of the irregular verb *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ (see 4.4.4.2), usually becomes *yi*, when followed by a suffix beginning with the retroflex nasal *rn* or the lamino-palatal nasal *ny*.¹⁰ In all such contexts, the syllable in question is written as *yi*.

As indicated in Table 3 and Table 5, a contrast is made between long and short vowels. Long vowels occur in most monosyllables (which in themselves are very rare, e.g. in *kuu* ‘ssh’; *yuu* ‘yes’, ‘look’), and in stems consisting of a monosyllabic root and added material (as in complex verbs, e.g. *wiiny* ‘free’, ‘unrestrained’; *wiiny ja-L* ‘release’; *wiiny ngarri-Ø* ‘escape’); and in reduplicated items (*muurr~muurr* ‘crunchy noise’). There are only a few examples that show that the contrast between long and short vowels is phonemic. These are presented in Table 6.

¹⁰ A suffix is defined here as a form that belongs to both the same phonological and grammatical word as the root/stem to which it is attached. A clitic, on the other hand, constitutes a grammatical word on its own, while occurring in the same phonological word as another grammatical word (see sections 2.3 and 4.3.1.3; Dench 1999; Dixon & Aikhenvald 2002).

Table 6 Phonemic vowel length: Ngarla minimal pairs.¹¹

Lexical items with short vowel	Lexical items with long vowel
<i>jarla</i> ‘cheek’	<i>jaarla</i> ‘nankeen night heron’ (<i>nycticorax caledonicus</i>); ‘heron’ (generic)
<i>jarri</i> - INCH- (?; cf. section 4.3.1.2 with footnotes)	<i>jaa-rri</i> chop-PRS ‘is chopping’
<i>kayi</i> ‘lip’	<i>kaayi</i> ‘song’ (specifically the song that begins the performances on a song and dance-night)
<i>kurturtu</i> ‘middle’, ‘partway’	<i>kuurturtu</i> ‘bar-shouldered dove’ (<i>geopelia humeralis</i>)
<i>marli</i> ‘frog’ (generic)	<i>maarli</i> reciprocal kin term used in the senses ‘father’s father’, ‘son’s son’, ‘son’s daughter’ ¹²
<i>ma-rri</i> CAUS-PRS (cf. section 4.3)	<i>maa-rri</i> get-PRS ‘is getting’
<i>marti</i> ‘vertical headband’ (for holding decorations during a corroboree).	<i>maarti</i> ‘white dragon tree’ (<i>sesbania formosa</i>)
<i>mukuru</i> ‘spotted scat’ (<i>scatophagus argus</i>)	<i>muukuru</i> ‘unmarried girl’
<i>nyara-yan</i> burn-PRS ‘is burning’	<i>nyaa-ra-yan</i> send-ANTIP-PRS ‘is sending’
<i>warri</i> ‘nappy’, ‘baby’s rug’	<i>waa-rri</i> give-PRS ‘is giving’

2.2 Phonotactic constraints

According to Dixon (2002a), the basic syllable type in Australian languages is CV(C). Disyllabic words usually have the form CVCCV(C) or CVCV(C). This is the case also in Ngarla, where most words consist of two or more syllables.¹³

Sharp & Thieberger (1992) state that eleven consonant phonemes can occur word initially in Ngarla, namely those that are here transcribed *m p w l n r ny j y ng k*. However, in my database, *t* also occurs in this position. It should be noted, however, that of the circa 3000 lexical entries in Brown & Geytenbeek (2008), only five have an

¹¹ There are no examples of the following disyllabic nominals in Table 6 receiving ergative marking: *jaarla* ‘nankeen night heron’ (*nycticorax caledonicus*), ‘heron’ (generic); *kaayi* ‘song without accompanying dance’; *maarli* reciprocal kin term (used in the senses ‘father’s father’, ‘son’s son’, ‘son’s daughter’); *maarti* ‘white dragon tree’ (*sesbania formosa*). Examples of these nominals receiving ergative marking would have shown if Ngarla is a mora counting language or not, see Table 8- Table 9 below, with footnotes.

¹² This is a kin term employed by a grandchild to refer to his/her father’s father, and the term is also used by the grandfather to refer to his son’s child(ren; Brown & Geytenbeek 2008). This is thus not a ‘reciprocal kin term’ in e.g. Read’s (2001:246) sense: ‘if ego (properly) refers to alter by the kin term *K* then the reciprocal kin term would be *L* that alter (properly) uses to refer to ego’.

¹³ Note that Dixon (2002a) does not discuss trisyllabic or longer words.

initial *l*, one an initial *n*, four an initial *r* and ten an initial *t*, at least half of which are loan words from English.¹⁴

All three vowels and the following consonants occur word finally: *l n rl rn ly ny rr* (Sharp & Thieberger 1992).

2.3 Stress placement rules

Stress in Ngarla is predictable. In Goedemans (1998), a survey of stress types in Australian languages is presented. Ngarla is described as belonging to a group of languages having ‘[i]nitial main stress, no information available on secondary stress/Initial stress with frequent stress on second, no regularities discovered’ (Goedemans 1998:242, 244). The conclusion drawn in Goedemans (1998) probably has a lack of relevant data as its cause. According to Geytenbeek (2006), the stress placement rules of Ngarla are as shown in Table 7. A few longer suffixes (*-kujarra* ‘exclusively’, ‘completely’, *-rukarra* ‘similar to’, *-pungkara* ‘associated with specific location’) however have their own main stress, which invariably falls on the second syllable (Geytenbeek 2006).¹⁵

Table 7 Ngarla stress placement in words of different length
(Geytenbeek 2006).

Number of syllables	Stress placement
One to three syllable words	Main stress on 1 st syllable, no secondary stress.
Four syllable words	Main stress on 1 st syllable, secondary stress on 3 rd syllable.
Five syllable words	Main stress on 1 st syllable, secondary stress on 4 th syllable.
Six syllable words	Main stress on 1 st syllable, secondary stress on 3 rd and 5 th syllables.

¹⁴ The five lexical entries with an initial *l* are *lamu* ‘lamb’ (from English); *lilyirr* ‘rattling noise’; *lilyirr~lilyirr* ‘rattling noise’; and *lirrjal* ‘greedy’; and *lungkurtu* ‘centralian blue-tongued skink’ (*tiliqua multifasciata*; a loan word from coastal Nyangumarta (Brown & Geytenbeek 2008)). The lexical entry with an initial *n* is *ningku* ‘straw-necked ibis’ (*threskiornis spinicollis*) ‘sacred ibis’ (*threskiornis aethiopica*), the four with an initial *r* *riji~riji* ‘cuttlefish shell’; *rimpirr* ‘eddy’; *ruku~ruku* ‘peacock sole’ (*pardachirus pavoninus*) and *rukuru~kuru* ‘type of coral’. Initial *t* is found in *tangki* ‘donkey’; *tangurungu* ‘teenage boy’; *tawn* ‘town’; *tayijan* ‘station’; *tayimu* ‘time’; *tingkiri* ‘stingray (generic)’; *tukurrampi* ‘heavy tapered hitting stick’, ‘club’; *turayin* ‘train’; *turntarn* ‘skink’; *turru~turru* ‘rainbow bee-eater’ (*merops ornatus*)).

¹⁵ This clearly distinguishes the suffix *-kujarra* ‘exclusively’, ‘completely’ from *kujarra* ‘two’, the latter of which takes main stress on the first syllable, in accordance with the rules given in Table 7.

3. *Nominals*

3.1 **Preamble: Word classes in Australian languages**

When defining word classes in languages around the world, semantic, morphological and syntactic criteria are usually considered (cf. Givón 2001a). In Australian languages, however, semantic and syntactic criteria often work poorly in helping to delimit word classes. Consequently, nominals (a class encompassing e.g. nouns, pronouns and demonstratives) are here primarily defined as lexemes that take case (and number) marking and verbs as lexemes taking tense, aspect, mood and person marking in main clauses.¹⁶ (Another characteristic of Ngarla nominals is that they frequently receive derivational, verbalising morphemes, thus becoming part of complex verbs, see section 4.3 below.) The members of the minor word classes particles and interjections do not inflect (Dixon 1980, 2002a).

3.2 **Introduction**

As indicated above, different types of lexemes taking case marking are in grammars of Australian Aboriginal languages frequently lumped together under the label ‘nominals’. According to Dixon (2002a), the types of lexemes that should be considered to belong to this category are proper nouns, common nouns, adjectives, time words, locational words, demonstratives and pronouns. However, based on differences in case marking potential the following nominal subclasses are distinguished for the Ngarla language: (i) common nouns and demonstratives, (ii) proper nouns, (iii) toponyms, (iv) pronouns, (v) adverbs of time and location (i.e. Dixon’s time words and locational words), (vi) numerals and (vii) epistemes (interrogatives/indefinites).

In subsection 3.3 below, some notes on the Ngarla case marking system and the glossing of core cases are offered. Typical case marking and other characteristics of the various subclasses are described in 3.4. In section 3.4.8, lexemes frequently functioning as adjectives are discussed. Ngarla being a highly synthetic language, there is a plethora of suffixes attaching predominantly to common nouns and demonstratives. Only the marking of the most central cases is introduced in 3.4 below.

3.3 **Core cases, marking and glossing**

Some general notes about the Ngarla case system are in order first. According to Goddard (1982), it has been standard practice in descriptions of grammar of Pama-

¹⁶ Note however that case marking also occurs on infinite verb forms in subordinate clauses (cf. chapter 8; Dench & Evans 1988; Dench 1999; Dixon 2002a).

Nyungan languages to describe the marking of core grammatical cases as presenting a split picture, with pronouns predominantly taking nominative-accusative case marking and other nominals ergative-absolutive marking. This type of analysis is provided for Ngarla e.g. in Westerlund (2007, 2009, 2011).

In this work, it is however recognised that marking of case must not be confused with the actual case system of a language. Many Pama-Nyungan languages have tripartite marking for at least one subclass of nominals. In Ngarla, this is true for the 1SG and 2SG pronouns (see section 3.4.4). In line with Goddard (1982), the case marking split is therefore here treated as a syncretism of forms across three cases, ergative, the case of the transitive subject (A); nominative, the case of the intransitive subject (S); and accusative, the case of the transitive object (P).¹⁷ Thus, Ngarla pronouns have homonymous ergative and nominative forms (1, 2SG excluded), other nominals having homonymous nominative and accusative forms (the so-called ‘absolutive’ form of the ergative-absolutive case marking pattern; see 3.4.1.2).

These syncretisms however give rise to practical problems for the glossing of inflected case forms. Instead of adopting Goddard’s (1982:171) convention of ‘enclosing inter-linear case value symbols in parentheses if a word being analysed is in a form which is not unique to that case value’, a number of simplifications are implemented, in line with Dench (1999). The case function of each individual form is thus not represented in the example sentences in this work. Rather, the unmarked forms of nominals that may appear in either intransitive subject or accusative object function are left without case labels. Similarly, pronouns in both transitive and intransitive subject function are consistently labelled ‘nominative’. (This is however not the case for the 1, 2SG pronouns; see 3.4.4) In most other instances, the labels given to both nominal suffixes and pronoun forms reflect the appropriate case functions.¹⁸

¹⁷ According to Goddard (1982), ‘nominative’ is in terminological tradition the case of the S.

¹⁸ As illustrated in 3.4.1.2, the ergative suffixes also function as markers of the instrumental case. They are nevertheless glossed –ERG in all contexts. The dative case is consistently glossed –DAT, despite also marking genitive. (This is true also for the dative suffixes on pronouns, with the exception of the SG pronouns, which have separate genitive forms, cf. section 3.4.4 below.) While notes on glossing and transcription occur in a number of sections in this volume, they have all been collected in Appendix A.

3.4 Nominal subclasses

3.4.1 Common nouns and demonstratives

3.4.1.1 Introduction

There are three Ngarla demonstratives that indicate position relative to the speaker: *nyayi* (proximate), *palakarni* (mid-distant) and *ngunyi* (distant).¹⁹ Common nouns (i.e. count and mass nouns) and demonstratives are assigned case and number marking following the same set of rules, and that is the reason for discussing them together in this section. Following Blake (2001), case is here divided into grammatical cases, which mark syntactic relations (3.4.1.2), and semantic cases, encoding such things as location and source (3.4.1.3). Number marking is introduced in 3.4.1.4.

3.4.1.2 Grammatical cases

Ngarla common nouns and demonstratives in subject function in transitive clauses obligatorily take ergative case marking. The ergative markers, and the rules by which they are distributed, are listed in Table 8 below.

Table 8 Ergative allomorphs in Ngarla (Westerlund 2009:117).

Ergative allomorph	Distribution
<i>-ngku</i>	with disyllabic stems ending with a vowel, the last syllable of which does not contain a homorganic nasal+stop cluster ²⁰
<i>-ku</i>	with disyllabic stems ending with a vowel, the last syllable of which contains a homorganic nasal+stop cluster
<i>-lu</i>	with stems of more than two syllables, ending with a vowel
<i>-tu</i>	with nominals that end with an apico-alveolar consonant
<i>-ju</i>	with nominals ending with a palatal consonant

The ergative suffixes also function as markers of the (semantic) instrumental case (but they are nevertheless in this work consistently glossed -ERG; Westerlund 2007, 2009).

Example sentences illustrating the use of the ergative allomorphs are given in (1) – (2). The ergative marked constituents are highlighted. In (1), *-ngku* marks the ergative and *-lu* the instrumental case.

¹⁹ Very occasionally, *palakarni* is abbreviated to *pala*. The form *palangka* (*pala*-LOC) is however employed on the discourse level, to refer back to something that has been mentioned previously, most frequently a toponym. *Palangka* is in this volume glossed simply as ‘there’.

²⁰ In Westerlund (2009), the distribution of the allomorphs *-ngku*, *-ku* and *-lu* was described in terms of number of mora. Since there is however no clear evidence that Ngarla is a mora counting language, the distribution is here described in terms of the number of syllables. Cf. section 2.1, with footnotes.

- (1) *Ngunyi-ngku* *yawarta-karta-lu* *warnta*
 DEM (distant)-ERG horse-COM-ERG tree
palarr ma-rri.
 secure CAUS-PRS
 ‘That one is pulling (a) tree with (a) horse.’ (TW10)
- (2) *Kunti+ma-rnu* *nganya* *yukun-tu.*
 choke[+CAUS]-PST 1SG.ACC smoke-ERG
 ‘(The) smoke choked me.’ (#)
- (3) *Wataku* *para* *partanyal-ku* *jilya-rra*
 unimportant 3SG.DAT one-DAT child-DAT
waa-n!
 give-FUT²¹
 ‘(It’s) unimportant, to the one child give (it)!’ (#)
- (4) *Palakarni-lu* *punga-rnu* *para* *karlajangu*
 DEM (mid)-ERG kill-PST 3SG.DAT cattle
jarntu Piyita-rra.
 friendly Piyita [Peter]-DAT
 ‘That one killed Piyita’s friendly (i.e. pet) cattle.’ (#)

3.4.1.3 Semantic cases

One Ngarla semantic case, the instrumental, was mentioned above. Six more will be introduced here: locative (marking ‘at’/‘on’/‘under’/‘near’ etc.), allative (‘to’), ablative (‘from’), source (‘coming/deriving from’) and the typical Australian comitative (‘having’) and privative (‘lacking’) cases. Locative codes the semantic role of location (Blake 2001). Note that the various locative and ergative allomorphs are identical except for the final vowel (locative allomorphs ending with *a*, ergative allomorphs with *u*; the obvious exception to this pattern being *-lu/-ngura*), see Table 9. The allomorphs of the two cases are also distributed following the same set of rules.

²¹ As shown in this example, the Ngarla Future tense inflection is also employed to create imperatives. In all contexts, the inflection is however glossed -FUT. See section 4.4.3.2.4 below. Note that the label for this category has been changed since the publication of Westerlund (2011).

Table 9 Ergative and locative allomorphs in Ngarla (Westerlund 2009:117).

Ergative allomorph	Locative allomorph	Distribution
<i>-ngku</i>	<i>-ngka</i>	with disyllabic stems ending with a vowel, the last syllable of which does not contain a homorganic nasal+stop cluster ²²
<i>-ku</i>	<i>-ka</i>	with disyllabic stems ending with a vowel, the last syllable of which contains a homorganic nasal+stop cluster
<i>-lu</i>	<i>-ngura</i>	with stems of more than two syllables, ending with a vowel ²³
<i>-tu</i>	<i>-ta</i>	with nominals that end with an apico-alveolar consonant
<i>-ju</i>	<i>-ja</i>	with nominals ending with a palatal consonant

The locative case is employed in Ngarla in ways that correspond to the use of a number of different prepositions in English. A couple of examples are given in (5) – (6).

- (5) *Nyini-yan-pi-ya* ***Kurlijangu-nya-ngura***
 stay-PRS-EP²⁴-3PL Kurlijangu-AREA-LOC
yinta-ka.
 permanent.water hole-LOC
 ‘They are staying by (the) Kurlijangu area permanent water hole.’
 (#)
- (6) *Mangkuru* *ngunyi* *nyini-yan*
 kangaroo DEM (distant) sit-PRS
wakurla-ngura.
 boulder-LOC
 ‘That kangaroo is sitting on (a) boulder.’ (AD)

²² In Westerlund (2009), the distribution of the allomorphs *-ngku/-ngku*, *-ku/-ka* and *-lu/-ngura* was described in terms of number of mora. However, since there is no clear evidence that Ngarla is a mora counting language, the distribution is here described in terms of the number of syllables. Cf. 2.1, with footnotes.

²³ Compare the conclusion reached here about the use of the *-ngura* locative allomorph with Dench (2001). In Dench, it is stated that this allomorph in Ngarla is employed on dimoraic stems.

²⁴ *-pi-* is an epenthetic element inserted between TAM suffixes ending on the nasal *n* and the person marker *-ya*, cf. section 4.4.5.

In Australian languages, locative can also be used on nominals denoting different parts of the day or the year, in the sense ‘time at’ (Dixon 2002a), like on *kunaran* ‘winter’ in example (7) below.

- (7) *Kunu ngayi-nyu*
 hibernation INCH-PST
maruntu
 Gould's goanna (1. *varanus gouldi*; 2. *varanus panoptes*)
kunaran-ta.
 winter-LOC
 ‘(The) goanna hibernated during (the) winter.’ (#)

Allative is in Ngarla marked by the suffix *-karni*, and ablative by *-nguru*, as illustrated in (8). While the ablative implies movement away from something (e.g. from a specific location), the case labelled here source marks the point of origin or source of something, see (9).²⁵ Source is marked by the suffix *-kapu*. For other examples of the use of this case, cf. also sentences (39), (338).

- (8) *Ngarta yaa-nu Kurru-nya-nguru*
 man go-PST Kurru [DeGrey]-AREA-ABL
Marapikurri-nya-karni.
 Marapikurri [Port Hedland]-AREA-ALL
 ‘(A) man went from (the) Kurru area to (the) Marapikurri area.’
 (ED)

- (9) ***Palakarni-kapu ngaja warnta-kapu***
 DEM (mid)-SCE 1SG.ERG tree-SCE
maa-rnta kurnkuwarra.
 get-REMPST honey
 ‘From that tree I got honey (long ago).’ (#)²⁶

In most Australian languages there is a case commonly labelled comitative or proprietive, that marks the presence of an object or state (i.e. ‘having’), and a corresponding ‘lacking’ case called privative/abessive (Blake 2001; Dixon 2002a). These cases are in Dench & Evans (1988) described as filling an adnominal function, i.e. to specify relations within noun phrases. In Ngarla, the cases, labelled here comitative and privative, are marked by *-karta* (10), and *-yanya* (11), respectively.

²⁵ The semantic role source is in Blake (2001:68) defined in the following way: ‘The point from which an entity moves or derives’.

²⁶ This example includes a discontinuous noun phrase. *Palakarni-kapu* (DEM (mid)-SCE) and *warnta-kapu* (tree-SCE) thus together constitute a noun phrase. *Ngaja* (1SG.ERG) intervenes between the noun phrase constituents. Cf. section 6.1.

- (10) *Ngunyi* *marrungu* *nyamu~nyamu-karta*
 DEM (distant) man moustache-COM
milpa-yan *nganyjarra-nga.*
 come-PRS 1PL.INCL-DAT
 ‘That man with (a) moustache is coming for us.’ (TW08)
- (11) *Jantu-yanya* *yanangka-yan* *pila-karni.*
 weapon-PRIV go-PRS fight-ALL
 ‘Without weapon (he) is going to (the/a) fight.’ (TW08)

3.4.1.4 Number marking

Dual and plural markers are suffixed to Ngarla common nouns and demonstratives. Dual is marked by *-jarra*, and plural by *-karrangu*, *-kurru*, *-marri*, *-marta*, and *-nyjarri*. Neither marker is however compulsory. The dual marker is usually employed (12) unless the duality is indicated through the presence of the numeral *kujarra* ‘two’ (13) or a pronoun (14). (However, the main function of pronouns included in noun phrases with non-pronominal NP heads is not to mark number; see section 6.2.)

- (12) *Palakarni-jarra* *ngarta* *yaa-n-pula* *wiyanu.*
 DEM (mid)-DU man go-FUT-3DU hunting
 ‘Those two men will go hunting.’ (TW08)
- (13) *Kujarra* *marrungu* *yipa-nmarri-yanu-pula.*
 two man growl.at-RECP-CPST-3DU
 ‘Two men kept growling at each other.’ (TW08)
- (14) *Nyayi-ngku* *kayi-nyu-pula* *wula*
 DEM (proximate)-ERG take-PST-3DU water
piyalu *yukurru-rra* *para.*
 3DU.NOM dog-DAT 3SG.DAT
 ‘These two took water for the dog.’ (TW08)

Plural marking however occurs only rarely. Of the five plural markers mentioned above, *-marta* appears to be most versatile, in that it occurs with all demonstratives (15) and also with some common nouns; (16) – (17). *-nyjarri* is used with a few, mostly animate, nominals (e.g. *ngarta* ‘man’, ‘human being’; *pakarli* ‘young initiate’; *mirtawari* ‘elderly woman’; *mirtanya* ‘elderly man’) and *-kurru* with a few inanimate ones (e.g. *wurrangkura* ‘River red gum tree’ (*eucalyptus camaldulensis*)). *-karrangu* is known to create the plural form of *jilya* ‘child’ only and *-marri* the plural form of *kunyjarta* ‘woman’.²⁷ As shown in (18), number, unlike grammatical case, does not

²⁷ There is also a suffix *-malingka* that marks plural on Ngarla kin terms, as in e.g. *Wayirru nyurra ngapari-malingka ngani+ma-nmarri-yan?* Q 2PL.NOM man’s.cross.cousin-PL see[+CAUS]-RECP-PRS ‘Do you (and your) cross cousins see each other?’ (TW08)

have to be marked with all constituents of a noun phrase.²⁸ (The relevant noun phrases are below highlighted for clarity.)

- (15) ***Palakarni-marta*** *waa-n* *nganu!*
 DEM (mid)-PL give-FUT 1SG.DAT
 ‘Those ones give me!’ (#)
- (16) ***Yukurru-marta*** *yanangka-yan-pi-ya.*
 dog-PL go-PRS-EP-3PL
 ‘(Several) dogs are going.’ (#)
- (17) ***Mungu-marta*** *yaa-nu-ya.*
 alone-PL go-PST-3PL
 ‘(Only) a few (people) went.’ (#)
- (18) ***Palakarni-jarra*** ***ngarta*** *yaa-n-pula* *wiyanu.*
 DEM (mid)-DU man go-FUT-3DU hunting
 ‘Those two men will go hunting.’ (TW08)

3.4.2 Proper nouns

Proper nouns in Ngarla do not usually take semantic cases or number markers, but they are assigned overt grammatical cases following the same rules as common nouns and demonstratives. The honorific marker *-marra* is used exclusively with proper nouns, and may be added before any case suffix. As illustrated in (19) - (20) below, it is a stem-forming suffix. Thus, the name *Turru* takes the ergative allomorph *-ngku* in (19),

²⁸ When it comes to the ordering of case and number suffixes, a distinction needs to be made between common nouns and demonstratives. On demonstratives, the dual *-jarra* and the plural *-marta* always follow case marking suffixes, which are attached directly to the stem, as in the following examples: *Nyayi-ngku-jarra karri-Ø-pula yukurru wiyanu.* DEM (proximate)-ERG-DU take-FUT-3DU dog hunting ‘These two will take (the) dog hunting.’ (TW08); *Minyji+ma-rnu-ya nyinu mantu nyayi-ngku-marta.* steal[+CAUS]-PST-3PL 2SG.DAT meat DEM (proximate)-ERG-PL ‘These ones stole your meat.’ (TW08) With common nouns, plural suffixes attach directly to the root/stem and thus precede case marking suffixes: *Jilya-karrangu-lu nganarna pilyparr karra+ma-yirnta jimpulyu* child-PL-ERG 1PL.EXCL.NOM unsuccessfully grab[+CAUS]-USI little grebe (*tachybaptus novaehollandiae*) ‘We children used to unsuccessfully grab grebe(s) (i.e. used to try to catch grebes).’ (#) The dual suffix and case marking suffixes are however distributed in the same way as with demonstratives (demonstrative-case-dual): *Jilya-ngku-jarra warnta yirriny+marri-pula.* child-ERG-DU log lift[+CAUS]-PRS-3DU ‘Two children are lifting (the/a) log.’ (#) Number and case marking suffixes in Ngarla do thus not occupy fixed slots relative to the nominal root/stem. This would seem to imply that *-marta*, the only plural marker to occur with both demonstratives and common nouns, should in fact be analysed as a clitic rather than as a suffix.

as expected of disyllabic stems. In (20), *Turrumarra* consists of more than two syllables, and is therefore instead marked by the *-lu* allomorph.²⁹

- (19) *Turru-ngku* *jipal pi-rrri* *palakarni*
 Turru-ERG increase CAUS-PRS DEM (mid)
pirrjarta.
 vehicle
 ‘Turru is making that vehicle increase (i.e. is starting up that vehicle).’ (TW10)
- (20) *Pana-nya* *wangka* *wanyja-yinyu*
 3PL-ACC speech put-CPST
mirli~mirli-ngura ***Turru-marra-lu.***
 paper-LOC Turru-RESP-ERG
 ‘The speech (the) honourable Turru put on paper.’ (TW08)

3.4.3 Toponyms

Toponyms are singled out since a group of nominal suffixes attach exclusively or predominantly to them. Two further semantic cases, one denoting ‘in the area of’ (*-nya*), the other ‘exactly (at)’ (*-malu*), belong to this group (21). The latter case however occasionally also attaches to other types of nominals, as in (22). The suffix *-jirri*, which creates the sense ‘dweller/resident of’ occurs exclusively with toponyms (23), and in questions about toponyms (24).

- (21) *Nyini-yanta* *nganarna*
 stay-USI 1PL.EXCL.NOM
Kurru-malu. *Palangka-nguru* *ngaya*
 Kurru-EX there-ABL 1SG.NOM
yaa-nu ***Marapikurri-nya-karni.***
 go-PST Marapikurri-AREA-ALL
 ‘We were staying right at Kurru. From there I went to (the) Marapikurri area.’ (TW08)
- (22) ***Marany-malu*** *yurta* *nganarna*
 river-EX fish 1PL.EXCL.NOM
pana-nya *maa-rnu.*
 3PL-ACC get-PST
 ‘Right at (the) river we got the fish.’ (#)

²⁹ The dative suffix in its genitive function on a proper noun was illustrated in sentence (4) above.

- (23) ***Mukurri-jirri*** *ngaya.*
 Mukurri-DWELLER 1SG.NOM
 ‘(A) Mukurri dweller I (am).’ (#)
- (24) ***Wanyjakalu-jirri*** *palakarni* *marrungu*
 EPI (where)-DWELLER DEM (mid) man
nyanta marri-yan?
 here INCH-PRS
 ‘Where (does) that man (that) is coming here dwell?’ (TW08)

3.4.4 Pronouns

As mentioned above, pronouns are included in the nominal class of Australian languages primarily based on the fact that they inflect for case. However, not distinguishing pronouns as a separate word class is also warranted by the fact that the division between pronoun and other nominals is not absolute in Ngarla. Pronouns do not only occur instead of other types of nominals but also together with them, as in e.g. (25). Here, *jilya-karrangu-lu* (child-PL-ERG) and *nganarna* (1PL.EXCL.NOM) together constitute a noun phrase. (See more about noun phrases in chapter 6.)

- (25) ***Jilya-karrangu-lu*** ***nganarna***
 child-PL-ERG 1PL.EXCL.NOM
pilyparr *karra+ma-yirnta*
 unsuccessfully grab[+CAUS]-USI
jimpulyu
 little grebe (*tachybaptus novaehollandiae*)
 ‘We children used to unsuccessfully grab grebe(s) (i.e. used to try to catch grebes).’ (#)

Ngarla pronouns distinguish three persons (first, second and third) and three numbers (singular, dual and plural), as shown in Table 10. For first person non-singular pronouns, an inclusive/exclusive distinction is also made.

Table 10 Ngarla pronouns and their case inflections (Dench 1994; Westerlund 2007, 2009)

Person	ERG	NOM	ACC	DAT	GEN	LOC
1SG	<i>ngaja</i>	<i>ngaya</i>	<i>nganya</i>	<i>nganu</i>	<i>nganu-nga</i>	<i>ngajapa</i>
1DU.INCL		<i>ngali</i>	<i>ngali-nya</i>	<i>ngali-nga</i>	<i>ngali-nga</i>	<i>ngali-la</i>
1DU.EXCL		<i>ngaliya</i>	<i>ngaliya-nya</i>	<i>ngaliya-nga</i>	<i>ngaliya-nga</i>	<i>ngaliya-la</i>
1PL.INCL		<i>nganyjarra</i>	<i>nganyjarra-nya</i>	<i>nganyjarra-nga</i>	<i>nganyjarra-nga</i>	<i>nganyjarra-la</i>
1PL.EXCL		<i>nganarna</i>	<i>nganarna-nya</i>	<i>nganarna-nga</i>	<i>nganarna-nga</i>	<i>nganarna-la</i>
2SG	<i>nyinta</i>	<i>nyinpa</i>	<i>nyina</i>	<i>nyinu</i>	<i>nyinu-nga</i>	<i>nyintapa</i>
2DU		<i>nyumpalu</i>	<i>nyumpala-nya</i>	<i>nyumpala-nga</i>	<i>nyumpala-nga</i>	<i>nyumpala-la</i>
2PL		<i>nyurra</i>	<i>nyurra-nya</i>	<i>nyurra-nga</i>	<i>nyurra-nga</i>	<i>nyurra-la</i>
3SG		<i>palura</i>	<i>parnu-nya</i>	<i>para</i>	<i>parnu-nga</i>	<i>palu</i>
3DU		<i>piyalu</i>	<i>piya-nya</i>	<i>piya-nga</i>	<i>piya-nga</i>	<i>piyala-la</i>
3PL		<i>panalu</i>	<i>pana-nya</i>	<i>pana-nga</i>	<i>pana-nga</i>	<i>panala-la</i>

All the known Ngarla pronominal case forms are included in Table 10. Something that is obvious is that there are different pronominal forms in intransitive and transitive subject function (i.e. nominative and ergative forms) for 1SG and 2SG only (cf. (26) – (27), which illustrate this for 1SG). Remaining pronouns have the same form (the nominative) in both functions, as illustrated for *palura* (3SG) in (28) – (29).

- (26) *Parni-yan* ***ngaya***.
 stay-PRS 1SG.NOM
 ‘Staying I am.’ (#)
- (27) ***Ngaja*** *karl~karl ja-rri* *wula*.
 1SG.ERG gargle CAUS-PRS water
 ‘I am gargling water.’ (TW10)
- (28) ***Palura*** *wangka karri-yanu* *juntu*.
 3SG.NOM speech INCH-CPST straight
 ‘He spoke straight (i.e. rightly).’ (#)
- (29) *Kankara* *wanyja-rnu* ***palura***.
 high.up leave-PST 3SG.NOM
 ‘High up he left (it).’ (#)

Only the singular pronouns have separate dative and genitive forms. This is illustrated for 1SG in (30) below, where *nganu* is the dative and *nganunga* the genitive form.³⁰ The combined dative/genitive of remaining pronouns is in this work consistently glossed -DAT.

- (30) *Warrukarti* *ngaja* *kapukarri ma-rnu*
 night 1SG.ERG dream CAUS-PST
nganu-nga *malya* *warniya*
 1SG-GEN father mother
milpa-nyu-pula ***nganu***
 come-PST-3DU 1SG.DAT
 ‘(In the) night I dreamt (that) my father (and) mother came for (i.e. to) me.’ (TW10)

Irregularly inflected pronouns are found in the singular paradigm only. Since pronouns occur very frequently in the example sentences in this work, such pronominal case forms are not exemplified here.

More common than irregular inflections are alternating stems. *Nyumpalu* (2DU.NOM) thus becomes *nyumpala-* when being inflected for case. *Piyalu* (3DU.NOM) and *panalu* (3PL.NOM), similarly become *piyala-* and *panala-* when

³⁰ The forms *nganu/nyinu* are most frequently employed in the dative function, but there are also examples of them being used to mark genitive; see e.g. (97).

taking locative marking. With remaining cases, these stems are however shortened to *piya-* and *pana-*. In the singular paradigm, the 3SG *palura* becomes *parnu-* with accusative and genitive case.

It should be noted that what is here described as the 3SG pronoun is in fact only rarely employed as a pronoun (for information about a major function of this lexical unit, see section 6.2 below). Instead, demonstratives are used to establish third person singular reference in subject and direct object function. Although a lack of linguistic context is a problem in much of the elicited Ngarla material, there is some evidence to suggest that *palura* (and its different case forms) is used as a pronoun only when the identity of the referent has already been established. In (31), reference is thus first established through the proper noun *Nyapiri*. *-yingkal* is an associative nominal suffix.

- (31) *Nyapiri ngaja wangka nya-rnu, palura*
 Nyapiri 1SG.ERG speech CAUS-PST 3SG.NOM
ngurru-yingkal.
 happiness-ASSOC
 ‘I spoke to Nyapiri, he (was) happy.’ (TW08)

One pronoun not introduced above is the invariant reflexive *pulala*, which is employed in all contexts that express that someone is doing something to or with himself/herself; (32).

- (32) *Ngunyi-ngku ngarta-nyjarri-lu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG human.being-PL-ERG
pirri-rri-ya pulala, warlu-ngku
 scratch-PRS-3PL REFL processional.caterpillar-ERG
pana-nya paji-rri.
 3PL-ACC bite-PRS
 ‘Those people are scratching themselves, processional
 caterpillar(s) are biting them.’ (#)

3.4.5 Adverbs of time and location

According to Dixon (2002a), there are in most Australian languages small closed classes of locational words and time words which serve a deictic function, in that they refer to points in time or locations relative to the speech situation. These lexemes take only a subset of nominal case markers, predominantly the allative and ablative cases (cf. Dixon 1980; Saaed 2003).

Corresponding lexemes in Ngarla are analysed here as adverbs of time and location. They almost exclusively take allative, ablative and source case marking, as illustrated in sentences (35), (37), (39) below.³¹ Verbs are not compulsory in Ngarla statements (cf. examples (38) – (39), but these adverbs nevertheless modify the predicate, i.e. the verb,

³¹ Occasional examples with the dative case have also been found.

or if a verb is absent, the nominal predicate (Dixon 2004; cf. Schachter & Shopen 2007 and section 7.3 below).³²

- (33) *Parta-ngku* *marrungu-lu*
 other-ERG man-ERG
yipa-yirnta *parta* *marrungu* ***murlurnu***
 growl.at-USI other man long.ago
 ‘Another (i.e. one) man used to growl at another man long ago.’
 (TW10)

- (34) *Yaa-nu-ya* ***nyangkala*** *yurta-karni*.
 go-PST-3PL now fish-ALL
 ‘They went (just) now to (the) fish (i.e. to go fishing).’ (TW08)

- (35) *Marrungu-lu*
 man-ERG
maruntu
 Gould’s goanna (1. *varanus gouldi*, 2. *varanus panoptes*)
jina ma-rri *parta-ngka* *pirri-ngka-kapu*,
 foot CAUS-PRS other-LOC afternoon-LOC-SCE
parta *ngani+ma-rnu* *jina*
 other see[+CAUS]-PST foot (print)
nyangkala-kapu *yijangu*.
 today-SCE new
 ‘(The) man is following (a) goanna another (i.e. yesterday) afternoon, (and then he) saw another new footprint (i.e. track) from today.’³³ [Presumably this means that the man was following a goanna track made yesterday, when discovering a track made today.] (#)

- (36) ***Warrumurntu*** *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø *karlajangu* *parta-karni*
 take-FUT cattle other-ALL
ngurra-karni.
 camp-ALL
 ‘(The) next day we will take the cattle to another camp.’

³² In (38), the nominal predicate consists of *palu Dirranbandi-ngura* 3SG.LOC Dirranbandi-LOC and in (39) of *malyi-malyi jurtapirri* cold wind.

³³ Another possible translation of this sentence is ‘the man is following (a) goanna (track from) another (i.e. yesterday) afternoon, (and) saw another new footprint (i.e. track) from today.’

- (37) *Ngarntaku-karni* *warni ji-n* *palakarni*
 other.side-ALL fall CAUS-FUT DEM (mid)
mankura!
 stone
 ‘Make that stone fall (i.e. throw that stone) to (the) other side!’ (#)
- (38) *Nyayi* *tayijan* *panta* *palu*
 DEM (proximate) station close 3SG.LOC
Dirranbandi-ngura.
 Dirranbandi-LOC
 ‘This station (is) close to the Dirranbandi.’ (#)
- (39) *Wurruru-kapu-lu* *nganyjarra-nga* *malyi~malyi*
 south-SCE-ERG 1PL.INCL-DAT cold
*jurtapirri.*³⁴
 wind
 ‘From (the) south (a) cold wind (is blowing) for us.’ (TW10)

One characteristic of this subset of Ngarla nominals is that they do not take locative marking, since they are inherently locative (locating the event discussed at a particular time or place; cf. Dixon 2002a.). The Ngarla lexemes of the subset known at the time of writing are listed below, and some are also exemplified in (33) – (39).

Table 11 Adverbs of time.

Adverbs of time	Meaning (+ example sentence)
<i>murlurnu</i>	‘previously’, ‘long ago’ (33)
<i>nyangkala</i>	‘today’, ‘now’, ‘these days’ (34) – (35)
<i>warrukarti</i>	‘night’
<i>warrumurntu</i>	‘morning’, ‘tomorrow’, ‘next day’ (36) ³⁵
<i>yarti</i>	‘later’

³⁴ *Jurtapirri* is employed both for an eastern (hot) wind blowing in the summertime and for a southern (cold) wind blowing in the wintertime.

³⁵ There is one example of *warrumurntu* taking locative marking: *Palakarni mantu ngaja karri-Ø pala-ngka warrumurntu-ngura*. DEM (mid) meat 1SG.ERG take-FUT DEM (mid)-LOC morning-LOC ‘That meat I will take on that morning (i.e. tomorrow morning).’ (TW08) Sentences where *warrumurntu* is unmarked for locative, but occurs together with a locative marked constituent, are however more numerous. For this reason, it is here considered likely that the aberrant sentence represents a slip of mind on the part of the language consultant Brown.

Table 12 Adverbs of location.

Adverb	Meaning (+ example sentence)
<i>jajukarra</i>	‘distant’
<i>kanarni</i>	‘inside’, ‘underneath’
<i>kanimparra</i>	‘downwards’, ‘north’
<i>kankara</i>	‘high up’
<i>kankarni</i>	‘on top (of)’
<i>ngalangka</i>	‘hereabouts’ ³⁶
<i>ngarntaku</i>	‘other side’ (37)
<i>nyangu/nyanta</i>	‘here’
<i>panta</i>	‘close’, ‘near’ (38)
<i>wulyulu</i>	‘west’ ³⁷
<i>wurruru</i>	‘south’ (39)
<i>yapurru</i>	‘north’
<i>yarrka</i>	‘in the distance’
<i>yiju</i>	‘east’

3.4.6 Numerals

In languages in general, numerals are frequently analysed as nominal adjuncts or modifiers (Payne 1997; Schachter & Shopen 2007). According to Dixon (2002a), most Australian languages lack a separate numeral word class. The number of numerals found is usually very restricted. In Ngarla, the numeral subset would appear only to consist of *partanyal* ‘one’; *kujarra* ‘two’; *purrku* ‘three’; and *kulyu* ‘many’ (cf. also *kurrngal* ‘many’ below). These lexemes occur with both semantic (40) and grammatical (41) case marking.

- (40) *Kujarra ngunyi-ngka ngarta yini-karta*
 two DEM (distant)-LOC man name-COM
partanyal-karta.
 one-COM
 ‘Two men over there have one (i.e. the same) name.’ (#)

³⁶ *Ngalangka* would appear to consist of a root *ngala* plus the locative *-ngka*. Synchronically, however, *ngala* is only known in the sense ‘different’, which appears completely unrelated to the meaning of *ngalangka*. *Ngalangka* is used to denote a more general area than *nyayi-ngka* (DEM (proximate)-LOC); cf. subsection 3.4.1.

³⁷ *Wulyulu* only exists as a lexical entry in Brown & Geytenbeek (2006). There are no examples of its use. It is nevertheless very likely that it should be included here, together with remaining compass points.

- (41) *Kujarra-lu* *pirirri-lu* *karra+ma-rnu-pula*
 two-ERG man-ERG grab[+CAUS]-PST-3DU
mangkuru.
 kangaroo
 ‘Two men grabbed (i.e. caught) (a) kangaroo.’ (TW08)

One characteristic of the numerals is that they are the only nominals that take the *-mal/mil* suffix, which encodes the idea of frequency, as in (42) – (43). My language consultant used the allomorph *-mal* with *partanyal* ‘one’ and *-mil* with *kulyu* ‘many’. With *kujarra* ‘two’ and *purrku* ‘three’ he alternated between the two forms. Logically, *kurrngal* ‘many’ (implying a larger number than *kulyu*) should belong to this category (44). There are however no instances in the Ngarla database of this nominal taking the frequentive suffix.

- (42) *Ngani+ma-rnu* *ngaja* *partanyal-mal.*
 see[+CAUS]-PST 1SG.ERG one-FREQ
 ‘I saw (him) once.’ (TW08)

- (43) Person 1 *Jakakurrpu* *nganu*
 species.of.grass (with edible grains) 1SG.DAT
 waa-n!
 give-FUT
 Person 2 *Nyayi* *partanyal* *mara*
 DEM (proximate) one hand
 winya.
 full
 Person 1 *Mirta!* *Waa-n* *nganu* *kulyu-mil!*
 NEG give-FUT 1SG.DAT many-FREQ
 Person 1: ‘Give me grass(-seeds)!’ Person 2: ‘Here (is) one handful.’
 Person 1: ‘No! Give me many times (more)!’

- (44) *Palakarni* *mangarrjarra* *kartu*
 DEM (mid) aeroplane big
murri, marrungu *pana-nya* *kurrngal*
 INTNS man 3PL-ACC many
murri karri-rri.
 INTNS carry-PRS
 ‘That aeroplane (is) very big, (and it) is carrying lots of people.’
 (TW08)

3.4.7 Epistemes

A common feature of Australian languages is for the same set of lexemes to be employed both as interrogatives in content questions, and as indefinites in statements of

lack of knowledge. This seems to be the case also in Ngarla, and following Mushin (1995), the lexemes in question are here together labelled epistemes (from the Greek word for ‘knowledge’; Mushin 1995).³⁸ Following Durie (1985:151), epistemes (in Durie labelled ‘epistemological classifiers’) are defined as follows: ‘These are morphemes used in contexts where knowledge is at issue: the knowledge of something’s identity, existence or attribute.’ In Ngarla, epistemes usually occur statement initially in content questions (see examples (45) – (50) below).³⁹

Although no diachronic analysis has been done, it would seem that most Ngarla epistemes consist of the roots *ngana* or *wanyja*, with the addition of different nominal suffixes (see Table 13 and Mushin 1995). *Wanyja* means ‘which one’. *Ngana* does not have a synchronic meaning in the language, but it means ‘who’ in other languages in the same part of Australia, e.g. Martuthunira and Warnman (Dench 1995; Wangka Maya 2010). Only the interrogative senses of the epistemes are given below, the reason being that they predominantly occur as interrogatives in the Ngarla material.

Table 13 Ngarla epistemes.

Episteme	Interrogative meaning
<i>nganakapu</i>	‘who’ (polite)
<i>ngananya</i>	‘what’
<i>ngananyakapu</i>	‘why’
<i>ngananyakarra</i>	‘when’
<i>ngananyawanti</i>	‘what for’
<i>wanyja</i>	‘which one’
<i>wanyjakalu</i>	‘where’ (used when requesting specific location of someone/something)
<i>wanyjakarni</i>	‘to where’ (directional)
<i>ngantu</i>	‘who’ (less polite)
<i>ngarrala</i>	‘how many’

In the existing Ngarla material, *nganakapu* ‘who’, *ngananya* ‘what’ and *ngananyakapu* ‘why’ all take overt grammatical case marking. In questions about a transitive subject, they thus take the ergative *-lu* allomorph; examples (45) – (46). In inquiries about an intransitive subject (47) or a transitive object (48) they are unmarked for case. As illustrated in (49), dative marking (*-rra*) occurs in questions about an indirect object. Note that the episteme *ngantu* ‘who’ (50) in the Ngarla database is used exclusively in questions about transitive subjects.

- (45) *Nganakapu-lu* *punga-rnu* *yukurru?*
 EPI (who)-ERG hit-PST dog
 ‘Who hit (the) dog?’ (AD)

³⁸ In Mushin (1995), these are analysed as constituting a separate word class.

³⁹ Concerning Ngarla polar (‘yes/no’) questions, see section 5.2 below.

- (46) *Ngananya-lu* *nyinu* *palakarni* *jauja*
 EPI (what)-ERG 2SG.DAT DEM (mid) trousers
kangkarr pi-rnu?
 tear CAUS-PST
 ‘What tore those trousers of yours?’ (TW08)
- (47) *Ngananya* *ngunyi*
 EPI (what) DEM (distant)
payiny ngarri-yan?
 bang INCH-PRS
 ‘What (is) that (that) is banging?’ (TW10)
- (48) *Nganakapu* *paji-rnu* *yukurru-lu?*
 EPI (who) bite-PST dog-ERG
 ‘Who did (the) dog bite?’ (AD)
- (49) *Ngananya-rra* *nyinpa* *jurni karri-yan?*
 EPI (what)-DAT 2SG.NOM laughter INCH-PRS
 ‘What are you laughing at?’ (#)
- (50) *Ngantu* *nganu* *kayi-nyu* *mantu?*
 EPI (who) 1SG.DAT take-PST meat
 ‘Who took my meat?’

Sentences (51) – (52) exemplify the epistemes *nganakapu* and *ngananya* in indirect questions. Example (53), which shows *wanyjakarni* in its indefinite use, is the only clear example in the Ngarla database of an episteme being used in the indefinite sense.

- (51) *Yula+rrri-Ø* *yini* *ngajapa*
 say[+INCH]-FUT name 1SG.LOC
nganakapu *murri* *nyinpa.*
 EPI (who) INTNS 2SG.NOM
 ‘Say (your) name on (i.e. to) me (and) who (it is) you (are).’ (#)
- (52) *Ngananya* *yila* *ngaja* *paji-rnu*
 EPI (what) perhaps 1SG.ERG eat-PST
ngurntily~ngurntily *jipa-rnu* *nganya.*
 cough steer-PST 1SG.ACC
 ‘What(ever) I perhaps ate (i.e. whatever I might have eaten) steered me (into a) cough (i.e. made me cough).’ (TW10)

- (53) *Karrkarra-nguru* *ngarta*
 Karrkarra [Perth]-ABL man
Kurru-jirri *milpa-nyu*
 Kurru-DWELLER come-PST
Marapikurri-nya-karni.
 Marapikurri-AREA-ALL
Palangka-nguru **wanyjakarni** *yila*
 there-ABL EPI (to wherever) perhaps
yaa-n.
 go-FUT
 ‘From Karrkarra (a) Kurru-dwelling man came to (the) Marapikurri
 area. From there (he) will perhaps go to wherever (i.e. elsewhere).’
 (ED)

As mentioned above, Ngarla nominals frequently take verbalising derivational morphology, making them part of complex verbs (cf. chapter 4). *Ngananya* is the only episteme in the database to become part of a verb in this way, as shown in (54). The complex verb *ngananya ja-L* has the interrogative sense ‘do what’. This sense is also expressed through what appears to be another complex verb, *wanyjarna+ja-Ø* (55). The form **wanyjarna*, most likely based on the root *wanyja*, however only occurs in this verb, and never on its own.

- (54) *Ngananya ja-rri* *ngunyi-ngku*
 EPI (what) CAUS-PRS DEM (distant)-ERG
warnta *pana-nya?*
 wood 3PL-ACC
 ‘What is that one doing with the wood?’ (#)
- (55) *Ngunyi* *kalyu-rni-n*
 DEM (distant) shout-CAUS-FUT
wayi ma-n **wanyjarna+ja-rnu** *yukurru.*
 Q CAUS-FUT *wanyjarna*[+CAUS]-PST dog
 ‘To that one call out (and) ask what (he) did do (i.e. has done) with
 (the) dog.’ (TW08)

3.4.8 Adjectives in Ngarla?

Ngarla does not appear to have a separate adjectival word class. While a subset of nominals function as adjectives in relevant contexts (56), the same lexemes can also constitute noun phrase heads in their own right (57). In languages in general, the adjective class, which is usually much smaller than the class of nouns, semantically expresses the most durable physical properties of prototypical nouns: size, shape, color, consistency, texture, weight, smell and taste. Syntactically, adjectives tend to occur as modifiers in the noun phrase (like *fat* in *the fat man*) or as complements in copula

clauses (e.g. *George is fat*; see section 7.3.1.1; Dixon 2004; Givón 2001a). In the Ngarla database, different lexemes functioning as adjectives however occur to very different extents. As a consequence, the analysis in this section is primarily based on the lexemes *kartu* ‘big’ and *kamparra* ‘small’, both of which occur in multiple examples. Note in (56) that the lexemes take the same grammatical case marker(s) as the head nominal, when functioning as adjectives. As just mentioned, the fact that these lexemes apparently can constitute noun phrase heads in their own right complicates the picture. In (57), *kartu* and *kamparra* thus mean ‘(the) big one’ and ‘(the) small one’, respectively.

- (56) *Yukurru-lu* *kartu-ngku* *munti-rnu*
 dog-ERG big-ERG remove-PST
kunyjaru-ngura *kamparra* *yukurru.*
 bone-LOC small dog
 ‘(The) big dog removed (the) small dog from (the) bone.’ (#)
- (57) *Nyayi-ngku* *kartu-ngku*
 DEM (proximate)-ERG big-ERG
punga-yinyu *kamparra* *pakurta-pali.*
 hit-CPST small bad-INTNS
 ‘This big one was beating up (the) small one really badly.’ (TW10)

In languages where prototypical adjectives do exist, they are frequently compared, the adjectives in such contexts taking comparative and superlative marking (e.g. *fat*, *fatt-er*, *fatt-est*; Dixon 2004; Givón 2001a). In Ngarla, comparative and superlative senses of the lexemes relevant to this discussion are created utilising the intensifier *murri*. Compare (58), where *murri* does not occur, to (59), where the sense ‘bigger’ is expressed. In (60), the sense ‘tallest’ is created by enumeration of the entities being compared (in this case three children, *murrkangunya* ‘firstborn’, *kartapalkuranya* ‘middle child’ and *nyirtingunya* ‘youngest child’), and by singling out the tallest one (lit. the taller one). Sentence (60) thus shows that no special morphology is used in Ngarla to create the superlative sense.

- (58) *Nyinpa* *mara* *kamparra.* *Ngaya*
 2SG.NOM hand small 1SG.NOM
mara *kartu.*
 hand big
 ‘Your hand (is) small. My hand (is) big.’ (TW08)
- (59) *Nyinpa* *mara* *kamparra.* *Ngaya*
 2SG.NOM hand small 1SG.NOM
mara *kartu* *murri.*
 hand big INTNS
 ‘Your hand (is) small. My hand (is) bigger.’ (TW08)

- (60) *Palakarni* *panalu* *jilya-karrangu*,
 DEM (mid) 3PL.NOM child-PL
murrkangunya, *kartapalkuranya*,
 firstborn middle.child
nyirtingunya, *kartapalkuranya* *piyala-la*
 youngest.child middle.child 3DU-LOC
makanu murri
 tall INTNS
 ‘(Of) those children, (the) firstborn, (the) middle child (and the)
 youngest child, (the) middle child (is) taller on (i.e. than) the two.’
 (TW08)

However, important to point out is the fact that *murri* is not associated exclusively with the nominals that in appropriate contexts function as modifiers. As illustrated below, *murri* also intensifies other types of nominals, such as demonstratives (61), verbs (62) and whole clauses (63). (*Murri* is a particle, cf. section 5.2 below.)

- (61) *Nyayi-rra-marta* ***murri*** *pana-nga*.
 DEM (proximate)-DAT-PL INTNS 3PL-DAT
 ‘(It’s) only this group’s (i.e. only this group owns (it)).’ (TW08)
- (62) ***Karri-Ø*** ***murri*** *palakarni!*
 take-FUT INTNS DEM (mid)
 ‘(You) have to take that!’ (TW08)
- (63) *Nyayi-ngka* *nyinpa* *nyini-Ø*
 DEM (proximate)-LOC 2SG.NOM stay-FUT
mampul murri mirta nyini-kura
 truly INTNS NEG stay-PURP
nyayi-ngka
 DEM (proximate)-LOC
 ‘Here you will stay, (but you) truly (i.e. really) shouldn’t stay here.’
 (TW08)

The main dividing line between nominals that are frequently employed in the modifying function and other nominals is the fact that the former are employed in the modifying function much more frequently than they occur as noun phrase heads.⁴⁰ Situations similar or identical to the one in Ngarla are found in a great number of Australian languages (Dench 1995).

⁴⁰ In 29 sentences including *kartu* ‘big’, the nominal is employed as a modifier in 13. In 5, it instead constitutes the noun phrase head. In 26 sentences with *kamparra* ‘small’, it has a modifying function in 15, while being the head in 6.

4. *Finite verbs*

4.1 Introduction

In line with Bisang (2007), verbal finiteness is here understood as a discrete binary phenomenon, the finite verb occurring in main clauses and the infinite verb in subordinate clauses. In this chapter, Ngarla finite verbs are described. Infinite verbs will be introduced in chapter 8 below.

From a semantic perspective, verbs in general tend to constitute the part of speech that describes rapid changes, transitory states and other experiences of short duration (Givón 2001a; Payne 1997). However, as indicated above, the word class is defined here primarily as consisting of lexemes taking tense, aspect, mood and person marking in main clauses (Dixon 2002a). In section 4.2, Ngarla verbal conjugations and simple verb roots are introduced. The focus of section 4.3 is complex verbs, i.e. verbs consisting of non-verbal roots (most commonly nominals) and derivational, verbalising, morphemes. Main clause tense, aspect and mood (TAM) distinctions are discussed in 4.4, as well as TAM distinctions made with the two irregular verbs *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ and *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’. Also discussed in the section is main clause verbal person marking. In 4.5, valency changing derivations are in focus.

4.2 Ngarla conjugations and verb roots

In Dixon (1977), the verbs of the Yidin language are described as consisting of a stem (+ conjugation marker) + inflection. Verbs of most Pama-Nyungan languages have since been described by this formula. The great majority of languages of the family are considered to have between two and six conjugational classes, but according to Dixon (1980), a total of seven or eight such classes need to be distinguished, classes going back to verbal roots that in some proto-language supposedly ended in the consonant sounds *n*, *m*, *ng*, *nj*, *l*, *rr*, *y*, or in a vowel. In this type of description, conjugations are labelled for their respective conjugational markers (Dixon 1980).

Of the conjugations found in any given Pama-Nyungan language, two tend to be open, with a large membership, the remaining being closed, with limited membership. In languages that have two open conjugations, a correlation between conjugation and transitivity is common. While languages with an absolute correlation do exist, it is more common to find that between 60 and 90 per cent of the members of a conjugation share a particular transitivity value (Dixon 1980, 2002a).

Ngarla has two verbal conjugations, labelled here the L and Ø conjugation, respectively. Finite verbs of the two conjugations largely take different sets of TAM suffixes (see section 4.4 below), there being little evidence of so-called conjugation markers. The conjugations are instead labelled for the consistent differences found in certain nominalising and infinite verbal suffixes. One set (the L conjugation infinite suffixes) has an initial *-l* element, an element which is missing in the other set (the Ø

conjugation suffixes).⁴¹ This is illustrated in sentences (64) - (65) below, which show instrumental nominalisation (marked by *-(l)punyjarri*). Example (64) includes the L conjugation *-lpunyjarri*, and *pirri-lpunyjarri* together with *warnta* means ‘digging stick’. Sentence (65) illustrates the use of the Ø conjugation *-punyjarri*. It occurs in *jarrari-punyjarri*, which literally means ‘something to light with’.

- (64) *Kunyjarta-lu* *mara ku-rnu* *parnu-nga*
 woman-ERG hand CAUS-PST 3SG-GEN
warnta ***pirri-lpunyjarri***, *kurni-rnu* *kunyjarta*
 stick dig-INSNOM throw-PST woman
kurri
 teenage.girl
 ‘(The) woman caused her digging stick to be in (the) hand (i.e. picked up her digging stick), (and) threw (it) at (the) girl’. (#)
- (65) ***Jarrari-punyjarri*** *waa-n* *ngajapa* *pinurru*
 light-INSNOM give-FUT 1SG.LOC fire
ngaya *nyali ja-lu*.
 1SG.NOM light CAUS-PURP
 ‘(A) match (lit. something to light with) give on (i.e. to) me, (a) fire I intend to light.’ (#)

A total of 65 synchronically simple, non-analysable Ngarla verb roots are attested in the database, see Table 14.⁴² Most verbs of the language are instead complex verbs, consisting of non-verbal roots (most commonly nominals) and derivational, verbalising, morphemes. Complex verbs are discussed in section 4.3 below. 50 of the 65 simple, non-analysable roots belong to the L conjugation and 15 to the Ø conjugation.

⁴¹ This labelling is also in line with the labeling of the two big conjugations in other Ngayarta languages (e.g. Nyamal, Panyjima, Martuthunira; Dench 1991, 1995, 1999).

⁴² The table constitutes an updated version of the Ngarla verb root table in Westerlund (2011). In this version, a few more unanalysable verb roots have been included. The verbs *kuni-L* ‘throw’ and *yiipa-L* ‘rebuke’, found in the Ngarla database, have however been excluded since they most likely constitute the same verbs as the included *kurni-L* ‘throw’ and *yipa-L* ‘quarrel’. The decision which of these forms to include and which to exclude was based on the number of corpus tokens of each form. (There are two occurrences of the verb *kurni-L*, but none of *kuni-L*. The latter only exists as a lexical entry in the database. There are three examples of *yiipa-L*, and 10 of *yipa-L*.)

Table 14 Ngarla verb roots by conjugation.

L Conjugation	Ø Conjugation
<i>jaa-</i> ‘chop’; <i>japa-</i> ‘bury’, ‘cover’	<i>jalpi-</i> ‘converse’
<i>jinga-</i> ‘hit fast’; <i>jinka-</i> ‘trim’, ‘whittle’	<i>jarrpi-</i> ‘enter’
<i>jipa-</i> ‘steer’; <i>jumpa-</i> ‘mistrust’	<i>jurtinti-</i> ‘recede’
<i>jurnti-</i> ‘scoop’; <i>jurrka-</i> ‘rub’	<i>kulpa-</i> ‘break’
<i>kaju-</i> ‘tie’; <i>kama-</i> ‘cook’, ‘burn’	<i>marni-</i> ‘climb’
<i>kanyi-</i> ‘be responsible for’, ‘care for’	<i>milpa-</i> ‘come’
<i>karntirni-</i> ‘bite’; <i>kupa-</i> ‘sing’	<i>N garramani-</i> ‘increase’
<i>kurni-</i> ‘throw’; <i>kurrpa-</i> ‘cause trouble’	<i>ngurru-</i> ‘break’
<i>kurti-</i> ‘cut’; <i>maa-</i> ‘get’	<i>nyara-</i> ‘burn’
<i>marrani-</i> ‘make disturbing noise’	<i>nyini-</i> ‘sit’, ‘stay’
<i>mija-</i> ‘touch’; <i>munti-</i> ‘remove from’	<i>parni-</i> ‘wait’, ‘stay’
<i>munyju-</i> ‘swallow’; <i>murlka-</i> ‘gather’	<i>parrara-</i> ‘check’, ‘inspect’
<i>ngaka-</i> ‘prevent’, ‘obstruct’; <i>ngumpa-</i> ‘chase’	<i>piyani-</i> ‘move’
<i>nyaa-</i> ‘send’; <i>nyirri-</i> ‘give birth (of animal)’	<i>warni-</i> ‘fall’
<i>nyirumunyju-</i> ‘choke’; <i>paji-</i> ‘bite’, ‘eat’	<i>yawilarni-</i> ‘sway’
<i>parni-</i> ‘remove’; <i>parrajampa-</i> ‘hide’, ‘deny’	
<i>parrpa-</i> ‘transfer warmth (with hands)’	
<i>pirri-</i> ‘scratch’, ‘dig’; <i>pirrpa-</i> ‘shine on’	
<i>pujula-</i> ‘puff’, ‘shoot’; <i>punga-</i> ‘hit’, ‘kill’	
<i>punta-</i> ‘pluck’; <i>punya-</i> ‘drink’	
<i>purrrpa-</i> ‘rebuke’; <i>waa-</i> ‘give’	
<i>wanta-</i> ‘sort’, ‘separate’	
<i>wanyja-</i> ‘put’, ‘leave’	
<i>wirrpi-</i> ‘evert’; <i>yaji-</i> ‘spear’, ‘stitch’, ‘stab’	
<i>yanga-</i> ‘follow’; <i>yarni-</i> ‘pour’	
<i>yingi-</i> ‘annoy’; <i>yininyi-</i> ‘cart’	
<i>yinya-</i> ‘exchange’; <i>yipa-</i> ‘quarrel’, ‘growl at’	
<i>yirni-</i> ‘pour’	

In Ngarla, the correlation between transitivity and conjugation is unusually strong.⁴³ The verbs of the L conjugation are transitive or ditransitive. The verbs of the Ø conjugation are intransitive or semi-transitive/middle. In section 7.2 below, verbs, transitivity and associated case frames in Ngarla will be discussed further.

⁴³ The language might have an absolute correlation between conjugation and transitivity, but there are a few possible exceptions.

4.3 Complex verbs

4.3.1 Formal features of Ngarla complex verbs

4.3.1.1 Introduction

In this section, formal features of Ngarla complex verbs are described. In 4.3.1.2, the complex verb construction is presented and common verbalisers are listed. The focus of 4.3.1.3 is the phonological and grammatical word status of verbalisers and complex verbs, as well as transcription conventions. In 4.3.1.4, zero verbalised verbs are discussed.

4.3.1.2 Construction of the complex verb

In the Ngarla complex verb, the non-verbal root always comes in first position. In the majority of cases the non-verbal root is an uninflected nominal, as in example (66) below. (In this section, complex verbs are highlighted.)

- (66) *Kutu ngarri-yan-pi-ya* *panalu* *kukurnjayi*.
 dead INCH-PRS-EP-3PL 3PL.NOM sheep
 ‘The sheep are dying.’ (TW10)

In Ngarla, a number of verbalisers are employed to create complex verbs. These are listed in Table 15- Table 16. The verbalisers in Table 15 create intransitive verbs (i.e. verbs belonging to the Ø conjugation), and the verbalisers in Table 16 transitive (L conjugation) verbs. A couple of further examples are provided in (67) – (68) below.⁴⁴

Table 15 Ngarla Ø conjugation verbalisers, forming intransitive verbs.

Verbaliser	Example
<i>karri-</i>	(76), i.a.
<i>ngarri-</i>	(67), i.a.
<i>-rri-</i>	(71), i.a.

⁴⁴ There are a number of Ngarla verbs that still lack a clear analysis, in terms of whether they constitute complex verbs or not. In some cases, it is possible to analyse them as complex verbs that include very restricted verbalisers. In other cases, such an analysis is more problematic. The verbs in question are *jurni jarri-Ø* ‘make laugh’; *karliny jarri-Ø* ‘return’; *marrka+marri-Ø* ‘gather’; *mirntily marri-Ø* ‘rattle by itself’; *nyanta marri-Ø* ‘become (i.e. come) here’ (?); *pularn parri-Ø* ‘fall silent’; *wangka parri-Ø* ‘stop talking’ (i.e. ‘fall silent’); *kalyu-rni-Ø* ‘call out’; *jarun+tarri-Ø* ‘roll from side to side’; *maarn+tarri-Ø* ‘float’; *mapan+tarri-Ø* ‘sparkle’; *pikun+tarri-Ø* ‘dodge’; *yukun tarri-Ø* ‘smoke’; *jarnti nyi-L* ‘erect’; *jurru~jurru+pinya-L* ‘roll (on the ground)’; *kaka+pinya-L* ‘tear (in halves)’, ‘open up’; *maarr+pinya-L* ‘stroke’; *payiny pirta-L* ‘throw against’.

Table 16 Ngarla L conjugation verbalisers, forming transitive verbs.

Verbaliser	Example
<i>ja-</i>	(68), i.a.
<i>ji-</i>	(96), i.a.
<i>ku-</i>	(93), i.a.
<i>ma-</i>	(85), i.a.
<i>nya-</i>	(98), i.a.
<i>pi-</i>	(100), i.a.
<i>-rni-</i>	(101), i.a.

- (67) *Palakarni* *panalu* *jijirr*
 DEM (mid) 3PL.NOM seed (generic)
jarnti ngarri-yan-pi-ya.
 vertical INCH-PRS-EP-3PL
 ‘Those seeds are becoming vertical (i.e. are coming up).’ (TW08)
- (68) *Ngunyi* *pana-nya* *marrungu-lu* *jantiti*
 DEM (distant) 3PL-ACC man-ERG fence
jarnti ja-rri.
 vertical CAUS-PRS
 ‘Those fences (the) man is making vertical (i.e. is erecting those fences).’ (TW08)

The majority of Ngarla complex verbs are made up of a known uninflected nominal root and an added verbaliser, but that there are also quite a number of verbs which appear to be combinations of root plus verbaliser, despite the putative root not being a known Ngarla nominal. This phenomenon is illustrated in (69) – (70) below, in which the putative root *purnngu* appears to take the verbalisers +*ngarri-Ø* (69) and +*ma-L* (70). Cf. also *purlu+ngarri-Ø* in (70).

- (69) *Ngayiny* *ngaya* *purnngu+ngarri-yan.*
 breath 1SG.NOM congest[+INCH]-PRS
 ‘My breath is getting congested.’ (TW10)
- (70) *Purlu+ngarri-Ø-ya,* *purnngu+ma-rri*
 move.back[+INCH]-FUT-2PL congest[+CAUS]-PRS
nyurra nganya, *purlu+ngarri-Ø-ya!*
 2PL 1SG.ACC move.back[+INCH]-FUT-2PL
 ‘Move back you two, you are congesting me, move back!’ (TW10)

How should verbs like *purnngu+ngarri-Ø* ‘congest’ and *purnngu+ma-L* ‘congest’ be analysed? Since they appear to follow the same pattern of formation as complex verbs with known roots, it is here, in line with Dench (1999), suggested that what

appears to be roots of unknown origin might in fact have been borrowed into Ngarla from other languages of the area. Alternatively, the whole putative root + verbaliser unit has been borrowed.⁴⁵ Combinations of unknown roots and (possible) verbalisers are thus here described as complex verbs, but the (possible) break between the root and the verbaliser is marked by a plus (+; see also section 4.3.1.3 below).

A count of Ngarla complex verbs (both those with known and those with unknown roots) indicates that around 400 such verbs are known. As mentioned above, there are 65 known simple verb roots. The complex verbs thus outnumber the simple verbs by six to one. As shown in Table 17 below, however, the different verbalisers occur in very different frequencies. The five major verbalisers, i.e. those that occur in the majority of verbs, are *ngarri-Ø/+ngarri-Ø*, *karri-Ø/+karri-Ø* and *-rri-Ø/+rri-Ø*, which create verbs of the Ø conjugation, and *ma-L/+ma-L* and *ja-L/+ja-L*, creating verbs of the L conjugation.

Table 17 The number of complex verbs with each verbaliser.⁴⁶

Verbaliser	Number of complex verbs
<i>karri-/+karri-</i>	21/9
<i>ngarri-/+ngarri-</i>	49/6
<i>-rri-/+rri-</i>	22/17
<i>ja-/+ja-</i>	46/10
<i>ji-/+ji-</i>	3/2
<i>ku-/+ku-</i>	7/2
<i>ma-/+ma-</i>	47/50
<i>nya-/+nya-</i>	4/1
<i>pi-/+pi-</i>	9/11
<i>-rni-/+rni-</i>	3/2
Total number of included complex verbs	211/110

4.3.1.3 *Phonological and grammatical word status*

Crosslinguistically, the phonological word has at least one of the following defining properties: (a) segmental features, pertaining to internal syllabic/segmental structure, word boundary phenomena and pause phenomena; (b) prosodic features, relating to e.g. nasalisation, retroflexion and vowel harmony, and also to stress and/or tone assignment; and (c) phonological rules, some of which apply within a phonological word, others of

⁴⁵ According to Breen (2011), nouns are borrowed much more frequently between Aboriginal languages than verbs. Breen however also quotes Beckwith (2004) to the effect that verbs are borrowed just as easily as nouns in agglutinative languages.

⁴⁶ Included in the count shown in this table are only such verbs for which there are examples that illustrate their semantics and associated case frames. Excluded are thus verbs that exist merely as lexical entries in the Ngarla database, or for which only non-prototypical examples exist (e.g. examples with Purposive mood; see the discussion about Purposive mood and associated case frame(s) in section 7.2.1 below).

which apply across phonological word boundaries (Dixon & Aikhenvald 2002). As described in section 2.3 above, stress is an important criterion for deciding what constitutes a phonological word in Ngarla, since main stress always falls on the first syllable of a word. The first syllable of most Ngarla verbalisers also attracts main stress (something that is also true for the possible verbalisers that occur in complex verbs with unknown roots). Exceptions to this rule are the *-rri-Ø* and *-rri-L* verbalisers, cf. Table 15- Table 16. Most verbalisers can thus be defined as phonological words in their own right, and it would be justified to transcribe them as separate words.

A grammatical word, on the other hand, according to Dixon & Aikhenvald (2002), consists of a number of elements which (a) occur together; (b) occur in a fixed order; and (c) have a conventionalized meaning. The Ngarla verbalisers always follow the root, and turn the root into a verb. This implies that the Ngarla verbalisers can be considered to be part of the same grammatical word as the preceding unit, despite their independent phonological word status. In order to indicate both phonological and grammatical word status, nominals and verbalisers together constituting complex verbs are placed next to each other in the transcription, but are separated by a single space.

4.3.1.4 Zero verbalisation

There is a small number of Ngarla verbs that appear to be created through zero verbalisation. Compare example (71) below, which includes the nominal *jurnti* ‘cave’, ‘gaol’, ‘room’, ‘curve’, ‘billabong’ to (72), which exemplifies the use of the verb *jurnti.Ø-L* ‘make cave(like)’.⁴⁷

- (71) *Ngunyi-rra* *para* *marrungu-rra* *jurnti*
 DEM (distant)-DAT 3SG.DAT man-DAT cave
jurnti-rri-yan.
 cave-INCH-PRS
 ‘That man’s cave is becoming (a) deeper/longer cave.’ (TW08)

- (72) *Kunyjarta-lu* *murirri* *jurnti.Ø-rri.*
 woman-ERG hot.sand cave.CAUS-PRS
 ‘(The) woman is caving (out the) hot sand (i.e. is digging out (the) hot sand).’ (#)

In order to indicate zero verbalization in the transcription, a dot and a zero (*.Ø*) are, as just illustrated, inserted after the nominal root. The majority of complex verbs created through zero verbalisation are intransitive *Ø* conjugation verbs, see Table 18. The semi-transitive verb of the group is *wajarri.Ø-Ø* ‘want’, ‘search for’ (cf. section

⁴⁷ The lexical items discussed in this section could alternatively be analysed as verbs that undergo zero nominalisation. It is however here considered more likely that these are cases of zero verbalisation, since it is only the infinite verbs of the language that can be considered to be nominalised. See chapter 8.

7.2) and the three transitive L conjugation verbs *jurnti.Ø-L* (72), *jungka.Ø-L* ‘spin’ (73) and *nyuka.Ø-L* ‘do increase (with)’; (113) – (114).⁴⁸

Of the nominals included in Table 18, half are not known to occur with overt verbalisers. This is true for *jungka* ‘strand of spun hair’; *karlakarri* ‘guffaw’, ‘hearty laugh’, ‘noise’; *maturarri* ‘vomit’; *wajarri* ‘desire’, ‘searching’; *wakatarri* ‘twisting’; and *wakatarri~wakatarri* ‘twisting and turning (?)’.⁴⁹ Remaining nominals may take overt verbalisers.

Table 18 Verbs created through zero verbalisation, and corresponding nominals.⁵⁰

Nominal	Verb	Example
<i>jungka</i> ‘strand of spun hair’	<i>jungka.Ø-L</i> ‘spin’	(73)
<i>jurnti</i> ‘cave’, ‘gaol’, ‘room’; ‘curve’, ‘billabong’	<i>jurnti.Ø-L</i> ‘make cave(like)’	(72)
<i>karlakarri</i> ‘guffaw’, ‘hearty laugh’, ‘noise’	<i>karlakarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘laugh loudly/heartily’; ‘make noise’	
<i>kumarri</i> ‘mean’, ‘stingy’, ‘tight-fisted’	<i>kumarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘be stingy’, ‘withhold’	
<i>maturarri</i> ‘vomit’	<i>maturarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘vomit’	
<i>mujurarri</i> ‘cloudy’	<i>mujurarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘become cloudy’	(74)
<i>nyuka</i> ‘increase site’, ‘increase ceremony’	<i>nyuka.Ø-L</i> ‘do increase (with)’	(113) – (114)
<i>pularn</i> ‘quiet’, ‘silent’	<i>pularni.Ø-Ø</i> ‘fall silent all of a sudden’	
<i>wajarri</i> ‘desire’, ‘searching’	<i>wajarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘want’, ‘search for’	(123), (148), (210), (218), (378), (407)
<i>wakatarri</i> ‘twisting’	<i>wakatarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘circle back’	
<i>wakatarri~wakatarri</i> ‘twisting and turning (?)’	<i>wakatarri~wakatarri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘turn and twist’	
<i>wanyaparri</i> ‘awareness’	<i>wanyaparri.Ø-Ø</i> ‘listen’, ‘learn’	(211)

⁴⁸ *Wajarri* ‘desire’, ‘searching’ in one instance (123) takes L conjugation morphology. In one example (218), the object of a clause including *wajarri.Ø-Ø* ‘want’, ‘search for’ also lacks dative marking. (Cf. section 7.2.)

⁴⁹ The following lexical items are ascribed (non-verbal) semantic content despite their final syllable being *rri* (see Table 18): *karlakarri* ‘guffaw’, ‘hearty laugh’, ‘noise’; *kumarri* ‘mean’, ‘stingy’, ‘tight-fisted’; *maturarri* ‘vomit’; *mujurarri* ‘cloudy’; *wajarri* ‘desire’, ‘searching’; *wakatarri* ‘twisting’; *wanyaparri* ‘awareness’. The final *rri* syllable might however indicate that they were originally complex verbs verbalised with the *-rri-Ø/+rri-Ø* verbaliser. *Wakatarri~wakatarri* does not occur as a nominal in the existing Ngarla material. However, if *wakatarri* is a nominal, *wakatarri~wakatarri* might well be one too. In many Ngarla reduplicated/non-reduplicated nominal pairs, the semantic difference is one of degree.

⁵⁰ There is also a verb *mirtarri-Ø* ‘change colour’. It has however proven impossible to establish if the root of this verb is *mirta* ‘grey’ or *mirtarri* ‘whitish’. The verb *pirrpa~pirrpa.Ø-* ‘shine (on)’ appears to be a zero verbalised transitive L conjugation verb, but the existing examples of its use are inconclusive. Note also the apparent zero verbalisation of *panta-karni* (close-ALL) in (349) and (356) below.

- (73) *Jungka.Ø-rnu* *parru~parru.*
 strand.of.spun.hair.CAUS-PST fishing.net
 ‘(He) spun (i.e. made) (a) fishing net.’ (#)
- (74) *Parlparr* *mujurarri.Ø-yan.*
 sky cloudy.INCH-PRS
 ‘The sky is becoming cloudy.’ (#)

4.3.2 Semantic features of Ngarla complex verbs

4.3.2.1 Introduction

In this section, a preliminary analysis of semantic features of complex verbs is discussed. First, some notes on terminology are given in 4.3.2.2. The major verbalisers (those that occur in the majority of complex verbs) are discussed in section 4.3.2.3. The *-rri-Ø/+rri-Ø* verbaliser is discussed in 4.3.2.4. The verbaliser *ku-L/+ku-L* is described in 4.3.2.5. In 4.3.2.6, restricted L conjugation verbalisers with uncertain semantic content are discussed.

4.3.2.2 Inchoative and causative: A note on terminology

Inchoative/causative verb pairs are commonly defined as expressing the same situation, most frequently a change of state, more rarely the Aktionsart Activity (see Table 20 below; Haspelmath 1993; Vendler 1967). In this definition, the causative verb meaning includes an agent participant which is responsible for causing the situation. The inchoative verb describes the situation as occurring spontaneously, and an agent is therefore absent. A clear example of such a Ngarla inchoative/causative verb pair were given in (67) – (68) above. No agent was included with *jarnti ngarri-Ø* ‘become vertical’ in (67). In (68), *marrungu* ‘man’ takes ergative marking, and is that way clearly shown to constitute the agent. In that example, the transitive verb is created with the *ja-L* verbaliser.

Most Ngarla complex verbs express either changes of state or Activity. However, I follow Dench (1999) in using the label ‘inchoative’ for the verbaliser found in all complex verbs of the Ø conjugation, and ‘causative’ for the verbaliser in all complex L conjugation verbs, regardless of what sense is being expressed.⁵¹ Consider in this context e.g. the verb *kuntu~kuntu ma-L* in (75) below. It is an atypical transitive complex verbs, in that adverbial information is included in the verbal semantics. Thus, *kuntu ma-L*, with the nominal *kuntu* ‘good’, means ‘do well’, ‘treat well’.

⁵¹ Dench (1999) however employs the label ‘causative/factive’ for the verbaliser in complex L conjugation verbs. While notes on glossing and transcription occur in a number of sections in this volume, they have all been collected in Appendix A.

- (75) *Mirtanya-lu* *kuntu~kuntu ma-rri* *parnu-nga*
 old.man-ERG good CAUS-PRS 3SG-GEN
yirrkili.
 boomerang
 ‘(The) old man is treating his boomerang well (i.e. is nursing his boomerang).’ (#)

Other complex verbs with atypical senses include stative intransitive verbs (cf. sections 4.3.2.3 – 4.3.2.4), verbs with lexicalised meanings (4.3.2.3) and verbs created with the verbaliser *ku-L* (4.3.2.5), which denote movement of entities.

4.3.2.3 *The verbalisers karri-Ø, ngarri-Ø and ma-L, ja-L and telicity*

In this section, four verbalisers are discussed, see Table 19. The discussion is focussed here exclusively on complex verbs with these verbalisers that include known nominal roots. It seems that what is crucial in understanding the semantic content of the verbalisers *karri-Ø*, *ngarri-Ø*, *ma-L* and *ja-L* is the Aktionsart feature telicity. In the common definition of telicity, [+telic] denotes a situation that has an inherent end point, and [-telic] one that does not (cf. Table 20).

Table 19 Ngarla telicity marking verbalisers.

Transitivity and conjugation/telicity	Telic	Atelic
Intransitive (Ø conjugation)	<i>ngarri-Ø</i>	<i>karri-Ø</i>
Transitive (L conjugation)	<i>ja-L</i>	<i>ma-L</i>

Table 20 Equipollent Aktionsart features (Broman Olsen 1994:361).⁵²

Aktionsart	Telic	Dynamic	Durative	Examples
State	-	-	+	<i>know, have</i>
Activity	-	+	+	<i>run, paint</i>
Accomplishment	+	+	+	<i>destroy</i>
Achievement	+	+	-	<i>notice, win</i>

Ngarla sentences (76) – (77) below include complex verbs with the verbalisers *karri-Ø* and *ngarri-Ø*. *Jankan karri-Ø* ‘shiver, tremble’ in (76) describes an Activity, i.e. an event that is dynamic and durative, but not telic. *Pampurur ngarri-Ø* ‘become

⁵² The dynamic Aktionsart feature is employed to distinguish events (+dynamic) from states (-dynamic). Durativity indicates if a situation is expressed as holding at an interval of time (+durative), or not (-durative; Broman Olsen 1994; Vendler 1967).

blind’ in (77) instead describes an event that is dynamic and durative, and that also has an inherent end (here, Nyapiri having become blind), i.e. an Accomplishment.

- (76) *Yirnta-kapu* *ngaya* ***jankan karri-yan.***
 cold-SCE 1SG.NOM trembly INCH-PRS
 ‘Because of (the) cold I am shivering.’ (TW08)

- (77) *Nyapiri* ***pampuru ngarri-yan.***
 Nyapiri blind INCH-PRS
 ‘Nyapiri is going blind.’ (TW10)

However, *karri-Ø* does not always code Activities and *ngarri-Ø* not always Accomplishments. See e.g. examples (78) – (79). *Minyja ngarri-Ø* ‘close’ in (78) describes an Achievement, i.e. an event that is telic and dynamic, but not durative. *Jarnti karri-Ø* ‘be vertical’ (79), on the other hand, is a stative verb. The verbaliser *karri-Ø* thus seems to create atelic verbs and *ngarri-Ø* telic ones, with the Aktionsart feature telicity being the deciding factor for which of the verbalisers is employed in a certain context.

- (78) *Palakarni* *jirtamarra* ***minyja ngarri-yan.***
 DEM (mid) eye closed INCH-PRS
 ‘That one is closing (his) eye(s).’ (TW10)
- (79) *Wurrangkura*
 river red gum tree (*eucalyptus camaldulensis*)
jarnti karri-yan-pi-ya *pakarn~parkarn-ngura.*
 vertical INCH-PRS-EP-3PL uneven.riverbank-LOC
 ‘River red gum trees are being vertical (i.e. are standing) on (the) rough riverbank.’ (TW08)

Ngarri-Ø and *karri-Ø* occur relatively rarely with the same nominals. When they do, the nominals in question mark something punctual, such as *ngaju* ‘cry’ in (80) – (81). In such complex verbs, *karri-Ø* marks the Aktionsart Activity (80). The language consultant Brown was adamant in asserting that the verbs with *ngarri-Ø* in such contexts take on an inceptive sense, as indicated by the English translation of (81) below.⁵³

⁵³ It should be noted that there are a number of *ngarri-Ø/karri-Ø* pairs the examples of which are inconclusive. It is for example unclear if *miranu ngarri-Ø* ‘learn’ (129) could be considered an inceptive.

- (80) *Ngananyakapu palakarni jilya*
 EPI (why) DEM (mid) child
ngaju karri-yan?
 cry INCH-PRS
 ‘Why is that child crying?’ (TW08)
- (81) *Jukurta para waa-n marrkara-rra,*
 sweet 3SG.DAT give-FUT younger.sibling-DAT
palakarni ngaju ngarri-Ø!
 DEM (mid) cry INCH-FUT
 ‘Give sweets to (your) younger sibling, that (one) will start to cry
 (otherwise)!’ (TW08)

A situation similar to the one described for *karri-Ø* and *ngarri-Ø* is found with the causative verbalisers *ma-L* and *ja-L*. While a number of complex verbs, especially with *ma-L*, have lexicalised senses, as in (82) below (where *juntu ma-L* means ‘tell’), *ja-L* is generally employed to code Accomplishments (83) and Achievements (84), and *ma-L* Activities (85). There are no known stative transitive verbs (or inceptive transitive verbs).

- (82) *Nyayi-ngku ngajapa*
 DEM (proximate)-ERG 1SG.LOC
muwarr juntu ma-rrri.
 word straight CAUS-PRS
 ‘This one is making (the) word (i.e. message) straight on (i.e. for) me.’ (I.e. ‘This one is telling me (the) message.’) (TW10)
- (83) *Ngunyi pana-nya marrungu-lu jantiti*
 DEM (distant) 3PL-ACC man-ERG fence
jarnti ja-rrri.
 vertical CAUS-PRS
 ‘Those fences (the) man is making vertical (i.e. is erecting those fences).’ (TW08)
- (84) *Ngunyi-ngku marrungu-lu pinurru*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG fire
nyali ja-rrri.
 light CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is lighting (a) fire.’ (TW10)

- (85) *Ngunyi-ngku* *marrungu-lu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG
ngayiny ma-rri *parta* *marrungu*.
 breath CAUS-PRS other man
 ‘That man is helping another man to breathe.’ (TW10)

Aside from the complex verbs with *ma-L* that have lexicalised senses, a few other verbs with this verbaliser seem not to fit within the above generalisation (cf. Table 19). The following verbs seem to be telic: *kapukarri ma-L* ‘dream’ ((30) and (259)); *karliny ma-L* ‘bring back’; *kartuwarra ma-L* ‘rescue’ (86); *purmpi ma-L* ‘face’ (190); *warlu ma-L* ‘frighten’; *wayi ma-L* ‘ask’ (55); *yini ma-L* ‘name’.

- (86) *Nyapiri-lu* *nganya* *kartuwarra ma-rnu*.
 Nyapiri-ERG 1SG.ACC rescuer CAUS-PST
 ‘Nyapiri rescued me.’ (#)

4.3.2.4 The -rri-Ø/+rri-Ø verbaliser

The verbaliser *-rri-Ø/+rri-Ø* occurs in 39 complex verbs, 17 of which have reduplicated roots.⁵⁴ Frequently, the verbs formed with this verbaliser express changes of state, as *warti~warti+rri-Ø* ‘descend’ in (87). This verbaliser also forms a number of stative verbs, e.g. *wurla~wurla-rri-Ø* ‘swirl, eddy’ (88).

- (87) *Ngunyi* *marrungu* *warnta-ka*
 DEM (distant) man tree-LOC
kankara-nguru *warti~warti+rri-yan*.
 high.up-ABL descend[+INCH]-PRS
 ‘From high up, that man in (the) tree is coming down.’ (TW10)
- (88) *Wula* *wurla-wurla-rri-yan*.
 water turbulent-INCH-PRS
 ‘The water is swirling.’ (#)

Assigning a clear semantic content to this verbaliser is thus difficult. A further complicating factor is that with some nominals, which also occur with either or both of *karri-Ø* and *ngarri-Ø*, *-rri-Ø* appears to be used to create verbs with the same senses as

⁵⁴ Compare this to the fact that only 3 reduplicated roots (10% of the total number of roots) occur with *karri-Ø/+karri-Ø*, and 6 with *ngarri-Ø/+ngarri-Ø* (11%). It should be pointed out here that none of the unknown roots occurring with *+rri-Ø* take any other Ngarla verbaliser (something that might indicate that they and/or the whole complex verbs have been borrowed from another language). The same is true of the following roots: *karntu~karntu* ‘itch’; *kunyja~kunyja* ‘cheerful’; *mala~mala* ‘nauseated’; *mangura* ‘something to chew on’; *ngurtu~ngurtu* ‘stamping dance’; *nyita~nyita* ‘slowing down’; *pampa* ‘unaware’; *pinya* ‘fight’; *wurla~wurla* ‘turbulent’.

the verbs created with either of the other two verbalisers. *Wara~wara-rrī-Ø* ‘become forgetful’ (89) thus apparently has the same meaning as *wara~wara ngarri-Ø* (90).⁵⁵

- (89) *Palakarni* ***wara~wara-rrī-Ø***.
 DEM (mid) forgetful-INCH-FUT
 ‘That one will forget.’ (#)
- (90) *Ngananyakapu* *nyinpa* ***wara~wara ngarri-yan?***
 EPI (why) 2SG.NOM forgetful INCH-PRS
 ‘Why are you getting forgetful?’ (TW08)

With other nominals, *-rrī-Ø* might be employed to create verbs with other senses than those created with *ngarri-Ø* or *karri-Ø*. A difference in meaning might thus be implied between *marti~marti-rrī-Ø* ‘roll’, as in (91), and *marti~marti ngarri-Ø* ‘start to roll’ (92).⁵⁶

- (91) *Yu!* *Palakarni* *warnta* *kartu*
 look.out DEM (mid) tree big
marti~marti-rrī-yan.
 rolling-INCH-PRS
 ‘Look out! That big log is rolling.’ (TW08)
- (92) *Yu!* *Palakarni* *warnta* *kartu*
 look.out DEM (mid) tree big
marti~marti ngarri-yan.
 rolling INCH-PRS
 ‘Look out! That big log is starting to roll.’ (TW08)

4.3.2.5 *The ku-L/+ku-L verbaliser*

There are nine complex verbs created with the verbaliser *ku-L/+ku-L*. This verbaliser is employed to denote movement of entities, as in e.g. (93) – (95). That it can also include a locative semantic component is illustrated in (94) – (95). In these examples, the senses ‘put in lap’ and ‘put in oven’ are created by the addition of *ku-L* to *karti* ‘lap’ and *kunyi* ‘oven’.

⁵⁵ The nominal *wara~wara* ‘forgetful’ does not occur with *karri-Ø*. Although not exemplified here, *karu~karu-rrī-Ø* appears to have the same meaning as *karu~karu ngarri-Ø* ‘feel nausea’. *Karu~karu* ‘nausea’ does not occur with *karri-Ø*. *Wangka-rrī-Ø* ‘talk’ appears to be a variety of *wangka karri-Ø*. In this case, it seems that the former construction occurs due to haplology (i.e. deletion of one of the two identical *ka* syllables).

⁵⁶ With this nominal, a complex verb with *karri-Ø* is conceivable. There are however no recorded examples of **marti~marti karri-Ø*.

- (93) *Ngunyi-ngku* *pana-nya* *marrungu-lu* *mantu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG 3PL-ACC man-ERG meat
nyanta ku-rri.
 here CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is bringing the meat over here.’ (TW08)
- (94) *Parnu-nga-lu* *warniya-lu* *parnu-nga*
 3SG-GEN-ERG mother-ERG 3SG-GEN
jilya *mirnmanya* *karti ku-rri.*
 child baby lap CAUS-PRS
 ‘His/her mother is putting her baby in her lap.’ (TW08)
- (95) *Palakarni-lu* *marrungu-lu*
 DEM (mid)-ERG man-ERG
kunyi ku-rri *mangkuru.*
 oven CAUS-PRS kangaroo
 ‘That man is putting (the) kangaroo in the oven.’ (TW10)

4.3.2.6 Restricted L conjugation verbalisers

Ngarla L conjugation verbalisers were included in Table 16 above. In this section, restricted L conjugation verbalisers without a clear semantic content are discussed, namely the verbalisers *ji-L/+ji-L*, *nya-L/+nya-L*, *pi-L/+pi-L* and *rni-L/+rni-L*. They are discussed in alphabetical order.

Starting with *ji-L/+ji-L*, there are five known complex verbs with this verbaliser. Two of these relate to searching (and likely mark Activities), *mungun ji-L* ‘scavenge’ in (96); *kankari+ji-L* ‘search through’; and two to bodily functions (Accomplishments), *kumpu ji-L* ‘urinate’ in (97); *kuna ji-L* ‘defecate’. The sense ‘drag’ is created with the unknown root *warrka* and *+ji-L*. (This appears also to be an Activity verb.)

- (96) *Kiru-ngku* *palakarni*
 crow (*corvus bennetti*)-ERG DEM (mid)
mayi *pana-nya* *mungun ji-rri.*
 vegetable.food 3PL-ACC scavenger CAUS-PRS
 ‘(The) crow is scavenging that food.’ (TW10)
- (97) *Yukurru-lu* *nyinu* *warnta*
 dog-ERG 2SG.DAT tree
kumpu ji-rri.
 urine CAUS-PRS
 ‘(The) dog is urinating on your (favoured) tree.’ (TW08)

The verbaliser *nya-L/+nya-L* occurs in five complex verbs. It is the only L conjugation verbaliser to be used with *punyjayi* ‘blackhead on nose’ and *wangka*

‘speech’ (98). When employed with *jurni* ‘laughter’, it appears to mean ‘laugh at’, as in (99). Both verbs illustrated in (98) – (99) may be atelic.⁵⁷

- (98) *Wangka nya-rrri* *ngaja* *waleji*
 speech CAUS-PRS 1SG.ERG wireless (radio)
 ‘I am talking to (i.e. listening to) the radio.’ (TW08)
- (99) *Ngunyi-ngku* *marrungu-lu* *parta*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG other
marrungu *jurni nya-rrri*.
 man laughter CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is laughing at another man.’ (TW10)

When *nya-L/+nya-L* is combined with *kapukarri* ‘dream’ and *nyikarri* (unknown), the complex verbs however seemingly have the same semantic content as *kapukarri ma-L* ‘dream’ (cf. (30) above) and *nyikarri+ma-L* ‘assist in fight’, respectively.⁵⁸ *Kapukarri nya-L* and *nyikarri+nya-L* both code Accomplishments, as does *punyjayi nya-L* ‘smear blackhead paste’.

According to the language consultant Brown, *pi-L/+pi-L* is an abbreviated version of a supposed verbaliser *pinya-L/+pinya-L*. It has however not been possible to corroborate this claim in the material in the Ngarla database, as *+pinya-L* only occurs with three unknown roots. *Pi-L/+pi-L* occurs in 20 complex verbs, which mainly describe Accomplishments and Achievements (100).

- (100) *Turru-ngku* *jipal pi-rrri* *palakarni*
 Turru-ERG increase CAUS-PRS DEM (mid)
pirrjarta.
 vehicle
 ‘Turru is starting up that vehicle.’ (TW10)

In cases where *pi-L/+pi-L* alternate with other verbalisers on particular nominals, it is often uncertain if the verbs have different semantic content.⁵⁹

Just as verbalisers *ji-L/+ji-L* and *nya-L/+nya-L*, the *-rni-L/+rni-L* verbaliser occurs in five complex verbs. The verbaliser codes both Accomplishments (101) and Activities.

⁵⁷ Compare *jurni nya-L* to *jurni ja-L*, which means ‘make (i.e. cause to) laugh’: *Ngananyawanti nyinta mirnmanya jurni ja-rrri?* EPI (what.for) 2SG.ERG baby laughter CAUS-PRS ‘For what are you making (the) baby laugh?’ (TW08) (*Jurni* does not occur together with *ma-L*.)

⁵⁸ *Kapukarri* ‘dream’ and *nyikarri* (unknown) do not occur with *ja-L/+ja-L*.

⁵⁹ A number of the roots taking *pi-L/+pi-L* occur with this verbaliser only. This is true for *jajarr* (unknown); *jaman* (unknown); *jiiny* (unknown); *jinta* ‘some’, ‘others’; *jipal* ‘increase’; *kangkarr* ‘tear’; *kura* (unknown); *marra* ‘skywards’; *ngamun* (unknown); *pajany* (unknown); *paji* ‘forearm’, ‘wrist’; *purru* ‘fish scale’; *warirr* (unknown); *wujarr* (unknown); and *yilyngarr* (unknown).

- (101) *Ngunyi-ngku* *ngarta-ngku* *parta*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG other
ngarta *kalyu-rni-rri*.
 man shout-CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is calling out to another man.’ (TW08)

4.4 Main clause verbal marking

4.4.1 Introduction

In this section, Ngarla main clause verbal morphology is described in terms of the tense, aspect and mood distinctions coded by different sets of suffixes, here referred to as ‘TAM inflections’.⁶⁰ Person marking, which also occurs on finite verbs, is presented as well, as is irregular TAM marking on the two verbs *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ and *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’. In section **Error! Reference source not found.**, entral definitions are given. Section 4.4.3 is focused on Ngarla main clause TAM distinctions. Section 4.4.4 describes TAM marking with the two irregular verbs *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ and *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring.’ Ngarla person marking on verbs is described in 4.4.5.

4.4.2 Defining tense, aspect and mood

Following Comrie (1985:9), ‘tense’ is understood here as the ‘grammaticalised expression of location in time’. The term ‘aspect’ is taken to represent ‘different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation’ (Comrie 1976:3). Aspects that are commonly distinguished include: (i) perfective, which is employed for complete situations, and which involves a lack of explicit reference to the internal temporal constituency of the situation; and (ii) imperfective, an aspect which draws attention to the internal structure of a situation. ‘Mood’ is here, in line with Palmer (2001), employed for markers of the status of a proposition. A basic modal distinction is made between (i) epistemic modality, concerned with the speaker’s judgment of the factual status of a situation; and (ii) deontic modality, pertaining to the kind of compulsion necessary for an event to take place (Bhat 1999).

4.4.3 Ngarla main clause verbal morphology

4.4.3.1 Introduction

This section introduces 12 TAM distinctions taken by verbs in Ngarla main clauses.⁶¹ The different inflections, and the tense/aspect/mood distinctions they mark, are

⁶⁰ The terms ‘TAM distinction’ and ‘TAM category’ are used interchangeably.

⁶¹ Other morphemes, e.g. *-rna*, also occur with Ngarla verbs. In the Ngarla database, *-rna* occurs exclusively with L conjugation verbs and with the irregular *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’. In some contexts, it appears to mark a dynamic modality. According to the language consultant Brown, this use of *-rna* would require the presence of a larger group of people, and one person who wishes to single himself/herself out: *Mayi nganyjarra-nga kama-rna*. vegetable.food 1PL.INCL-DAT cook-*rna* ‘Food I will cook for us.’ (TW08) In other

presented in Table 21. Four tenses are marked in Ngarla, Present, past, Remote past and Future tense.⁶² In the past, aspectual distinctions are made. In order to facilitate comparison with descriptions of neighbouring languages, the relevant TAM distinctions are here, following Dench (1999), labelled Past, which includes past tense and perfective aspectual information; Continuous past, which describes past tense and imperfective aspect; and Usitative, including past tense and habitual aspectual information (cf. Comrie 1976, 1985). In languages in general, the distinction between tense and mood often becomes blurred with future tense (Dahl 1985). This is the case in Ngarla, where the Future tense inflection also marks imperative, the latter of which can be defined as a deontic mood (Palmer 2001).⁶³

The Speculative is an epistemic modality, and the Purposive and Optative deontic modalities.⁶⁴ In three distinctions, temporal and (in all cases most likely) epistemic modal information are combined; in the Present contrafactual, the Past contrafactual and the Anticipatory. The labels speculative, purposive, optative and anticipatory have been taken from Dench (1999; the first two are also employed by Palmer 2001), and the labels present contrafactual and past contrafactual from Sharp's (2004) description of Ngarla's neighbouring language Nyangumarta (Marrngu, Pama-Nyungan). Note that there are no known examples of verbs taking more than one of the 12 Ngarla TAM inflections discussed in this section.

Table 21 Ngarla tense, aspect and mood distinctions and inflections.

TAM distinction	Inflection Ø conjugation	Inflection L conjugation
Present tense (PRS)	<i>-yan</i>	<i>-rri</i>
Remote past tense (REMPST)	<i>-rnta</i>	<i>-rnta</i>
Past (PST)	<i>-nyu</i>	<i>-rnu</i>
Continuous past (CPST)	<i>-yanu</i>	<i>-yinyu</i>
Usitative (USI)	<i>-yanta</i>	<i>-yirnta</i>
Future tense (FUT)	<i>-Ø</i>	<i>-n</i>
Speculative (SPEC)	<i>-mpi</i>	<i>-mpi</i>
Purposive (PURP)	<i>-kura</i>	<i>-lu</i>
Optative (OPT)	<i>-mara</i>	<i>-nmara</i>
Present contrafactual (PRSCONTRA)	<i>-yanma</i>	<i>-rrima</i>
Past contrafactual (PSTCONTRA)	<i>-marnta</i>	<i>-nmarnta</i>
Anticipatory (ANT)	<i>-nyamarta</i>	<i>-rnamarta</i>

contexts, *-rna* is instead employed as an indicator of regular association with an activity. Due to the fact that Ngarla is now all but extinct, it may prove impossible to produce a coherent analysis for such morphemes.

⁶² The labels for the 12 different TAM categories discussed in this section are all given with an initial capital.

⁶³ The label for this category has thus been changed since the publication of Westerlund (2011), cf. subsection 4.4.3.2.4 below.

⁶⁴ While the label purposive is common in descriptions of Australian languages, this modal category basically fills the same functions as the Subjunctive of Latin (Palmer 2001).

TAM distinctions marking tenses, including Future and those categories that combine temporal and aspectual information, are discussed in section 4.4.3.2. In 4.4.3.3, modal TAM marking is introduced, and in 4.4.3.4, categories combining temporal and epistemic modal information. TAM inflections are below consistently given in the following order: Ø conjugation/L conjugation (see section 4.2 for details on conjugations).

4.4.3.2 *Tense*

4.4.3.2.1 *Present tense*

The basic function of the Present tense (-*yan/-rri*) in languages in general, is to locate situations at the time of speaking, i.e. the present moment, as in Ngarla example (102). Characteristically, the Present tense is also employed to make reference to situations that occupy longer time periods that include the present (Comrie 1985), as is the case in (103) (see the English translation). In many languages, the tense also takes on a habitual aspectual meaning (Comrie 1985). This is the case in Ngarla. See example (104), where a habitual meaning is implied. In (105), an iterative meaning might be implied.⁶⁵ (The fact that ‘biting’ is an instant action, while the ache in the joint presumably is not, makes it likely that (105) in fact expresses an iterative meaning. Note that *parralya* ‘ache’ here is the subject, and functions as the agent. This is obvious from the fact that it is the clausal constituent that takes ergative marking; -*lu*.) In Ngarla, the Present tense may also be used to indicate a speaker's immediate intentions, as in (106). In the examples below, just as in examples throughout this section, the relevant verbs are highlighted. (In some examples relevant noun phrases are also highlighted.)

- (102) *Palakarni* *ngapurta* ***pilyka ngarri-yan***
 DEM (mid) melon cracked INCH-PRS
 ‘That watermelon is cracking.’ (TW08)
- (103) *Ngunyi* *jimpulyu*
 DEM (distant) little grebe (*tachybaptus novaehollandiae*)
jimpayi ngarri-yan.
 hidden INCH-PRS
 ‘That grebe is hiding (for a long time).’ (TW08)
- (104) ***Nyini-yan-pi-ya*** *Kurlijangu-nya-ngura*
 stay-PRS-EP-3PL Kurlijangu-AREA-LOC
yinta-ka.
 permanent.water hole-LOC
 ‘They are staying by (the) Kurlijangu area permanent water hole.’
 (#)

⁶⁵ Note in section 4.4.3.2.3 below that the Usitative is employed to mark both habits and iterative actions occurring in the past.

- (105) *Jarrumirnti* *paji-rrri* *nganya*
 joint bite-PRS 1SG.ACC
parralya-lu.
 ache-ERG
 ‘(An) ache is biting my joint (i.e. my joint is aching).’ (#)
- (106) *Yanangka-yan* *ngaya,* *pirtu* *yirtirti.*
 go-PRS 1SG.NOM food.for.journey visible
 ‘I’m going (now), (the) food (is) visible (i.e. I’ve got food for the journey).’ (#)

4.4.3.2.2 Remote past tense

Degrees of remoteness are often marked in tense systems crosslinguistically (Comrie 1985). The Ngarla Remote past tense (*-rnta/-rnta*) is employed in descriptions of situations, events, etc., that took place a few years ago, or further back in time. As shown in (107) - (108), the Remote past tense is used both in descriptions of ‘real life’ situations, i.e. situations remembered by the speaker (107) and for mythological events (108). Note that only non-habitual activities that held at remote points in time are expressed with the Remote past tense, cf. example (116) below. This means that the Remote past really is the only pure tense category of the language.

- (107) *Murlurnu* *jarrpi-rnta*
 long.ago enter-REMPST
kanta-ka.
 small.gap-LOC
 ‘Long ago (he) entered (i.e. went through) (a) small gap.’ (TW08)
- (108) *Manguny-ju* *yarni+ma-rnta*
 manguny (Dreamtime.being)-ERG make[+CAUS]-REMPST
 ‘(A) manguny-being made (it) (long ago).’ (#)

4.4.3.2.3 Past tense combined with aspectual information: Past, Continuous past and Usitative

TAM categories that combine temporal and aspectual information are common crosslinguistically, including in Australian languages (Comrie 1976; Dixon 2002a). Excluding the Remote past, four Ngarla TAM distinctions are employed in descriptions of events that took place prior to the time of speaking. Three of these combine past tense with aspectual information. Following Dench (1999), these distinctions are labelled here Past, Continuous past and Usitative. (The fourth distinction is the Past contrafactual, see 4.4.3.4.1 below.)

The Past category (*-nyu/-rnu*) describes a past time frame and perfective aspect. Continuous past (*-yanu/-yinyu*), on the other hand, has a past time and an imperfective

aspectual interpretation. The label ‘usitative’ is in descriptions of the Aboriginal languages of the Pilbara region employed for a TAM category the semantic content of which is most easily translated into English as ‘used to VERB’ (Dench 1995:146). The Ngarla Usitative (-*yanta*/-*yirnta*) can thus be described as a past habitual distinction.⁶⁶

The Past and Continuous past categories are used in descriptions of events that did not take place far back enough in time to warrant the use of the Remote past tense. That the distinctions include different aspectual information is most obvious when they occur together in a context, as in (109). Here, *paji-yinyu* eat-CPST, describes something that went on for some time, while *wanyja-rnu* leave-PST, denotes the end of the previous activity.

- (109) *Palakarni-lu* *mantu* *paji-yinyu* *jinta*
 DEM (mid)-ERG meat eat-CPST some
wanyja-rnu.
 leave-PST
 ‘That one was eating meat, (but he) left some.’ (TW08)

Including an imperfective aspectual interpretation, the Continuous past is however not only used for events that both began and finished in the past (109), but also for events that started prior to the time of speaking, but which are still ongoing in the present, as in (110) and (112). Compare in this context (111) – (112). According to the language consultant Brown, (111) implies that the speaker has finished fastening the horses to the buggy and is ready to go. Example (112) might on the other hand be taken to indicate e.g. that one horse has been fastened to the buggy, and that the speaker still needs to go back to the stable and get the other one.⁶⁷

- (110) *Murlurnu* *karrapirti* *nyinpa*
 previously long.time 2SG.NOM
wangka karri-yanu.
 speech INCH-CPST
 ‘(Since) previously, (for a) long time, you (have been) talking
 (about that).’ (#)

- (111) *Yawarta* *ngaja* *piya-nya* *jangka ja-rnu*
 horse 1SG.ERG 3DU-ACC fastened CAUS-PST
paki-ngka *nyangkala*.
 buggy-LOC today
 ‘The horses I fastened to (a) buggy today.’ (TW08)

⁶⁶ Habits and iterative actions holding at the time of speaking are, as illustrated above, expressed through the Present tense inflection.

⁶⁷ Compare in this context to sentence (395) below.

- (112) *Yawarta ngaja piya-nya jangka ja-yinyu*
 horse 1SG.ERG 3DU-ACC fastened CAUS-CPST
paki-ngka.
 buggy-LOC
 ‘The horses I fastened/am (still) fastening to (a) buggy.’ (TW08)

Example (113) illustrates another use of the Past category. The construction in this example, with an L conjugation verb (*nyuka.Ø-L* ‘do increase with’) marked by Past, and only one included noun phrase (*kunyjarta* ‘woman’) marked by nominative, represents the Ngarla functional/semantic equivalent to the basic passive derivation.⁶⁸ This type of equivalent to the basic passive is, according to Keenan & Dryer (2007), common in ergative languages. Usually, *nyuka.Ø-L* is a fully transitive verb. See example (114), where *pirirri* ‘man’ constitutes the subject, and takes overt ergative marking (*-lu*), while *kunyjarta* ‘woman’ is the direct object. (Cf. section 4.3.1.4 for more information about this verb.) Increase rituals are central to Aboriginal spirituality. Through these rituals, the numbers of various species are thought to be increased. The female of each species is considered the embodiment of the increase (Grove 2011.)

- (113) *Nyuka.Ø-rnu* *purtukarri* *kunyjarta*
 increase.CAUS-PST unwilling woman
 ‘(The) woman had increase (i.e. sex) unwillingly.’ (#)
- (114) *Pirirri-lu* *ngunyi* *kunyjarta*
 man-ERG DEM (distant) woman
nyuka.Ø-rri.
 increase.CAUS-PRS
 ‘(The) man is doing increase with (i.e. having sex with) that woman.’ (TW08)

The Usitative category is employed both to express iterative (cf. *marti~marti-rri-yanta* in (115)) and habitual meanings, both denoting situations that held over extended periods of time in the past. Note that the Usitative is employed for all past habits/iterative actions, regardless of remoteness in time. That that which is described in (116) below in fact took place at a remote point in time is specified by the lexical unit *murlurnu* ‘long ago’.

⁶⁸ Characteristic of the verb (or verb phrase) of passive clauses is that it constitutes a syntactically and morphologically modified version of the corresponding transitive verb (phrase). Also, the original P argument becomes S of the passive clause. In a basic passive construction, no agent phrase is ever present (i.e. the A of the corresponding active clause). In a non-basic passive, the agent phrase is present (Keenan & Dryer 2007).

- (115) *Kanarni* *nganarna*
 on.top.(of) 1PL.EXCL.NOM
kurnu ngarri-yanta taya-ngka.
 curled.up INCH-USI tyre-LOC
Paka-ngka-nguru nganarna
 steep.bank-LOC-ABL 1PL.EXCL.NOM
marti~marti-rri-yanta *yirri kanimparra*
 rolling-INCH-USI gentle.slope downwards
nyarukarra-karni-kujarra.
 creek.bed-ALL-COMP
 ‘At (the) top we used to double-up inside (the) tyre. We used to roll
 (over and over) from (the) steep bank down (the) gentle slope all the
 way to (the) creek bed.’ (#)
- (116) ***Murlurnu*** *nganarna* *pana-nya* *yurta*
 long.ago 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC fish
mara ku-yirnta *mangkurtu-ngura*
 hand CAUS-USI flood-LOC
mulya~mulya-ngura.
 incoming.tide-LOC
 ‘Long ago we used to get the fish in the incoming tide.’ (#)

4.4.3.2.4 Future tense combined with imperative mood

In languages in general, the distinction between tense and mood tends to become blurred with future tense (Dahl 1985). Ngarla belongs among the small group of (non-contiguous) Pama-Nyungan languages in which the same inflection (in Ngarla *-Ø/-n*) is employed to mark both future tense and the deontic imperative mood (cf. Palmer 2001). This TAM distinction is labelled here Future tense.

Below are examples of the verb *japa-L* ‘cover’ with the Future inflection. Sentence (117) exemplifies the future tense function of the inflection and (118) the imperative function. In all contexts, the inflection is glossed -FUT. Note that this inflection is only employed for positive commands. Negative commands and hortations are expressed with the Purposive inflection (see section 4.4.3.3.2 below).

- (117) *Purntul-tu* *nganyjarra-nya* ***japa-n.***
 dust-ERG 1PL.INCL-ACC cover-FUT
 ‘(The) dust will cover us.’ (#)
- (118) *Pinurru* ***japa-n!***
 fire cover-FUT
 ‘Cover (the) fire!’ (#)

4.4.3.3 *Mood*4.4.3.3.1 *Speculative*

The Speculative TAM distinction (*-mpi/-mpi*). is employed when a speaker is speculating about what may take place. As shown in (119) – (120), the category appears to correspond most closely to the use of English ‘might’. In my database, the Speculative only occurs in clauses with third person subjects. In most examples, an overt subject is missing, as in (119) – (120).⁶⁹

- (119) **Yata+ja-mpi.**
 push[+CAUS]-SPEC
 ‘(He) might push (it).’

- (120) **Warrumurntu milpa-mpi.**
 tomorrow come-SPEC
 ‘Tomorrow (he) might come.’

4.4.3.3.2 *Purposive*

The purposive mood, which is common in Pama-Nyungan languages, is employed both in main and subordinate clauses. In main clauses, the purposive distinction is generally used to express obligation (i.e. that the actor ‘has to’, ‘tries to’, ‘wants to’ or ‘should’ perform the action described by the verb; Dixon 1980, 2002a; Palmer 2001).⁷⁰

In Ngarla, the Purposive inflection is *-kura/-lu*. For its subordinate clause uses, see section 8.3.3 below. One of its main functions in main clauses is to describe that someone wants or desires some event to come about. There are examples of the Purposive category in this function with first, second and third person subjects; (121) – (123). Examples with second person subjects are generally enquiries about what someone wants or intends to do (122).

- (121) **Kalya parni-kura ngaya.**
 remain.in.state.or.process stay-PURP 1SG.NOM
 ‘I intend to stay.’ (#)

- (122) **Purlparl-ku nyinpa para paji-lu?**
 food (generic)-DAT 2SG.NOM 3SG.DAT eat-PURP
 ‘Do you want to eat the food?’(TW08)

⁶⁹ The statement in Westerlund (2011), to the effect that there are no examples of the use of this inflection with overt subjects, has thus turned out to be erroneous.

⁷⁰ While the label Purposive is common in descriptions of Australian languages, this modal distinction basically fills the same functions as the Subjunctive of Latin (Palmer 2001).

- (123) *Katu ja-rri* *palakarni-lu* *parnu-nga*
 kind CAUS-PRS DEM (mid)-ERG 1SG-GEN
marrkara. *Mantu* *wajarri.Ø-lu.*⁷¹
 younger.sibling meat desire.INCH-PURP
 ‘That one is being kind to his younger sibling. (He) wants (his) meat.’ (#)

The Purposive distinction also occurs in positive indirect commands with first and second person subjects, i.e. hortations; (124) - (125). The hortations expressed with this construction are milder than positive commands expressed with the Future distinction (cf. sentence (118)). The Purposive is compulsory in all types of negative hortations and commands, as in (126) – (127) (where (126) is a negative hortation and (127) a strong prohibition).

- (124) *Nyayi* *mangkuru* *kurrpu.*
 DEM (proximate) kangaroo heavy
Karri-kura⁷² *ngali*
 carry-PURP 1DU.INCL.NOM
jinyji~jinyji-lu.
 alternateing-ERG
 ‘This kangaroo (is) heavy. Let's carry (it) alternatingly.’ (I.e. ‘Let’s take turns carrying it.’) (#)

- (125) *Nyuka pi-lu* *nyinpa*
 increase.site/feature CAUS-PURP 2SG.NOM
jankurna-rra.
 emu (*dromaius novaehollandiae*)-DAT
 ‘You should do (the) increase ceremony for (the) emu.’

- (126) *Nyayi-ngka* *nyinpa* *nyini-Ø*
 DEM (proximate)-LOC 2SG.NOM stay-FUT
mampul *murri* *mirta* ***nyini-kura***
 true INTNS NEG stay-PURP
nyayi-ngka.
 DEM (proximate)-LOC
 ‘Here you will stay, (but you) truly (i.e. really) shouldn’t stay here.’
 (TW08)

⁷¹ Note that *wajarri.Ø-Ø* here takes the L conjugation Purposive inflection *-lu*, cf. Table 21 and example sentence (218).

⁷² Concerning the form *karri-kura* (carry-PURP), see section 4.4.4.2.

- (127) *Mirta murri nyinpa nyini-kura*
 NEG INTNS 2SG.NOM stay-PURP
nyayi-ngka!
 DEM (proximate)-LOC
 ‘Don’t you stay here (under any circumstances)!’ (TW08)

4.4.3.3.3 Optative

The Ngarla Optative inflection *-mara/-nmara* marks permissive mood.⁷³ In most contexts, this TAM distinction is employed to express a more or less fatalistic attitude, i.e. that the speaker allows something to happen, as in (128).⁷⁴

- (128) *Wataku jilya-nkgu yukurru kaju-nmara.*
 unimportant child-ERG dog tie-OPT
 ‘(It’s) unimportant, let (the) child tie (the) dog up.’ (TW08)

Occasionally, the distinction is also used to express that the speaker thinks that someone should or ought to do something (129). These utterances should not be interpreted as commands, but as expressions of the speaker’s personal opinion. (Compare these to the use of the Future and Purposive TAM inflections in 4.4.3.2.4 and 4.4.3.3.2.)

- (129) *Palakarni jilya-karrangu*
 DEM (mid) child-PL
miranu ngarri-mara-ya wangka-rra ngarla-rra.
 knowledge INCH-OPT-3PL speech-DAT Ngarla-DAT
 ‘Those children should acquire knowledge (i.e. learn) about Ngarla speech (i.e. the Ngarla language).’ (TW08)

4.4.3.4 Combined temporal and modal marking

4.4.3.4.1 Present contrafactual and Past contrafactual

In line with Sharp (2004), contrafactual mood is defined here as the mood expressing what does not/did not happen, but what can/could have or should/should have happened, as in (130) – (131) below. Just as Nyangumarta (Marrngu, Pama-Nyungan), Ngarla has two contrafactual TAM categories, which pertain to different time frames. Following Sharp (2004), they are labelled here Present contrafactual and Past contrafactual. The Present contrafactual (*-yanma/-rrima*) is concerned with the moment of speaking, as in (131) and (133). The Past contrafactual (*-marnta/-nmarnta*) is instead

⁷³ Note that the label for this category has been changed since the publication of Westerlund (2011), where it was called Permissive.

⁷⁴ As illustrated in (128), the lexical unit *wataku* (‘unimportant’, ‘never mind’) tends to be present when the Optative distinction expresses a fatalistic attitude. It is included in order to stress that the activity commented on is not considered important by the speaker.

employed to refer to situations that took place prior to the moment of speaking, as in (130) and (132).⁷⁵

However, the Ngarla contrafactual inflections are not only employed as markers of contrafactual mood in the present and past. They are also by default used in negated sentences pertaining either to the past (132) or present. (Note that the negation *mirta* occurs in both examples.) In their latter function, the contrafactuals seem to have been in the process of developing into negated present and past TAM inflections, as illustrated in (133). Here, there is no overt negation, but the language consultant Brown was nevertheless adamant that this utterance should be interpreted negatively, as indicated by the translation.

- (130) *Wanyja-nmarnta* *nganya* *nganu-nga-lu*
 leave-PSTCONTRA 1SG.ACC 1SG-GEN-ERG
nyampali-lu.
 boss-ERG
 ‘My boss could have left me (behind).’ (I.e. ‘My boss almost left me behind.’) (#)

- (131) *Mirta* *ngaja* *paji-rrima* *jinyji,*
 NEG 1SG.ERG eat-PRSCONTRA fat
kampa-lkarra-lu *mantu* *nganu* *waa-rri*
 cook-ACT-ERG meat 1SG.DAT give-PRS
jinyji-yanya
 fat-PRIV
 ‘I don’t eat fat (now/these days), (the) cook (only) gives me fat-free (i.e. lean) meat.’ (#)

- (132) *Mirta* *ngaja* *nyina* *ngani+ma-nmarnta*
 NEG 1SG.ERG 2SG.ACC see[+CAUS]-PSTCONTRA
kunaran-ta.
 winter-LOC
 ‘I did not see you in (the) winter.’ (TW08)

- (133) *Jankan~jankan+ma-ra-yanma.*
 shake[+CAUS]-ANTIP-PRSCONTRA
 ‘(He) isn’t shaking (i.e. shivering).’ (TW08)

⁷⁵ Note that there is no specific Ngarla TAM inflection associated with negated statements about future events. Cf. the following sentence: *Mirta ngaja nyina ngani+ma-n kunaran-ta.* NEG 1SG.ERG 2SG.ACC see[+CAUS]-FUT winter-LOC ‘I will not see you in the winter.’ (TW08)

4.4.3.4.2 *Anticipatory*

The Ngarla Anticipatory distinction (-*nyamarta*/*rnamarta*) pertains to the present or near future, see (134) – (135).⁷⁶ It denotes that the speaker is convinced that the event described by the verb has to/will occur (cf. Palmer 2001). If the mood should be interpreted as a deontic obligative or an epistemic deductive/assumptive is however not entirely clear, due to the fact that the contexts where it occurs are ambiguous (cf. (444)). However, it is here considered likely that it should be interpreted as an epistemic modality, in light of the fact that the TAM inflection occurs exclusively with third person subjects (134) and in statements expressing that what, in the opinion of the speaker, must take place is the effect of some previous event, as in (135). Here, it is the fact that someone will get meat that is considered certain, if the person in question is first kind to the one with the meat.

(134) *Yinjirtin ngayi-nyamarta.*

suspended INCH-ANT

‘(It) has to hang.’ (Said of something that needs to dry or of a carcass.) (#)

(135) *Katu ja-n* *palakarni,* *waa-rnamarta* *nyinu*
 kind CAUS-FUT DEM (mid) give-ANT 2SG.DAT
mantu.

meat

‘Be kind to that one, (and he) will surely give you meat.’ (#)

4.4.4 TAM marking with the two irregular verbs *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ and *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’

4.4.4.1 *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’

The TAM distinctions and inflections of *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ are in Table 22 compared to those of the regular conjugations. Regular Ø/L conjugation inflections also taken by the irregular verb are highlighted.

As shown in Table 22, the four stems of the verb seem to occur with different types of TAM distinctions. The shortest stem, *ya-*, is the imperative/hortative stem, employed with the Imperative (*ya-rra*) and Hortative distinctions (*ya-ku*). This is the only verb of the language to have separate Imperative and Hortative TAM categories, and they occur in positive commands/hortations only. Positive hortation is with this verb thus not covered by the Purposive inflection.

⁷⁶ The label for this category has been changed since the publication of Westerlund (2011), where it was called Obligative.

Table 22 Main clause TAM distinctions and inflections with the irregular verb *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ in comparison to Ø/L conjugation TAM distinctions and inflections.

TAM distinction	Inflection, Ø/L conjugation	<i>ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-</i> ‘go’
Imperative (IMP)	-	<i>ya-rra</i>
Hortative (HORT)	-	<i>ya-ku</i>
Purposive (PURP)	<i>-kura/-lu</i>	<i>yana-kura</i>
Anticipatory (ANT)	<i>-nyamarta/-rnamarta</i>	<i>yana-nyamarta</i>
Present tense (PRS)	<i>-yan/-rri</i>	<i>yanangka-yan</i>
Usitative (USI)	<i>-yanta/-yirnta</i>	<i>yanangka-yanta</i>
Present contrafactual (PRSCONTRA)	<i>-yanma/-rrima</i>	<i>yanangka-yanma</i>
Future tense (FUT)	<i>-Ø/-n</i>	<i>yaa-n</i>
Remote past tense (REMPST)	<i>-rnta/-rnta</i>	
Past (PST)	<i>-nyu/-rnu</i>	
Continuous past (CPST)	<i>-yanu/-yinyu</i>	<i>yaa-nu</i>
Optative (OPT)	<i>-mara/-nmara</i>	<i>yaa-nmara</i>
Past contrafactual (PSTCONTRA)	<i>-marnta/-nmarnta</i>	<i>yaa-nmarnta</i>
Speculative (SPEC)	<i>-mpi/-mpi</i>	<i>yaa-mpi</i>

The stem *yana-* is employed with the deontic Purposive and the deontic or epistemic Anticipatory, two moods that are concerned with what someone intends/desires or ought to do. As with regular verbs, the Purposive is also used for negative commands/hortations. As mentioned above, it is however not employed in positive hortations, like the Purposive of the Ø/L conjugations. Note that the verb here takes regular Ø conjugation inflections (*-kura*, *-nyamarta*).

The longest stem, *yanangka-*, evidently formed by *yana-* plus an increment, seems to be the imperfective stem. It is employed with the Present tense and Usitative distinctions, and also with the Present contrafactual category. Once again, the verb takes the regular Ø conjugation inflections (*-yan*, *-yanta*, *-yanma*).

The stem *yaa-* occurs with the largest number of TAM categories. It is employed with two tenses, the Future and Past ((136) – (138)), with the epistemic Speculative and the deontic Optative modal distinctions, as well as with the Past contrafactual category. It thus seems appropriate to analyse it as an irrealis stem, ‘irrealis’ here implying ‘unreal in the present’ (i.e. the time of speaking; Comrie 1985; Palmer 2001).

In three out of five cases, regular L conjugation inflections are employed with *yaa-*, with the Future tense, the Optative and the Past Contrafactual (*-n*, *-nmara*, *-nmarnta*).⁷⁷

⁷⁷ While it is possible to analyse the Optative (*yaanmara*) and Past contrafactual forms (*yaanmarnta*) as consisting of the stem *yaan-* and the regular Ø conjugation Optative and

The same Speculative marker is used as with regular Ø/L conjugation verbs, *-mpi*. Note however that *yaanu* ((136) – (138)) covers the range that with other verbs is coded by three different TAM distinctions. Thus, (136) illustrates the form in a past perfective sense (i.e. like the Past TAM distinction of the regular conjugations); (137) a continuous past sense; and (140) a remote past sense. Sentence (137) might thus, unlike (136), be taken to describe something that started in the past but that is still ongoing at the time of speaking (cf. section 4.4.3.2.3 above).⁷⁸

- (136) *Parta-ngka* *pirri-ngka* ***yaa-nu***.
 other-LOC day-LOC go-PST
 ‘On another day (i.e. yesterday) (he) went.’ (TW08)
- (137) ***Yaa-nu-ya*** *nyangkala* *yurta-karni*.
 go-PST-3PL now fish-ALL
 ‘They went (just) now to (the) fish (i.e. to go fishing).’ (TW08)
- (138) *Murlurnu* ***yaa-nu***.
 long.ago go-PST
 ‘Long ago (he) went.’ (#)

4.4.4.2 *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’

Table 23 compares the TAM inflections of the regular conjugations to those taken by *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’. Just as above, regular Ø/L conjugation inflections also taken by *karri-* are highlighted. The stem change that *karri-* undergoes before TAM inflections starting with the retroflex (*rn*) or the lamino-palatal (*ny*) nasal was discussed in 2.1 above.

Past contrafactual inflections (*-mara*, *-marnta*), it is here considered more likely that the stem is in fact *yaa-*, since *yaan* is the future tense form of the verb.

⁷⁸ In the following to exceptions the past time reference is however expressed through the form *yanangkayanu*: *Yanangka-yanu-ya wilyparr ngurra-karni panta ngani+ma-ni-ya wula, palangka nyini-nyu-ya*. go-PST-3PL detour camp-ALL close see[+CAUS]-?-3PL water there stay-PST-3PL ‘(While) they were going on a detour to the camp they saw the waterhole close (by), (and) stopped there.’ (#); *Wiyanu ngaya yanangka-yanu warntayi-ngura*. hunting 1SG.NOM go-PST riverbed-LOC ‘I went hunting on the riverbed.’ (TW10)

Table 23 Main clause TAM distinctions with the irregular verb *karri*- ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ in comparison to Ø/L conjugation TAM inflections.

TAM distinction	Inflection, Ø/L conjugation	<i>karri</i> - ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’
Present tense (PRS)	<i>-yan/-rri</i>	<i>karri-rri</i>
Remote past tense (REMPST)	<i>-rnta/-rnta</i>	<i>kayi-rnta</i>
Past (PST)	<i>-nyu/-rnu</i> <i>-yanu/-yinyu</i>	<i>kayi-nyu</i> no examples
Continuous past (CPST)		
Usitative (USI)	<i>-yanta/-yirnta</i>	<i>karri-yirnta</i>
Future tense (FUT)	<i>-Ø/-n</i>	<i>karri-Ø</i>
Speculative (SPEC)	<i>-mpi/-mpi</i>	<i>karri-mpi</i>
Purposive (PURP)	<i>-kura/-lu</i>	<i>karri-kura</i>
Optative (OPT)	<i>-mara/-nmara</i>	<i>karri-mara</i>
Present contrafactual (PRSCONTRA)	<i>-yanma/-rrima</i>	<i>karri-Ø</i>
Past contrafactual (PSTCONTRA)	<i>-marnta/-nmarnta</i>	<i>karri-marnta</i>
Anticipatory (ANT)	<i>-nyamarta/-rnamarta</i>	<i>kayi-nyamarta</i>

Despite the fact that *karri*- is a transitive verb, it only takes two L conjugation TAM inflections, namely those marking Present tense (*-rri*) and Usitative (*-yirnta*). In most cases, the verb instead occurs with Ø conjugation inflections. This is the case in the TAM distinctions Past (*-nyu*), Future (*-Ø*; (139) – (140)), Purposive (*-kura*), Optative (*-mara*), Past contrafactual (*-marnta*) and Anticipatory (*-nyamarta*). Sentence (139) illustrates the future tense use of the Future distinction (*sic!*) and (140) the imperative use.

- (139) *Palakarni* *kurrpu* *winyja ja-rri*.
 DEM (mid) heavy rejection CAUS-PRS
Yarti *yila* ***karri-Ø***.
 later perhaps take-FUT
 ‘That heavy thing (the man) rejects. Later (he) will perhaps take (it).’ (TW08)

- (140) ***Jirli-ngka*** ***karri-Ø*** ***palakarni*** ***jilya!***
 arm-LOC take-FUT DEM (mid) child
 ‘By the arm take that child!’ (I.e. ‘By the hand lead that child!’) (#)

Karri- also takes the Remote past and Speculative TAM inflections common to the Ø/L conjugations (*-rnta*, *-mpi*).

In only one TAM distinction does the Ngarla transitive irregular verb have an inflection that is unique, in the Present contrafactual. With *karri-*, this TAM distinction is marked by *-Ø* (141), i.e. identically to Future tense.

- (141) *Mirta karri-Ø nyangkala, wanyja-rri.*
 NEG take-PRSCONTRA now leave-PRS
Kurrpu murri.
 heavy INTNS
 ‘(He) isn’t taking (it) now, (he) is leaving (it). (It is) too heavy.’
 (TW08)

Unfortunately, there are no examples of *karri-* receiving Continuous past marking.

4.4.5 Person marking

Person marking morphemes on verbs are in Australianist literature referred to e.g. as ‘bound pronouns’ (Blake 1987:100; Dixon 2002a:337) and ‘verbal pronouns’ (Sharp 2004:244). When Ngarla bound pronouns occur, they are added at the end of the inflected verb. Bound pronouns are employed in main clauses only, in order to mark subject agreement. However, there are only bound pronouns for some persons. This fact is illustrated in Table 24.⁷⁹

Table 24 Ngarla bound pronouns.

Person	In imperatives/ hortations	With other TAM distinctions
1DU.INCL	<i>-jarra</i>	
2DU	<i>-pula</i>	
3DU		<i>-pula</i>
2PL	<i>-ya</i>	
3PL		<i>-ya</i>

In languages of the western part of Australia, bound pronouns that are typically employed for third person SA, in imperatives/hortations instead mark second person (Dench 1999; Sharp 2004). This is the case also with Ngarla bound pronouns *-pula* and *-ya*, as shown in Table 24. This phenomenon is discussed below.

The suffix *-jarra*, occurring on the first line of Table 24, is employed as an agreement marker in exhortations to two people, one of whom is the speaker (see example (142) and also (438)). Note in (144) that an identical suffix marks dual on nominals (see also section 3.4.1.4), which leads to the suspicion that the two suffixes have the same diachronic source. Thus, it might in fact be justified to describe the *-jarra* suffix as a number marker rather than a person marker.

⁷⁹ Note that the picture that emerges in the Ngarla material is a bit more complicated than what is suggested for Ngarla in Dixon (2002a). It is there claimed that the language has bound pronouns in clausal functions for 3DU and 3PL SA only.

- (142) *'Wataku,* *para* *wurta+ma-n-jarra*
 unimportant 3SG.DAT wait[+CAUS]-FUT-1DU
wangka-ka, *kurntakarra.'*
 speech-LOC COMBINATION KIN TERM⁸⁰
 '(It's) unimportant, let us wait for it in talk, nephew.'

-pula marks second person dual in exhortations, as in (143). In non-exhortations, it is employed for third person dual (144).

- (143) *Palakarni-ngura* *warlkanti* *nyini-Ø-pula* *jarnamani!*
 DEM (mid)-LOC sitting stay-FUT-2DU back.to.back
 'You two, stay there sitting (i.e. sit there), back to back!' (TW08)
- (144) *Jilya-ngku-jarra* *warnta* *yirriny+ma-rri-pula.*
 child-ERG-DU log lift[+CAUS]-PRS-3DU
 'Two children are lifting (a) log.' (#)

In the same way, *-ya* marks second person plural in exhortations (145) and third person plural in non-exhortations; (146) – (147). An epenthetic *-pi-* is inserted between TAM suffixes ending on the nasal *n* and *-ya*, as in (145) – (146).

- (145) *Jipa-n-pi-ya* *pana-nya* *palakarni* *kukurnjayi!*
 steer-FUT-EP-2PL 3PL-ACC DEM (mid) sheep
 'You (pl), steer those sheep!' (TW10)
- (146) *Wurrangkura*
 river red gum tree (*eucalyptus camaldulensis*)
jarnti karri-yan-pi-ya *pakarn~parkarn-ngura.*
 vertical INCH-PRS-EP-3PL uneven.riverbank-LOC
 'River red gum trees are being vertical (i.e. are standing) on (the) uneven riverbank.' (TW08)
- (147) *Warrumurntu* *karrapirti* *nyini-yanu-ya*
 morning long.time stay-CPST-3PL
wangka-ka.
 speech-LOC
 'Ever (since) morning they have stayed in talk (i.e. have been talking).' (#)

⁸⁰ Used by a person to or about his/her spouse and a daughter or son.

Bound pronouns (here including *-jarra*) are compulsory in exhortations to first and second person dual and second person plural, and in non-exhortation clauses discussing actions performed by third person dual and third person plural subjects. Commonly, there are overt subjects in non-exhortation clauses that include a verb taking bound pronouns (as in e.g. (144) and (146)).⁸¹ Subjects may however be omitted (cf. (147), and also (5), (34) and (173)). In exhortations with bound pronouns, overt subjects usually do not occur.

4.5 Valency changing derivations

4.5.1 Introduction

Australian languages commonly allow derivational morphemes, usually suffixes, to be added to verbal roots. Such suffixes are either semantic or syntactic in nature. Syntactic suffixes change the valency of the verb (Dixon 2002a). This situation is found in Ngarla. In this section, valency changing derivations are introduced.

Two valency decreasing derivations found in Ngarla, the antipassive and reciprocal, are described in section 4.5.2 below.⁸²

The two types of valency increasing derivations that exist in Australian languages are (i) causative, which changes the S argument of an intransitive clause to the P of a transitive clause; and (ii) applicative, in which S becomes A, and what was previously a peripheral argument is moved into P function. While most Australian languages have causative derivational mechanisms, applicatives are found in some languages only. Most commonly, the suffix that marks the causative/applicative derivation is identical to the causative verbaliser of the language in question (Dixon 2002a). The Ngarla valency increasing derivation is described in 4.5.3.

4.5.2 Valency decreasing derivations

4.5.2.1 *Antipassive*

An antipassive construction is found in many of the world's ergative languages (Keenan & Dryer 2007). In Australian languages, the alternation between the transitive and the antipassive often signals some general difference in aspect or modality (Blake 2001). According to Blake (1987), the antipassive in Kalkatungu is thus employed to signal ongoing, uncompleted or characteristic activity. In Pitta-Pitta, the antipassive is similarly employed for continuing and characteristic activity, and also for desiderative aspect ('I want to...'; Blake 1987; cf. Dixon 2002a and Hopper & Thompson 1980).⁸³ It

⁸¹ When a non-pronominal nominal subject does occur, it is frequently marked for dual/plural (cf. (13), (16) – (18), (129), (144), (206), (452)), but sometimes not (e.g. (204)).

⁸² The reflexive derivation, commonly found in Australian languages (cf. Dixon 2002a), thus does not exist in Ngarla. Instead, a reflexive pronoun, *pulala*, is employed, cf. section 3.4.4 above. See also 4.4.3.2.3 for a Ngarla semantic equivalent to the passive derivation.

⁸³ This type of antipassive construction is labelled a 'backgrounding antipassive' in Foley (2007:433). In a language with an asymmetrical syntactic pivot, the antipassive derivation however has as its primary function to fulfill pivot constraints (the 'foregrounding antipassive'; Foley 2007:430; cf. Dixon 2002a). A pivot is the NP type around which most

is common in antipassives for the argument that occurs in a peripheral function to take the dative case (Blake 2001; Dixon 2002a).

Australian languages exhibiting a fully productive antipassive construction are concentrated to the northeast of the continent. Lexically restricted antipassives, occurring with only a handful of verbs, are however found in a wider range of languages, according to Blake (1987).

In Ngarla, the antipassive derivational suffix *-ra-* is taken by telic L conjugation complex verbs created with the verbalisers *ji-L/+ji-L*, *ma-L/+ma-L*, *nya-L/+nya-L*, *pi-L/+pi-L*, *+pinya-L* and *-rni-L/+rni-L*, as in (148) and (150). (The only clear example in the Ngarla database of a simple verb root taking the antipassive derivation involves *mija-L* ‘touch’; cf. Table 14.) Compare antipassive examples (148) and (150) to the transitive sentences (149) and (151). Antipassive being a valency decreasing derivation, the *-ra-* suffix conditions the use of Ø conjugation verbal morphology. In (149) and (151), the verbs take the expected L conjugation morphology. In these examples, there are also ergative subjects, *kunyjarta-lu* (woman-ERG) in (149) and *ngunyi-ngku ngarta-ngku* (DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG) ‘that man’ in (151), as opposed to the nominative subjects of (148) and (150), *ngunyi* (DEM (distant)) and *palakarni* (DEM (mid)).

As indicated by the translations of examples (148) and (150), the Ngarla antipassive is used to indicate that what is described by the verb is stretched out in time. This means that an iterative sense is created with punctual verbs. Compare in this context (150) to (151). The first sentence denotes that someone continues to shout at someone else. The second, transitive example however implies that one man is shouting at another only once.

- | | | | |
|-------|----------|---|---|
| (148) | Person 1 | <i>Ngananya-rra</i>
EPI (what)-DAT
<i>ngani+ma-ra-yan</i>
see[+CAUS]-ANTIP-PRS | <i>ngunyi</i>
DEM (distant)

<i>para?</i>
3SG.DAT |
| | Person 2 | <i>Ngunyi</i>
DEM (distant)
<i>wajarri.Ø-yan</i>
searching.INCH-PRS
<i>parnu-nga-rra</i>
3SG-GEN-DAT | <i>marrungu</i>
man
<i>para</i>
3SG.DAT
<i>pir lumpurr-ku.</i>
spear-DAT |
- Person 1: ‘For what (thing) is that one looking (around)?’ Person 2:
‘That man is searching for his spear.’ (TW08)
-
- | | | | |
|-------|----------------------------------|--|------------------------|
| (149) | <i>Kunyjarta-lu</i>
woman-ERG | <i>ngani+ma-rri</i>
see[+CAUS]-PRS | <i>jilya.</i>
child |
|-------|----------------------------------|--|------------------------|
- ‘(The) woman is seeing (the) child.’ (AD)

grammatical constructions of a language revolve. In an asymmetrical pivot language, the noun phrase expressing either the semantic role of agent or of patient takes on pivot status (Dixon 2002a; Foley 2007).

- (150) *Ngananyakapu palakarni kalyu rni-ra-yan?*
 EPI (why) DEM (mid) shout CAUS-ANTIP-PRS
 ‘Why is that one continuing to shout?’ (TW08)
- (151) *Ngunyi-ngku ngarta-ngku parta*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG other
ngarta kalyu-rni-rrri.
 man shout-CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is shouting at another man (once).’ (TW08)

The Ngarla antipassive derivation is also employed to indicate general states of affairs.⁸⁴ Compare (152), that describes what the horse is doing at the time of speaking, to (153), which states what usually happens after the horse has gone for a swim.

- (152) *Ngunyi-ngku yawarta-lu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG horse-ERG
jurru~jurru pinya-rrri pulala.
 roll CAUS-PRS REFL
 ‘That horse is rolling himself (on the ground).’ (TW10)
- (153) *Ngunyi yawarta ngapa+rri-nguru*
 DEM (distant) horse swim[+INCH]-REL PST.SS
jurru~jurru pinya-ra-yan.
 roll CAUS-ANTIP-PRS
 ‘After swimming, that horse rolls (on the ground).’ (TW10)

With a few verbs there are only antipassive examples. Most of these verbs denote iterative actions. A couple of circumstances indicate that the verbs in question have in fact been lexicalised in their intransitive, antipassive senses. One such circumstance is the fact that the language consultant Brown, in the elicitation situation, most frequently refused to create sentences with the transitive versions of the verbs. If he however agreed to try, non-standard sentences like (154) resulted. The verb is here transitive, but the subject is unmarked for case (i.e. marked by nominative). No direct object appears to be implied. The verbs in question are listed in Table 25 below.⁸⁵

⁸⁴ Ngarla appears to lack a syntactic pivot and in Foley’s (2007) terminology thus has a backgrounding antipassive.

⁸⁵ There are more verbs which are only attested in the antipassive. Due to Brown’s untimely death, it was never investigated whether (some of) these verbs belong among those with a lexicalised antipassive sense. The verbs in question are: *kayirr~kayirr ma-L* ‘make grating noise’; *nyaarr ma-L* ‘make rushing noise’; *nyanta ma-L* ‘gather around’; *parl ma-L* ‘thump’; *puurr ma-L* ‘snore’; *pila+ma-L* ‘flash’. Note in this context also the verb *parramanta-ra-Ø* ‘do something wrong/different’: *Ngananyakapu nyinpa parramanta-ra-yan?* EPI (why) 2SG.NOM do.something.wrong/different-ANTIP-PRS ‘Why are you fiddling around?’ (#). It is unclear if *parramanta* should be analysed as a complex verb with a lexicalised

Table 25 Ngarla complex verbs with lexicalised antipassive senses.

Complex verb	Meaning of nominal stem	Example
<i>jimpayi pi-ra-Ø</i> ‘hide’	‘hidden’, ‘secret’	
<i>lilyirr~lilyirr pi-ra-Ø</i> ‘rattle periodically’	‘rattling noise’	
<i>ngurntily~ngurntily ma-ra-Ø</i> ‘cough’	‘cough’	(155)
<i>nyimpurl ma-ra-Ø</i> ‘pulse’, ‘throb’	‘pulse’, ‘throb’	(156)
<i>wipiny+nga-ra-Ø</i> ‘appear now and again’ ⁸⁶	unknown	

- (154) *Jilya ngurntily~ngurntily ma-n.*
 child cough CAUS-FUT
 ‘(The) child will cough.’ (#)

- (155) *Nguntu-kapu ngaya makurru*
 cold-SCE 1SG.NOM long.time
ngurntily~ngurntily ma-ra-yan.
 cough CAUS-ANTIP-PRS
 ‘Because of (a) cold I cough all the time.’ (TW10)

- (156) *Mirlka ngaya nyimpurl ma-ra-yan.*
 head 1SG.NOM throb CAUS-ANTIP-PRS
 ‘My head is throbbing (with a headache).’ (TW10)

4.5.2.2 Reciprocal

According to Dixon (2002a), many Australian languages that have a reciprocal verbal derivation employ a reflex of a putative proto-language form **-dharri-*. In Ngarla, the reciprocal derivation is marked by a suffix similar to this one, *-nmarri-*. It attaches to L conjugation verb stems in order to denote reciprocal action, as in (157), (159) – (161) below. A comparison between (157) and the fully transitive sentence (158) shows that the reciprocal suffix is a transitivity decreasing marker. In (158), a subject taking ergative marking is included, *yukurru-lu* (dog-ERG). This is not the case in (157), where the verb takes reciprocal marking. In (157), subject reference is marked on the verb only, by the person marker *-pula* (3DU). In examples (159) – (160), there are overt subjects, *ngali* (1DU.INCL.NOM) in (159) and *nyumpalu* (2DU.NOM) in (160). Verbs with *-nmarri-* take Ø conjugation verbal morphology in all examples.

antipassive sense, or if *parramantara* is in fact an unanalysable Ø conjugation verb root (cf. Table 14).

⁸⁶ It is uncertain if *wipiny+nga-ra-Ø* and *wurta+ma-ra-Ø* should be analysed as complex verbs. However, the fact that there are also two verbs *wipiny+ja-L* ‘make come in and out of vision’ and *wurta+rri-Ø* ‘stand’ seem to imply that this analysis is correct (cf. section 4.3.1.2). The following sentence illustrates the use of *wipiny+ja-L*: *Kurlurlu-lu ngunyi mapal wipiny+ja-rri.* dust-ERG DEM (distant) sun come.in.and.out.of.vision[+CAUS]-PRS
 ‘(The) dust storm is making that sun come in and out of vision.’ (TW10)

- (157) ***Jinta pi-nmayi-nyu-pula.***
 others CAUS-RECP-PST-3DU
 ‘The two became others (i.e. split up from each other).’ (#)
- (158) ***Jinta pi-rnu*** *pana-nya* *yukurru-lu* *kukurnjayi.*
 others CAUS-PST 3PL-ACC dog-ERG sheep
 ‘(The) dog made the sheep others (i.e. separated the sheep).’ (#)
- (159) *Mirta* *ngali* ***ngani+ma-nmarri-kura***
 NEG 1DU.INCL.NOM see[+CAUS]-RECP-PURP
kunaran-ta, *yarti.*
 winter-LOC later
 ‘We do not intend to see each other in (the) winter, (but) later.’
 (TW08)
- (160) *Mirta* *nyumpalu* *witi ja-lu*
 NEG 2DU.NOM games CAUS-PURP
palakarni *piju,* *yiri-jangu,*
 DEM (mid) knife sharp-ASSOC
yaji-nmarri-Ø *nyumpalu.*
 stab-RECP-FUT 2DU.NOM
 ‘Don't you two play with that knife, (it's) sharp, you will stab one
 another.’ (#)

The only ditransitive verb that takes the reciprocal suffix in the database is *waa-L* ‘give’, as in (161) below. No overt object is included in (161), or in other examples of *waa-L* taking reciprocal marking.

- (161) ***Waa-nmarri-yan-pi-ya*** *jinyji~jinyji-lu.*
 give-RECP-PRS-EP-3PL alternating-ERG
 ‘They are giving one another (things) in exchange.’ (#)

4.5.3 Valency increasing derivation

4.5.3.1 Causative

The Ngarla valency increasing derivation is of the causative type. However, it is very restricted, and has been found with four \emptyset conjugation verbs only, *ngapa+rri-Ø* ‘do something in/with water’; *piyani-Ø* ‘move’; *warni-Ø* ‘fall’; and *wurtura+rri-Ø* ‘stretch’.⁸⁷ As illustrated in (163) and (165) below, both productive causative verbalisers (*ma-L* and *ja-L*) double as causative derivational markers. They are employed in the same manner as when functioning as verbalisers, *ma-L* creating atelic

⁸⁷ The semantic content of *ngapa+rri-Ø* is very general. It is employed for different types of activities involving water.

verbs (as in (163)) and *ja-L* telic verbs (as in (165)). Compare to the intransitive examples (162) and (164). (Note that while *ma-L* and *ja-L* are here considered derivational morphemes, they are not suffixes. See the discussion about the phonological word status of the verbalisers *ma-L* and *ja-L* in section 4.3.1.3 above.)

- (162) *Wurtura+rri-Ø* *Nyapiri.*
stretch[+INCH]-FUT *Nyapiri*
‘Nyapiri will stretch.’ (TW10)
- (163) *Parnu-nga-lu* *warniya-lu* *mirnmanya*
3SG-GEN-ERG mother-ERG baby
parrpa-rnanyuru-lu
transfer.warmth (with.hands)-RELPRS.SS-ERG
wurtura+rri ma-rri.
stretch[+INCH] CAUS-PRS
‘His mother is stretching the baby (i.e. the baby’s mother is stretching him) while transferring warmth.’ (TW10)
- (164) *Wula yila warni-Ø.*
water perhaps fall-FUT
‘Water (i.e. rain) will perhaps fall.’ (TW08)
- (165) *Ngaja palakarni warnta*
1SG.ERG DEM (mid) tree
warni ja-rri.
fall CAUS-PRS
‘I am making that tree fall.’ (TW08)

There is only one, possibly lexicalised, example of *ji-L* being used to mark causative derivation, in *warni ji-L* ‘throw’ ((166); see also (37)). Note also (167) below, where *ma-L* together with *ngapa+rri* appears to create an atelic applicative derivation.

- (166) *Mayangkarrangu-lu* *warni ji-rnu* *pinyjira*
forceful-ERG fall CAUS-PST spear
marrungu-lu.
man-ERG
‘With force (i.e. forcefully) (the) man made (the) spear fall (i.e. threw (the) spear).’ (#)

- (167) *Ngunyi-ngku* *marrungu-lu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG
ngapa+rri ma-rri *kupan.*
 get.wet[+INCH] APPL-PRS lawn
 ‘That man is watering (the) lawn.’ (TW08)

5. *Minor word classes*

5.1 Introduction

Minor word classes are defined here as word classes with limited and closed membership. In Dixon's (2002a:66) 'residue set', a set which includes lexical units and clitics in Australian languages that neither qualify as nominals nor as verbs, four minor word classes are distinguished: particles, ideophones, interjections and conjunctions. In the present description, only particles and interjections are however discussed. Conjunctions appear not to exist in Ngarla (according to Dixon 2002a, this lexical class exists in some Australian languages only), and potential ideophones behave like nominals.

Particles are uninflected lexical units or clitics, the meanings of which are associated with propositional modification in Australian languages. The class thus commonly includes evidentials, negatives, adverbial modifiers such as 'only' and 'very', and discourse markers. Interjections make up single word utterances that immediately express what is on the speakers mind (Dench 1995, 1999; Dixon 1980, 2002a; Matthews 2007).

5.2 Particles

In this section, 16 Ngarla particles, two of which are clitics, are introduced. All 16 particles serve to modify propositions.

Ngarla negation particles are *mirta* and *ngurra(pirli)*, which usually (but not invariably) appear clause initially. *Mirta* is the Ngarla standard negation, and is employed in the vast majority of all recorded negative sentences (cf. (43), (127), (131), (132) and (141)). *Ngurra(pirli)* occurs in a smaller number of contexts. Where it is used, however, it appears to negate the clause more emphatically than *mirta*, see (168) – (169).⁸⁸

- (168) *Ngurra, mirta ngaya yaa-nmarnta.*
NEG NEG 1SG.NOM go-PSTCONTRA
'No, I didn't go.' (#)

⁸⁸ *Mirta* and *ngurra(pirli)* can constitute utterances on their own, see (43) and (168), and therefore also qualify as interjections. They however most commonly have scope over a whole clause, which is the reason for including them here.

- (169) *Ngurra murri pilyparr*
 NEG INTNS unsuccessfully
marni-punyjarri palakarni
 climb-INSNOM DEM (mid)
yirra.
 row.of.items (e.g. jagged peaks)
 ‘(There) is no way (that) those jagged peaks can successfully be associated with climbing.’ (I.e. ‘It is impossible to climb those cliffs.’) (#)

There are three particles that express doubt. Two of these, *marangu* and *yila*, appear to be used interchangeably, as in (170) - (171). The third one is the clitic *-pa*. More information about *-pa* is given below.⁸⁹

- (170) *Parlparr nganyjarra-nga*
 sky 1PL.INCL-DAT
nganta+rri-Ø marangu.
 cave.in[+INCH]-FUT perhaps
 ‘(The) sky will perhaps cave in for us.’ (#)
- (171) *Yukurru-lu paji-n yila ngarta.*
 dog-ERG bite-FUT perhaps man
 ‘(The) dog will perhaps bite (the) man.’ (AD)

The particles *parra* (172), *wayimpi* (173) and *wayi(rru)*; (174)) function as question particles, and are employed to create polar questions.⁹⁰ They are used interchangeably, but of the three, *wayi(rru)* is by far the most frequent one. Question particles are always placed clause initially.

⁸⁹ Note the homonym *marangu* ‘more’, which however does not modify the whole clause: *Mantu nganu waa-n marangu!* meat 1SG.DAT give-FUT more ‘Give me more meat!’ (TW10)

⁹⁰ According to Dixon (2002a), the most common way of creating polar questions in Australian languages is simply to use a rising final intonation. As stated above, the language consultant Brown was reluctant to be recorded on tape or video. Due to that fact, there is some doubt as to whether this strategy was used in Ngarla. Some written Ngarla examples however seem to indicate that this strategy did indeed exist, alongside the use of question particles. *Nyayi nyinta mantu karri-Ø* in the following example could for instance function just as well as a statement: Person 1: *Nyayi nyinta mantu karri-Ø?* DEM (proximate) 2SG.ERG meat take-FUT Person 2: *Mirta, winyja, nyini-mara.* NEG rejection stay-PERM Person 1: ‘Will you take this meat?’ Person 2: ‘No. Let (it) stay (there).’ (#)

- (172) **Parra** *nyayi* *wula*,
 Q DEM (proximate) water
nyinta karri-Ø?
 2SG.ERG take-FUT
 ‘This water, will you take (it)?’ (#)
- (173) **Wayimpi** *yaa-nu-ya?*
 Q go-PST-3PL
 ‘Did they go?’ (#)
- (174) **Wayirru** *nyinta kanyi-rrri mantu?*
 Q 2SG.ERG care.for-PRS meat
 ‘Are you caring for (any) meat?’ (I.e. ‘Do you have (any) meat?’)
 (#)

The particle *walyi* (175) denotes that that which is expressed in the clause was in fact only almost accomplished, while *pilyparr* marks failure of accomplishment (176).

- (175) *Nyinta walyi wakurr ja-rnu*
 2SG.ERG almost secure CAUS-PST
ngunyi karlajangu.
 DEM (distant) cattle
 ‘You almost had that cattle (i.e. cow/bull) secured (i.e. yarded up).’
 (#)
- (176) **Pilyparr** *ngaja yarni+ma-rnu*
 unsuccessfully 1SG.ERG repair[+CAUS]-PST
pirrjarta.
 vehicle
 ‘Unsuccessfully I repaired (the) vehicle.’ (I.e. ‘I failed to repair the vehicle.’) (#)

Purtukarri ‘in vain’, ‘to no avail’ indicates that what happened, happened in vain or for no particular reason (177). *Wataku*, on the other hand, is used to stress that the thing talked about is unimportant (178).

- (177) **Purtukarri** *ngaya yaa-nu.*
 in.vain 1SG.NOM go-PST
 ‘In vain I went.’ (I.e. ‘I went, but didn’t achieve my aim in going.’)
 (#)

- (178) *Wataku,* *ngaja* *nyina*
 unimportant 1SG.ERG 2SG.ACC
juka ma-rri.
 trick CAUS-PRS
 ‘(It’s) unimportant, I am (only) tricking you.’ (#)

Murntu is employed for inclusion and is best translated ‘also, too’ (179).

- (179) *Yaku-la* *nyuka pi-lu*
 let’s.go-PL increase.site/feature CAUS-PURP⁹¹
mantu-rra *mayi-rra* ***murntu***
 meat-DAT vegetable.food-DAT also
karlupurra-karni.
 generic.source-ALL
 ‘Let’s go to (the) source place in order to increase (the) meat (and the) vegetable food also.’ (#)

Three intensifiers occur in the Ngarla material. Two of these are particles, *murri* and *palka~palka* (180). In section 3.4.8 above, *murri* was shown to be very versatile, in that it is employed to intensify different types of nominals, verbs and whole clauses. In all existing examples of *palka~palka*, however, it intensifies the verb of the clause, as in (180) (where *jurni kayi-nyu* (laughter-INCH-PST) constitutes the verb).

- (180) *Jurni kayi-nyu* *ngaya* ***palka~palka.***
 laughter INCH-PST 1SG.NOM INTNS
 ‘I laughed uproariously.’ (#)

The clitic *-la* is an emphatic marker, i.e. also an intensifier; (181) – (182). The other known clitic, *-pa*, (183) – (184), expresses doubt. However, the latter occurs only occasionally. The particles *marangu* and *yila* are employed more frequently to express doubt, in the way illustrated above. Where *-pa* is used, it is always attached to the first constituent of the utterance.

- (181) *Ngananyawanti* *yanangka-yan*
 EPI (what.for) go-PRS
nyinpa-la?
 2SG.NOM-INTNS
 ‘What are you going for?’
- (182) *Ngananya-la* *punga-rnu?*
 EPI (what)-INTNS hit-PST
 ‘What was it (he) hit?’ (#)

⁹¹ For more information about this verb, see section 4.4.3.2.3.

- (183) *Purlpi-pa* *ngaya*
 well-DOUBT 1SG.NOM
nyinu ngani+ma-lu kurnaran-ta.
 2SG.DAT see[+CAUS]-PURP winter-LOC
 ‘Well, I might want to see you in (the) winter.’ (#)
- (184) *Mantu nganu waa-n!*
 meat 1SG.DAT give-FUT
Wataku-pa juka ma-n nganya!
 unimportant-DOUBT lie CAUS-FUT 1SG.ACC
 ‘Give meat to me! (But I) suppose (it’s) unimportant, lie to me (i.e. tell me you haven’t got any)!’ (#)

5.3 Interjections

As indicated above, interjections are units that may function as single word utterances. In many Australian languages they may be the only monosyllables or the only open monosyllables (Dench 1999; Dixon 1980). Only a few Ngarla interjections are known, and these are listed below.⁹²

- kula* ‘wait’ (185)
kuu ‘ssh’ (186)
yuu ‘look’, ‘yes’; (187) - (188)

- (185) Person 1 *Wula nganu karri-Ø!*
 water 1SG.DAT bring-FUT
 Person 2 *Kula, mirli~mirli jangka ja-rna*
 wait paper fastened CAUS-*rna*⁹³
piya-nya.
 3DU-ACC
 Person 1: ‘Bring water for me!’ Person 2: ‘Wait, I will fasten the two papers (together first).’ (TW08)

⁹² Note that the common Australian form *kapu* ‘come’, in Dixon (2002a) included among interjections, is not considered an interjection here. This is because *kapu* in Ngarla can take verbal person marking. Compare thus the following sentences: *Kapu, yaku-jarra yurta-karni!* come let’s.go-1DU fish-ALL ‘Come [said to one person], let’s [you and me] go to (the) fish (i.e. go fishing)!’ (TW08); *Kapu-pula, yaku-la yurta-karni!* come-2DU let’s.go-INTNS fish-ALL ‘Come [said to two people], let’s [all of us together] go to (the) fish (i.e. go fishing)!’ (TW08); *Kapu-ya, yaku-la yurta-karni!* come-2PL let’s.go-INTNS fish-ALL ‘Come [said to three or more people], let’s [all of us together] go to (the) fish (i.e. go fishing)!’ (TW08).

⁹³ Concerning the *-rna* suffix, see section 4.4.3.1, with footnotes.

- (186) **Kuu!** *Pularn nyini-Ø-la palu*
 ssh silent stay-FUT-INTNS 3SG.LOC
wangka kayi-nyjangura.
 speech INCH-REL.DS.LOC⁹⁴
 ‘Sssh! Stay silent on him while (he) is talking.’ (#)
- (187) **Yuu!** *Palakarni yukurru-lu*
 look DEM (mid) dog-ERG
kumpu ji-rri nyinu pirjarta taya.
 urine CAUS-PRS 2SG.DAT vehicle tyre
 ‘Look! (The) dog is urinating (on) that car tyre of yours.’ (#)
- (188) Person 1 *Nyayi-rra nyinpa*
 DEM (proximate)-DAT 2SG.NOM
para mantu-rra nyaarru?
 3SG.DAT meat-DAT in.favour.of
 Person 2 **Yuu,** *nyaarru ngaya.*
 yes in.favour.of 1SG.NOM
 Person 1: ‘Are you in favour of this meat?’ (I.e. ‘Do you want this meat?’) Person 2: ‘Yes, I am in favour of (it).’ (I.e. ‘Yes, I want (it).’)
 (#)

⁹⁴ *-nyjangura* should be interpreted as consisting of *-nyjangu* (REL.DS) and *-ngura* (LOC). Due to haplology, one of the identical *ngu* syllables is however deleted when following each other in this way.

6. *The noun phrase*

6.1 Introduction

The term ‘noun phrase’ (NP) is used in a traditional sense in this work, i.e. to describe a phrase that has a nominal as its central constituent (‘head’), and that can function as an argument of a clause (cf. Payne 1994). The head of the noun phrase may, according to Dryer (2007b), take the following types of modifiers (provided, of course, that these types of modifiers exist in the language under study): articles, demonstratives, numerals, plural words, adjectives, nouns, locative adverbs, interrogative modifiers, as well as other noun modifiers. In Australian languages, generic nouns also need to be considered as noun phrase modifiers (Dixon 2002a).

The most common strategy used in languages of the world to indicate that lexical units belong together in a noun phrase is juxtaposition. Where this strategy is employed, the internal ordering of the units is often governed by constraints (Givón 2001b). Case marking or marking of definiteness with each constituent may also serve to keep an NP together, if its constituents are scattered through a clause (Givón 2001a).

In some Australian languages, the units constituting a noun phrase are kept together, while in others they may be scattered through the clause (Blake 1987; Dixon 2002a; cf. Dixon 1980). According to Dixon (2002a), there are two basic alternatives for the attachment of case marking in languages of the continent. In languages where noun phrases are kept together, case marking occurs at the end of each NP. In the languages where NP constituents may instead be scattered, each constituent is marked for case.

In Ngarla, lexemes from most nominal subclasses can constitute noun phrase heads. The constituents of an NP may be scattered (189) or kept together (190). In the examples below, all relevant NP constituents are highlighted. What constitutes a noun phrase is always clearly indicated by case marking, all constituents taking the same grammatical cases, and also by certain constituent order tendencies.⁹⁵ In (190), all constituents of the direct object NP lack overt case marking (i.e. appear in the nominative; the exception being the particle *murri*, which is never case marked). In (189), *nyayi-jarra piya-nya purlparl* (DEM (proximate)-DU 3DU-ACC food) ‘these two (types of) food’ together constitute one noun phrase (the other NP being *ngaja* 1SG.ERG) ‘I’. Typically, Ngarla NPs which do not consist of a pronoun or a demonstrative only, are made up of two to three lexical units, the head constituent (most frequently, a common noun) and one or two of the following modifiers: demonstrative, quantifier, pronoun, modifying nominal filling the adjectival function

⁹⁵ Note however that in cases of coordination, overt case marking on all constituents appears not to be compulsory. See (410) below, where the nominal *mirtanya* ‘old man’ is unmarked for case, despite being part of the subject of the clause. Overt ergative marking occurs with *mirtawari-nyjarri-lu* (old.woman-PL-ERG) ‘old women’ only.

and modifying nominal taking adnominal case marking. *Nyayi-jarra piya-nya purlparl* in (189) is thus a typical Ngarla noun phrase.

- (189) *Nyayi-jarra* *ngaja* *piya-nya*
 DEM (proximate)-DU 1SG.ERG 3DU-ACC
kama-n *purlparl.*
 cook-FUT food
 ‘I will cook these two (types of) food.’ (TW08)

- (190) *Palakarni* *karlajangu*⁹⁶ *marlajangu*
 DEM (mid) cattle bull
paja-jangu *murri* *purрпи ma-rri*
 dangerous-ASSOC INTNS facing CAUS-PRS
nyinta.
 2SG.ERG
 ‘That very dangerous bull you are going to face up to.’ (TW10)

The distribution of different types of modifiers which occur in Ngarla NPs is discussed in the following section.

6.2 Modifiers in the Ngarla noun phrase

In this section, modifiers in the Ngarla noun phrase are discussed. While there is no strict ordering of NP constituents, certain types of modifiers are usually placed before the head, while others commonly occur after. Demonstratives, pronouns and modifying nominals marked by genitive, which all frequently occur before the head, are described first. After this, quantifiers, modifying nominals filling the adjectival function and generic nominals are discussed. All of the latter can be placed either before or after the head nominal. Described last are comitative/privative marked modifiers, which are usually placed after the head, and restrictive relative clauses.

When not constituting heads in their own right, the Ngarla demonstratives almost invariably occur directly before the head (191), in cases when the demonstrative and the head nominal make up the whole noun phrase. (See below for information about demonstratives occurring together with other types of modifiers in NPs.)

- (191) *Palakarni-lu* *marrungu-lu*
 DEM (mid)-ERG man-ERG
purри pi-rri *yurta.*
 fish.scale CAUS-PRS fish
 ‘That man is scaling (the) fish.’ (TW10)

⁹⁶ *Karlajangu* and *marlajangu* are lexicalised instances of the associative *-jangu* added to *karla* ‘diarrhoea’ and *marla* ‘balls’.

Pronouns, or at least units that look like pronouns, occur frequently in NPs with non-pronominal head nominals. This is only occasionally the case in NPs in subject function (192), but it is very common in the direct object (193) and indirect object functions, see (194) – (195). In some such contexts, the pronouns, especially the dual and plural pronouns, might be suspected to simply be markers of number (cf. (192)). However, that they predominantly function as number markers becomes less likely if sentences like (193) are taken into account. Here, *pana-nya* (3PL-ACC) together with *jilya-karrangu* (child-PL) constitutes one noun phrase (the other NP being *ngunyi-ngku marrungu-lu* DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG). The head nominal in this example thus already takes plural marking. A comparison between NPs including such pronominal units and NPs lacking them, e.g. (196), instead indicates that despite also marking number, the units mainly function as definite articles, i.e. to provide specific reference.

- (192) *Ngunyi-ngku* *panalu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG 3PL.NOM
marrungu-lu *maya* *jarnti nyi-rri-ya.*
 man-ERG house erect CAUS-PRS-3PL
 ‘Those men are erecting (i.e. building) (a) house.’ (TW08)
- (193) *Ngunyi-ngku* *pana-nya* *marrungu-lu*
 DEM (distant)-ERG 3PL-ACC man-ERG
jilya-karrangu *ngapa+rri ja-rri.*
 child-PL get.wet[+INCH] CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is causing (here: teaching) the children to swim.’
 (TW08)
- (194) *Yurntura* *ngaja* *para* *waa-rnu*
 flour 1SG.ERG 3SG.DAT give-PST
kunyjarta-rra *wula-yanya-rra.*
 woman-DAT water-PRIV-DAT
 ‘Flour I gave to the woman without water.’ (AD)
- (195) *Waa-rnu* *ngaja* *palu* *pirlumpurr*
 give-PST 1SG.ERG 3SG.LOC spear
nganu-nga-ngura *kaja-ngka.*
 1SG-GEN-LOC older.brother-LOC
 ‘I gave (the/a) spear to my older brother.’ (TW08)
- (196) *Kujarra* *marrungu* *yipa-nmarri-yanu-pula.*
 two man quarrel-RECP-CPST-3DU
 ‘Two men kept quarrelling with each other.’ (TW08)

A situation similar to this one has been described for the closely related Western Desert-varieties Pitjantjatjara (Bowe 1990) and Yankunytjatjara (Goddard 1985), and

also for the northeastern Australian Warrgamay (Dixon 1980). In these languages, the unit that is sometimes employed as a 3SG pronoun, *palu(ru)* in Pitjantjatjara and Yankunytjatjara; *nyunga* in Warrgamay, clearly also functions as a marker of definiteness. In Goddard (1985), *palu(ru)* is therefore analysed as constituting a word class of its own, the definite nominal class. Bowe (1990) instead classifies the unit as the 3SG pronoun, since it is employed as such in at least some contexts. In this work, Bowe (1990) is followed, and the relevant units are therefore consistently glossed as pronouns (cf. also Dryer 2007b).⁹⁷

The pronoun marking definiteness is usually (in 87% of all cases) placed before the NP head. Fairly frequently, but not invariably (in 63% of all such cases), it is placed right before the head. When a demonstrative is also part of the noun phrase, this and the pronoun are almost always placed before the head nominal, with the demonstrative taking up first position (192).⁹⁸ With head nominals in main argument function, the pronoun takes case marking according to the syntactic function of the head, e.g. nominative in subject function (192), accusative in direct object function (193) and dative or locative marking in indirect object function; (194) - (195).⁹⁹ In NPs including genitive constituents, the dative form of the relevant pronoun is however always used, regardless of the syntactic function of the NP. As indicated by (197), the dative (in this case *para* (3SG.DAT)) might be preferred in such contexts in order to avoid confusion with a genitive-marked pronoun (here *parnu-nga* (3SG-GEN)).

- (197) *Marrungu-lu* *yurnu ja-yinyu* ***para***
 man-ERG choice CAUS-CPST 3SG.DAT
 parnu-nga ***pirlumpurr*** *parta-ngka*
 3SG-GEN spear other-LOC
 pirri-ngka *mangkuru-rra*.
 afternoon-LOC kangaroo-DAT
 ‘(The) man was aiming his spear another afternoon (i.e. yesterday
 afternoon) at the kangaroo.’ (TW08)

The genitive is one of the adnominal cases found in Australian languages. As stated above, adnominal case marking is used to specify relations within noun phrases (Dench

⁹⁷ Marking of definiteness however appears not to exist in other languages of the same region of Australia as Ngarla, e.g. Nyamal, Nyangumarta, Martuthunira (Dench 1995, 1999; Sharp 2004).

⁹⁸ This information comes from the study of Ngarla word order presented in section 7.4 below. 44 clauses in the study included NPs that consisted of non-pronominal NP heads and pronouns. 87% of 44 clauses equals 38 clauses, and 63% of the 38 clauses equals 24 clauses. In only three of the 44 clauses, the relevant NPs were found in subject function. The sentence initial position appears to be topical in Ngarla. This fact, together with the fact that the subject is most frequently placed before the object in Ngarla transitive clauses (very frequently occurring statement initially), might explain why pronouns marking definiteness occur so infrequently with non-pronominal head nominals in subject function and sentence initial position. See section 7.4.

⁹⁹ The 1, 2SG pronouns, which take tripartite case marking (cf. section 3.4.4) appear not to occur in this function.

& Evans 1988). Again, while constituent order is not completely fixed, genitive marked constituents most frequently occur directly before their head nominals. This is shown in (195) and (197) above, and in (198).

- (198) *Palakarni-lu* *parnu-nga* *karrumpu* *jimpayi*
 DEM (mid)-ERG 3SG-GEN coin hidden
kanyi-rri.
 care.for-PRS
 ‘That one is caring for his hidden coin (i.e. is keeping his coin(s) hidden).’ (TW10)

Quantifiers, however, occur either before (196) or after the head nominal ((199); the relevant NP is here made up of *yukurru piya-nya kujarra* (dog 3DU-ACC two)). Where a demonstrative and a quantifier occur together as modifiers, they are most frequently placed before the head nominal, with the demonstrative in first position (43).

- (199) *Nyapiri* *yaa-n* *wula-karni.* *Yukurru* *piya-nya*
 Nyapiri go-FUT water-ALL dog 3DU-ACC
kujarra *karri-Ø.*
 two take-FUT
 ‘Nyapiri will go to the water. (The) two dogs (he) will take (with him).’ (TW08)

Nominals in the modifying, adjectival, function were discussed in section 3.4.8 above. It needs to be noted here that there appears to be no constraint regulating the internal order of NP head and this type of modifying nominal either. When being employed in the modifying function, the nominals *kartu* ‘big’/*kamparra* ‘small’ thus occur either before their heads (of which there is 1 example with *kartu* and 11 with *kamparra*) or after (8 examples with *kartu* and 3 with *kamparra*). When modifying nominals occur after the head, other elements may intervene between the two, as in (200), where *ngunyi* (DEM distant), a member of the same noun phrase, occurs between *wanangkura* ‘whirlwind’ and *kartu* ‘big’.

- (200) *Wanangkura* *ngunyi* *kartu*
 whirlwind DEM (distant) big
murli~murli-rri-yan *palka~palka,* *jarurrany.*
 spinning-INCH-PRS INTNS move.easily
 ‘That big whirlwind is spinning hard (and) moving easily (i.e. travelling fast).’

In many Australian languages, a smaller number of nominal lexemes can, according to Dixon (2002a), be used either in a specific sense (e.g. ‘fresh water’, ‘meat’), or function as generics (e.g. ‘liquid’, ‘game animal’) or classifiers, in which case they are followed by a ‘specific’ nominal (Dixon 2002a:59). Wilkins (2000) demonstrates that such generic nominals in a block of Pama-Nyungan languages in the northeast of the

continent serve to classify referents independently of context, which is to say that they function as nominal classifiers. In languages in the central parts of Australia it is instead the referents' role in particular contexts that is being classified. In the westernmost part of the continent, however, such generics are used very infrequently (Wilkins 2000; cf. Dench 1995; Dixon 2002; Sharp 2004). This is true also of Ngarla, and as a consequence I wish here only to acknowledge that apparent generic nominals do occur in spoken discourse; cf. (201) – (202). Since they are infrequent, no attempts will be made here to analyse their function. Just like quantifiers and modifying nominals in the adjectival function, generic nominals in Ngarla can occur either before the specific nominal they belong to (the common Australian pattern, as in (201)) or after (202). The generic nominals in the sentences below are *kunyjarta* 'female' (more frequently used in the sense 'woman') and *mayi* '(vegetable) food', and the specific nominals *kurri* 'teenage girl' and *jakakurrpu* '(a particular) species of grass', respectively.

- (201) *Kunyjarta-lu* *mara ku-rnu* *parnu-nga*
 woman-ERG hand CAUS-PST 3SG-GEN
warnta *pirri-lpunyarri,* *kurni-rnu* *kunyjarta*
 stick dig-INSNOM throw-PST female
kurri
 teenage.girl
 '(The) woman caused her digging stick to be in (the) hand (i.e. picked up her digging stick), (and) threw (it) at (the) girl'. (#)
- (202) *Palakarni-lu* *kunyjarta-lu*
 DEM (mid)-ERG woman-ERG
yanti ja-rri
 winnowing.dish CAUS-PRS
jakakurrpu
 species.of.grass (with.edible.grains)
paji-lwanti *nganyjarra-nga*
 eat-NMLZi¹⁰⁰ 1PL.INCL-DAT
mayi
 (vegetable).food
 'That woman is winnowing (the) grass (for) food for us to eat.'
 (TW10)

The comitative and the privative are adnominal cases (see section 3.4.1.3 above). As illustrated in (203) – (204), comitative (203) and privative marked constituents (204) occur after the NP head (though not always immediately after).¹⁰¹

¹⁰⁰ *-(l)wanti* is a nominalising suffix that creates a modifier to an NP head. Case marking (or lack thereof) indicates which noun phrase the *-(l)wanti* marked constituent belongs to. See section 8.3.4.

¹⁰¹ Comitative and privative marked constituents can also constitute noun phrase heads in their own right, as in the following example: *Kupalya-yanya-lu nganyjarra-nya kanyi-rnu*. sleep-

- (203) *Palakarni-ngku jilya-ngku murru-karta-ngku*
 DEM (mid)-ERG child-ERG stone-COM-ERG
yukurru kurni-rri kalya.
 dog throw-PRS still
 ‘That child with (the) stone(s) is still throwing (them) at (the) dog.’
 (#)
- (204) *Palakarni marrungu mara-yanya*
 DEM (mid) man hand-PRIV
pukul ma-rri-ya jinta-ku.
 caretaker CAUS-PRS-3PL others-ERG
 ‘That man without (a) hand others are taking care of.’ (TW08)

Relative clauses are clauses that function as nominal modifiers. One of the the participant(s) of a relative clause is coreferent with the head nominal (Givón 2001b; Payne 1997). Although there are not many examples of Ngarla restrictive relative clauses (i.e. clauses that are used to ground referents upon their introduction into the discourse), such clauses would appear to constitute main clauses in their own right, like *warlkarnti ngarri-yan warnta-ka yirrpi-ngka* (sitting INCH-PRS tree-LOC shade-LOC) in (205). Thus, they take no marking to indicate dependent status. Only the subject of a clause can take such a relative clause.

- (205) *Ngunyi pirirri warlkarnti ngarri-yan*
 DEM (distant) man sitting INCH-PRS
warnta-ka yirrpi-ngka nganu-nga kaja.
 tree-LOC shade-LOC 1SG-GEN older.brother
 ‘That man sitting in (the) tree shade (is) my older brother.’ (TW08)

Ngarla non-restrictive relative clauses are non-finite, and thus behave very differently from restrictive relative clauses. For example, they take switch reference marking and may also take case marking (cf. Austin 1981; Hale 1976). See chapter 8 below.

PRIV-ERG 1PL.INCL-ACC tread.on-PST ‘Without sleep (i.e. the one who didn't sleep) trod on us.’ (#)

7. *Main clause types and word order*

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the internal structure of simple clauses is discussed. A simple clause is defined here as a clause that does not include another clause (cf. Matthews 2007). Simple clauses tend to consist of nominals and a predicate, the latter of which can be either verbal or non-verbal. A predicate can thus consist of either a verb or a nominal/adjectival/stative constituent (Andrews 2007; Dryer 2007a; Payne 1997). In sections 7.2 and 7.3, Ngarla simple clauses with verbal and nominal predicates are described, and in 7.4, word order in clauses with verbal predicates.

7.2 Clauses with verbal predicates

As mentioned in section 4.2, four transitivity types are distinguished for Ngarla verbs. They are: intransitive, middle/semi-transitive, transitive and ditransitive. The case frames that in the Ngarla case system are associated with the different transitivity types are shown in Table 26. (For more information about the Ngarla case system, see section 3.3)¹⁰²

Table 26 Ngarla major transitivity types and associated case frames and verbal conjugations.

Transitivity type	Case frame(s)	Conjugation
Intransitive	NOM	Ø
Middle/Semi-transitive	NOM DAT	Ø
Transitive	ERG ACC	L
Ditransitive	ERG ACC LOC	L
	ERG ACC DAT	L

As illustrated in the table, Ø conjugation verbs are intransitive or middle/semitransitive. The subjects of Ngarla intransitive clauses can fill the semantic roles of agent (206) or patient (in (207) exemplified with a patient-of-state subject, in

¹⁰² In addition to the transitivity types that subcategorise for a dative argument, dative noun phrases denoting beneficiaries can apparently be freely added to intransitive and transitive clauses in the following way: *Wula kurlirlira+karri-yan nganu*. water circle[+INCH]-PRS 1SG.DAT '(The) water is circling (around) for me.' (#; intransitive); *Ngaka-rri nyinta nganu, purlu+ngarri-Ø!* obstruct-PRS 2SG.ERG 1SG.DAT move.back[+INCH]-FUT 'You are obstructing (the view) for me, move back!' (#; transitive). (Cf. Dench 1999. There are no examples in existence of semi-transitive clauses with added beneficiaries (i.e. semi-transitive clauses with two dative marked arguments).)

(208) with a patient-of-change subject; Givón 2001a).¹⁰³ The subjects of examples (206) – (208) (*jilya-karrangu* (child-PL) in (206), *nganarna* (1PL.EXCL.NOM) in (207) and *palakarni* (DEM (mid)) in (208)), all appear without overt case marking, i.e. in the nominative case.

- (206) *Jilya-karrangu* *milpa-nyu-ya.*
 child-PL come-PST-3PL
 ‘Kids came.’ (AD)
- (207) *Ngayi-nyu* *nganarna.*
 sleep-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM
 ‘We slept.’ (#)
- (208) *Palakarni* *warni-nyu* *nguru~nguru*
 DEM (mid) fall-PST almost.immersed
marta-ngka!
 mud-LOC
 ‘That one fell (and became) almost immersed in (the) mud!’ (#)

Verbs that are labelled ‘middle’ or ‘semi-transitive’ in the grammars of Australian languages usually have meanings like ‘look for’, ‘wait for’, ‘cry for’, ‘like’/‘desire’/‘want’, ‘be angry with’, ‘be jealous of’ and ‘be frightened of’. The subject of these verbs commonly expresses the semantic role of experiencer (Blake 1987). The case frame associated with middle/semi-transitive verbs in Australian languages, NOM DAT, however only occurs with three verbs in the Ngarla material, *kunyi~kunyi-rri-Ø* ‘stalk’ (209); *wajarri.Ø-Ø* ‘want’, ‘search for’ (210); and *wanyaparri.Ø-Ø* ‘listen’, ‘learn’ (211).¹⁰⁴ Only one of these verbs, *wajarri.Ø-Ø*, however, has a sense commonly associated with the semi-transitive/middle verbs. And with only one of the three verbs, *wanyaparri.Ø-Ø*, the subject expresses the semantic

¹⁰³ Subjects in the dative semantic role are also found in intransitive clauses in many languages (Givón 2001a). This is however not the case in Ngarla, where corresponding clauses are transitive, with an inanimate agent, as in *Pirna-ngku nganya yaji-rri nyiti.* big.pain-ERG 1SG.ACC stab-PRS chest ‘(A) big (i.e. sharp) pain is stabbing my chest.’ (#) Commonly recognised semantic roles include the following ones (Blake 2001; Givón 2001a): Agent: The entity that performs an activity or brings about a change of state; Patient: The participant, either animate or inanimate, that either is in a state or registers a change-of-state as a result of an event; Dative: A conscious participant in the event, typically animate, but not the deliberate initiator; Instrument: A participant, typically inanimate, used by the agent to perform the action; Benefactive/beneficiary: The animate entity for whose benefit an activity is carried out; Manner: The manner in which an event occurs or the agent performed the action; Experiencer: The animate entity experiencing an emotion or perception.

¹⁰⁴ In one example (218), the object of a clause including *wajarri.Ø-Ø* ‘want’, ‘search for’ however lacks dative marking. The nominals *wajarri* ‘searching’ and *wanyaparri* ‘awareness’ belong among the Ngarla nominals that are verbalised using zero derivation. When functioning as verbs, they belong to the Ø conjugation. Hence the double zero in *wajarri.Ø-Ø* and *wanyaparri.Ø-Ø*. The dot and zero (.Ø) mark the derivation, the hyphen and zero (-Ø) the conjugation. Cf. section 4.3.1.4.

role of experiencer. What appears to condition the use of this case frame with *kunyji~kunyji-rri-Ø* and *wajarri.Ø-Ø* is instead a decreased telicity and/or a reduced affectedness of P, in the terms of Hopper & Thompson (1980). (A reduced affectedness of P seems to be relevant also in the case of *wanyaparri.Ø-Ø*, see (211).) However, the terms middle/semi-transitive are here kept for the transitivity type associated with the case frame NOM DAT. In (209) – (211), the subjects all appear in the nominative case (i.e. are left unmarked; the subjects being *palakarni* (DEM (mid)); *ngaya* (1SG.NOM); *palakarni jilya* (DEM (mid) child, respectively) and the objects are all marked by dative (*pana-nga* (3PL-DAT); *para kukurnjayi-rra* (3SG.DAT sheep-DAT); *ngarta-rra pana-nga* (man-DAT 3PL-DAT)).¹⁰⁵

- (209) *Palakarni* *kunyji~kunyji-rri-yanta* *pana-nga.*
 DEM (mid) sneaking.up-INCH-USIT 3PL-DAT
 ‘That one used to sneak up on them.’ (#)
- (210) *Wajarri.Ø-yan* *ngaya* *para*
 searching.INCH-PRS 1SG.NOM 3SG.DAT
kukurnjayi-rra.
 sheep-DAT
 ‘I am searching for the sheep.’ (TW08)
- (211) *Palakarni* *jilya* *ngarta-rra* *pana-nga*
 DEM (mid) child man-DAT 3PL-DAT
wanyaparri.Ø-yan.
 awareness.INCH-PRS
 ‘That child is listening to the men/(group of) people.’ (TW08)

Verbs of the L conjugation are transitive or ditransitive, and the case frames associated with such verbs are shown in the last three lines of Table 26. A prototypical transitive verb is one that takes an agentive subject which causes an object (semantically a patient) to undergo some type of change, as in (212) – (214) (Givón 2001a; Payne 1997). In the sentences below, the subjects appear either in their ergative form (*ngaja* (1SG.ERG) in (212)) or take overt ergative marking (*yukurru-lu* (dog-ERG) in (213) – (214)). The accusative case is overtly marked in (214) (*parnu-nya* (3SG-ACC)) only.

¹⁰⁵ The NOM DAT case frame also occurs with *kumarri.Ø-Ø* ‘be stingy’, ‘withhold’, but in sentences with this verb, an NP taking adverse locative marking is also frequently included, as in e.g. *Palakarni marrungu nganyjarra-la kumarri.Ø-yan para mantu-rra.* DEM (mid) man1PL.INCL-LOC stingy.INCH-PRS 3SG.DAT meat-DAT ‘That man is withholding the meat on us.’ (I.e. ‘That man is not giving us the meat.’) (TW08) This verb is inherently negative.

- (212) *Ngaja* *jaa-rnu* *warnta.*
 1SG.ERG chop-PST tree
 ‘I chopped (the) tree.’ (#)
- (213) *Yukurru-lu* *paji-rnu* *ngarta.*
 dog-ERG bite-PST man
 ‘(The) dog bit (the) man.’ (AD)
- (214) *Yukurru-lu* *parnu-nya* *paji-rnu.*
 dog-ERG 3SG-ACC bite-PST
 ‘(The) dog bit him.’ (#)

In ditransitive clauses, events are coded in which the subject (agent) causes the movement of the direct object (patient) to or from some location or where one object is a dative or benefactive participant and the other a patient that moves to or from the dative/benefactive (Givón 2001a). As shown in Table 26 above, two case frames are associated with Ngarla ditransitive verbs. The first one, ERG ACC LOC, (215) – (219), is associated with the verbs *munti-L* ‘remove from’ (215); *waa-L* ‘give’ (216) (when something concrete is given); *juntu ma-L* ‘tell’ (217); and *yula+rri-L* ‘say’, (218) – (219). The subjects (A), direct objects (P) and indirect objects are marked in the examples below. Indirect objects are marked by whichever of the designations LOC, DAT or BEN that is relevant in each case.

- (215) *Yukurru-lu* *kartu-ngku*
 dog-ERG (A) big-ERG (A)
munti-rnu *kunyjaru-ngura* *kamparra*
 remove.from-PST bone-LOC (LOC) small (P)
yukurru.
 dog (P)
 ‘(The) big dog removed (the) small dog from (the) bone.’ (#)
- (216) *Waa-rnu* *ngaja*
 give-PST 1SG.ERG (A)
palu *pirlumpurr* *nganu-nga-ngura*
 3SG.LOC (DAT) spear (P) 3SG-GEN-LOC (DAT)
kaja-ngka.
 older.brother-LOC (DAT)
 ‘I gave (the/a) spear to my older brother.’ (TW08)

- (217) *Nyayi-ngku* *ngajapa*
 DEM (proximate)-ERG (A) 1SG.LOC (DAT)
muwarr *juntu ma-rri.*
 word (P) straight CAUS-PRS
 ‘This one is making (the) word (i.e. message) straight on (i.e. for) me.’ (I.e. ‘This one is telling me (the) message.’) (TW10)
- (218) *Yula+rri-Ø* *palu*
 say+[INCH]-FUT 3SG.LOC (DAT)
yanangka-yan *nyinpa* *yurta*¹⁰⁶
 go-PRS 2SG.NOM fish
wajarri.Ø-Ø!
 searching.INCH-FUT
 ‘Tell (on) him (that) you're going searching for fish!’ (#)
- (219) *Yula+rri-Ø* *yini* *ngajapa*
 say+[INCH]-FUT name (P) 1SG.LOC (DAT)
nganakapu *murri* *nyinpa.*
 EPI (whoever) INTNS 2SG.NOM
 ‘Say (your) name on (i.e. to) me (and) whoever (it is) you really (are).’ (#)

The second case frame associated with Ngarla ditransitive verbs, ERG ACC DAT, occurs with the verbs *nyaa-L* ‘send’ (220) and *waa-L* ‘give’, in the latter case when something that is not concrete is given. *Waa-L* thus occurs with the ERG ACC DAT frame in statements that express that something abstract is given (221), that something is ‘bestowed’ (222) and also that something is not given (223).

- (220) *Wangka* *ngaja* *nyaa-rri*
 speech (P) 1SG.ERG (A) send-PRS
para *nganu-nga-rra*
 3SG.DAT (DAT) 3SG-GEN-DAT (DAT)
kaja-rra.
 older.brother (DAT)
 ‘Speech (i.e. a message) I am sending to my older brother.’ (#)

¹⁰⁶ Note that *yurta* ‘fish’ takes no case marking, although this might have been expected, since *wajarri.Ø-Ø* ‘want’ is a middle/semi-transitive verb, the associated case frame being NOM DAT. Cf. table 26

- (221) *Palakarni-rra* *ngaja*
 DEM (mid)-DAT (BEN) 1SG.ERG (A)
para *waa-rrri* *kuntu* *muwarr.*
 3SG.DAT (BEN) give-PRS good (P) word (P)
 ‘That one I give (a) good word (i.e. a good recommendation).’
 (TW08)
- (222) *Ngaja* *para* *yini*
 1SG.ERG (A) 3SG.DAT (DAT) name (P)
waa-rnu *nganu-nga-rra*
 give-PST 3SG-GEN-DAT (DAT)
yukurru-rra.
 dog-DAT (DAT)
 ‘I gave (a) name to my dog.’ (TW08)
- (223) *Palakarni-rra* *ngarta-rra*
 DEM (mid)-DAT (DAT) man-DAT (DAT)
para *ngaja* *ngurrapirli*
 3SG.DAT (DAT) 1SG.ERG (A) nothing (P)
murri *waa-nmarnta.*
 INTNS (P) give-PSTCONTRA
 ‘That man I gave nothing at all.’ (I.e. ‘I didn’t give that man
 anything.’) (TW08)

It would appear that the two case marking patterns associated with ditransitive verbs do not correspond to any semantic differences. In all example sentences above, the direct object is inanimate and the indirect object animate. With both types of case frames, the direct object can also either be concrete, as in (215) – (216), or abstract, see (217), (220) – (220).¹⁰⁷ What case frame has come to be associated with what verbs thus appears to be arbitrary.

7.2.1 Purposive clauses: an aberrant case (?)

The case frame(s) taken by NPs in purposive clauses varies to a certain extent. In order to investigate what case frame(s) is associated with Purposive, 111 Ngarla purposive clauses were collated. All these sentences occur in my database, but they do not represent the totality of recorded purposive clauses. Although pains were taken to find clauses with verbs of the semi-transitive and ditransitive types, no other guiding principles were employed in the selection of sentences. For various reasons, 31 of the

¹⁰⁷ Note that there are examples in existence of the verb *nyaa-L* ‘send’ occurring with a concrete patient.

111 collated examples later had to be excluded from the study, leaving 80 clauses to be examined.¹⁰⁸

The study shows that assignment of case is straightforward in clauses with Ø conjugation verbs (20 examples) and with the irregular verb *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ (9 examples). In a number of these examples, only one NP occurs, an NP that is unmarked for case (i.e. marked by nominative). In sentences with two NPs, the subject constituent is unmarked, while the object receives dative marking, as in (224). There are also occasional examples with a Ø conjugation verb, an unmarked subject and a second NP marked by locative, allative or ablative case. Below, the relevant noun phrases are highlighted.

- (224) *Nyinpa* *para* *wangka karri-kura*.
 2SG.NOM 3SG.DAT speech INCH-PURP
 ‘You should talk to him.’ (#)

In purposive clauses with transitive L conjugation verbs (45 examples) and the irregular verb *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ (6 examples), two main case frames are however found. Examples (225) – (226) below both include the verb *ngani+ma-L* ‘look at’, ‘see’. In (225), the case frame is NOM DAT. In (226), the frame is instead NOM ACC.

- (225) *Yarti* *ngaya* *nyinu* *ngani+ma-lu*.
 later 1SG.NOM 2SG.DAT see[+CAUS]-PURP
 ‘Later I intend to see you.’ (TW08)

- (226) *Ngaya* *nyumpala-nya*
 1SG.NOM 2DU-ACC
ngani+ma-lu *warrumurntu*.
 see[+CAUS]-PURP morning
 ‘I intend to see you two (in the) morning.’ (TW08)

There appears to be no clear semantic difference between the L conjugation verbs occurring with NOM DAT case marking and those occurring with NOM ACC. Four of the transitive L conjugation verbs in the study also occur with both case frames. What conditions the use of the two frames with these four verbs remains unclear.¹⁰⁹

¹⁰⁸ Eleven sentences were excluded due to a lack of overt NPs, or unknown lexical items. In the remaining 20 excluded sentences, the purposive marking occurred in dependent clauses.

¹⁰⁹ Following is a list of the transitive L conjugation verbs that occur in the sample. Information about multiple examples of verbs is given within parentheses. (In remaining cases there is only one example of each verb.) Verbs occurring in sentences with NOM DAT case marking: *kalyu-rni-L* ‘shout’; *kana-kana ma-L* ‘scan’; *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ (3); *kura+pi-L* ‘pretend not to see/know’; *maa-L* ‘get’; *mintu ja-L* ‘wake up’; *ngani+ma-L* ‘look at’, ‘see’ (4); *nyuka pi-L* ‘perform increase ritual’; *paji-L* ‘bite’, ‘eat’ (2); *para+ma-L* ‘test’, ‘try’, ‘imitate’; *punga-L* ‘hit’, ‘kill’; *wurta+ma-L* ‘wait (for)’. Verbs occurring in sentences with NOM ACC case marking: *japa-L* ‘bury’, ‘cover’; *julya ja-L* ‘bury’; *kaju-L* ‘tie’; *kama-L* ‘cook’, ‘burn’ (2); *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ (3); *ngani+ma-L* ‘look.at’, ‘see’ (4); *paji-L*

The study of purposive clauses included examples of the ditransitive verbs *juntu ma-L* ‘tell’ (4 examples); *nyaa-L* ‘send’ (2 examples); and *waa-L* ‘give’ (5 examples). However, only the examples with *nyaa-L* ‘send’ are conclusive. With other TAM distinctions, this verb is associated with the ERG ACC LOC case frame. With the Purposive, included NPs instead take NOM ACC DAT marking.

Avenues of explanation other than verb semantics might certainly be pursued when it comes to the different case frames occurring together with Purposive marked L conjugation verbs. A more careful study of the situation however lies outside of the scope of this work.

7.3 Clauses with nominal predicates

7.3.1 Introduction

This section introduces two types of Ngarla nominal predicates. Using terms borrowed from Dench (1999) and Sharp (2004), they are labelled intransitive nominal predicates (section 7.3.1.1) and extended nominal predicates (7.3.1.2), respectively. An intransitive nominal predicate is made up of a single NP. The extended predicate consists of an NP, a nominal predicate, that is not marked for case, and that takes a dative marked argument. Following Dixon (2002b), intransitive nominal predicates will be analysed as expressing relations of identity/equation, attribution, location, possession and existence.

7.3.1.1 *Clauses with intransitive nominal predicates*

As mentioned above, Dixon’s (2002b) definitions of nominal predicate relations are adopted here. The different labels and their definitions are presented in Table 27.¹¹⁰

‘bite’, ‘eat’; *palarr ma-L* ‘pull’; *para+ma-L* ‘test’, ‘try’, ‘imitate’; *purru pi-L* ‘scale fish’; *yarni+ma-L* ‘repair’.

¹¹⁰ Dixon (2002b) discusses copula clauses, and thus focuses on the relations expressed by what is labelled ‘copula complements’ (Dixon 2002b:1). Labelling the Ngarla nominal predicates ‘copula complements’ would however be erroneous, since no copula occurs in the language (cf. Dryer 2007b). Dixon (2002b) also distinguishes a wanting (as in e.g. *Who’s for bowling?*)/benefaction function (*This cake is for Mary*) filled by copula clauses (i.e. copula relation (e)). Wanting of the type discussed in Dixon (2002b) however appears not to be expressed at all in Ngarla, and benefaction is expressed in clauses with verbal predicates.

Table 27 Nominal predicate relations (Dixon 202b:5-6).

Relation type	Description and examples
a) Identity/Equation	The nominal predicate is an NP. Examples: identity: <i>she is a teacher</i> ; equation: <i>that man is my uncle</i> .
b) Attribution	The nominal predicate consists of an adjective or a derived adjectival expression, as in <i>I am sick</i> and <i>that painting is beautiful</i> .
c) Location	A local adverb or an NP marked with a local case or adposition constitutes the nominal predicate, e.g. <i>he is there</i> ; <i>Susan is from Wales</i> ; <i>the cat is in the garden</i> .
d) Possession ¹¹¹	Here, a genitive marked NP occurs as nominal predicate, as in: <i>That car is Wayne's</i> .

Sentences (227) – (230) below exemplify Ngarla nominal predicates expressing relations (a) identity (227) and equation (228); (b) attribution (229); and (d) possession (230) in a present time frame. The nominal predicates are highlighted. (As has been stated above, Ngarla however has no adjectival word class, lexemes that can occur as modifiers of other nominals instead being analysed as nominals themselves.)

- (227) *Palakarni* **jukarinya.**
DEM (mid) orphan
'That one (is an) orphan.' (TW08)
- (228) *Ngunyi* *pirirri*
DEM (proximate) man
warlkanti ngarri-yan *warnta-ka* *yirrpi-ngka*
sitting INCH-PRS tree-LOC shade-LOC
nganu-nga **kaja.**
1SG-GEN older.brother
'That man sitting in (the) tree shade (is) my older brother.' (TW08)
- (229) **Mulyi** *palakarni* *wula.*
deep DEM (mid) water
'Deep (is) that water.'

¹¹¹ This relation is in Dryer (2007a) considered a marginal nominal predicate relation. Included among main nominal predicate relations is instead 'existential clauses for expressing predicate possession' (Dryer 2007a:244), e.g. *He has money*; *I have a new car*. This type of relation is in Ngarla expressed through the verb *kanyi-L* 'be responsible for', 'look after', 'care for'; see (174) and (198).

- (230) *Nyayi* *pirrjarta*
 DEM (proximate) vehicle
piya-nga *nyayi-rra-jarra.*
 3DU-DAT DEM (proximate)-DAT-DU
 ‘This vehicle belongs to these two.’ (TW08)

No copulas occur in the examples above. There are languages in which copulas are employed only if other tenses than the present are implied (Comrie 1985; Dryer 2007a). That Ngarla is however not such a language can be seen in sentences (231) – (233) below, which exemplify the expression of (a) identity/equation (231); (b) attribution (232); and (d) possession (233) in a past time frame.¹¹²

- (231) *Ngarturr+mayi-nyu* *nganarna*
 unaware[+INCH]-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM
partamurri *marlkarrimanu!*
 INTNS killer
 ‘We were unaware (that it was a) killer (i.e. a very dangerous thing)!’ (#)

- (232) *Mirta* *karri-marnta,* *wanyja-rnu.*
 NEG take-PSTCONTRA leave-PST
Kurrrpu *murri.*
 heavy INTNS
 ‘(He) didn’t take (it), (he) left (it). (It was) too heavy.’ (TW08)

- (233) *Palakarni* *ngurrapaya* *para*
 DEM (mid) horse 3SG.DAT
murrkangu-kurturl-ku.
 firstborn-END-DAT
 ‘That horse belonged to (the) firstborn (who) died suddenly.’ (#)

The verb *nyini-Ø* ‘stay’, ‘sit’ is sometimes employed in clauses expressing relation (c) location and appears to be compulsory in expressions of (f) existence. Following Dixon’s (2002b) definition, however, a verb, in order to qualify as a copula verb, needs to be employed for at least relations (a) and (b) in Table 27 above. *Nyini-Ø* is here thus not considered a copula verb.

To express location, two different constructions are used. One, which is verbless, is employed for temporary states and partial affectedness, as in (234) and (236). If durable states or complete affectedness is instead implied, the verb *nyini-Ø* ‘sit’, ‘stay’ is included in the clause; (235) and (237). In all expressions of relation (c), locative case marking occurs. Relation (f) is exemplified in sentence (238), where *nyini-Ø* has an existential sense (cf. Dixon 2002b; Dryer 2007a).

¹¹² Due to a shortage of good examples, these relations cannot be exemplified in a future time frame.

- (234) *Ngunyi* ***marra~marra-ngura***
 DEM (distant) very.high-LOC
 ‘That (thing is) very high up.’ (ED)
- (235) *Ngunyi* ***nyini-yan*** ***marra~marra-ngura.***
 DEM (distant) stay-PRS very.high-LOC
 ‘That (thing is) always very high up.’ (ED)
- (236) ***Wankaly~wankaly-ja*** ***mantu-ka***
 half.cooked-LOC meat-LOC
marlungu.
 maggot
 ‘On (the) half-cooked meat (there are some) maggot(s).’ (TW08; ED)
- (237) *Marlungu* ***nyini-yan*** ***wankaly~wankaly-ja***
 maggot stay-PRS half.cooked-LOC
mantu-ka.
 meat-LOC
 ‘Maggot(s) (are swarming) all over (the) half-cooked meat.’ (ED)
- (238) *Nyayi* *mangkuru* *parlkarra-kapu* ***nyini-yan***
 DEM (proximate) kangaroo plain-SCE stay-PRS
kalya warrarn-ta.
 still country-LOC
 ‘This kangaroo from (the) plain(s) (i.e. this plains kangaroo) still exists in (the/this) country.’ (ED)

7.3.1.2 *Clauses with extended nominal predicates*

The extended nominal predicate is defined here as consisting of an NP, a nominal predicate, which is unmarked for case, and which takes an argument. This argument, in turn, receives dative case marking. The extended nominal predicate is in Ngarla occasionally found with the predicate *nyaarru* (‘positive’, ‘in favour of’; (239)), and frequently with *miranu* (‘knowledge’; (240)). In (239), *nyaarru* is the nominal predicate, while the dative marked argument is made up of *nyayi-rra para mantu-rra* (DEM (proximate)-DAT 3SG.DAT meat-DAT) ‘this meat’. In (240), the nominal predicate is *miranu*, its argument being *ngunyi-rra para kunyjarta-rra* (DEM (distant)-DAT 3SG.DAT woman-DAT) ‘that woman’.

- (239) Person 1 *Nyayi-rra* *nyinpa*
 DEM (proximate)-DAT 2SG.NOM
para mantu-rra nyaarru?
 3SG.DAT meat-DAT in.favour.of
 Person 2 *Yuu, nyaarru ngaya.*
 yes in.favour.of 1SG.NOM
 Person 1: ‘Do you want this meat?’ Person 2: ‘Yes, I want (it).’ (#)
- (240) *Ngunyi-rra ngaya para*
 DEM (distant)-DAT 1SG.NOM 3SG.DAT
kunyjarta-rra miranu.
 woman-DAT knowledge
 ‘I know that woman.’ (TW08)

7.4 Word order

When it comes to the ordering of constituents in clauses with verbal predicates, there are two logically possible orders of the subject (S) and verb (V) of an intransitive clause. In transitive clauses, the six different possible orders of the subject, object and verb are: APV, AVP, VAP, VPA, PAV, PVA. In ditransitive clauses, many different orders of subject, direct object, verb and indirect object are of course conceivable. A basic order of these constituents can nevertheless be found in many languages (Payne 1997).

However, identifying the syntactic function of a clausal constituent from its position within the clause is not possible in all languages. In Australian languages, word order is unconstrained (Dixon 2002a; cf. Payne 1997), and Blake (1983) has proposed that sentences in at least some languages are organised in the following way: (focus) - topic - (rest of) comment.¹¹³

The language consultant Brown asserted that Ngarla sentences (241) - (246) below all mean the same thing despite the differences in word order, something that would be in line with Dixon’s (2002a) statements to the effect that word order is unconstrained in Australian languages. In Ngarla prototypical transitive sentences, all possible orders of subject, object and verb are also found.¹¹⁴ (Note that continuous noun phrases is what is being discussed here. Discontinuous noun phrases have been excluded for the sake of simplicity.)

- (241) *Turru warni-nyu murti-kurturl.*
 Turru fall-PST run-END
 ‘Turru fell (and) stopped running.’ (TW10)

¹¹³ ‘Topic’ refers to what is being talked about, ‘comment’ to what is said about the topic, and ‘focus’ constitutes the essential part of the comment (Blake 1983).

¹¹⁴ The suffix *-kurturl* in (241) - (246) attaches exclusively to nominals, in order to denote the sudden end of something, most frequently some activity or process.

- (242) *Turru murti-kurturl warni-nyu.*
 Turru run-END fall-PST
 ‘Turru fell (and) stopped running.’ (TW10)
- (243) *Warni-nyu Turru murti-kurturl.*
 fall-PST Turru run-END
 ‘Turru fell (and) stopped running.’ (TW10)
- (244) *Warni-nyu murti-kurturl Turru.*
 fall-PST run-END Turru
 ‘Turru fell (and) stopped running.’ (TW10)
- (245) *Murti-kurturl Turru warni-nyu.*
 run-END Turru fall-PST
 ‘Turru fell (and) stopped running.’ (TW10)
- (246) *Murti-kurturl warni-nyu Turru.*
 run-END fall-PST Turru
 ‘Turru fell (and) stopped running.’ (TW10)

Despite Brown’s assertion, there are some clear word order tendencies; see Table 28. Word order in clauses with pronominal and non-pronominal subjects need to be distinguished. In transitive clauses with pronominal subjects, a distinction also needs to be made between clauses with pronominal and non-pronominal objects. Unfortunately, not much can be said about word order in Ngarla ditransitive clauses.¹¹⁵

Table 28 Word order in Ngarla intransitive and transitive clauses.

Clause type, subject and object type	Dominant order(s); incidence
Intransitive clause, non-pronominal subject	SV (81%)
Intransitive clause, pronominal subject	VS (76%)
Transitive clause, non-pronominal subject	APV (41%) ; AVP (35%)
Transitive clause, pronominal subject, non-pronominal object	AVP, VAP (33.3% each)
Transitive clause, pronominal subject and pronominal object	VAP (80%)

¹¹⁵ The information included in this section is based on a more careful study than that in Westerlund (2007). In the present study, a total of 345 clauses were included. The clauses that were chosen all have overt arguments. In the case of the intransitive and transitive clauses, all argument NPs are also continuous. A total of 39 intransitive clauses were included in the study, 238 transitive clauses and 68 ditransitive ones.

As indicated in Table 28, SV is the strongly preferred word order (81% of all cases) in intransitive clauses with non-pronominal subjects (247). If the subject is instead pronominal, the opposite order, VS, dominates (76%; (248)).

- (247) *Nyunyi* *marrungu* *ngapa+rri-yan*.
 DEM (distant) man get.wet[+INCH]-PRS
 ‘That man is getting wet (i.e. is washing himself).’ (TW10)

- (248) *Parni-yan* *ngaya*.
 stay-PRS 1SG.NOM
 ‘I am staying.’ (#)

All six possible combinations of subject, object and verb are found in transitive clauses with non-pronominal subjects. There is however a preference for the subject to be placed before the object, in one of the two orders APV (41%; (249)) and AVP (35%; (250)). The frequency of occurrence of the remaining four word orders is as follows: VAP and VPA 7% each; PAV 6%; PVA 4%.

- (249) *Ngunyi-ngku* *marrungu-lu* *wula*
 DEM (distant)-ERG man-ERG water
nyarntarr ku-rri.
 gulping CAUS-PRS
 ‘That man is gulping water.’ (TW10)

- (250) *Yukurru-lu* *paji-rnu* *ngarta*.
 dog-ERG bite-PST man
 ‘(The) dog bit (the) man.’ (AD)

As indicated in Table 28, a distinction needs to be made between transitive clauses with pronominal subjects and objects, and clauses with pronominal subjects but non-pronominal objects. If the object is non-pronominal, the word orders AVP (251) and VAP (252) occur in equal numbers (33.3% each). Remaining word orders occur to the following extents: PVA (13.3%), PAV (13.3%), APV (7%), VPA (no examples; 0%).

- (251) *Ngaja* *jaa-rnu* *warnta*.
 1SG.ERG chop-PST tree
 ‘I chopped (the) tree.’ (#)

- (252) *Wangka nya-rri* *ngaja* *waleji*.
 speech CAUS-PRS 1SG.ERG wireless (radio)
 ‘I am talking to (i.e. listening to) (the) radio.’ (TW08)

Unfortunately, only a few (five) examples have been found of sentences with both an overt pronominal subject and an overt pronominal object, third person pronouns in

subject or direct object function commonly being left out if otherwise understood through the speech context (cf. (253)). In the existing examples with overt subjects and objects, VAP is however strongly preferred ((254); in four of the five examples). The only other word order found here is AVP.

- (253) *Juka ma-rri.*
 lie CAUS-PRS
 ‘(He) is lying (to him).’ (#)

- (254) *Warlakura ma-rri* *nyinta* *nganya!*
 interruptor CAUS-PRS 2SG.ERG 1SG.ACC
 ‘You are interrupting me!’ (#)

Discontinuous noun phrases are very common in clauses including ditransitive verbs, and that in effect makes it impossible to say anything definite about word order tendencies in such clauses. In the few sentences that have non-pronominal subjects and continuous NPs only, five different word orders are attested (ADAT(/BEN/LOC)PV 37.5%; AVPDAT 25%; AVDATP 12.5%; APDATV 12.5%; PDATVA 12.5%). There is only one example of a clause that includes a ditransitive verb, a pronominal subject and only continuous noun phrases. The word order in that clause is PAVDAT.

According to Dixon (2002a), few detailed studies have been done on what conditions word order in discourse in Australian languages. In the case of Ngarla, the shortage of longer recorded discourses sadly renders such a study impossible. Discourse factors are probably responsible for the word order variations in the texts in Appendix B, although it is difficult to know for sure.¹¹⁶ A number of clauses with non-pronominal subjects however seem to indicate that topicalisation is accomplished by placing the topicalised noun phrase statement initially (255), and at times also by repeating it ((256); in which the noun phrase *ngunyi marrungu* (DEM (distant) man) occurs statement initially, and once more within the statement. Cf. also the dedication at the beginning of this volume.) There is also a tendency in Ngarla, exemplified in (257), to place longer lexical units/phrases in the beginning and the end of statements, with shorter units/phrases taking up the middle position (cf. also (249)). The tendency to place subjects and objects after the verb, which is strongest if both are pronominal however might indicate that Ngarla, at the time when children stopped learning it, was developing towards binding the free pronouns to the verb (cf. Dixon 2002a).

- (255) *Palakarni,* *yipa-rnu*
 DEM (mid) growl.at-PST
parnu-nga-lu *malya-ngku* *kurnta-rri-kura.*
 3SG-GEN-ERG father-ERG shame-INCH-PURP
 ‘That one, his father growled (at him) in order for (him) to feel
 ashamed.’ (#)

¹¹⁶ Cf. Dixon 2002a:78: ‘constituent order is to some extent at the whim of the speaker’.

- (256) *Ngunyi* *marrungu* *wula-ngka* *palu*
 DEM (distant) man water-LOC 3SG.LOC
ngunyi *marrungu* *pujapa-rni-yan* *jurnti-ka*
 DEM (distant) man dry-INCH-PRS cave-LOC
maya-ngka.
 house-LOC
 ‘That man, because of the water (i.e. rain), that man is being dry in
 (the) house.’ (TW08)

- (257) *Wangirrimanya-lu* *punga-rri*
 strongest.part.of.cyclone-ERG hit-PRS
nganarna-nya.
 1PL.EXCL-ACC
 ‘(The) strongest part of (the) cyclone is hitting us.’ (#)

8. Coordination & Subordination

8.1 Introduction

In Australia, languages exhibiting extreme cases of multiple case marking are found in two areas, in the Pilbara region and in north Queensland (Dench 2009). Ngarla has a complex system of multiple case marking of the same type as the one described for Nyamal in Dench (2009). However, since the Ngarla multiple case marking is still not understood in all its detail, it will not be discussed in this work. In this final chapter, clauses that are more complex than those described earlier, in that they include coordination or subordination, will instead be introduced. Section 8.1 is focused on coordination, and section 8.2 on subordination.

8.2 Coordination

The term ‘coordination’ is generally understood to refer to constructions in which two or more units of the same type are combined into larger units. In languages in general, coordination is commonly accomplished through juxtaposition, i.e. by placing coordinated units next to each other (Haspelmath 2007).¹¹⁷ This is the dominant strategy in Ngarla. As illustrated in (258) - (260) below, it is for example employed when verbs (258), noun phrases (259) and clauses (260) are coordinated. In the case of verbs, however, a non-verbal element is frequently inserted between two verbs, which are nevertheless interpreted as being coordinated, as in (261). Here, *kuntu~kuntu-lu* (careful-ERG) occurs between *jipa-n* (steer-FUT) and *waka~waka+rni-n* (turn[+CAUS]-FUT). (Relevant clausal constituents are highlighted in some, but not all, examples below.)

- (258) *Kalyartu-lu* *nyinu-nga-lu*
totem.animal-ERG 2SG-GEN-ERG
nganarna-nya *wirnu ja-rri.* *Ya-rra*
1PL.EXCL-ACC hot CAUS-PRS go-IMP
nyuka pi-lu
increase site/ceremony CAUS-PURP
malyi~malyi ja-lu.
wind CAUS-PURP
‘Your totem animal is heating us (i.e. making it hot for us). Go do
increase (and) make (it) windy!’ (#)

¹¹⁷ In Haspelmath (2007), this type of coordination is also called ‘asyndetic coordination’.

- (259) *Warrukarti* *ngaja* *kapukarri ma-rnu*
 night 1SG.ERG dream CAUS-PST
nganu-nga *malya* *warniya*
 1SG-GEN father mother
milpa-nyu-pula *nganu*
 come-PST-3DU 1SG.DAT
 ‘(In the) night I dreamt (that) my father (and) mother came for (i.e. to) me.’ (TW10)
- (260) *Jurru* *ngani+ma-rnu* *jina-ngka*
 snake (generic) see[+CAUS]-PST foot-LOC
murri, jartun ngayi-nyu.
 INTNS leap INCH-PST
 ‘He saw (the) snake very close to (his) foot, (and) he leapt (out of the way).’ (#)
- (261) *Jipa-n,* *kuntu~kuntu-lu*
 steer-FUT careful-ERG
waka~waka+rni-n!
 turn[+CAUS]-FUT
 ‘Drive (it), (and) turn (it) carefully!’ (#)

When people and animals are concerned, a strategy in Haspelmath (2007) labelled ‘inclusory conjunction’ is frequently employed in Ngarla. In this type of construction, the member(s) of one NP is already included in another NP. The NP including another NP is always made up of a non-singular pronoun. This NP is therefore here, in line with Lichtenberk (2000), labelled an ‘inclusory pronominal’.¹¹⁸ See sentences (262) – (263) below. In (262) the sense ‘Nyapiri and I’ is created with the first person dual exclusive pronoun (*ngaliya*) in conjunction to the name *Nyapiri*. The sense ‘the dog and I’ are in (263) similarly created with *ngaliya* and *yukurru* ‘dog’. (Cf. also (266).)

- (262) *Nyapiri ngaliya* *yaa-n*
 Nyapiri 1DU.EXCL.NOM go-FUT
Kurru-nya-karni.
 Kurru-AREA-ALL
 ‘Nyapiri and I will go to Kurru.’ (TW08)
- (263) *Ngaliya* *yaa-n* *yukurru* *wula-karni.*
 1DU.EXCL.NOM go-FUT dog water-ALL
 ‘The dog and I will go to (the) water.’ (TW08)

¹¹⁸ The inclusory pronominal is in Lichtenberk (2000:2) defined as follows: ‘a pronominal form that identifies a total set of participants, a subset of which is identified by a lexical NP’.

The construction in (264) below, which is a Ngarla alternative to mere juxtaposition of coordinated NPs, can possibly also be described as constituting inclusory conjunction. Here, the inclusory pronominal is inserted between two coordinated NPs, similarly to how the conjunction ‘and’ is used in English.

- (264) *Jarrurn piyalu kunyjarta*
 man 3DU.NOM woman
kumpungu ngayi-nyu-pula.
 married INCH-PST-3DU
 ‘The man and the woman got married.’ (#)

The particle *murntu*, introduced in section 5.2 above, should also be mentioned in this context. It occurs in many statements the English translations of which frequently include an ‘and’ (cf. (265) below). However, if sentences like (266) are taken into account, it becomes clear that it should not be considered a conjunction. Here, an inclusory pronominal (*piyalu*; 3DU.NOM) is inserted between the names *Nyapiri* and *Brian*. This example shows that the senses ‘also, too’, given for *murntu* in section 5.2 above, are correct.

- (265) *Yaku-la nyuka pi-lu*
 let’s.go-PL increase.site/feature CAUS-PURP¹¹⁹
mantu-rra mayi-rra murntu
 meat-DAT vegetable.food-DAT also
karlupurra-karni.
 generic.source-ALL
 ‘Let’s go to (the) source place in order to increase (the) meat (and the) vegetable food also.’ (#)
- (266) *Nyayi ngaliya yaa-n*
 DEM (proximate) 1DU.EXCL.NOM go-FUT
Marapikurri-nya-karni.
 Marapikurri-AREA-ALL
Nyapiri piyalu Brian murntu
 Nyapiri 3DU.NOM Brian too
milpa-Ø-pula.
 come-FUT-3DU
 ‘This one and I will go to (the) Marapikurri area. Nyapiri and Brian will come too.’ (TW08)

¹¹⁹ For more information about this verb, see section 4.4.3.2.3.

8.3 Subordination

8.3.1 Introduction

When it comes to subordinate clauses, Hale (1976) describes an adjoined (non-restrictive) relative clause, claimed to be found in a large number of Australian languages. This type of relative clause is marginal to the main clause, rather than being embedded. In general, relative clauses can be defined as subordinate clauses that delimit the reference of a main clause NP (Givón 2001b; Payne 1997). The adjoined relative clause may however be used either to supply additional information about an argument in the main clause (the ‘NP-relative interpretation’) or to make a subsidiary comment holding at the time specified by the main clause (the ‘T-relative interpretation’; Hale 1976). Austin (1981) describes purposive subordinate clauses in Australian languages which temporally follow the situation described in the main clause, often with a purposive semantic relationship. According to Austin (1981), switch-reference marking languages are in Australia found in an area stretching from the central parts of the continent, out to the western and southern coasts. In switch-reference marking languages in the central parts of the country, such marking occurs in both purposive and relative clauses, in marginal areas in relative clauses only.

Ngarla non-finite verbal suffixes, employed on verbs in subordinate clauses, are shown in Table 29 below. Relative clauses are introduced in section 8.3.2 and purposive clauses in section 8.3.3. Other (nominalising) verbal suffixes are discussed in section 8.3.4.

Table 29 Ngarla non-finite verbal suffixes.

TAM distinction	Inflection Ø conjugation	Inflection L conjugation
Relative Present, same subject (RELPRS.SS)	<i>-nyuru</i>	<i>-rnanyuru</i>
Relative Past, same subject (RELPST.SS)	<i>-nguru</i>	<i>-rnanguru</i>
Relative , different subject (REL.DS)	<i>-nyjangu</i>	<i>-ntangu</i>
Purposive (PURP)	<i>-yartara</i>	<i>-lyartara</i>
Purposive (PURP)	<i>-kura</i>	<i>-lu</i>

8.3.2 Non-restrictive relative clauses

In almost all Australian switch-reference languages, a binary contrast is made between referential identity or non-identity of main and subordinate subjects (Austin 1981). Ngarla is located right at the edge of the part of Australia in which languages, according to Austin (1981), have switch-reference marking. And, as illustrated below, Ngarla does indeed have switch-reference marking in non-restrictive relative clauses. (Concerning restrictive relative clauses, see section 6.2 above.) However, the Ngarla non-restrictive relative clauses are not necessarily adjoined (cf. Nordlinger 2007). They predominantly occur before or after the main clause, but they may also be embedded, as in e.g. example (153). Here, the relative clause *ngapa+rri-nguru* (swim[+INCH]-RELPST.SS)

- (270) *Punga-rnu* *ngaja* *parnu-nya*
hit-PST 1SG.ERG 3SG-ACC
yana-nyjangu.
go-REL.DS
'I hit him while he was walking (past me).' (#)
- (271) *Jilya* *jartun ngarri-yan*
child leap INCH-PRS
warlalka-rra
bush caper (*capparis lasiantha*)-DAT
maa-rnanyuru.
get-RELPRS.SS
'(The) child is leaping (upwards), (trying) to pick (the) bush caper fruit.' (#)
- (272) **Warni-nyuru** *yanangka-yan.*
fall-RELPRS.SS go-PRS
'(He) goes (along) while keeping on falling.' (i.e. 'He keeps on falling (while) going along.') (#)
- (273) *Yanangka-yan* *ngaya* *purru-ka-rra*
go-PRS 1SG.NOM lower.back-LOC-DAT
mantu-rra **karri-nyuru.**
meat-DAT carry-RELPRS.SS
'I'm going (along), carrying the meat on my back.' (TW08)
- (274) *Ngalya ngarri-yan* **yana-nyuru.**
song INCH-PRS go-RELPRS.SS
'(He) is singing as (he) is going (along).'
- (275) *Wanyjakalu* *yaa-nu-ya*
EPI (where) go-PST-3PL
manara
completer.of.something.significant
yarni+ma-rnanguru *para*
make[+CAUS]-RELPRS.SS 3SG.DAT
nyayi-rra *yantilypara-rra?*
DEM (proximate)-DAT boat-DAT
'Where did the builders go after making this boat?' (#)

- (276) *Ngunyi yawarta ngapa+rri-nguru*
 DEM (distant) horse swim[+INCH]-RELPST.SS
jurru~jurru pinya-ra-yan.
 roll CAUS-ANTIP-PRS
 ‘After swimming, that horse rolls (on the ground).’ (TW10)
- (277) *Yurta-rra paji-rnanguru ngaya*
 fish-DAT eat-RELPST.SS 1SG.NOM
mala~mala-rri-yan.
 nauseating-INCH-PRS
 ‘When eating fish, I feel nauseated.’ (#)
- (278) *Palakarni-rra para mantu-rra nga-nya*
 DEM (mid)-DAT 3SG.DAT meat-DAT 1SG-ACC
yipa-rnu-ya karri-nguru.
 growl.at-PST-3PL take-RELPST.SS
 ‘They growled at me for taking their meat.’ (TW08)
- (279) *Yana-nguru karliny jayi-nyu.*
 go-RELPST.SS returning INCH-PST
 ‘(The one) that went away came back (again).’ (#)

The *-nyuru/-rnanyuru* suffixes are however not only employed as relative present same subject markers. They are also subject to insubordination, which can be defined as ‘the conventionalized main clause use of what, on prima facie grounds, appear to be formally subordinate clauses’ (Evans 2007:367). Note in (280) – (281) that the suffixes are employed with the verb in clauses that stand alone, i.e. that would appear not to be subordinate. This construction is similar to the antipassive derivation (see section 4.5.2.1), but since it is employed with both transitive and intransitive verbs with the same effect, it would be wrong to describe it as an antipassive derivation. (The same number of NPs commonly included in sentences with other TAM distinctions are also included in sentences with a main verb marked by *-nyuru/-rnanyuru*. The subject NP in sentences that include intransitive verbs still appears in the nominative form, but the two NPs occurring with transitive verbs here take NOM-DAT case marking.) In main clauses, *-nyuru/-rnanyuru* are employed to mark continuous activity. With punctual verbs, the verbs take on an iterative sense, as in (281). Compare in this context (281) to (282). In (282), it is implied that one man hit another only once, in (281) that he did it repeatedly.

- (280) *Nyayi marrungu kukurnjayi-rra*
 DEM (proximate) man sheep-DAT
kurlku ja-rnanyuru.
 cropped.close CAUS-RELPRS.SS
 ‘This man is shearing (the) sheep.’ (TW08)

- (281) *Nyayi-rra* *marrungu-rra*
 DEM (proximate) man-DAT
punga-rnanyuru *parta* *marrungu*.
 hit-RELPRS.SS other man
 ‘This man another man hit repeatedly.’ (TW08)
- (282) *Nyayi* *marrungu* *punga-rnu* *parta-ngku*
 DEM (proximate) man hit-PST other-ERG
marrungu-lu.
 man-ERG
 ‘This man another man hit (once).’ (TW08)

8.3.3 Purposive clauses

As mentioned above, purposive subordinate clauses in Australian languages temporally follow the situation described in the main clause, often with a purposive semantic relationship (Austin 1981). The Ngarla Purposive TAM distinction (marked by *-kura/-lu*) occurs in both main and subordinate clauses (cf. section 4.4.3.3.2). In line with Austin (1981), the Ngarla *-kura/-lu* markers in subordinate clauses most commonly seem to correspond to the use of English ‘in order to’, as in (283) – (284) below. However, the non-finite verbal suffixes *-yartara/-lyartara* are used in the same way, as shown in (285) – (286). Consequently, both sets of suffixes are glossed here as -PURP. It remains unclear if there is a semantic difference between them. (Examples (287) – (288) show the irregular verbs *karri-* ‘carry, take, bring’ and *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ with the *-yartara* suffix.)

- (283) *Palangka-nguru* *karlangkal* *ngaya*
 there-ABL first 1SG.NOM
yaa-nu *Mukurri-nya-karni* *piya-nga*
 go-PST Mukurri-AREA-ALL 3DU-DAT
mara ku-lu *kalyarra-rra*.
 hand CAUS-PURP COMBINATION KIN TERM-DAT¹²¹
 ‘From there first I went to (the) Mukurri area to pick up my sister’s son and his son.’ (#)
- (284) *Nyayi* *martarra* *wirnti~wirnti*
 DEM (proximate) wounded nankeen kestrel
ngaja *wanyja-rnu* *kankara* *warnta-ka*
 1SG.ERG leave-PST high.up tree-LOC
mila+ngarri-kura.
 convalesce[+INCH]-PURP
 ‘This wounded kestrel I left high up (a) tree in order to convalesce.’

¹²¹ The combination kin term *kalyarra* is used in the sense ‘(one’s) sister’s son and his son’.

- (285) *Jijirr nganarna jurrka-yirnta*
 seed 1PL.EXCL.NOM rub-USI
majarra-ngura paji-lyartara-lu.
 millstone-LOC eat-PURP-ERG
 ‘(The) seed(s) we used to rub on millstone(s) in order to eat (them).’ (#)
- (286) *'Purlpi wataku wurta+ma-n-jarra*
 well unimportant wait[+CAUS]-FUT-1DU
pana-nga yurta-rra jangka ngarri-yartara-rra.'
 3PL-DAT fish-DAT fastened INCH-PURP-DAT
 ‘Well, (it’s) unimportant, let us wait for the fish(es) to become entangled.’ (#)
- (287) *Wara~wara-yi-nyu wula-rra*
 forget-INCH-PST water-DAT
karri-yartara.
 take-PURP
 ‘(He) forgot to take (the) water.’ (#)
- (288) *Pirri-ngka nganarna pana-nya*
 afternoon-LOC 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karlajangu turayin-ta wanyja-n
 cattle train-LOC put-FUT
yana-yartara Karrkarra-karni.
 go-yartara Karrkarra [Perth]-ALL
 ‘In (the) afternoon we will put the cattle on the train, in order (for them) to go to Karrkarra.’ (#)

As illustrated above, one obvious difference between the two sets of suffixes is that verbs marked by *-yartara/-lyartara* take associating case marking, unlike verbs marked by *-kura/-lu*. Associating case marking associates the verb with an NP (Dench & Evans 1988). In (285), the ergative marker on *paji-lyartara* (eat-PURP) associates the verb with the subject *nganarna* (which, being a pronoun, in fact occurs in the nominative form). In (286), *jangka ngarri-yartara-rra* (fastened INCH-PURP-DAT) is similarly associated with *pana-nga yurta-rra* (3PL-DAT fish-DAT) ‘the fish(es)’. Thus verbs taking the Purposive *-kura/-lu* can have either a same subject (283) or a different subject (284) interpretation, with confusions as to which interpretation is the intended one being possible. Below, (289) is an example of both types of purposive markers occurring in the same statement.

- (289) *Mampul murri nyinpa palu karri-kura*
 truly INTNS 2SG.NOM 3SG.LOC carry-PURP
nyayi mantu waa-lyartara-lu.
 DEM (proximate) meat give-PURP-ERG
 ‘You really should carry this meat, in order to give (it) to him.’ (#)

8.3.4 (Pure) nominalising suffixes

While non-finite verbal suffixes can be considered to constitute nominalising suffixes, since verbs marked by them in different contexts also take case marking (the Purposive *-kura/-lu* constituting an exception), this section discusses two sets of ‘pure’ nominalising suffixes. The word ‘pure’ should here be taken to mean that the suffixes in question are clearly employed to derive nominals. Instrumental nominalisation, marked by *-punyjarri/-lpunyjarri*, was introduced already in section 4.2 above. Two examples are given below. In (290), a word with the sense ‘puller(s)’ is created by the addition of *-lpunyjarri* to *palarr ma-* (secure CAUS), i In (291), a word meaning ‘match’ by the addition of *-punyjarri* to *jarrari* ‘light’.

- (290) *Yawarta tangki piyalu palarr ma-lpunyjarri.*
 horse donkey 3DU.NOM secure CAUS-INSNOM
 ‘(The) horse (and) donkey (were the) pullers.’ (I.e. ‘(The) horse (and) donkey were pulling (the cart).’) (#)
- (291) *Jarrari-punyjarri waa-n ngajapa pinurru*
 light-INSNOM give-FUT 1SG.LOC fire
ngaya nyali ja-lu.
 1SG.NOM light CAUS-PURP
 ‘(A) match (lit. something to light with) give on (i.e. to) me, (a) fire
 I intend to light.’ (#)

Another set of suffixes, *-wanti/-lwanti*, creates modifiers to a noun phrase head. In all existing examples of the use of the suffixes, the constituent marked by *-wanti/-lwanti* is placed statement finally. Case marking however shows that the suffixes create modifiers to the head of the direct object NP (with which the verb taking *-wanti/-lwanti* is frequently discontinuous). In (292), dative marking thus shows that *kama-lwanti-rra* (cook-NMLZ-DAT) belongs together with *mantu-rra* (meat-DAT). In (293), both *ngurra* (camp) and *ngarri-wanti* (sleep-NMLZ) are left unmarked (i.e. marked by nominative). (Example (294) shows the irregular verb *karri-* ‘carry, take, bring’ with the *-wanti* suffix. There are no examples of the irregular verb *ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-* ‘go’ taking *-wanti/-lwanti*.) The suffixes are glossed here simply as ‘nominaliser’ (NMLZ).

- (292) *Ngaya* *wajarri-yanu* ***mantu-rra***
 1SG.NOM look.for-CPST meat-DAT
kama-lwanti-rra.
 cook-NMLZ-DAT
 ‘I was looking for meat for cooking.’ (#)
- (293) Person 1 *Ngananya* *nyinta*
 EPI (why) 2SG.ERG
 jurnti ja-rrri?
 cave CAUS-PRS
 Person 2 *Ngurra* *nganu-Ø* ***ngarri-wanti.***
 camp 1SG-DAT sleep-NMLZ
 Person 1: ‘Why are you making a cave?’ Person 2: ‘(As) a camp for sleeping for me.’ (i.e. ‘As a camp for me to sleep in.’) (TW10)
- (294) *Nganyjarra-nga-lu* *malya-ngku* *waa-rnu*
 1PL.INCL-DAT-ERG father-ERG give-PST
mayi *nyumpala-la*
 vegetable.food 2DU-DAT
karri-wanti.
 take-NMLZ
 ‘Our father gave you two food to take away.’ (TW08)

That *-wanti/-lwanti* suffixes create modifiers to the head of the direct object NP is indicated also in sentences where the suffixes attach directly to known nominals, as in (295). Here, the sense ‘firewood’ is created with *jirtarr* (foliage) and *pinurru-wanti* (fire-NMLZ).

- (295) *Marrungu-lu* *kuru+ma-rrri* *jirtarr*
 man-ERG gather[+CAUS]-PRS foliage
pana-nya ***pinurru-wanti.***
 3PL-ACC fire-NMLZ
 ‘The man is gathering sticks for (the) fire (i.e. firewood).’ (TW10)

In this context, it should be noted that certain of the suffixes that have above been described as non-finite verbal suffixes are at times also found to attach directly to known nominals, like *-yartara* in (296) below. This is a further indication that non-finite verbs could/should be analysed as being nominalised (the ability to take case marking being the first one).

- (296) *Wula* *ngaja* *punyja-rnu*
 water 1SG.ERG drink-PST
kupalya-yartara-lu.
 sleep-PURP-ERG
 ‘I drank water in readiness for a sleep.’ (#)

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Appendix A: Transcription & glossing conventions

A.1 Introduction

Notes on transcription and glossing occur in a number of sections above. Here, all the information has been collected. However, the abbreviations employed in the glossing are listed in the beginning of the volume.

A.2 Transcription of Ngarla phonemes

Ngarla phonemes were shown in Table 2 – Table 3 above. Ngarla linguistic examples are in this volume rendered in the (mostly) phonemic orthography developed for languages of the eastern Pilbara by Geytenbeek, Geytenbeek, Hudson, Marsh, Marsh and Richards (Geytenbeek, p.c.). In Table 4 – Table 5 it was shown which letter(s) in the orthography represent which sound. These are repeated as Table 30 – Table 31 below. Note that in the following cases two adjacent letters together represent one sound: the long vowels (*ii*, *aa* and *uu*); the retroflex consonant phonemes *rl* [ɭ], *rn* [ɻ], *rt* [ɮ]; the lamino-palatal *ly* [ʎ], *ny* [ɲ]; and the dorso-velar *ng* [ŋ].

Table 30 The rendering of Ngarla consonant phonemes in the orthography developed by Geytenbeek, Geytenbeek, Hudson, Marsh, Marsh and Richards (Geytenbeek 2006).

Place of articulation/ Manner	Bilabial	Apico- alveolar	Retroflex	Lamino-palatal	Dorso-velar
Rhotic		rr	r		
Lateral		l	rl	ly	
Nasal	m	n	rn	ny	ng
Stop	p	t	rt	j	k
Semi- vowel	w			y	

Table 31 The rendering of Ngarla vowel phonemes in the orthography developed by Geytenbeek, Geytenbeek, Hudson, Marsh, Marsh and Richards (Geytenbeek 2006).

	Front	Back
High	i ii	u uu
Low	a aa	

There are no words that start with a vowel in the orthography employed here, but certain words spelled with an initial *yi* or *wu* frequently are pronounced with initial *i* or *u*. It should also be noted that the syllable *rr**i* at the end of verb stems of the Ø

conjugation (see section 4.2), and also at the end of the irregular verb *karri-* ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ (4.4.4.2), usually becomes *yi*, when followed by a suffix beginning with the retroflex nasal *rn* or the lamino-palatal nasal *ny*. In all such contexts, the syllable in question is written as *yi*.

A.3 Hyphens, tildes, dots and pluses

In the Ngarla examples in this work, suffixes and clitics are separated by hyphens from the roots/stems to which they are attached. Verbalisers, derivational morphemes employed to create complex verbs, however constitute an exception. Most verbalisers attract main stress, and can thus be considered to constitute phonological words in their own right, despite being part of the same grammatical word as the preceding units. In order to indicate both phonological and grammatical word status, non-verbs and verbalisers together constituting complex verbs are in all relevant cases adjacent in the transcription, while being separated by a single space. In the cases of combinations of unknown roots and (possible) verbalisers, the (possible) break between the root and the verbaliser is marked by a plus (+; see section 4.3 above).

A small number of Ngarla verbs appear to be created through zero verbalisation (see section 4.3.1.4). In order to indicate zero verbalization in the transcription, a dot and a zero (*.Ø*) are inserted after the nominal root.

The tilde (*~*) is employed in reduplicated lexical items, to connect the copied element to the root/stem.

A.4 Notes on glossing

A.4.1 Glossing of nominals: Case marking

It has been standard practice in descriptions of grammar of Pama-Nyungan languages to describe the marking of core grammatical cases in many of the languages as presenting a split picture, with pronouns predominantly taking nominative-accusative case marking and other nominals ergative-absolutive marking (Goddard 1982). This type of analysis is provided for Ngarla in e.g. Westerlund (2007, 2009, 2011).

In this work, it is however recognised that marking of case must not be confused with the actual case system of a language. Many Pama-Nyungan languages have tripartite marking for at least one subclass of nominals. In Ngarla, this is true for the 1SG and 2SG pronouns (see section 3.4.4). In line with Goddard (1982), the case marking split is therefore here treated as a syncretism of forms across three cases, ergative, the case of the transitive subject (A); nominative, the case of the intransitive subject (S); and accusative, the case of the transitive object (P). Thus, Ngarla pronouns have homonymous ergative and nominative forms (1, 2SG excluded), other nominals having homonymous nominative and accusative forms (the so-called ‘absolutive’ form of the ergative-absolutive case marking pattern; see section 3.4.1.2).

These syncretisms however give rise to practical problems for the glossing of inflected case forms. Following Dench (1999), a number of simplifications are implemented. The case function of each individual form is not represented in the example sentences. Rather, the unmarked forms of nominals that may appear in either

intransitive subject or accusative object function are left without case labels. Similarly, pronouns in both transitive and intransitive subject function are consistently labelled ‘nominative’. (This is however not the case for the 1, 2SG pronouns; see section 3.4.4) In most other instances, the labels given to both nominal suffixes and pronoun forms reflect the appropriate case functions. However, the ergative suffixes also function as markers of the (semantic) instrumental case, but are nevertheless consistently glossed -ERG. The dative suffixes, both those being employed with pronouns and those occurring with other types of nominals, also mark genitive (the SG pronouns, which have separate genitive forms, being excluded here). However, in all contexts, they are glossed -DAT (see sections 3.4.1.2 and 3.4.4).

A.4.2 Glossing of verbs

A.4.2.1 Glossing of TAM categories

The same TAM inflection (-Ø/-n) is in Ngarla employed to mark both future tense and imperative mood. The inflection is labelled here Future tense, and is in all contexts glossed -FUT.

A.4.2.2 Complex verbs: Inchoative and causative

Following Dench (1999), the label ‘inchoative’ is in this thesis employed for the verbaliser found in all complex verbs of the Ø conjugation, and ‘causative’ for the verbaliser in all complex L conjugation verbs. Inchoative/causative verb pairs are commonly defined as expressing the same situation, most frequently a change of state, more rarely the Aktionsart Activity (see Table 20; Haspelmath 1993; Vendler 1967). According to this definition, the causative verb meaning includes an agent participant which is responsible for causing the situation. The inchoative verb describes the situation as occurring spontaneously, and an agent is therefore absent. Most Ngarla complex verbs express either changes of state or Activity. However, it needs to be pointed out that atypical intransitive and transitive complex verbs exist. Consider in this context e.g. the verb *kuntu~kuntu ma-L* in (297) below. It is an atypical transitive complex verbs, in that adverbial information is included in the verbal semantics. Thus, *kuntu ma-L*, with the nominal *kuntu* ‘good’, means ‘do well’, ‘treat well’.

- | | | | |
|-------|--|--|-----------------------------|
| (297) | <i>Mirtanya-lu</i>
old.man-ERG
<i>yirrkili</i> .
boomerang
‘(The) old man is treating his boomerang well (i.e. is nursing his boomerang).’ (#) | <i>kuntu~kuntu ma-rri</i>
good CAUS-PRS | <i>parnu-nga</i>
3SG-GEN |
|-------|--|--|-----------------------------|

Other complex verbs with atypical senses include verbs with lexicalised meanings, cf. section 4.3.2.3, and verbs created with the verbaliser *ku-L* (4.3.2.5), which denote movement of entities.

Note that the causative verbalisers, creating L conjugation verbs from non-verbs, should not be confused with the Ngarla causative valency increasing derivation (despite

the fact that two morphemes, *ma-L* and *ja-L*, occur in both functions; see section 4.5.3.1). With the causative valency increasing derivation, the S argument of an intransitive clause becomes the P of a transitive clause (Dixon 2002a).

Appendix B: Annotated stories

B.1 Text 1: My Life Story, page 1

This text is a purely literary product (as is text 2, section B.2), in that it was written down by Brown himself. The spelling has been standardised by Westerlund and Geytenbeek, who have also provided the English translation.

- (298) *Nyapiri ngaya yini.*
Nyapiri 1SG.NOM name
'Nyapiri (is) my name.'
- (299) *Ngarta ngayi-rnta ngaya*
man INCH-REMPST 1SG.NOM
Kurru-malu.
Kurru [De Grey]-EX
'I became (a) man (i.e. was born) (long ago) right at Kurru.'
- (300) *Palangka kalya ngaya*
there still 1SG.NOM
yarru ngayi-rnta nganarna-nga-ngura
big INCH-REMPST 1PL.EXCL-DAT-LOC
yinta-ka Kurru-nya-ngura.
waterhole-LOC Kurru [DeGrey]-AREA-LOC
'There I still (i.e. also) became big (i.e. grew up), at our waterhole Kurru.'
- (301) *Warrarn nganarna-nga wanparta-nyjarri-rra*
country 1PL.EXCL-DAT Wanbarta [tribe]-PL-DAT
Kurru-nya.
Kurru [DeGrey]-AREA
'Our, Wanbarta's [the Ngarla group's own name for itself] country (was the) Kurru area.'
- (302) *Wangka nganarna ngarla,*
speech 1PL.EXCL.NOM Ngarla
wangka-rri-yan wanparta-nyjarri.
speech-INCH-PRS Wanbarta-PL
'Our speech (i.e. language) (is) Ngarla, (the) Wanbarta speak (it).'

- (303) *Nganarna-nga-lu* *malya-ngku* *warniya-lu*
 1PL.EXCL-DAT-ERG father-ERG mother-ERG
kanyi-yirnta-pula Kurru-malu.
 care.for-USI-3DU Kurru [DeGrey]-EX
 ‘Our mother (and) father cared for (i.e. raised) (us) right at Kurru.’
- (304) *Jilya-karrangu* *nganarna*
 child-PL 1PL.EXCL.NOM
purrrku-marta (7).
 three-PL (7)
 ‘A bunch of children (were) we (7).’
- (305) *Kurru-jirri* *nganarna*
 Kurru [DeGrey]-DWELLER 1PL.EXCL.NOM
jilya-karrangu kulyu nyini-yanta
 child-PL many stay-USI
Kurru-malu.
 Kurru [DeGrey]-EX
 ‘We were many children staying right at Kurru.’
- (306) *Malya-nyjarri-ngku* *warniya-nyjarri-ngku*
 father-PL-ERG mother-PL-ERG
karri-yirnta-ya nganarna-nya mantu-karni,
 take-USI-3PL 1PL.EXCL-ACC meat-ALL
yurta-karni, jukurta-karni
 fish-ALL fruit-ALL
murlka-lu paki-ngka.
 gather-PURP buggy-LOC
 ‘(The) fathers (and) mothers would take us to (the) meat, to (the) fish (and) to (the) fruit (i.e. to hunt, fish and gather fruit) by buggy.’

- (307) *Pakarr-ta* *yawarta-ngura* *jali-ngka*
 cart-LOC horse-LOC ride-LOC
nganarna-ngku *malya* *warniya-lu*
 1PL.EXCL-ERG father mother-ERG
karri-yirnta-pula *nganarna-nya*
 take-USI-3DU 1PL.EXCL-ACC
pingkayi-lu *Punta-nya*
 holiday-ERG Punta-AREA
Piparnkarra-karni *Marapikurri-nya-karni*
 Piparnkarra-ALL Marapikurri [Port Hedland]-AREA-ALL
murntu.
 also
 ‘By cart (and) horse riding, our father (and) mother would take us
 on holiday to (the) Punta, Piparnkarra (and to the) Port Hedland area
 also.’
- (308) *Palangka-nguru* *nganarna*
 there-ABL 1PL.EXCL.NOM
karliny jayi-nyu *Punta-nya-karni.*
 return INCH-PST Punta-AREA-ALL
 ‘From there we would return to (the) Punta area.’
- (309) *Palangka* *nganarna-nya*
 there 1PL.EXCL-ACC
kanyi-rnu-pula *makurru* *kujarra* *wiyiki.*
 care.for-PST-3DU long.time two week
 ‘There for us they cared for a long time, two weeks.’ (I.e. ‘We were
 there for a long time, two weeks.’)
- (310) *Palangka-nguru* *karliny ja-rnu-pula*
 there-ABL return CAUS-PST-3DU
nganarna-nya *Kurru-nya-karni.*
 1PL.EXCL-ACC Kurru [De Grey]-AREA-ALL
 ‘From there (they) returned us to (the) Kurru area.’
- (311) *Yawarta tangki piyalu palarr ma-lpunyarri.*
 horse donkey 3DU.NOM secure CAUS-INSNOM
 ‘(The) horse (and) donkey (were the) pullers.’ (I.e. ‘(The) horse
 (and) donkey were pulling (the cart).’)

B.2 Text 2: My Life Story, page 6

- (312) *Nyayi* *kunaran* *1947.*
 DEM (proximate) winter 1947
 ‘This (was in the) winter/year 1947.’¹²²
- (313) *Nyayi-ngka* *kunaran-ta* *ngaya*
 DEM (proximate)-LOC winter-LOC 1SG.NOM
mutu.
 small.boy
 ‘In this winter I (was) a boy.’¹²³
- (314) *Nyini-yanta* *Mukurri-malu.*
 stay-USI Mukurri [Tjalku Wara Community]-EX
 ‘(I) was staying right at Mukurri.’
- (315) *Yantilypara* *kanyi-yirnta*
 boat care.for-USI
Ngarnka-ngku *Marapikurri-malu*
 beard-ERG Marapikurri [Port Hedland]-EX
purrku.
 three
 ‘(The) Beard [Don McLeod] was taking care of (i.e. had) three boats right at Marapikurri.’
- (316) *Partanyal-karta-ngku* *nganarna-nya*
 one-COM-ERG 1PL.EXCL-ACC
wii+ma-rnu
 take[+CAUS]-PST
Kanyintingurrpa-nya-karni.
 Kanyintingurrpa [Little Turtle Island]-AREA-ALL
 ‘With one of them (he) took us to Kanyintingurrapa.’
- (317) *Nyini-nyu* *nganarna* *palangka*
 stay-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM there
 4 *wiyiki* *mangkuru-karra.*
 4 week kangaroo-ACT
 ‘We stayed there four weeks working with kangaroos (i.e. killing kangaroos).’

¹²² *Kunaran* has the two senses ‘winter’ and ‘year’. It is unclear what is the correct interpretation of the word in this context.

¹²³ Brown might here be referring to the fact that he in 1947 still had not been initiated in the Aboriginal way (Brown, p.c.).

- (318) *Kapurn mangkuru kulyu pana-nya maa-rnu.*
 skin kangaroo many 3PL-ACC get-PST
 ‘(We) got many kangaroo skins.’
- (319) *Nganarna purlpi*
 1PL.EXCL.NOM well
martumurri-yanya ngarri-yan.
 food-PRIV INCH-PRS
 ‘Well, we are becoming without food (i.e. running out of food).’
- (320) *Nganarna purlpi, ‘ya-ku-la*
 1PL.EXCL.NOM well go-HORT-INTNS
Mukurri-nya-karni!’
 Mukurri-AREA-ALL
 ‘Well, we (said to each other), ‘Let us go to (the) Mukurri area!’
- (321) *Palangka kartu~kartu ma-rnu pana-nya*
 there big CAUS-PST 3PL-ACC
nganarna-nga.
 1PL.EXCL-DAT
 ‘There (he) made them big (i.e. gathered them) for us.’ [N.B.: This presumably refers to the kangaroo skins.]
- (322) *Yalya ngurra-ngka-nguru kapurn*
 belongings camp-LOC-ABL skin
nganarna pana-nya pirtu+ja-rnu
 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC sort[+CAUS]-PST
ngarta-ngka yajarri karri-yartara-lu.
 man-LOC same take-yartara-ERG
 ‘In (?) camp we sorted the skins in order for (each) man to take (the) same (amount)’. [Translation uncertain.]
- (323) *Purrku-marta (6) marrungu nganarna*
 three-PL (6) man 1PL.EXCL.NOM
100 kapurn.
 100 skin
 ‘A bunch of us men (6) (with) a hundred skin(s).’

- (324) *Jinta kapurn panalu kamparra, jinta*
 some skin 3PL.NOM small some
kartu, mirta kurrpu murri.
 big NEG heavy INTNS
 ‘Some of the skins (were) small, some (were) big, (but they were) not very heavy.’
- (325) *Karri-yirnta jinyji-lu*
 carry-USI stages-ERG
Mukurri-nya-karni
 Mukurri [Tjalku Wara Community]-AREA-ALL
 (5 mapal - 50 miles).
 5 sun - 50 miles
 ‘(We) carried (the skins) in stages to (the) Mukurri area (5 days - 50 miles).’
- (326) *Walykari ngayi-rnta manyjarl*
 nape.of.neck sleep-REMPST tired
murri, parta marrungu jina punpal
 INTNS other man foot sick
kayi-rnta.
 take-REMPST
 ‘(The) nape of the neck slept, (it was) very tired, (and) another (i.e. one) man carried (with a) sick (i.e. injured) foot.’

B.3 Text 3: Droving trip from Ethel Creek to Meekatharra, June 1949 (#)

This story, told by the language consultant Brown, relates his recollections of a droving trip he took part in from Ethel Creek to Meekatharra, both in Western Australia, in June 1949.

- (327) *Marapikurri-nya-nguru*
 Marapikurri [Port Hedland]-AREA-ABL
nganarna yaa-nu turayin-ta
 1PL.EXCL.NOM go-PST train-LOC
Piparn-nya-karni.
 Piparn [Marble Bar]-AREA-ALL
 ‘From Marapikurri we went on (the) train to (the) Piparn area.’

- (328) *Palangka-nguru* *nganarna* *yaa-nu*
 there-ABL 1PL.EXCL.NOM go-PST
mayilturaka-ngura *Yirrangkaji-karni*.
 mail.truck-LOC Yirrangkaji [Nullagine]-ALL
 ‘From there we went on (the) mail truck to Yirrangkaji.’
- (329) *Ngayi-nyu* *nganarna*.
 sleep-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM
 ‘We slept.’
- (330) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *yaa-nu*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM go-PST
Yijilkuriki-karni.
 Yijilkuriki [Ethel Creek]-ALL¹²⁴
 ‘(The) next day we went to Ethel Creek (Station).’
- (331) *Karlajangu* *pana-nya* *kanyi-nyu-ya*
 cattle 3PL-ACC care.for-PST-3PL
yana-yartara.
 go-yartara
 ‘The cattle (they) cared for for the purpose of going.’
- (332) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø *jinangu*.
 take-FUT on.foot
 ‘(The) next day we will take (i.e. bring) them on foot.’
- (333) *Nyampali* *nganarna-nga*
 boss 1PL.EXCL-DAT
Pinjint.
 Pinjint [Vincent]
 ‘Our boss (was) Pinjint.’
- (334) *Yawarta* *panalu* *parnu-nga*, *pirrjarta*
 horse 3PL.NOM 3SG-GEN vehicle
murntu.
 also
 ‘The horses (were) his (and the) vehicle (i.e. cart) too.’

¹²⁴ The name Yijilkuriki is the Ngarla version of the English Ethel Creek.

- (335) *Yaa-nu nganarna Jilpayiniya-karni.*
 go-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM Jilpayiniya [Sylvania]-ALL¹²⁵
 ‘We went to Jilpayiniya.’
- (336) *Partanyal wiyiki nganarna*
 one week 1PL.EXCL.NOM
pana-nya karri-Ø
 3PL-ACC take-FUT
 ‘(For) one week we will take them.’
- (337) *Warrukarti nganarna pana-nya*
 night 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
japartamu ja-n jinyji~jinyji-lu
 shepherd CAUS-FUT alternating-ERG
karlajangu kupalya-yanya-ngku.
 cattle sleep-PRIV-ERG
 ‘(In the) night(s) we will shepherd the cattle alternatingly (i.e. take turns herding the cattle) without sleep.’
- (338) *Wula nganarna pana-nga*
 water 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-DAT
palarr ma-yirnta karlajangu-rra
 securely CAUS-USIT cattle-DAT
punya-lwanti yawarta-karta-lu
 drink-NMLZ¹²⁶ horse-COM-ERG
zungku-kapu.
 well-SCE
 ‘Water for drinking we used to pull from a well, with a horse, for the cattle.’
- (339) *Warrumurntu nganarna pana-nya*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø ngurra-karni
 take-FUT camp-ALL
kurturtu-karni.
 partway-ALL
 ‘(The) next day we will take them to a partway camp.’

¹²⁵ The name Jilpayiniya is the Ngarla version of the English Sylvania.

¹²⁶ As has been pointed out earlier, *-(l)wanti* is a nominalising suffix that creates a modifier to an NP head. Case marking (or lack thereof) indicates which noun phrase the *-(l)wanti* marked constituent belongs to.

- (340) *Pirlurru* *nganarna*
 path 1PL.EXCL.NOM
jina ma-rri *partanyal* *kalya.*
 foot CAUS-PRS one still
 ‘We are following (the) one path still.’
- (341) *Nyangkala* *nganarna* *ngarri-Ø*
 now 1PL.EXCL.NOM sleep-FUT
Mantawinti-ngura.
 Mantawinti [Mundawindi]-LOC
 ‘Now we will sleep at Mantawinti.’
- (342) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *yaa-n.*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM go-FUT
 ‘(The) next day we will go (again).’
- (343) *Kujarra* *wiyiki*
 two week
Kumari-nya-karni.
 Kumari [Kumarina]-AREA-ALL
 ‘Two weeks to (the) Kumari area.’
- (344) *Nyangkala* *nganarna*
 now 1PL.EXCL.NOM
warlkanti ngayi-nyu *Kumari-malu.*
 sitting INCH-PST Kumari [Kumarina]-EX
 ‘Now we sat right at Kumari.’ (I.e. ‘Now we had arrived at Kumari.’)
- (345) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø *karlajangu* *parta-karni*
 take-FUT cattle other-ALL
ngurra-karni.
 camp-ALL
 ‘(The) next day we will take the cattle to another camp.’

- (351) *Palangka-nguru* *karri-Ø* *nganarna*
 there-ABL take-FUT 1PL.EXCL.NOM
pana-nya *Puraya-karni*
 3PL-ACC Puraya [Briah]-ALL¹²⁸
ngurra-karni.
 camp-ALL
 ‘From there we will take them to (the) Puraya camp.’
- (352) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø *partanyal* *wiyiki*.
 take-FUT one week
 ‘(The) next day we will take them (for) one week.’ (I.e. ‘The next day we will set out with them for one week.’)
- (353) *Nyangkala* *nganarna* *nyini-yan*
 now 1PL.EXCL.NOM stay-PRS
Pilyuwin-ngura.
 Pilyuwin [Bilyuin]-LOC
 ‘Now we are staying at Pilyuwin.’
- (354) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *yaa-nu*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM go-PST
ngurra-karni *kurturtu-karni*.
 camp-ALL partway-ALL
 ‘(The) next day we went to a camp partway.’
- (355) *Palangka-nguru* *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 there-ABL 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø *karlajangu* *ngurra-karni*.
 take-FUT cattle camp-ALL
 ‘From there we will take the cattle to (a) camp.’
- (356) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna-nga* *ngurra*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL-DAT camp
panta-karni.Ø-yan *Jarawutu*.
 close-ALL.INCH-PRS Jarawutu [Sherwood]¹²⁹
 ‘(The) next day (the) Jarawutu camp is getting close on us.’ (I.e.
 ‘(The) next day we are approaching (the) Jarawutu camp.’)

¹²⁸ The name Puraya is the Ngarla version of the English Briah.

¹²⁹ The name Jarawutu is the Ngarla version of the English Sherwood.

- (357) *Nyayi-ngka* *nganarna*
 DEM (proximate)-LOC 1PL.EXCL.NOM
pana-nya *kanyi-n* *purru*
 3PL-ACC care.for-FUT three
mapal.
 sun
 ‘Here we will care for (i.e. look after) them for three suns (i.e. three days).’
- (358) *Warrumurntu* *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 next.day 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karri-Ø *karlajangu*
 take-FUT cattle
turakinyaarta-karni *Mikajarra-karni.*
 trucking.yard-ALL Mikajarra [Meekatharra]-ALL
 ‘(The) next day we will take the cattle to (the) Mikajarra trucking yard.’
- (359) *Pirri-ngka* *nganarna* *pana-nya*
 afternoon-LOC 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-ACC
karlajangu *turayin-ta* *wanyja-n*
 cattle train-LOC put-FUT
yana-yartara *Karrkarra-karni.*
 go-yartara Karrkarra [Perth]-ALL
 ‘In (the) afternoon we will put the cattle on the train, in order (for them) to go to Karrkarra.’

B.4 Text 4: We were playing with a dangerous thing (#)

Here, Brown is also relating an event experienced by himself.

- (360) *Yaa-nu* *nganarna*
 go-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM
Mukurri-nya-nguru *yurta-karni,*
 Mukurri [Tjalku Wara Community]-AREA-ABL fish-ALL
Mangkuruyayilan-karni.
 Mangkuruyayilan [Kangaroo Island]-ALL
 ‘We went from (the) Mukurri area to (the) fish (i.e. to go fishing), to Mangkuruyayilan.’

- (361) *Kurturtu-ngura* *nganarna* *paamu*
 partway-LOC 1PL.EXCL.NOM bomb
ngani+ma-rnu.
 see[+CAUS]-PST
 ‘Partway we saw (a) bomb.’
- (362) *Pilatayimu* *warni ji-rnta-ya*
 fight.time fall CAUS-REMPST-3PL
kajungu-lu *mangarrjarra-ngura-lu.*
 Japanese/Chinese-ERG aeroplane-LOC-ERG
 ‘(In the) war time, (the) Japanese made (it) fall (i.e. dropped (it))
 with (i.e. from) a plane.’
- (363) *Warni ji-ntangu* *nyini-yanta* *mulya* *kankara.*
 fall CAUS-REL.DS stay-USI nose high.up
 ‘After having fallen (i.e. being dropped), (it) was staying (with its)
 nose upwards.’
- (364) *Mirta* *payiny ngarri-marnta* *paamu.*
 NEG bang INCH-PSTCONTRA bomb
 ‘(The) bomb didn't explode.’
- (365) *Nganarna* *witi ja-yirnta*
 1PL.EXCL.NOM games-CAUS-USI
pakarli-nyjarri-lu.
 young.male-PL-ERG
 ‘We young men were playing (with it).’
- (366) *Nganu-nga-lu* *kaja-ngku*
 1SG-GEN-ERG older.brother-ERG
maa-rnanguru *pilyparr*
 get-RELPST.SS unsuccessfully
yirriny+ma-yirnta.
 lift[+CAUS]-USI
 ‘Having got hold (of it), my older brother was unsuccessfully
 lifting (it) (i.e. was trying and failing to lift it).’
- (367) *Mampul-pa* *payiny ngarri-marnta,*
 truly-DOUBT bang INCH-PSTCONTRA
punga-nmarnta *nganarna-nya* *kutu.*
 hit-PSTCONTRA 1PL.EXCL-ACC dead
 ‘Truly, had it exploded, it might have hit us dead (i.e. killed us).’

- (368) *Palangka-nguru* *nganarna* *yaa-nu*
 there-ABL 1PL.EXCL.NOM go-PST
yurta-karni.
 fish-ALL
 ‘From there we went to (the) fish (i.e. went fishing).’
- (369) *Mirta* *nganarna* *yurta*
 NEG 1PL.EXCL.NOM fish
maa-nmarnta.
 get-PSTCONTRA
 ‘We didn't get (any) fish.’
- (370) *Karliny jayi-nyu* *nganarna* *para*
 returning INCH-PST 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3SG.DAT
paamu-rra *ngani+ma-lu.*
 bomb-DAT see[+CAUS]-PURP
 ‘We returned in order to look at the bomb.’
- (371) *Karliny-ju* *nganarna* *panala-la*
 returning-ERG 1PL.EXCL.NOM 3PL-LOC
mirta *juntu ma-nmarnta.*
 NEG straight CAUS-PSTCONTRA
 ‘On returning, we didn't make (it) straight on them.’ (I.e. ‘When we returned we didn't tell anyone about it.’)
- (372) *Makurru* *murri* *nyini-nyu.*
 long.time INTNS stay-PST
 ‘A very long time (it) stayed (there).’
- (373) *Mirta* *ngani+ma-nmarnta-ya.*
 NEG see[+CAUS]-PSTCONTRA-3PL
 ‘They didn't see it.’
- (374) *Yarti* *jinta-ku* *murri*
 later others-ERG INTNS
ngani+ma-rnu-ya *paamu,* *muwarr*
 see[+CAUS]-PST-3PL bomb word
pana-nga *nyaa-rnu-ya* *yatilpa-rra.*
 3PL-DAT send-PST-3PL leader-DAT
 ‘Much later others saw (the) bomb, word they sent to the leaders (i.e. to the authorities).’

- (382) *Parta-la* *para* *jipa-rnu*¹³⁰ *warlu-rra*,
 other-INTNS 3SG.DAT steer-PST fright-DAT
parta-la *punga-nmayi-nyu-pula* *makurru*.
 other-INTNS hit-RECP-PST-3DU long.time
 ‘(The) other one steered (i.e. drove) it into fright (i.e. into action),
 those two were fighting each other (for) a long time.’ [Translation
 uncertain.]
- (383) *Parta-ngku* *piya-nya* *wirnti~wirnti-lu*
 other-ERG 3DU-ACC nankeen kestrel-ERG
wanyja-rnu, *pila-ngka-kapu*.
 leave-PST fight-LOC-SCE
 ‘(The) other kestrel left them because (they were) in (the) fight.’
- (384) *Mampul palu* *walykari*
 true 3SG.LOC nape.of.neck
karra+ma-ntangu *wiiny ngayi-nyu*.
 grab[+CAUS]-REL.DS free INCH-PST
 ‘Truly, while having been grabbed (by the) nape of the neck, (the
 mouse) got free on him.’
- (385) *Murnaju* *palu* *marni-nyu* *purlpi*
 exchange 3SG.LOC climb-PST well
junku-ka.
 back-LOC
 ‘(In) exchange, well (he) climbed onto its (i.e. the kestrel’s) back.’
- (386) *Karlurtu-lu* *murnaju* *paji-yinyu*,
 mouse-ERG exchange bite-USI
jangka ngayi-nyu *palu* *wartarra-ngura* *murri*.
 fastened INCH-PST 3SG.LOC shoulder-LOC INTNS
 ‘(The) mouse, (in) exchange, was biting (the kestrel), (it) was
 tightly fastened to its shoulder (i.e. wing-muscle roots).’
- (387) *Mampul murri* *piyalu* *pila-ngka* *nyangkala*.
 true INTNS 3DU.NOM fight-LOC now
 ‘Very truly, the two (are) in (the) fight now.’

¹³⁰ This is a transitive verb, but the noun phrases in this sentence do not take the case marking expected in transitive clauses.

- (388) *Karlurtu* *palu* *jangka* *nyini-yan*
mouse 3SG.LOC fastened stay-PRS
kurturtu-ngura *murri* *junku-ka.*
middle-LOC INTNS back-LOC
‘(The) mouse is staying tightly fastened to (the) middle of its back.’
- (389) *Mampul* *murri* *piyalu* *pila-ngka*
true INTNS 3DU.NOM fight-LOC
marti~marti-rri-yan-pula *nganyja-ka.*
rolling-INCH-PRS-3DU sand-LOC
‘Very truly (those) two in (the) fight are rolling over and over in (the) sand.’
- (390) *Wirnti~wirnti* *para* *jilykari* *murri,*
nankeen kestrel 3SG.DAT determined INTNS
mampul *murri* *yila* *wungka.*
true INTNS perhaps hunger
‘(The) kestrel (was) very determined (to get) it, very truly (he) perhaps (had) hunger.’
- (391) *Wanyja-rnu* *ngaja* *piya-nya*
leave-PST 1SG.ERG 3DU-ACC
pirtu-karni-lu *pila-ngka* *kalya.*
food.for.journey-ALL-ERG fight-LOC still
‘(When) I left them to go for food (in this context: lunch), (they) were) in (the) fight still.’
- (392) *Karliny jayi-nyu* *ngaya* *pirtu-jarra,*¹³¹
return INCH-PST 1SG.NOM food.for.journey-DU(?)
nyayi *kalya* *piyalu* *pila-ngka.*
DEM (proximate) still 3DU.NOM fight -LOC
‘(When) I returned from lunch, they (were) still in (the) fight here.’
- (393) *Nyayi-yingkal* *ngaja* *mirta*
DEM (proximate)-ASSOC 1SG.ERG NEG
ngani+ma-nmarnta *murlurnu* *karlurtu.*
see[+CAUS]-PSTCONTRA previously mouse
‘I have previously never seen a mouse like this (one).’

¹³¹ The ablative suffix could have been expected on *pirtu*. Instead, *-jarra* occurs here, the use of which is not understood in this context.

- (394) *Paja-jangu* *murri*.
 dangerous-ASSOC INTNS
 ‘(It’s) very dangerous.’
- (395) *Nyayi* *pila-ngka* *nyini-yanu-pula*
 DEM (proximate) fight-LOC stay-CPST-3DU
warrumuntu *karrapirti*.
 morning long.time
 ‘They have been here in (the) fight (since) morning, (for) a long time.’
- (396) *Ngananyakarra* *kulpa-Ø-pula?*
 EPI (when) break-FUT-3DU
 ‘When will they break (off)?’
- (397) *Purlpi* *mapal* *piyala-la* *warni-yan*
 already sun 3DU-DAT fall-PRS
pila-ngka-ngura *kalya*.
 fight-LOC-LOC still
 ‘Already (the) sun is falling on them (and they are) still in (the) fight.’
- (398) *Purlpi* *wirnti~wirnti* *manyjarl ngarri-yan*.
 already nankeen kestrel tired-INCH-PRS
 ‘Already (the) kestrel is becoming tired.’
- (399) *Karlurtu-lu* *purlpi* *pakurta ja-rri*.
 mouse-ERG already bad CAUS-PRS
 ‘(The) mouse is already making (it) bad (i.e. tired).’
- (400) *Kari ngayi-nyu* *ngaya* *piya-nga*.
 sympathetic INCH-PST 1SG.NOM 3DU-DAT
 ‘I felt sympathy for them.’
- (401) *Wanta-lu*.
 separate-PURP
 ‘(I) intended to separate (them).’
- (402) *Nyayi* *piyalu* *wirnti~wirnti*
 DEM (proximate) 3DU.NOM nankeen kestrel
ngalangka-jirri, *ngurrara*.
 hereabouts-DWELLER local.inhabitant
 ‘These two kestrels dwell hereabouts, (they are) local inhabitants.’

- (403) *Nyayi* *martarra* *wirnti~wirnti*
 DEM (proximate) wounded nankeen kestrel
ngaja *wanyja-rnu* *kankara* *warnta-ka*
 1SG.ERG leave-PST high.up tree-LOC
mila+ngarri-kura.
 convalesce[+INCH]-PURP
 ‘This wounded kestrel I left high up (a) tree in order to convalesce.’
- (404) *Nyini-nyu* *kujarra* *mapal* *warnta-ka.*
 stay-PST two sun tree-LOC
 ‘(It) stayed two suns (i.e. days) in (the) tree.’
- (405) *Yarti* *ngaya* *para* *wajayi.Ø-nyu,*
 later 1SG.NOM 3SG.DAT searching.INCH-PST
ngurra *ngani+ma-rnu*¹³² *ngaja* *para.*
 NEG see[+CAUS]-PST 1SG.ERG 3SG.DAT
 ‘Later I searched for it, (but) I did not see it.’
- (406) *Yaa-nu* *yila* *ngarrarti.*
 go-PST perhaps very.long.time
 ‘Perhaps (it) went (for a) long time (i.e. for good).’
- (407) *Palangka-nguru* *ngaya* *yaa-nu*
 there-ABL 1SG.NOM go-PST
wajarri.Ø-kura *para* *karlurtu-rra.*
 searching.INCH-PURP 3SG.DAT mouse-DAT
 ‘From there I went in order to search for the mouse.’
- (408) *Palura* *ngajapa* *murti ngayi-nyu*
 3SG.NOM 1SG.LOC run INCH-PST
parnu-nga-karni *pirli-karni,* *jarrpi-nyu* *palangka.*
 3SG-GEN-ALL hole-ALL enter-PST there
 ‘He ran to his hole on me, (and) entered there.’
- (409) *Purlpi* *ngaja* *wanyja-rnu* *paja-jangu-mpuli.*
 well 1SG.ERG leave-PST dangerous-ASSOC-INCAUS
 ‘Well, I left (it) because (it was) (a) dangerous (one).’

¹³² Note the use of the past category on *ngani+ma-L*, where the past contrafactual might have been expected.

B.6 Text 6: Purslane (#)¹³³

This is a mythological story.

- (410) *Nyayi* *nganarna-la* *muwarr*
 DEM (proximate) 1PL.EXCL-LOC word
juntu ma-yirnta-ya *nganarna-nga-lu*
 straight CAUS-USI-3PL 1PL.EXCL-DAT-ERG
mirtanya mirtawari-nyjarri-lu.
 old.man old.woman-PL-ERG
 ‘This word our old men (and) women used to make straight on us.’
 (I.e. ‘Our old men and women used to tell us this story.’)
- (411) *Parta ngarta wungka-purta murri*
 other man hunger-ASSOC INTNS
yanangka-yanta ngurra-partu-karni.
 go-USI camp-SEQ-ALL
 ‘Another (i.e. one) very hungry man used to go from one camp to another.’
- (412) *Mayi-rra jaaya ma-rnanyuru*
 food-DAT mouth CAUS-RELPRS.SS
yanangka-yanta pana-nga parta-rra ngarta-rra.
 go-USI 3PL-DAT other-DAT man-DAT
 ‘Hungry for food, (he) used to go to the other men.’
- (413) *Wangka punga-rnu-ya para*
 speech hit-PST-3PL 3SG.DAT
pala-rra ngarta-rra,
 DEM (mid)-DAT man-DAT
 ‘They hit speech (i.e. decided) (regarding) that man, (saying)’

¹³³ The purslane (*portulaca oleracea*) is a species of succulent plant that is common in the Pilbara. It used to be a regular food-source among Aboriginal people (Brown & Geytenbeek 2006).

- (414) *'Nyayi ngarta wungka-murri-jangu*¹³⁴
 DEM (proximate) man hunger-INTNS-ASSOC
kumarri ma-lu nganyjarra para
 stingy CAUS-PURP 1PL.INCL.NOM 3SG.DAT
nyayi-rra ngarta-rra. '
 DEM (proximate)-DAT man-DAT
 'This very hungry man, we intend to withhold this man (from it;
 presumably food).'
- (415) *Kumarri ma-ntangu palura yaa-nu*
 stingy CAUS-REL.DS 3SG.NOM go-PST
yurntiri.
 offended
 'Being withheld (from it), he went (i.e. left) offended.'
- (416) *Wajayi.Ø-nyu para*
 searching.INCH-PST 3SG.DAT
pala-rra patalyi-rra
 DEM (mid)-DAT vegetation-DAT
kulpurru-rra.
 purslane (*portulaca oleracea*)-DAT
 ' (He) searched for that vegetation, purslane.'
- (417) *Pala nganarna-nga patalyi*
 DEM (mid) 1PL.EXCL-DAT vegetation
paji-lpunyjarri.
 eat-INSNOM
 'That vegetation for us (became) food.'
- (418) *Pala-kapu patalyi nganarna*
 DEM (mid)-SCE vegetation 1PL.EXCL.NOM
kartu-kartu ma-yirnta jijirr.
 big CAUS-USI seed (generic)
 'Because of that, we used to cause (the) vegetation seed to be big
 (i.e. caused the vegetation seed to grow).'

¹³⁴ *Murri* is a particle, and as such, supposedly does not take any inflections. This is the only known exception; cf. sections 3.1 and 5.2 above.

- (419) *Jijirr nganarna jurrka-yirnta*
 seed 1PL.EXCL.NOM rub-USI
majarra-ngura paji-lyartara-lu.
 millstone-LOC eat-lyartara-ERG
 ‘(The) seed(s) we used to rub on millstone(s) in order to eat (them).’
- (420) *Pala ngarta yarti*
 DEM (mid) man later
karliny jayi-nyu nganarna-nga
 return INCH-PST 1PL.EXCL-DAT
kumarri ma-rnanguru-rra
 stingy CAUS-RELPST.SS-DAT
mara-kapu-karta kulpurru-karta,
 hand-SCE-COM purslane-COM
wangka kayi-nyu nganarna-nga,
 speech INCH-PST 1PL.EXCL-DAT
 ‘That man that was withheld later returned for us with purslane from (i.e. in) (the) hand, (and) said to us,’ [Translation uncertain]
- (421) *Nyurra ngarta kumarri ma-rnu*
 2PL.NOM man stingy CAUS-PST
nyurra nganya mayi-ngka.
 2PL.NOM 1SG.ACC vegetable.food-LOC
 ‘You people, you withheld me from (the) food.’
- (422) *Nyayi ngaja warni ji-rri*
 DEM (proximate) 1SG.ERG fall CAUS-PRS
pinurru-ngura kulpurru.’
 fire-LOC purslane
 ‘This purslane I make fall (i.e. throw) in (the) fire.’
- (423) *Nyayi muwarr murlurnu-kapu murri*
 DEM (proximate) word long.ago-SCE INTNS
manguny-kapu juntu ma-ntangu
 manguny (Dreamtime.being)-SCE straight CAUS-REL.DS
muwarr.
 word
 ‘This word, very long ago (the) word was made straight (i.e. told) by a manguny-being.’

- (424) *Pala-ngku* *ngarta-ngku*
 DEM (mid)-ERG man-ERG
kumarri ma-ntangu-lu *kulpurru*
 stingy CAUS-REL.DS-ERG purslane
warni ji-rnta *pinurru-ngura.*
 fall CAUS-REMPST fire-LOC
 ‘That man that (we) withheld (long ago) made purslane fall in (the)
 fire (i.e. threw purslane in (the) fire).’
- (425) *Wujapali* *marrungu*
 all.together man
murru+ngayi-rnta-ya *Kutu~kutu-malu.*
 escape[+INCH]-REMPST-3PL Kutu~kutu-EX
 ‘All men escaped exactly at Kutu~kutu.’ [Translation uncertain.]
- (426) *Pala-kapu* *nyangkala* *nganarna*
 DEM (mid)-SCE now 1PL.EXCL.NOM
mirta *kulpurru-rra* *pakurta ja-lu,*
 NEG purslane-DAT bad CAUS-PURP
kuntu ma-rri *murri* *nganarna.*
 good CAUS-PRS INTNS 1PL.EXCL.NOM
 ‘Because of that, we now don’t intend to make purslane bad, we
 make it very good.’ (I.e. ‘Because of that, we now don’t intend to
 treat purslane poorly, we treat it very well.’)

B.7 Text 7: Let’s go fishing, boy! (#)

- (427) *Warrumurntu* *ngaliya* *yaa-nu*
 next.day 1DU.EXCL.NOM go-PST
Yirramakartu-karni *mapal-ta*
 Yirramakartu [Roebourne]-ALL sun-LOC
warni-nyjangura.
 fall-REL.DS.LOC
 ‘One day the two of us went to Yirramakartu as (the) sun was
 falling (i.e. setting).’
- (428) *Ngaliya* *warlkanti ngayi-nyu.*
 1DU.EXCL.NOM sitting INCH-PST
 ‘We sat.’

- (429) *Purlpi ngaliya yanangka-yan jarurrukarti*
 well 1DU.EXCL.NOM go-PRS twilight
murri, ngurra ngaliya
 INTNS camp 1DU.INCL.NOM
yarni+ma-rnu warru~waru-ngura murri.
 make[+CAUS]-PST twilight (almost dark)-LOC INTNS
 ‘Well, we are going (until) deep twilight, we made camp (when it)
 was almost dark.’
- (430) *'Pinurru ngali-nga kartu~kartu ma-n,*
 fire 1DU.INCL-DAT big CAUS-FUT
purlparl ngaya kama-lu
 food (generic) 1SG.NOM cook-PURP
ngali-nga paji-lwanti.'
 1DU.INCL-DAT eat-NMLZ¹³⁵
 ‘Make (the) big fire for us, food for eating I intend to cook for us.’
- (431) *'Purlpi paji-n-jarra.'*
 well eat-FUT-1DU
 ‘Well, let us eat.’
- (432) *'Wayirru nyinta paji-rnu ngungku, nganu-nga*
 Q 2SG.ERG eat-PST appropriate 1SG-GEN
warrku?'
 nephew
 ‘Did you eat (an) appropriate (amount; i.e. enough), my nephew?’
- (433) *'Wayirru kujungurru ngajapa*
 Q ocean 1SG.LOC
wanyaparri ma-n kaniyingu?'
 awareness CAUS-FUT incoming.tide
 ‘Can (you) listen to (the) incoming tide on me?’ [Translation
 uncertain.]
- (434) *'Ngurra kalya. Wirlarra nyini-yan kankara*
 NEG still moon stay-PRS high.up
kalya.'
 still
 ‘Still nothing. (The) moon is still staying high up.’

¹³⁵ As has been pointed out earlier, *-(l)wanti* is a nominalising suffix that creates a modifier to an NP head. Case marking (or lack thereof) indicates which noun phrase the *-(l)wanti* marked constituent belongs to.

- (435) *'Wataku,* *para* *wurta+ma-n-jarra*
 unimportant 3SG.DAT wait[+CAUS]-FUT-1DU
wangka-ka, *kurntakarra.'*
 speech-LOC COMBINATION KIN TERM¹³⁶
 '(It's) unimportant, let us wait for it in talk, nephew.'
- (436) *'Purlpi ngunyi wirlarra warni-yan.*
 well DEM (distant) moon fall-PRS
 'Well, that moon is falling (i.e. setting).'
- (437) *Ngani+ma-n, purlpi kujungurru*
 see[+CAUS]-FUT well ocean
mulya-mulya+rri-yan.'
 come.in (of tide)[+INCH]-PRS
 'Look, well, the sea is already coming in.'
- (438) *'Purlpi pana-nga ya-ku-jarra*
 well 3PL-DAT go-HORT-1DU
palarr ma-lu yurta-rra kartu-nyjarri-rra!'
 secure CAUS-PURP fish-DAT big-PL-DAT
 'Well, let us go in order to pull in the big fish!'
- (439) *'Wayirru warrku, paji-rri-ya nyinu*
 Q nephew bite-PRS-3PL 2SG.DAT
jakalka?''
 hook
 'Nephew, are they biting your hook?'
- (440) *'Ngurrapirli, karna. Mirta*
 NEG mother's.brother NEG
yila panalu wungka
 perhaps 3PL.NOM hunger
nyayi yurta.
 DEM (proximate) fish
 'No, uncle. Perhaps these fish (are) not hungry.'
- (441) *Purlpi ngaya nyintapa wungka-rri-yan.'*
 well 1SG.NOM 2SG.LOC hunger-INCH-PRS
 'Well, I'm getting hungry on you.'

¹³⁶ Used by a person to or about his/her spouse and a daughter or son.

- (442) *'Kapu purlpi wanyja-n-jarra jakurra.*
 come well put-FUT-1DU net
 'Well, come, let us put (in the) net.'
- (443) *Karri-Ø nyinta ngarntaku-karni.*
 take-FUT 2SG.ERG other.side-ALL
 'You take (it) to (the) other side!'
- (444) *Wataku nyina paji-rnamarta-ya*
 unimportant 2SG.ACC bite-ANT-3PL
yirrajarnangka-lu.
 shark (generic)-ERG
 '(It's) unimportant (that/if the) sharks have to bite you.'
 [Translation uncertain.]
- (445) *Ngarlpu panala-la karliny jarri-Ø*
 haste 3PL-DAT returning INCH-FUT
paji-lkatangka-ngura!
 bite-AVERS-LOC
 'Return quickly for fear of the biters!'
- (446) *Yirrajarnangka panalu palakarni wungka,*
 shark (generic) 3PL.NOM DEM (mid) hunger
marangu nyina paji-n-pi-ya.
 perhaps 2SG.ACC bite-FUT-EP-3PL
 'Those sharks (have) hunger, perhaps they will bite you.'
- (447) *Wungka kalya.'*
 hunger continuing.in.state.or.process
 '(They) always (have) hunger.'
- (448) *'Purlpi wataku wurta+ma-n-jarra*
 well unimportant wait[+CAUS]-FUT-1DU
pana-nga yurta-rra jangka ngarri-yartara-rra.'
 3PL-DAT fish-DAT fastened INCH-yartara-DAT
 'Well, (it's) unimportant, let us wait for the fish(es) to become entangled.'
- (449) *Mampul ngaliya pana-nya maa-rnu.*
 truly 1DU.INCL.NOM 3PL-ACC get-PST
 'Truly we got them.'

- (450) *Purrrku-marta* *yurta* *kartu-nyjarri*.
 three-PL fish big-PL
 ‘A bunch of big fish.’
- (451) *Wataku* *ngaliya* *wanyja-rnu*
 unimportant 1DU.INCH.NOM put-PST
wungka-kapu-lu *parru-parru*.
 hunger-SCE-ERG net
 ‘(It’s) unimportant (that) we put (out the) net because of hunger.’

B.8 Text 8: Yukurru Wangka (‘Dog Talk’)

This fictitious story, told by Brown, was published in 1999. It was written down by Cooke, a younger relative. Cooke had no linguistic training, and spelling and word breaks in this story are partly different from those occurring in texts/elicited sentences written down by myself, Deak, Dench and Geytenbeek. It was my intention to go through this story with Brown, in order to check all the sentences. However, Brown died right before this could take place. My own interpretations of how the sentences should be parsed and glossed, as well as my own translations, are given below. The sentences and direct English translations, as they appear in Brown & Cooke, are given in footnotes.

- (452) *Nyayi-ngku-jarra* *kurlkarri+ma-rri-pula*
 DEM (proximate)-ERG-DU think[+CAUS]-PRS-3DU

mantu.
 meat
 ‘These two are thinking about meat.’¹³⁷
- (453) *Malya-ngku* *kurlkarri+ma-rri* *yukurru*
 father-ERG think[+CAUS]-PRS dog
para *yanga-lyartara*
 3SG.DAT chase-lyartara
mangkuru-rra.
 kangaroo-DAT
 ‘(The) father is thinking about (the) dog, (about) having (it) chase the kangaroo.’¹³⁸

¹³⁷ *Nyayingku jarra kurlkarrimarrripula mantu*. ‘The two of them are thinking about meat.’

¹³⁸ *Malyaku kurlkarri marri yukurru para yangal yarta mangku*. ‘Dad is thinking about getting the dog to chase the kangaroo.’

- (454) *Yukurru* *yaa-nu* *malyarnu* *jakarn*
 dog go-PST slow with.care
para *mangkuru-rra*.
 3SG.DAT kangaroo-DAT
 ‘(The) dog went slowly (and) carefully for (i.e. towards) the kangaroo.’¹³⁹
- (455) *Jilya-ngku* *ngani+ma-rnu* *mangkuru*
 child-ERG see[+CAUS]-PST kangaroo
nyini-nyjangu *yirrpi-ngka*.
 sit-REL.DS shade-LOC
 ‘(The) child saw (the) kangaroo sitting in the shade.’¹⁴⁰
- (456) *Yukurru* *yanangka-yan*
 dog go-PRS
parlkarra-ngura.
 plain-LOC
 ‘(The) dog is walking on (the) plain.’¹⁴¹
- (457) *Mangkuru* *palu* *nyini-yan* *watapirti*
 kangaroo 3SG.LOC sit-PRS unaware
yukurru-ngura.
 dog-LOC
 ‘(The) kangaroo is sitting, (being) unaware on (i.e. of) the dog.’¹⁴²
- (458) *Yukurru-lu* *yirtiwarra* *yirtiwarra* *mangkuru*
 dog-ERG fast.pursuit fast.pursuit kangaroo
murti ngarri-yan.
 run INCH-PRS
 ‘(The) dog is chasing the kangaroo, rapidly, rapidly.’¹⁴³

¹³⁹ *Yukurru yanu malyarnu jakarn para mangkururra*. ‘The dog is slowly creeping to the kangaroo.’

¹⁴⁰ *Jilyangu nganimarnu mangkuru nyininy jangu yirrpinka*. ‘The boy saw the kangaroo sitting in the shade.’

¹⁴¹ *Yukurru yanangkayan parlkarrangura*. ‘The dog is walking fast on the flat.’

¹⁴² *Mangkuru palu nyiniyan watapirti yukurrungura*. ‘The kangaroo is sitting not seeing the dog.’

¹⁴³ *Yukurrulu yirtiwarra yirtiwarra mangkuru murtingangarriyan*. ‘Then the dog starts chasing the kangaroo, running running so fast.’

- (459) *Yukurru-lu* *kutu ja-rnu* *mangkuru.*
 dog-ERG dead CAUS-PRS kangaroo
Malya *piyalu* *jilya* *ngurru.*
 father 3DU.NOM child happiness
 ‘(The) dog killed (the) kangaroo. (The) father and (the) child (are) happy.’¹⁴⁴
- (460) *Yukurru-lu* *punyja-rri* *wula.*
 dog-ERG drink-PRS water
 ‘(The) dog is drinking water.’¹⁴⁵
- (461) *Yukurru* *kupalya* *kankarni*
 dog sleep on.top.of
yirrpi-ngka.
 shade-LOC
 ‘(The) dog (is) asleep on top of (i.e. in) (the) shade.’¹⁴⁶
- (462) *Nyayi-ngku-jarra* *kama-rri-pula*
 DEM (proximate)-ERG-DU cook-PRS-3DU
wirnu-ngka *pinurru-ngura* *mangkuru.*
 hot-LOC fire-LOC kangaroo
 ‘These two are cooking (the) kangaroo on the hot fire.’¹⁴⁷
- (463) *Malya* *piyalu* *jilya*
 father 3DU.NOM child
paji-rnu-pula *paji-rnu-pula*
 eat-PST-3DU eat-PST-3DU
paji-rnu-pula, *ngarlu* *winya* *murri.*
 eat-PST-3DU stomach full INTNS
 ‘(The) father and (the) child ate (and) ate (and) ate (until their) stomachs (were) full.’¹⁴⁸

¹⁴⁴ *Yukurrulu kutujarnu mangkuru malya piyalu jilyangurru.* ‘The dog killed the kangaroo. The father and the boy are happy.’

¹⁴⁵ *Yukurru punyjarri wula.* ‘The dog is drinking the water.’

¹⁴⁶ *Yukurru kupalya kanarni yirrpi.* ‘The dog is sleeping underneath the shade.’

¹⁴⁷ *Nyayingku jarra kamarripula wirnungka pinurrungura mangkuru.* ‘Those two cooked the kangaroo on the hot fire.’

¹⁴⁸ *Malya piyalu jilya pajirrupula pajirrupula pajirrupula, ngarluwinya murri.* ‘The father and the boy ate, ate and ate till their stomachs was full.’

Appendix C: Lexicon

Included in this lexicon are all Ngarla lexemes occurring in the linguistic examples, as well as those mentioned in tables and footnotes. Clitics are included, but not suffixes. Nominals are given in the absolutive or, in the case of pronouns, nominative forms. Information about verbal conjugation (Ø or L) is included with all relevant verb stems. Since the citation form of the verb should not be interpreted as an infinitive, the ‘to’ of English infinitives has not been included in the sense field.

Ngarla lexeme	Sense
J	
jaa-L	‘chop’
jaarla	1. ‘nankeen night heron’ (<i>nycticorax caledonicus</i>); 2. ‘heron’ (generic)
jaaya	‘mouth’
jaaya ma-L	‘be/become/make hungry’ (?)
jajukarra	‘distant’
jakakurrpu	‘species of grass (with edible grains)’
jakalka	‘hook (for fishing)’
jakarn	‘with care’
jakurra	‘fishing net’
jali	‘ride’
jalpi-Ø	‘converse’
jangka	‘fastened’
jangka ja-L	‘fasten’
jangka ngarri-Ø	‘become fastened’
jankan	‘trembly’
jankan~jankan-ma-L	‘shake’
jankan karri-Ø	‘tremble’, ‘shiver’
jankurna	‘emu’ (<i>dromaius novaehollandiae</i>)
jantiti	‘fence’
jantu	‘weapon’
japa-L	‘bury’, ‘cover’
japartamu	‘shepherd’
japartamu ja-L	‘shepherd’
jarla	‘cheek’
jarnamani	‘back to back’
jarnti	‘erect’, ‘upright’

Ngarla lexeme

jarnti ja-L
 jarnti karri-Ø
 jarnti ngarri-Ø
 jarnti nyi-L
 jarntu
 jarrari
 jarrpi-Ø
 jarrumirnti
 jarrurn
 jartun
 jartun ngarri-Ø
 jarun+tarri-Ø
 jarurrany
 jarurrukarti
 jauja
 jijjirr
 jilya
 jilykari
 jimpayi
 jimpayi ngarri-Ø
 jimpayi pi-ra-Ø
 jimpulyu

 jina
 jina ma-L
 jinangu
 jinga-L
 jinka-L
 jinta
 jinta pi-L
 jinyji
 jinyji~jinyji
 jipa-L
 jipal
 jipal pi-L
 jirli
 jirtamarra
 juka
 juka ma-L
 jukarinya
 jukurta

Sense

'erect'
 'be vertical'
 'become vertical'
 'erect' (i.e. 'make vertical')
 'friendly'
 'light'
 'enter'
 'joint'
 'man'
 'jump', 'leap'
 'leap'
 'roll from side to side'
 'move easily'
 'twilight'
 'trousers'
 'seed'
 'child'
 'determined'
 'hidden'
 'hide'
 'hide' (see chapter 4)
 'little grebe' (*tachybaptus novaehollandiae*)
 'foot', 'foot print'
 'follow'
 'on foot'
 'hit fast'
 'trim', 'whittle'
 'some', 'others'
 'split', 'separate'
 1. 'fat'; 2. 'stages'
 'alternating'
 'steer'
 'increase'
 'do increase'
 'arm'
 'eye'
 'trick', 'lie'
 'trick', 'lie'
 'orphan'
 'fruit', 'sweet'

Ngarla lexeme

julya ja-L
 jumpa-L
 jungka
 jungka.Ø-L
 junku
 juntu
 juntu ma-L
 jurni
 jurni jarri-Ø
 jurni karri-Ø
 jurni nya-L
 jurnti

 jurnti.Ø-L

 jurnti ja-L
 jurnti ngarri-Ø
 jurnti-rri-Ø
 jurrka-L
 jurru
 jurru~jurru+pinya-L
 jurtapirri
 jurtinti-Ø

K

kaayi

kaja
 kaju-L
 kajungu
 kaka+pinya-L
 kalya
 kalyarra

kalyartu
 kalyu
 kalyu-rni-L
 kama-L

Sense

‘bury’
 ‘mistrust’
 ‘strand of spun hair’
 ‘spin’
 ‘back’
 ‘straight’
 ‘tell’ (lit. ‘make straight’)
 ‘laughter’
 ‘make laugh’
 ‘laugh’
 ‘laugh at’
 1. ‘cave’, ‘gaol’, ‘room’;
 2. ‘curve’; 3. ‘billabong’
 ‘scoop/dig out’ (i.e. ‘make cave(like)’)
 ‘make (a) cave’
 ‘become (a) deeper cave’ (?)
 ‘become (a) deeper cave’ (?)
 ‘rub’
 ‘snake’ (generic)
 ‘roll (on the ground)’
 ‘wind’
 ‘recede’

 ‘song’ (specifically the song that begins the performances on a song and dance- night)
 ‘older brother’
 ‘tie’
 ‘Chinese/Japanese (person)’
 ‘tear (in halves)’, ‘open up’
 ‘still’, ‘remain in state or process’
 combination kin term (used by a person about his/her sister’s son and his son)
 ‘totem animal’
 ‘shout’
 ‘shout’
 ‘cook’, ‘burn’

Ngarla lexeme

kamparra
 kana~kana ma-L
 kanarni
 kangkarr
 kangkarr pi-L
 kanimparra
 kaniyingu
 kankara
 kankarni
 kanta
 kanyi-L

kapu
 kapukarri
 kapukarri ma-L
 kapukarri nya-L
 kapurn
 kari
 kari ngarri-Ø
 karla
 karlajangu
 karlakarri
 karlakarri.Ø-Ø
 karlangkal
 karliny
 karliny jarri-Ø
 karliny ma-L
 karl~karl
 karl~karl ja-L
 karlupurra
 karlurtu
 karna
 karntirni-L
 karntu~karntu
 karra+ma-L
 karrapirti
 karri-
 karrumpu

Sense

‘small’
 ‘scan’
 ‘inside’, ‘underneath’
 ‘tear’
 ‘tear’
 ‘downwards’, ‘north’
 ‘incoming tide’
 ‘high up’
 ‘on top (of)’
 ‘small gap’
 ‘care for’, ‘be responsible for’; ‘tread on’
 ‘come!’ (see footnote 92)
 ‘dream’
 ‘dream’
 ‘dream’
 ‘skin’
 ‘sympathetic’
 ‘feel sympathy’
 ‘diahorrea’
 ‘cattle’ (lit. ‘diahorrea-having’)
 ‘guffaw’, ‘hearty laugh’, ‘noise’
 ‘laugh loudly/heartily’; ‘make noise’
 ‘first’
 ‘returning’
 ‘return’
 ‘bring back’
 ‘gargle’
 ‘gargle’
 ‘generic source’
 ‘mouse’ (generic)
 ‘mother’s brother’
 ‘bite’
 ‘itch’
 ‘grab’
 ‘long time’
 ‘carry’, ‘take’, ‘bring’ (irregular verb)
 ‘coin’

Ngarla lexeme

kartapalkuranya
 karti
 karti ku-L
 kartu
 kartu~kartu
 kartu~kartu ma-L
 kartuwarra
 kartuwarra ma-L
 karu~karu
 karu~karu ngarri-Ø
 karu~karu-rri-Ø
 katu
 katu ja-L
 kayi
 kayirr~kayirr ma-L
 kiru
 kujarra
 kujungurru
 kukurnjayi
 kula
 kulpa-Ø
 kulpurru
 kulyu
 kumarri
 kumarri.Ø-Ø
 kumarri ma-L
 kumpu
 kumpu ji-L
 kumpungu
 kumpungu ngarri-Ø
 kunaran
 kunti+ma-L
 kuntu
 kuntu~kuntu
 kuntu~kuntu ma-L
 kuntu~kuntu-rri-Ø
 kunu
 kunu ngarri-Ø
 kunyi
 kunyi ku-L

Sense

'middle child'
 'lap'
 'put in lap'
 'big'
 'big'
 'make big'
 'rescuer'
 'rescue'
 'nausea'
 'feel nausea'
 'feel nausea'
 'kind'
 'be kind'
 'lip'
 'make grating noise'
 'crow' (*corvus bennetti*)
 'two'
 'ocean'
 'sheep'
 'wait' (interjection)
 'break'
 'purslane' (*portulaca oleracea*)
 'many'
 'mean', 'stingy', 'tight-fisted'
 'be stingy', 'withhold'
 'withhold (from)'
 'urine'
 'urinate'
 'married'
 'get married'
 1. 'winter'; 2. 'year'
 'choke'
 'good'
 'good', 'careful'
 'treat well'
 'be careful'
 'hibernation'
 'hibernate'
 'oven'
 'put in oven'

Ngarla lexeme

kunyja~kunyja
 kunyjarta
 kunyjaru
 kunyji~kunyji
 kunyji~kunyji-rri-Ø
 kupa-L
 kupalya
 kupan
 kura+pi-L
 kurlirlira+karri-Ø
 kurlkarri+ma-L
 kurlku
 kurlku ja-L
 kurlurlu
 kurni-L
 kurnkuwarra
 kurnta
 kurntakarra

kurnta-rri-Ø
 kurnu
 kurnu ngarri-Ø
 kurri
 kurrngal
 kurrpa-L
 kurrrpu
 kurti-L
 kurturtu
 kuru+ma-L
 kutu
 kutu ja-L
 kutu ngarri-Ø
 kuu
 kuurturtu

L

-la
 lamu

Sense

‘cheerful’
 ‘woman’
 ‘bone’
 ‘sneaking up’, ‘stalking’
 ‘sneak up’
 ‘sing’
 ‘sleep’
 ‘lawn’
 ‘pretend not to see/know’
 ‘circle’
 ‘think’
 ‘cropped close’
 ‘shear (sheep)’
 ‘dust’
 ‘throw’
 ‘honey’
 ‘shame’
 combination kin term (used by a
 person about his/her spouse and a
 daughter or son)
 ‘feel ashamed’
 ‘curled up’
 ‘curl up’
 ‘teenage girl’
 ‘many’
 ‘cause trouble’
 ‘heavy’
 ‘cut’
 ‘partway’, ‘middle’
 ‘gather’
 ‘dead’
 ‘kill’
 ‘die’
 ‘ssh’ (interjection)
 ‘bar-shouldered dove’ (*geopelia
 humeralis*)

intensifying clitic
 ‘lamb’

Ngarla lexeme

lilyirr
lilyirr~lilyirr
lilyirr~lilyirr pi-ra-Ø
lirrjal
lungkurtu

M

maa-L
maarli

maarn+tarri-Ø
maarr+pinya-L
maarti

majarra
makanu
makurru
mala~mala
mala~mala-rri-Ø
malya
malyarnu
malyi~malyi
malyi~malyi ja-L
mampul
manara
mangarrjarra
mangkurtu
mangkuru
manguny
mangura
mankura
mantu
manyjarl
manyjarl ngarri-Ø
mapal
mapan+tarri-Ø
mara

Sense

‘rattling noise’
‘rattling noise’
‘rattle periodically’ (see chapter 4)
‘greedy’
‘centralian blue-tongued skink’
(*threskiornis spinicollis*)

‘get’
reciprocal kin term (used in the
senses ‘father’s father’, ‘son’s son’
and ‘son’s daughter’)
‘float’
‘stroke’
‘white dragon tree’ (*sesbania*
formosa)
‘(lower) millstone’
‘tall’
‘long time’
‘nauseated’
‘feel nauseated’
‘father’
‘slow’
‘wind’
‘make windy’
‘truly’
‘completer of something significant’
‘aeroplane’
‘flood’, ‘flowing water’
‘kangaroo’
‘(type of) Dreamtime being’
‘something to chew on’
‘stone’
‘meat’
‘tired’
‘become tired’
‘sun’
‘sparkle’
‘hand’

Ngarla lexeme

mara ku-L
 marangu
 marany
 marlajangu
 marli
 marlkarrimanu
 marlungu
 marni-Ø
 marra
 marra~marra
 marrani-L
 marrka+marri-Ø
 marrkara
 marrungu
 marta
 martarra
 marti
 marti~marti
 marti~marti ngarri-Ø
 marti~marti-ri-Ø
 martumurri
 maruntu

 maturarri
 maturarri.Ø-Ø
 maya
 mayangkarrangu
 mayi
 mayilturaka
 mija-L
 mila+ngarri-Ø
 milpa-Ø
 mintu ja-L
 minyja
 minyja ngarri-Ø
 minyji+ma-L
 miranu
 miranu ngarri-Ø
 mirli~mirli
 mirlka

Sense

'put in hand' (i.e. 'pick up')
 'perhaps'
 'river'
 'bull' (lit. 'ball(s)-having')
 'frog' (generic)
 'killer'
 'maggot'
 'climb'
 'skywards'
 'very high'
 'make disturbing noise'
 'gather'
 'younger sibling'
 'man'
 'mud'
 'wounded'
 'vertical headband'
 'rolling'
 'start to roll'
 'roll'
 'food'
 'Gould's goanna' (1. *varanus gouldi*;
 2. *varanus panoptes*)
 'vomit'
 'vomit'
 'house'
 'forceful'
 'vegetable food'
 'mail truck'
 'touch'
 'convalesce'
 'come'
 'wake up'
 'closed'
 'close'
 'steal'
 'knowledge'
 'acquire knowledge'
 'paper'
 'head'

Ngarla lexeme

mirnmanyā
 mirntily marri-Ø
 mirta
 mirtanya
 mirtarri
 mirtarri-Ø
 mujurarri
 mujurarri.Ø-Ø
 mukuru
 mulya
 mulya~mulya
 mulya~mulya-rri-Ø
 mulyi
 mulyi~mulyi
 mulyi~mulyi-rri-Ø
 mungu
 mungun
 mungun ji-L
 munti-L
 munyju-L
 murirri
 murlka-L
 murlurnu
 murnaju
 murntu
 murri
 murri+ngarri-Ø
 murrkangu(nya)
 murru
 murti
 murti ngarri-Ø
 mutu
 muukuru
 muurr~muurr
 muwarr

N

ngaju
 ngaju karri-Ø
 ngaju ngarri-Ø

Sense

‘baby’
 ‘rattle by itself’
 1. ‘no’, ‘not’; 2. ‘grey’
 ‘old man’
 ‘whitish’
 ‘change colour’
 ‘cloudy’
 ‘become cloudy’
 ‘spotted scat’ (*scatophagus argus*)
 ‘nose’
 ‘incoming tide’
 ‘come in’ (about tide)
 ‘deep’
 ‘spinning’
 ‘spin’
 ‘alone’
 ‘scavenger’
 ‘scavenge’
 ‘remove’
 ‘swallow’
 ‘hot sand’
 ‘gather’
 ‘previously’, ‘long ago’
 ‘exchange’
 ‘also’, ‘too’
 intensifier
 ‘escape’ (?)
 ‘firstborn (child)’
 ‘stone’
 ‘run’
 ‘run’
 ‘small boy’
 ‘unmarried girl’
 ‘crunchy noise’
 ‘word’

‘cry’
 ‘cry’
 ‘start to cry’

Ngarla lexeme

ngaka-L
 ngalangka
 ngali
 ngaliya
 ngalya
 nganakapu
 ngananya
 ngananya ja-L
 ngananyakapu
 ngananyakarra
 ngananyawanti
 nganarna
 ngani+ma-L
 nganta+rri-Ø
 ngantu
 nganyja
 nganyjarra
 ngapa+rri-Ø
 ngapurta
 ngarla
 ngarlpu
 ngarlu
 ngarnka
 ngarntaku
 ngarrala
 ngarramani-Ø
 ngarrarti
 ngarri-Ø
 ngarta
 ngarta ngarri-Ø
 ngarturr+marri-Ø
 ngaya
 ngayiny
 ngayiny ma-L
 ngumpa-L
 ngungku
 nguntu
 ngunyi
 ngurntily~ngurntily

Sense

'prevent'; 'obstruct'
 'hereabouts'
 1 dual inclusive pronoun
 1 dual exclusive pronoun
 'song' (generic)
 'who (polite)'
 'what'
 'do what'
 'why'
 'when'
 'what for'
 1 plural exclusive pronoun
 'see'
 'cave in'
 'who'
 'sand'
 1 plural inclusive pronoun
 'do something in/with water'
 'melon'
 'Ngarla' (specifically the language)
 'haste'
 'stomach'
 'beard'
 'other side'
 'how many'
 'increase'
 'very long time'
 'sleep'
 'man', 'human being'
 'be born'
 'be unaware'
 1 singular pronoun
 'breath'
 'help breathe'
 'chase'
 'appropriate'
 'cold'
 demonstrative (distant)
 'cough'

Ngarla lexeme

ngurntily~ngurntily ma-ra-Ø
 ngurra
 ngurra(pirli)
 ngurrara
 ngurru
 ngurru-Ø
 ngurrapaya
 ngurtu~ngurtu
 nguru~nguru
 ningku

nyaa-L
 nyaarr ma-L
 nyaarru
 nyali
 nyali ja-L
 nyampali
 nyamu~nyamu
 nyangkala
 nyangu
 nyanta
 nyanta ku-L
 nyanta marri-Ø
 nyara-Ø
 nyarntarr
 nyarntarr ku-L
 nyarukarra
 nyayi
 nyimpurl
 nyimpurl ma-ra-Ø
 nyini-Ø
 nyinpa
 nyirri-L
 nyirtingunya
 nyirumunyu-L
 nyita~nyita
 nyiti
 nyuka

Sense

‘cough’ (see chapter 4)
 ‘camp’
 ‘no’, ‘not’, ‘nothing’ (emphatic)
 ‘local inhabitant’
 ‘happiness’
 ‘break’
 ‘horse’ (onomatopoeic)
 ‘stamping dance’
 ‘almost immersed’
 1. ‘straw-necked ibis’ (*threskiornis spinicollis*);
 2. ‘sacred ibis’ (*threskionis aethiopica*)
 ‘send’
 ‘make rushing noise’
 ‘in favour of’
 ‘light’
 ‘light’
 ‘boss’
 ‘moustache’
 ‘now’, ‘today’, ‘these days’
 ‘here’
 ‘here’
 ‘bring here’
 ‘come here’ (?)
 ‘burn’
 ‘gulping’
 ‘gulp’
 ‘creek bed’
 demonstrative (proximate)
 ‘pulse’, ‘throb’
 ‘pulse’, ‘throb’
 ‘sit’, ‘stay’
 2 singular pronoun
 ‘give birth’ (of animal)
 ‘youngest child’
 ‘choke’
 ‘slowing down’
 ‘chest’
 ‘increase site/ceremony’

Ngarla lexeme

nyuka.Ø-L
 nyuka pi-L
 nyumpalu
 nyurra

P

-pa
 paamu
 paja
 paji
 paji-L
 paka
 pakarli
 pakarn~pakarn
 pakarr
 paki
 pakurta
 pakurta ja-L
 pala(karni)
 palangka

palarr
 palarr ma-L
 palka~palka
 palura
 pampa
 pampuru
 pampuru ngarri-Ø
 panalu
 panta
 panta-karni.Ø-Ø
 paparn+ma-L
 para+ma-L
 parlkarra
 parl ma-L
 parlparrr
 parni-Ø
 parni-L
 parra
 parrajampa-L

Sense

‘do increase (with)’
 ‘perform increase ritual’
 2 dual pronoun
 2 plural pronoun

clitic expressing doubt
 ‘bomb’
 ‘dangerous’
 ‘forearm’, ‘wrist’
 ‘bite’, ‘eat’
 ‘steep bank’
 ‘young male’
 ‘uneven riverbank’
 ‘cart’
 ‘buggy’
 ‘bad’
 ‘make bad’
 demonstrative (mid)
 demonstrative, used anaphorically on
 the discourse level
 ‘secure’
 ‘pull’
 intensifier
 3 singular pronoun
 ‘unaware’
 ‘blind’
 ‘become blind’
 3 plural pronoun
 ‘close’, ‘near’
 ‘get close’
 ‘interrupt’
 ‘test’, ‘try’, ‘imitate’
 ‘plain’
 ‘thump’
 ‘sky’
 ‘wait’, ‘stay’
 ‘remove’
 question particle
 ‘hide’, ‘deny’

Ngarla lexeme

parralya
parramanta-ra-Ø/parramantara-Ø

parrara-Ø
parrpa-L
parru~parru
parta
partamurri
partanyal
patalyi
payiny
payiny ngarri-Ø
payiny pirta-L
piju
pikun+tarri-Ø
pila
pila+ma-L
pilatayimu
pilyka
pilyka ngarri-Ø
pilyparr
pingkayi
pinurru
pinya
pinyjira
pirirri
pirli
pirlumpurr
pirlurru
pirna
pirri
pirri-L
pirrjarta
pirrpa-L
pirtu
pirtu+ja-L
piyalu
piyani-Ø
pujapa
pujapa-rni-Ø

Sense

‘ache’
‘do something wrong/different’ (see footnote 85)
‘check’, ‘inspect’
‘transfer warmth (with hands)’
‘fishing net’
‘other’
intensifier
‘one’
‘vegetation’
‘bang (sound of explosion)’
‘bang’; ‘explode’
‘throw against’
‘knife’
‘dodge’
‘fight’
‘flash’
‘fight time’ (i.e. ‘war time’)
‘cracked’
‘crack’
‘unsuccessfully’
‘holiday’
‘fire’
‘fight’
‘spear’
‘man’
‘hole’
‘spear’
‘path’
‘big pain’
‘afternoon’
‘scratch’, ‘dig’
‘vehicle’
‘shine on’
‘food for journey’
‘sort’
3 dual pronoun
‘move’
‘dry’
‘be dry’

Ngarla lexeme

pujula-L
 pukul
 pukul ma-L
 pulala
 pularn
 pularni.Ø-Ø
 pularn ja-L
 pularn ngarri-Ø
 pularn parri-Ø
 punga-L
 punpal
 punta-L
 punyja-L
 purlparl
 purlpi
 purlu+ngarri-Ø
 purnngu+ma-L
 purnngu+ngarri-Ø
 purntul
 purnu
 purrku
 purrpa-L
 purrpi ma-L
 purru
 purru pi-L
 purtukarri
 puurr ma-L

R

riji~riji
 rimpirr
 ruku~ruku

 rukuru~kuru

T

tangki
 tangurungu
 tawn
 taya

Sense

'puff', 'shoot'
 'caretaker'
 'take care of'
 reflexive pronoun
 'quiet', 'silent'
 'fall silent all of a sudden'
 'make silent'
 'be silent'
 'fall silent'
 'hit', 'kill'
 'sick'
 'pluck'
 'drink'
 'food'
 1. 'well'; 2. 'already'
 'move back'
 'congest'
 'become congested'
 'dust'
 'lower back'
 'three'
 'rebuke'
 'face'
 'fish scale'
 'scale fish'
 'in vain, unwillingly'
 'snore'

 'cuttlefish shell'
 'eddy'
 'peacock sole' (*pardachirus pavoninus*)
 '(type of) coral'

 'donkey'
 'teenage boy'
 'town'
 'tyre'

Ngarla lexeme

tayijan
tayimu
tingkiri
tukurrampi
turakinyaarta
turayin
turntarn
turru~turru

W

waa-L
wajarri
wajarri.Ø-Ø
waka~waka-rni-L
wakatarri
wakatarri.Ø-Ø
wakatarri~wakatarri.Ø-Ø
wakurla
wakurr
wakurr ja-L
waleji
walyi
walykari
wanangkura
wangirrimanya
wangka
wangka karri-Ø
wangka nya-L
wangka parri-Ø
wangka-rri-Ø
wankaly~wankaly
wanparta

wanta-L
wanyaparri
wanyaparri.Ø-Ø
wanyaparri ja-L
wanyaparri ma-L

Sense

‘station’
‘time’
‘stingray’ (generic)
‘heavy tapered hitting stick’, ‘club’
‘trucking yard’
‘train’
‘skink’
‘rainbow bee-eater’ (*merops ornatus*)

‘give’
‘desire’, ‘searching’
‘want’, ‘search for’
‘turn’
‘twisting’
‘circle back’
‘turn and twist’
‘boulder’
‘secure’
‘secure’
‘radio’ (‘wireless’)
‘almost’
‘nape of neck’
‘whirlwind’
‘strongest part of cyclone’
‘language’, ‘speech’
‘talk’
‘talk’
‘stop talking’ (i.e. ‘fall silent’)
‘talk’
‘half cooked’
‘Wanbarda’ (the Ngarla community’s
name for itself)
‘sort’, ‘separate’
‘awareness’
‘listen’, ‘learn’
‘teach’, ‘submit knowledge’
‘be aware of’, ‘pay attention to’

Ngarla lexeme

wanyaparri ngarri-Ø
 wanyja
 wanyja-L
 wanyjakalu
 wanyjakarni
 wara~wara
 wara~wara ngarri-Ø
 wara~wara-rri-Ø
 warlakura
 warlakura ma-L
 warlalka
 warlkarnti
 warlkarnti ngarri-Ø
 warlu

 warlu ma-L
 warni-Ø
 warni ji-L
 warniya
 warnjarna+ja-L
 warnta
 warrarn
 warri
 warrka+ji-L
 warrku
 warrukarti
 warrumurntu
 warru~warru
 wartarra
 warti~warti+rri-Ø
 wataku
 watapirti
 wayi ma-L
 wayimpi
 wayi(rru)
 wii+ma-L
 wiiny
 wiiny ja-L
 wiiny ngarri-Ø
 winya

Sense

'listen', 'learn'
 'which one'
 'put', 'leave'
 'where'
 'to where' (directional)
 'forgetful'
 'forget'
 'forget'
 'interruptor'
 'interrupt'
 'bush caper' (*capparis lasiantha*)
 'sitting'
 'sit'
 1. 'processionary.caterpillar';
 2. 'fright'
 'frighten'
 'fall'
 'make fall'
 'mother'
 'do what'
 'tree', 'wood'
 'country', 'land'
 'nappy', 'baby's rug'
 'drag'
 'nephew'
 'night'
 'morning', 'tomorrow', 'next day'
 'twilight (almost dark)'
 'shoulder'
 'descend'
 'unimportant', 'never mind'
 'unaware'
 'ask'
 question particle
 question particle
 'take'
 'free'
 'release' (i.e. 'make free')
 'escape' (i.e. 'become free')
 'full'

Ngarla lexeme

winyja
 winyja ja-L
 wipiny+ja-L
 wipiny+nga-ra-Ø

 wirlarra
 wirnti~wirnti
 wirnu
 wirnu ja-L
 wirrpi-L
 witi
 witi ja-L
 wiyanu
 wiyiki
 wujapali
 wula
 wulyuru
 wungka
 wungka-rri-Ø
 wurla~wurla
 wurla~wurla-rri-Ø
 wurrangkura

 wurruru
 wurta+ma-L
 wurta+rri-Ø
 wurtura+rri-Ø

Y

ya-/yaa-/yana-/yanangka-
 yajarri
 yaji-L
 yalya
 yanga-L
 yanti
 yanti ja-L
 yantilypara
 yapurru
 yarni-L

Sense

'rejection'
 'reject'
 'make come in and out of vision'
 'appear now and again' (see chapter 4)
 'moon'
 'nankeen kestrel' (*falco cenchroides*)
 'hot'
 'make hot'
 'evert'
 'fun', 'games'
 'play'
 'hunting'
 'week'
 'all together'
 'water'
 'west'
 'hunger'
 'become hungry'
 'turbulent'
 'swirl'
 'river red gum tree' (*eucalyptus camaldulensis*)
 'south'
 'wait (for)'
 'stand'
 'stretch'

'go' (irregular verb)
 'same'
 'spear', 'stab', 'stitch'
 'belongings'
 'follow', 'chase'
 'winnowing dish'
 'winnow'
 'boat'
 'north'
 'pour'

Ngarla lexeme

yarni+ma-L
 yarrka
 yarru
 yarru ngarri-Ø
 yarti
 yata+ja-L
 yatilpa
 yawarta
 yawilarni-Ø
 yijangu
 yiju
 yila
 yingi-L
 yini
 yini ma-L
 yininyi-L
 yinjirtin
 yinjirtin ngarri-Ø
 yinta
 yinya-L
 yipa-L
 yiri
 yirni-L
 yirnta
 yirra
 yirrajarnangka
 yirri
 yirriny+ma-L
 yirrkili
 yirрпи
 yirtirti
 yirtiwarra
 yukun
 yukun tarri-Ø
 yukurru
 yula+rri-Ø
 yungku
 yurntiri
 yurntura
 yurnu

Sense

'repair'
 'in the distance'
 'big'
 'become big'
 'later'
 'push'
 'leader'
 'horse'
 'sway'
 'new'
 'east'
 'perhaps'
 'annoy'
 'name'
 'name'
 'cart'
 'suspended'
 'hang'
 'permanent water hole'
 'exchange'
 'growl at', 'quarrel with'
 'sharp'
 'pour'
 'cold'
 'row of items'
 'shark' (generic)
 'gentle slope'
 'lift'
 'boomerang'
 'shade'
 'visible'
 'fast pursuit'
 'smoke'
 'smoke'
 'dog'
 'say'
 'well'
 'offended'
 'flour'
 'choice'

Ngarla lexeme

yurnu ja-L

yurta

yuu

Sense

‘choose’; also ‘aim at’

‘fish’

1. ‘look’; 2. ‘yes’ (interjection)

