Verb functions and Argument Structure in
Malak Malak

a Northern Daly Language of the Daly River Region, Northern Territory

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### Abbreviations and Conventions

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<td>w</td>
<td>Wood gender</td>
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Notes on examples

‘*’ indicates that a sentence or phrase with ‘*’ is ungrammatical
BL refers to my MalakMalak language teacher Biddy Lindsay
JT refers to Ian Green’s language teacher

Examples will be presented in the following format. The first line of text (italicised) is the language. Parsed morphemes are presented. The second line of text presents a gloss for each presented morpheme. The free English gloss generally presents translations provided in notes generally taken during elicitation sessions. The reference for each example is generally presented on the right of the free gloss. Examples taken from published works are referenced in the following way:

[Author reference, Example number, Publication year:Page number]
For example,

[Birk, ex.171, 1976:62]

Examples taken from Ian Green’s field notes are generally referenced in the following way:

[Speaker, Linguist, Date, Page number (where applicable)]
For example,

[JT, Green 26/11/90]

Finally, examples taken from my own field notes are referenced in the following way:

[Speaker, Session number.Page number (where applicable), Date]
For example,

[BL, S5.2, 28/7/06]
Introduction
This thesis describes the composite verb structure in the non-Pama-Nyungan Australian language MalakMalak. Its conception is a response to two independent issues. The first is the highly endangered status of MalakMalak, an issue that demands the urgent collection and analysis of primary source linguistic data. The second is ultimately motivated by the academic debate concerning a re-evaluation of the part-of-speech category 'verb'. Such an issue prompts the consideration of how speakers categorise the world in terms of linguistic categories such as event and state. Whilst much research has focused on object categorisation, it is only relatively recently that the focus has shifted to event classification in language acquisition and development.

A number of Top End languages employ a 'two-part' verb structure e.g. Jaminjung, Wagiman, Ngan'gityemerri and Marrithiyel. There are a number of different terms used to refer to the two verbal constituents (see §2.1). I will use the terms ‘auxiliary’ and ‘coverb’ to refer to the inflecting and uninflecting verbal elements respectively. The first example (1) shows the independent, semantically functional use of an auxiliary. This type of verbal structure will be referred to as simple verb construction (SVC). Its counterpart, complex verb construction (CVC) is exemplified by example (2). CVCs consist of coverb - auxiliary combinations. The first constituent lak ‘eat (meat)’ is the uninflecting coverb and the second verbal constituent is the inflecting auxiliary that has the semantic function ‘in a sitting position’.

(1) e-noe
1EM-SIT.pres
I am in a sitting position. [BL, S13, 10/8/06]

(2) lak –ma eni-nginy
eat (meat) –impf 1EM-SIT.impf
I am sitting down (stative) eating. [BL, S2.3, 23/4/06]
Regardless of the terms used, verbal classification and the semantic and syntactic functions of each verbal constituent also vary cross-linguistically. The two aims for this research include:

- the identification of the various functions of the six MalakMalak auxiliaries, some of which occur in simple as well as complex predicates
- an exploration of argument structure of the composite verb, and how it is composed in MalakMalak.

This is not the first descriptive account of the MalakMalak language. Previous work has included a sketch grammar by Tryon (1974) and David Birk’s (1976) descriptive grammar of MalakMalak ‘The MalakMalak Language, Daly River (Western Arnhem Land)’ hereafter referred to as ‘Birk’. This thesis supplements previous work from my own fieldwork (2006) and Ian Green’s unglossed fieldwork notes (1989-1992), hereafter referred to as ‘Green’. Whilst Birk presents a large amount of data, discussion of the specific functions of each auxiliary is minimal. Whilst my thesis is also descriptive, I will discuss auxiliary functions in greater detail and in terms of argument structure, an issue that is discussed minimally by Birk. I also provide a possible motivation for particular coverb – auxiliary combinations based on situation types (Aktionsart) and viewpoint aspect. However, a detailed discussion of this proposal is beyond the scope of this thesis and requires highly specific research into the encoding of aspect in MalakMalak.

The data collection this year (2006) is part of a cross-linguistic study focusing on coverbs in some African and Australian languages. Amongst other languages, the principal investigators, Mengistu Amberber, Brett Baker and Mark Harvey, are investigating the Australian languages Wagiman, Jaminjung, Marra and MalakMalak as well as the Afro-asiatic languages Amharic, Oromo and Tigrinya in terms of composite verb functions. The ultimate question of the study is whether the part-of-speech category ‘verb’ should be re-assessed to account for the category 'coverb'. Among the questions branching from this is how coverb and auxiliary categorisation affects a speaker’s event classification. My role in the project was to work with MalakMalak speakers to collect modern MalakMalak examples from the field in 2006.
The previously mentioned collated data (Birk, Green and my own) includes original work collected on two separate field trips in 2006. Before these field trips, Ian Green generously provided me with 20 recordings and accompanying field-notes. These resources have made an invaluable contribution to my work on MalakMalak. The majority of the notes are un glossed but well formatted and consequently, easily accessible. They provided me with a high quality template for note taking in the field and the absence of glosses quickly pushed me to establish my own sense of the language. Furthermore the tapes, the majority of which I was able to digitise, provided me with an insight into the linguistic and meta-linguistic formalities and informalities associated with conducting useful elicitation sessions.

An ethics application through the University of Melbourne was granted before the field trips, the first of which was ten days to the Nauiyu Nambiuyu community in April. The second field trip was again to Nauiyu and lasted for four weeks in July-August. Biddy, hereafter referred to as BL, was my only language teacher for both field trips.

My field-notes are based on data collection from 7 sessions in April, and another 18 sessions in July-August. Each session ran for approximately 1 to 1½ hours and was recorded on a digital Marantz recorder at 44.1 kHz in .wav format using an external microphone. Most sessions followed formal elicitation patterns focusing on auxiliary paradigms, auxiliary semantics and general aspect and Aktionsart. Although BL recorded some narratives including 'Yam collecting', she did not consider herself to be the storyteller of the family and would have preferred to have her sisters present for many of the sessions. The sisters did not wish to have their voices recorded for personal reasons, so BL is the only speaker consulted for this thesis. We worked either at BL’s house or my cabin at the leadership centre in Nauiyu.

Some sessions were transcribed whilst in Nauiyu however many were transcribed upon my return to Melbourne. In addition to his field-notes, Ian Green had provided me with an electronic word-list and auxiliary paradigms that, as I will show, differ in places from Birk.
The various foci of the ensuing description of MalakMalak will be driven and defined by the following research questions:

- What is the semantic and syntactic function of each auxiliary?
- How does the language distinguish between intransitive and transitive constructions given it does not have separate pronominal paradigms for each?
- What is determines argument structure in SV and CV constructions i.e. can coverbs and/or auxiliaries be classified as monovalent, bivalent, trivalent in different environments?
- How, if at all, does MalakMalak distinguish between aspect and Aktionsart?

Chapter 1 identifies some preliminary information about the place, the language and the speakers, as well as a brief typological overview that is based on Birk’s grammar.

Chapter 2 introduces a variety of approaches to ‘two-part’ verb structures. The various analyses of different languages can in fact relate to one of two hypotheses. The first is that the uninflecting constituent is the only predicate of a verb phrase, whereas the second suggests that the ‘two-part’ verb (complex verb construction) is a combination of two verbal predicates resulting in a complex predicate.

The aim of Chapter 3 is two-fold. The first section describes Birk’s account of the MalakMalak auxiliary system with the purpose of distinguishing his analysis from my own developments. With the aid of examples taken from the entire corpus of data, i.e. Birk’s, Green’s, and my own fieldwork, the second section builds on Birk’s relatively brief descriptions of the functions of the three posture auxiliaries SIT, LIE and STAND with a particular focus on argument structure, aspect and Aktionsart.

Chapter 4 continues these detailed examinations by considering the functions of the two motion auxiliaries GO and GO* as well as the DO auxiliary. The DO auxiliary is of particular interest in relation to argument structure as Birk describes it as a ‘transitivity index’.
Chapter 5 provides functional schemas for each auxiliary as well as introducing coverb compounding and serialisation as areas of interest for future research and considers other concepts that require further investigation.

Various proposals are made throughout this thesis that is a descriptive account of MalakMalak. These proposals await a formal syntactic analysis that would help to clarify certain observations.

Chapter 1

1. THE LANGUAGE AND ITS SPEAKERS

1.1. The Language Situation

The MalakMalak language is traditionally spoken by the MalakMalak people (sometimes known as the Telikan people) of the Daly River region in the Northern
Territory, southwest of Darwin. It is an agglutinating non-Pama Nyungan language and is a member of the 'Northern Daly' language family (Green and Marrfurra in Lindsay et al. 2001; Evans 2003). This family includes languages based around the lower reaches of the Daly River. MalakMalak land includes the Nauiyu community, Wooliana, Din'girriyet (Browns Creek), the main Daly River Crossing and further, to about Hayward Creek. The northwest stretches to Mount Litchfield and Mount Searcy south of the Daly. In addition, there is an arm of MalakMalak country that borders Matngala country and extends to include the Dilke Range (Lindsay, et al. 2001). The term MalakMalak is used to refer to the people, the language, the land, songs, stories and knowledge associated with the area just described. There are two theories regarding the origin and meaning of the term MalakMalak. The more probable is that it relates to the word nguluk meaning 'language'. This theory is bolstered by the fact that reduplication is a common linguistic process in the language. The less likely theory is that it relates to the English word mullock - a reference to the mullock heaps by which the MalakMalak people lived during white-settlement of the area (Berndt in Birk, 1976).

1.1.1. Speakers

In 1976, Birk reported that there were twenty speakers of MalakMalak. He identified nine speakers as having MalakMalak as their "mother-tongue" (Birk 1976). In August 2006 there were nine living fluent speakers of MalakMalak. Six of these nine fluent speakers make up the surviving offspring of the one family whose father was MalakMalak and mother was Matngala. This family lives on traditional lands at Wooliana and Nauiyu however whilst two of the siblings adopted children and grandchildren into their families, none had their own offspring. Therefore, the current nine aforementioned speakers are all from the oldest generation. To my knowledge, some (if not all) members of the younger generation can understand and speak varying degrees of MalakMalak. Some members of the youngest generation apparently understand some MalakMalak but generally use Kriol and English. It is apparent, therefore, that the MalakMalak language is highly endangered. However, there are positive and practical efforts being made by some of the speakers to ensure the knowledge and some language is transferred to younger generations of relations of the MalakMalak people. Examples of these applications are included in section §1.3.
1.1.2. Language Names

The Ethnologue website (Gordon 2005) lists the language as *Mullukmulluk* (taken from (Tryon 1974). It provides the following alternate names/spellings: *Malak-Malak, Malagmalag, Ngolak-Wonga* and *Nguluwonga*.

The listed spelling is anglicised and the last two names refer to the name that speakers use to mean 'clean/clear language'. A more accurate representation of the second appellation however would be *Nguluk wangkarr* (personal fieldnotes, 2006, and Green's fieldnotes, 25/11/90). *Nguluk* means 'language' or 'word' and *wangkarr* can be translated as 'plains'. The final */rr/* should be realised in an orthography because -wongga or -wonga could be misinterpreted as meaning 'crow'. I would propose that the original meaning of *wanggarr* would be 'language of the plains' since similar language descriptions in neighbouring languages are evident e.g. Marrithiyel can be divided to include the three 'paperbark-tree', 'coolibah-tree' and 'plains' languages.¹

I will use the *MalakMalak* spelling to refer to the language throughout this thesis. This decision is motivated by the fact that it is the preferred spelling of the community and it also replicates the spelling used in the ethno-botany and -biology book produced in 2001 (see §1.5).

1.1.3. Dialects and Surrounding Languages

The following chart is a reproduction of the relevant section of the language genealogy in Birk (1976:3). This is based on Tryon's (1974:xiii) survey of the Daly languages. He groups these dialects, languages, sub-groups and groups as the Daly Family. According to Reid (2003), groups were based on lexico-statistical methods. The spelling in this reproduction is based on Birk's (1976) adaptations to Tryon's (1974) chart.
Contemporary linguists (e.g. Harvey 2003) prefer to place MalakMalak in a language family called the 'Northern Daly' that also includes Guwema and Dek Tyerraty (Djerait in Tryon, 1974). Guwema is no longer spoken but according to anecdotal evidence, Guwema was like MalakMalak but 'a bit different' and Dek Tyerraty was the 'same' as Guwema (Green 25/11/90). One could therefore cautiously infer that Dek Tyerraty was a dialect of Guwema.

The following original chart is based on Harvey's (2003) description of the Eastern and Northern Daly language families and a collaboration of anecdotal evidence from my own fieldwork as well as Ian Green's field work.
The map provided [following page] however is taken from Tryon (1974). It presents the languages he has presented as the Daly Family. Mark Harvey is currently constructing an updated language map (Mark Harvey, pers. comm.). The map shows neighbouring and surrounding languages of MalakMalak. Various inter-group marriages between Matngala and MalakMalak people over at least the past three generations (Stanner 1979) and movement towards the Nauiyu community have contributed to the merging of the two speech communities (Lindsay, et al., 2001). However it should be noted that the two languages are distinct from each other and come from different language families (Matngala is an 'Eastern Daly' language).

Currently MalakMalak, Ngan'gikurunggurr, Ngan'giwumirri, Matngala, a form of Kriol, and English, are spoken in Nauiyu.
1.2. History

The history of the land, the Daly River and its people is, of course, too rich and extensive to adequately discuss in the limited confines of an honours thesis. That said, it is important to have some contextual understanding of the MalakMalak land and people. To this extent, I have provided a brief modern history of the area.

The MalakMalak land and people experience seven seasons in the annual cycle. Each season is multi-layered as the days and weeks within the season bring different patterns (Lindsay, et al. 2001). The plains and river-system means the area is subject to seasonal floods and consequently there is a rich and diverse abundance of flora and fauna. This diversity is also reflected in the languages of the area. The number of different languages in the one area is unlike any other area in Australia (Nicholas Evans ALI conference session 2006). This fact contributes to the theory that this western part of the Top End is the nucleus of language diffusion in Australia (Nicholas Evans ALI conference session 2006).
Abel Tasman traversed the coastline that includes the mouth of the Daly River in 1664 however white explorers did not scout the land of the headwaters until John McDouall Stuart in 1862. Col. B.T. Finnis and Fred Litchfield in 1865 and McKinley in 1866 who explored other parts of the Daly River area followed Stuart's lead. The fertile land around Wooliana was cleared in 1881 to establish the first sugar plantation in the area, and the following year the Daly River cattle station was founded. Copper was discovered in the same year near Mount Hayward attracting European and Chinese miners and settlers to the area in 1883. In 1884 four white miners were killed and a series of revenge killings of Aboriginal people followed. Today, some graves stand as a physical reminder of this period of Daly River history.

On the opposite side of the river the family graveyard of the long-term owners of the Mango Farm marks the first land settled by the Jesuit missionaries who chose the Daly River as one of their few missions in Australia in 1886. Sections of the first building remain on the site. According to the meticulous logs kept by the Fathers, the MalakMalak helped the Jesuits when the foreign seasons brought humidity, insects and floods. The site of the mission changed three times in the thirteen years that the Jesuits learnt from and taught the MalakMalak and other Aboriginal people. They were the first to introduce organised Christianity to the MalakMalak people. Another contemporary reminder of the Jesuits is the St Francis Xavier primary school at Nauiyu Nambiyu.

Peanut and tobacco farming started in the early 1900s and eventually the Catholic Church established a mission in the 1950s. The last of the nuns only left in 2005. The Convent and mission site now provide accommodation for visitors to the Nauiyu Nambiyu community.

The Daly River Community Development Association was established in the 1970s and in that time the current structure of the community began to emerge. In 1981, three years after Northern Territory self-government, the first MalakMalak land claim was lodged.
1.3. Previous work

Amidst the Jesuit archives in Melbourne one can find the unnamed and undated grammar by Rev. Adolph Kristen S.J.. There is no doubt that the language is MalakMalak. Linguists can be found throughout missionary histories and whilst Kristen obviously had some theoretical linguistic knowledge and a sufficient understanding of the language, his analyses become theologically driven including an attempt to relate MalakMalak to Hebrew. No doubt this connection stemmed from the Hebrew word *malakmalak* meaning 'angel'. Kristen delivered a paper at the First Australian Catholic Congress, Sydney, in September 1900 (Birk 1976). He included a short text that appears to be MalakMalak (the language is referred to as an 'aboriginal language').

Another undated notebook that may have belonged to Rev. Donald MacKillop, S.J. lists some verbal paradigms. Birk (1976) refers to some authors who have included MalakMalak examples in their works (Schmidt 1902:104 in Birk 1976) and others who have compiled brief wordlists (Ray 1909; Capell and Elkin 1937 in Birk 1976). Among his extensive linguistic work in the Top End Capell focuses on the pronominal system in MalakMalak and later (1940) discusses a word list of nineteen items, focusing on noun classes. A longer word-list of 98 items appears in Tryon's 1968 survey of the Daly Family. This work was expanded in three other works over the next six years culminating in a brief sketch of MalakMalak (1970) that was expanded in his anthology of Daly Family languages.

The principal reference for this honours thesis is Birk's published PhD thesis that is based on original data collected on his fieldwork trips between 1971 and 1973. In the introduction to this 179 page grammar Birk forecasts a descriptive, as opposed to formal, approach. He does not provide a theoretically driven analysis, leaving that for subsequent research. He acknowledges Solomon as his original language consultant but does not specify the other people with whom he worked. Three texts appear at the end of the grammar and it appears as though most of the examples used in the grammar are extracted from these texts rather than formal elicitation sessions.
The grammar is divided into four chapters: *The Phonology of MalakMalak; Word Classes in MalakMalak; Morphology;* and *Syntax*. Birk develops Tryon’s (1974) auxiliary paradigms.

The next linguist to work on MalakMalak was Ian Green who has an enduring interest in the Daly languages. His PhD thesis focused on Marrithiyel a Daly family language typologically similar to MalakMalak (Green 1989). Green worked with at least four MalakMalak speakers from 1989-1992 when he was staying in Nauiyu Nambiyu and Wooliana completing other PhD fieldwork. He has four fieldwork notebooks with accompanying audio-cassette recordings, all of which he generously made available for this project. Green's fieldwork enabled an adaptation of auxiliary paradigms provided by Birk. Spelling, orthography and some morpho-syntactical differences can be seen when comparing the original (Birk) and re-developed paradigms (Appendix A (Birk) and Appendix B (Green) allow such comparisons).

The last published work featuring MalakMalak was the valuable ethno-botany and -biology book *MalakMalak and Matngala Plants and Animals* (Lindsay, et al. 2001). Produced with the help of the Merrpen Arts Aboriginal Corporation, the Nauiyu Community Government Council and the Northern Territory Parks and Wildlife Commission the book was prepared by the older MalakMalak and Matngala people living at Wooliana and Nauiyu with the biological assistance of Glenn Wightman and linguistic assistance of Patricia Marrfurra and Ian Green. The book includes the traditional MalakMalak and Matngala names for plants, animals, implements and seasons of the area. The introduction includes a section on MalakMalak and Matngala spelling and pronunciation. For the purposes of the book, the one spelling system was adapted for both languages and therefore some spelling will differ from what is used in this thesis.

1.4. Typological overview

1.4.1. Phonemes and their realisations

The phonemes for MalakMalak are given in Table 1.1 below. The IPA symbol for each phoneme is followed by the orthographic symbol in parentheses if the two vary.
Table 1.1  Consonant phoneme inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of Articulation</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Retroflex</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>ŋ (dy)</td>
<td>g (k)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>ŋ (ny)</td>
<td>ŋ (ng)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tap</td>
<td>r (rr)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td>ſ (ly)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>ŋ (r)</td>
<td>j (y)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MalakMalak has a five-way vowel contrast.

Table 1.2  Vowel phoneme inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High (close)</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ø (œ)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ε (e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low (open)</td>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the stops can be devoiced. Furthermore, the devoiced bilabial stop can be realised as an approximated devoiced labiodental fricative /f/. This does not tend to happen word initially because the bilabial stop in word initial position is usually voiced; however it seems to occur intervocalically e.g. *apap* 'sick'/tired' can be realised as /afap/. Aside from this feature some vowels are often rounded and there seems to be a large range of vocalic realisations that can challenge the complexities of transcription.
Vowels are not usually lengthened however when they do occur I propose that this is usually sentence-finally and possibly context and speaker dependent rather than an underlying feature of the phonetics of the language.

For a more comprehensive account of MalakMalak phonology, refer to Birk (1976).

1.4.2. Morphosyntax

Birk identifies the following word classes for MalakMalak:

- Noun
- Pronoun
- Demonstrative
- Interrogative
- Adverb
- Quantifier
- Adjective
- Auxiliary
- Coverb
- Particle
- Interjection

It is not necessary to discuss all of these word classes within this thesis. The relevant sections of Birk can be referred to for descriptions of functions. I will however briefly provide information on gender, case marking and the verb phrase. The ‘auxiliary’ and ‘coverb’ word classes are the topic of the remaining chapters.

There are four genders used to classify nominals: wood; non-meat food; meat food; and two unmarked classes for residual nouns (e.g. body parts) and animates. There are three free form classifiers for the first three genders. They are:

*tyung* used to classify trees, it also has the nominal meaning 'fire' and is used as a generic free noun for some trees

*e.g. tyung marrir*  'paper-bark tree'
\textit{de} used to classify food animals that are hunted for food and also has the generic nominal form meaning 'meat'

\textit{de wu} \quad 'barramundi'

\textit{mi} used to classify plants and vegetable food and also has the generic nominal form meaning 'vegetable food' i.e. tucker

\textit{mi yilik} \quad 'lily-root'

Ø animates

Ø residual

According to Birk there is a set of four adjective pairs (except for ‘short’) that mark for gender. The following shows the 3\textsuperscript{rd} person masculine Minimal (3mM) form for each of these adjectives:

\begin{align*}
yunpayin & - & yinat & 'good' & - & 'bad' \\
yinali & - & yikpi & 'big' & - & 'little' \\
yinanki & - & yoenoeroen & 'young' & - & 'old' \\
yintjerrik & - & 'short'
\end{align*}

The initial consonant changes according to the gender of the noun to which it refers. Feminine forms of the above adjectives are marked by /n/, vegetable forms are marked by /m/ and wood forms are marked by /w/. Adjectives used to describe meat and residual nouns use feminine or masculine marking by default.

The core functions of MalakMalak are not marked for case however bound pronouns enable the distinction between nominative and accusative NPs. According to Birk MalakMalak has benefactive, proprietive, instrumental, comitative dubitative, relative, and locative cases (1976:26).

Briefly, MalakMalak features bound and free subject pronouns as well as bound object pronouns. Bound subject pronouns differentiate person, singular/dual/plural,
inclusive/exclusive and third person singular masculine/feminine/wood, lifeless objects/non-meat food and some body parts (Tryon 1974). Pronouns will be discussed further in §1.5.2.

Detailed descriptions of the verbal elements can be found in the following chapters.

1.5. MalakMalak

1.5.1. Word Order
Word order in Malak Malak is generally free with the exception of the verbal phrase. The two main verbal constituents are the aforementioned coverb and auxiliary, in that fixed order. Other Daly languages such as Ngan'gityemerri and Marrithiyel also feature fixed verbal constituent order (McGregor 2002), indeed, fixed order (or restricted variation) is typical of Australian languages with coverb constructions. When present, the MalakMalak coverb precedes the auxiliary (3), unless it is acting as a complement (4) when it directly follows the auxiliary.

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{COVERB} & \text{AUX} \\
(3) & yingyi & ngirrk & yiminj \\
& \text{salt-water} & \text{crocodile die} & \text{1EM-DO.punct} \\
\end{array}
\]

The crocodile died yesterday.  

[BL, S14, 11/8/06]

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
(4) & alawar & tyewoer-yen nunta & \text{[tyurrp -ma -wa]} \\
& \text{woman ear-comit} & 3fM-GO.pres/past [\text{cut -impf ?}] \\
=\text{hear} \\
\end{array}
\]

The woman knows/knew how to cut (wood for a canoe).  

[Birk, ex.452, 1976:128]

Aside from the durative marker -ma which suffixes to the coverb, no other morpheme or lexical item can separate the two however the two constituents are phonologically and morphologically separate words.
Similar to Marrithiyel (Green 1989) and Ngan'gityemerri (Reid 1990), the MalakMalak auxiliaries are synthetically tetramorphemic and carry the core arguments of the verb phrase. The four morphemes are essentially synthetic and from initial to final, they are: person marker, number marker, the ‘auxiliary root’ marker (including tense) and optional bound object pronominal. As (6a and b) and (7a and b) show, Birk's segmentation of an intransitive auxiliary identifies the two morphemes as 'person-marker' and 'tense-marker'.

(6a)  e  -noe  
  1EM -SIT.pres  
  I am sitting.

(6b)  noeny  -dyoe  
  2M/3fM -STAND.pres  
  You are/She is standing.

A trimorphemic analysis of these morphemes would give:

(7a)  e  -Ø -noe  
  1E -M -SIT.pres  

and

(7b)  n  -oeny -dyoe  
  2/3f -M -STAND.pres

Throughout this thesis the minimal form of the auxiliary will be represented as one word as opposed to two or three hyphenated morphemes whereas suffixation of object pronouns will be represented by hyphens. Auxiliaries will however be glossed according to the method shown in (6a and b) One reason for this disparity is that I have not completed my own phonological and morphological analysis of all the auxiliaries and therefore am not certain as to whether some auxiliaries are formed by
synthetic as opposed to agglutinative processes, as is evident in Marrithiyel (Green 1989) and Ngan'gityemerri (Reid 1990). We do however know that the MalakMalak auxiliary indicates the person and person number categories for the core argument 'subject' as well as the auxiliary root and TAM inflection. The final two potential morphemes are in fact unsegmentable, thus the point '.' signifies the portmanteau of these two auxiliary elements.

1.5.2. Pronouns

1.5.2.1. Subject pronouns

MalakMalak employs both free and bound forms of subject pronouns. The free form is syntactically optional, whereas the latter are obligatory and always appear as the first morpheme of the auxiliary.

The bound subject pronouns inflect for person, number and gender in 3 person singular (Birk)/Minimal (Green).

As Appendix A shows, Birk indicates that bound subject pronouns distinguish between:

1 person singular, dual, inclusive and exclusive;
2 person singular and plural;
3 person singular masculine, feminine, vegetative and silvan/elemental and plural (gender neutral).

Green alternatively employs a Minimal/Augmented system of delineation. In this approach, the bound subject pronoun delineations include:

1 person Minimal inclusive and Minimal exclusive
2 person Minimal
3 person Minimal feminine; masculine; m-initial and w-initial2

---

2 These bound pronouns cannot be classed as referencing one and another gender type, therefore, Green has used the initial phoneme for the word forms in each auxiliary paradigm to gloss this inflection.
1. Augmented inclusive and Augmented exclusive
2. Augmented
3. Augmented

I will use the Minimal/Augmented delineation for all pronominals throughout this thesis.

Free subject pronouns appear and function syntactically as other nominals in MalakMalak. However unlike adjectival gender marking for nominals, free subject pronouns only mark for masculine and feminine genders in the third person singular. It is therefore assumed that inanimate subjects have zero pronominal marking, or alternatively, either the masculine or feminine pronouns might be able to be used. The following is Green's division of the free subject pronouns based on his own fieldwork.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimal</th>
<th>Augmented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1inc</td>
<td>yenggi₁</td>
<td>yerrgit₂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1ex</td>
<td>nga</td>
<td>yewoet₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2inc</td>
<td>wangarri</td>
<td>nugut₄</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>noendoen</td>
<td>woerroendoen₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m</td>
<td>yoendoen</td>
<td>woerroendoen₅</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 Free subject pronouns in MalakMalak

1. also as /yenggi werrena/ (werrena 'two')
2. also : /yenggi-war/ (Wurra) TBV
3. tbv yewaat vs. yewut
4. tbv - final t vs. final d
5. tbv

When present, the free subject pronoun agrees with the bound subject pronoun person marker.
As seen in the above example, the free subject pronoun can introduce the subject. They can also be used to emphasise a subject’s role in an event or disambiguate the bound subject pronoun as some 2M and 3fM word forms are homophonous. Free subject pronouns will often occur sentence initially thus, forecasting the subject for the clause which is useful for hearers in relatively long utterances which may involve multiple coverbal serialisation (see Chapter 5).

Free pronouns also have a possessive function. Birk indicates (1976:30) that preposing the subject pronoun to the possessed noun signifies inalienable possession and that post-posing the subject to the possessed noun indicates alienable possession. My own field-work however showed that this distinction is not always evident. For example I found that body part NPs can be followed by the pronominal possessor.

Due to the nominal and optional nature of free subject pronouns, we can infer that they are not integral to MalakMalak verbal morphology. In contrast, bound subject pronouns are vital and obligatory to a complete verb phrase.

### 1.5.2.2. Object pronouns

The object (O) of transitive verbs in MalakMalak is marked by object pronouns that are bound to the TAM marker of the auxiliary. As with the free subject pronouns, Green has divided the object pronouns into Minimal and Augmented sets (Table 2.2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimal</th>
<th>Augmented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1inc</td>
<td>-nunggu</td>
<td>-arrpurru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1ex</td>
<td>-arriny</td>
<td>-yoerroe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2inc</td>
<td>-noenoe</td>
<td>-nungguru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3f</td>
<td>-ngayi</td>
<td>-woerroe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3m</td>
<td>-noe</td>
<td>-woerroe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimal</th>
<th>Augmented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2 Bound object pronouns in MalakMalak
I talk to them all the time, that big group sitting over there. [BL, S12, 9/8/06]

(10) shows that an unmarked NP can specify the nature of the object.

(10) **taty yiminy**  

hit 3M-DO.punct -3mMO **dog** thing again hit 3mM-DO.punct -3mMO  

He hit the dog once… he hit him again [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

As there is no case marking, or fixed word order, the juxtaposition of free subject and object noun phrases could potentially confuse argument structure if the bound pronominal form was not present to specify objects. As (11) shows, the object pronoun can function to disambiguate the roles of the external NPs.

(11) **yinya alawar lam -ma nunta**  

man woman talk -impf 3fM-GO.past -3mMO  

The woman is/was talking to the man [Birk, ex.446, 1976:127]

Finally, MalakMalak does not feature a separate, formally marked Indirect Object. As seen in the following examples, the same set of object markers listed in Table 2.2 is used for dative and benefactive constructions.

(12) **mi ang aya**  

food (non-meat) give 1EM-DO.punct -3mM  

I gave the tucker to him [BL, S4.3, 27/7/06]

(13) **tey -m’ ada -nunu -wa**  

wait -impf 1EM-GO.past -2MO ?  

I was waiting for you [BL, S5.1, 28/7/06]

---

3The apostrophe indicates vowel ellipsis of /a/.
Examples such as (12) and (13) will be discussed further in Chapters 4 and 5.

Chapter 2

2. VERB-COVERB CONSTRUCTIONS

This chapter discusses some of the current theoretical issues involving complex predicate constructions in languages that feature coverbs. Some contrasting formal approaches to argument structure in such languages are briefly discussed. The final two sections of the chapter examine the MalakMalak verb phrase and pronouns before highlighting the research questions to be explored in this thesis.

2.1. Nomenclature

A number of authors have considered languages with verb-coverb type complex verb constructions (CVC). The variety of approaches to verb classification and analysis has resulted in several reference terms for the two constituents in a CVC. This thesis uses the terms ‘auxiliary’ and ‘coverb’ to refer to the inflecting and uninflecting verbal constituents respectively. Example (14) presents the use of the SIT auxiliary in an SV construction.

(14) enoe
    1EM-SIT.pres
    I am in a sitting position. [BL, S13, 10/8/06]

This example clearly shows that as the sole verbal element, the auxiliary provides semantic and grammatical information, behaving as an independent, simple predicate (SV). It is thus considered verb-like as opposed to behaving as a prototypical auxiliary that is semantically empty but carries grammatical information. In this thesis, I will distinguish ‘auxiliaries’, semantically loaded, inflecting verbal constituents, from ‘prototypical auxiliaries’, non-lexical grammatical structures.

Example (15) shows that the SIT auxiliary has a semantic function in CVCs in MalakMalak. Nonetheless, it seems that the semantic function of MalakMalak
auxiliaries can also be bleached in CVCs as seen in the use of the GO auxiliary in (16) that has the semantic function of ‘movement’ (111).

(15) lak –ma eninginy
eat (meat) –dur 1EM-SIT.impf
I am sitting down (stative) eating. [BL, S2.3, 23/4/06]

(16) kanyak –ma ada nana
cough –dur 1EA-GO.past adv
I was coughing all the time. [BL, S5.7, 28/7/06]

Non-literal functions of MalakMalak auxiliaries, as presented in (16), will be discussed in turn in Chapters 3 and 4.

In the literature, terms that have been used to describe the inflecting constituent include 'simple verb' (Dixon 2002), 'finite verb', 'light verb' (Butt 2003), 'grammatical verb', 'generic verb' (Schultze-Berndt 2000), 'classifier' or 'inflecting verb' (McGregor 2002) and 'auxiliary' (Birk 1976; Green 1989). The verbal phrase becomes complex (complex predicate) when another element of the verbal phrase (usually uninflecting) collocates with an inflectional verbal constituent. This uninflecting constituent has been referred to as 'coverb' (Wilson 1999; Schultze-Berndt 2000; Dixon 2002), 'preverb' (Nicolas 2000), 'prestem', 'verb root' (Birk 1976), 'inflecting verb' (McGregor 2002), 'non-finite verb', 'lexical verb', 'main verb' (stem), 'complex verb stem' (Tryon 1976), '(verbal) particles', 'participles' and even 'verbal nouns'. According to Tryon the Daly languages are particularly interesting due to their “almost universal use of a double verb within most verb phrases” (1976:689). The double verb that Tryon refers to is the combination of the ‘primary verb stem’ (‘coverb’ in this thesis) and a ‘secondary’ or ‘auxiliary verb’ (‘auxiliary’ in this thesis).
2.2. The uninflecting constituent

Cross-linguistically, coverbs are usually uninflecting. Derivational morphology is sometimes present yet this does not usually result in the attribution of nominal or adverbial functions to the coverb i.e. it is a ‘category-neutral’ derivation.

The MalakMalak coverb is a phonologically independent word that precedes the inflecting constituent. The only marking that appears on a coverb is the durative -\textit{ma} affix.

\begin{quote}
\textit{kaykay -ma wutta} \\
\textit{scream -impf 3Au-GO.past} \\
[coverb] [aux] \\
\end{quote}

\[They were screaming]\hspace{1cm} [BL, S4.8, 27/7/06]

Birk does not discuss the argument structure of MalakMalak verbal constructions at length. He provides a list of coverbs from his sample in which he identifies a handful as either transitive or intransitive forms. Whether this classification is based on the contribution that a coverb makes to a complex predicate, or its limitation of only occurring in transitive or intransitive constructions is unclear.

The coverb in MalakMalak contributes most of the lexical information in CVCs and can occur independently of CVCs in imperative constructions. Coverb functions in different CVCs are considered throughout the discussion of each auxiliary in Chapters 3 and 4.

2.3. The inflecting constituent

While many languages have auxiliary-coverb type constructions, the function and structure of each verbal constituent in the construction varies cross-linguistically. Each constituent's function can also vary within a language. For example, one auxiliary in one language might a) function independently b) function as a semantically weighted predicate of a complex predicate and c) function as a copula,
depending on its surrounding syntactic and/or semantic environment. Its meaning can be transparent, apparently minimal, irrelevant, or even idiosyncratic (Dixon 2002), depending on the collocated coverb in the utterance (if present at all). It is therefore not surprising that authors have used the term ‘auxiliary’ to refer to the inflecting verb in CV constructions (Birk 1976). Such analyses stipulate that the coverb is the predicate of the clause which is classified by the inflecting verb (McGregor 2002).

An alternative analysis which has been used to describe Jaminjung (Schultze-Berndt 2000) and Wagiman (Wilson 1999) proposes that in fact the inflecting verb does contribute to the overall predicate in combination with the coverb. In the second analysis, the various semantic contributions made by the inflecting verb distinguish it from being a modal element with bound pronominal enclitics – the conventional role of an auxiliary (Dixon 2002). Usually each auxiliary has a broad, generic meaning (Dixon 2002). The members of a small number of auxiliaries are each likely to have broader meanings than those languages featuring more extensive numbers of auxiliaries/inflecting verbs since they need to be able to collocate with a larger range of coverbs i.e. they need to be more productive. With only six auxiliaries, MalakMalak is one of these languages.

The ratio of SV to CV constructions also varies cross-linguistically. We might speculate that as the number of auxiliaries increases, the prevalence of SV constructions in a language increases. Therefore, those languages featuring only a handful of auxiliaries are dominated by CVCs. This is not surprising for the following two reasons: a) a coverb is dependent on an auxiliary for grammatical information at least, and b) the auxiliaries must be highly productive and semantically malleable and/or ‘bleachable’ to enable the collocation with many members of the non-finite class of coverbs.

McGregor (2002:150) provides a list of SVC/CVC Australian languages that differ according to degree of grammaticalisation. This is established according to status (word/phrase/word and phrase CVC), order (fixed/variable/both), other compound types, number of categories, number of inflecting verbs, frequency of use, and finally
category overlap. MalakMalak is one of three\(^4\) listed languages that employ just 6-12 auxiliaries (inflecting verbs in McGregor, 2002). Other non-Pama-Nyungan languages in the Daly region have larger numbers. Marrithiyel (Green 1989) and Ngan'gityemerri (Reid 2000) both feature over 20 auxiliaries (12 of which are ‘simple auxiliaries’ that can occur on their own) and there are approximately 35 in Murrinh-Patha (Walsh 1976, cited in (Reid 2003). In contrast, according to Harvey (2003), the two Eastern Daly languages Matngele and Kamu, feature six and 15 auxiliaries respectively. Each of the six MalakMalak auxiliaries has semantic auxiliary correlates in Kamu, Marrithiyel and Ngan’gityemerri and thus references to these three languages will often appear in this thesis.

A frequent phenomenon in languages with coverb-auxiliary complex predicate constructions is the speaker’s obligatory selection of an auxiliary from the language to create a finite clause. It may however for some languages, be the case that for some languages, there is no choice involved. Every coverb takes just one auxiliary (Brett Backer, pers. comm.). How a speaker chooses an auxiliary in both SV and CV constructions can provide insight into how speakers conceptually classify events (Schultze-Berndt 2000). The selection of coverbs with particular inflecting verbs can alter the meaning of an utterance.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{tyurrk} & \quad + \quad \text{DO} & \text{tyurrk} & \quad + \quad \text{GO} \\
\text{coverb} & \quad \text{auxiliary} & \text{coverb} & \quad \text{auxiliary} \\
\text{‘bury’} & \quad & \text{‘enter’} & \quad \text{(Birk 1976)}
\end{align*}
\]

McGregor (2002) refers to these restricted and permissible combinations as ‘collocational potentials’ of auxiliaries. By identifying auxiliaries as driving particular combinations, McGregor defines them as being ‘verbal classifiers’. There are however, few such restrictions in MalakMalak that are not accounted for on a semantic basis. For example, the CV combination ‘dance’ + SIT auxiliary is semantically implausible whereas ‘dance’ + GO auxiliary (that encodes ‘motion’) is intuitively, and actually, acceptable.

\(^4\) The other two languages listed as having 6-12 auxiliaries/inflecting verbs are Gooniyandi and Bunuba (Bunuban languages).
The class of auxiliaries from which MalakMalak speakers select includes the three postural auxiliaries 'sit', 'stand' and 'lie'; 2 motion auxiliaries 'go' and 'go*'; and the 'do' auxiliary. These auxiliaries feature in the historically depleted group of Matngele auxiliaries ('sit', 'stand', 'lie', 'go', 'do' and 'burn' (Harvey 2003)).

Most MalakMalak coverbs can combine with more than one inflecting verb. The specifics of the MalakMalak classification system depend a range of on contextual, semantic, syntactic and possibly aspectual functions. The previous examples of two semantically related, but different meanings of the coverb tyurrk show how the meaning of a complex predicate can vary according to the influence of the auxiliary. The first encodes a transitive event, whereas the second specifies a motion event.

A specific description and analysis of the various auxiliary functions in MalakMalak will follow in the discussions of each auxiliary in Chapters 3 and 4.

2.4. Argument structure

One criterion that seems to be consistently used to define a complex predicate is the notion that it is a multi-headed predicate that encodes a single event. Schultze-Berndt explains that Jaminjing speakers regard this single event as "...a coherent chunk of information." (2000:38). The word 'predicate' is used to refer to the two or more verbal elements in this single unit. Thus, the aforementioned CVCs are regarded as complex predicates.

Schultze-Berndt uses the term ‘Canonical complex verbs’ to refer to a particular type of complex predicate that she defines as a combination of a verb and an unmarked coverb which “constitute a close-knit unit both formally and semantically, even though their components are clearly distinct phonological words” (2000:119). Additionally there is a tendency for preferred word order of verbal elements (coverb

---

5 This auxiliary has a different paradigm and differs semantically from the other motion auxiliary, however this difference remains obscure, as it does not commonly feature in the corpus. Green (1989) also identified the two motion auxiliaries in Marrithiyel. The semantic difference between the two is that the 'go' auxiliary can encode general motion whereas 'go*' can encode directed/purposeful motion.
followed by auxiliary in MalakMalak). The two verbal elements can only be separated by aspectual enclitics on the coverb. This is also the case for the MalakMalak CVC. Furthermore, the constituents appear in one intonation unit. Wilson’s (1999) description of CVCs in Wagiman similarly employs this approach in his LFG-based analysis of Wagiman. However, this is just one type of analysis for coverb-auxiliary constructions.

The other common analysis of CVC complex predicates is Baker's (Baker 2003) suggestion that the coverb is in fact the predicate of the phrase and the auxiliary in fact behaves as a prototypical auxiliary. As mentioned, the term ‘prototypical auxiliary’ is used to refer to a constituent that may encode TAM and person number but has no semantic or predicational function. It is hypothesised that a formal analysis of MalakMalak verb constructions will fall somewhere in between these two analyses. This thesis however, does not include a formal analysis of MalakMalak verbal functions but rather describes the difference functions and proposes motivations for particular coverb-auxiliary combinations. Nonetheless, descriptions of verbal functions naturally consider how a language encodes argument structure.

Schultze-Berndt (2000) uses the Construction Grammar approach to analyse argument structure in Jaminjung. This approach allows 'argument fusion' or 'argument sharing'. Using this method of formal analysis, argument sharing "...can be represented by mapping two or more participants directly onto a single constructional argument role." (2000:29) in complex constructions. It also distinguishes syntactic transitivity (transitivity of the clause) from 'transitive' and 'intransitive' properties of auxiliaries (generic verbs in Schultze-Berndt 2000). The 'transitive'/intransitive' dichotomy is overtly evident since unlike MalakMalak, Jaminjung has two pronominal paradigms for its bound subjects. Furthermore, 'valency' is used to refer to the number of central participants of an auxiliary or coverb (i.e. monovalent, bivalent or trivalent).

This analysis of Jaminjung accounts for the phrase level structure when a speaker combines monovalent, bivalent or trivalent coverbs with either monovalent, bivalent or trivalent auxiliaries.
The animal came out to/for the two.  

[Schultze-Berndt, Fig. 4.11, 2000:181]

Example (19) shows argument sharing of a trivalent coverb with a bivalent verb:

(19) mulurru -ni gagawuli YURRG gan -karr -ny Gilwi -ni 
woman -ERG long.yam SHOW 3sg:1sg -put -PST <place.name> -LOC 
'the woman showed me yam in Gilwi'.  

[Schultze-Berndt, ex. 4.9, 2000:163]

This example is described as involving a trivalent coverb (capitalised text) and a bivalent auxiliary (bold text) and indicates a few things about the argument structure of Jaminjung. The first is that the auxiliary type consitutent ('verb') is verb-like because it inflects for tense and person number. Furthermore, this element contributes its own argument structure to the complex predicate (in the above example, PUT is bivalent with the underlying structure of 'x puts y'). Schultze-Berndt (2000) explains that an auxiliary’s valency is conditioned according to the lexical argument as well as the bound pronominal(s). The second thing is that the coverb also encodes an argument structure (in the above example, the underlying structure of 'show' is 'x shows y the z'). Thus, the coverb has introduced a third participant to the CVC. These two independent facts combine to show that coverbs and verbs with different independent argument structures can happily combine to form a complex predicate. The participant introduced by the coverb (the theme) is considered to be central. Therefore, if it is expressed lexically (i.e. by a noun phrase), it must be expressed as a core argument (Schultze-Berndt 2000). A process of argument sharing/fusion is analysed where the ergatively marked noun phrase is the 'shower' and the 'putter'. The recipient is marked by the bound pronominal and the entity that is 'shown' and 'put' is the absolutive NP gagawuli 'long yam'.

Reid (2000) explains that unsurprisingly, complex verb structure is not cross-linguistically homogenous. He notes that as in Jaminjung, in Ngan'gityemerri "...both
finite verbs\(^6\) and coverbs can be independently assigned transitivity/valency values\(^a\) (2000:1). The collocational potential of particular coverbs and finite verb combinations is likened to the valency shifts seen in other languages as a result of derivational strategies.

The prefix of the Ngan'gityemerri auxiliary ('finite verb' in Reid 2000) cross-references agent/subject (A/S) bound pronominal and its suffix cross-references its object (O). The set of 31 auxiliaries can be divided into 'intransitive, simple', 'transitive, simple', 'transitive, complex' and 'reflexive detransitive, complex'. The 'simple' and 'complex' distinction refers to whether the auxiliary can occur independently of a coverb. The transitivity value of a simple auxiliary is generally uncomplicated. If the auxiliary cross-references an object pronoun, the auxiliary is transitive. If it does not crossreference an O, it is intransitive. One complication is the Ø cross-referencing of 3sg object and the absence of pronominal classification of inanimates.

For complex verbs (coverb + auxiliary construction) each element has its own associated transitive/valency value. In Ngan'gityemerri, it is likely that the transitivity of the complex verb is consistent with the transitivity of the auxiliary. However there are of course restrictions and exceptions to this general rule. To account for such deviations, Reid suggests that there are degrees of coverb transitivity i.e 'low' versus 'high'\(^7\). Coverbs can therefore be classified as being monovalent, bivalent low transitive or bivalent high transitive. This continuum of transitivity is employed to account for the degree of object focus in the complex predicate. An example of a low transitive bivalent coverb is 'rub'. When appearing with the intransitive auxiliary 'sit' (20a), the focus is on the posture/activity of the subject whereas when occurring with the transitive auxiliary 'poke' (20b), the focus shifts to how the object is operated:

\(^6\) Reid uses 'finite verb' to refer to the inflecting verbal constituent
\(^7\) This analysis is also used by Ian Green in his analysis of Marrithiyel (1989) and is based on Hopper and Thompson (1980).
(20a) ngi -rim (-Ø) -pup (palayin)
    1sgS/A -sit (-3sgO) -rub (firesticks)

I'm rubbing firesticks  [Intransitive aux: focus on subject posture/activity]

[Reid, ex.23a, 2000]

(20b) nga -rim -Ø -pup (palayin)
    1sgA -poke -3sgO -rub (firesticks)

I'm rubbing firesticks  [Transitive aux: focus on how object is manipulated]

[Reid, ex.23b, 2000]

Compare the previous two accounts that allow for predicational powers of both the auxiliary and the coverb with Baker's account that there is no room for argument fusion/sharing since the coverb is the sole predicate and an auxiliary's only function is to be a vehicle for pronouns and TAM affixes.

2.5. Auxiliaries

Jaminjung and Ngan’gityemerri both feature groups of inflecting verbal constituents that either can or cannot cross-reference a second argument. That is, these two languages feature intransitive and transitive inflecting verb constituents that can occur in SV or CVCs. They additionally, like MalakMalak feature uninflecting verbal constituents such as coverbs. According to McGregor, however, MalakMalak is a highly grammaticised version of Ngan’gityemerri (2002). Similarly to Kamu (Harvey 2003), it appears that as Chapter 3 and 4 show, although some of the MalakMalak auxiliaries can both assume a semantic function on their own and contribute semantic information to a complex predicate, the composite verb construction in MalakMalak often relies on the coverb for predicational information and most of the ‘lexical’ verbal information. This is especially evident in either the non-literal (semantically bleached) functions of an auxiliary in which an auxiliary might behave more like a prototypical auxiliary, and the cooccurrence of some auxiliaries with coverbs that would potentially encode redundant information if the auxiliary were fully semantically and/or syntactically viable. For example, the LIE auxiliary is more likely
to occur with an aspectually supportive coverb than occur on its own, even though it can viably function on its own.

In his proposed continuum that presents the grammaticalisation path of auxiliaries, Anderson (2006) proposes that an auxiliary is able to have varied functions because auxiliaries are constantly evolving. They are dynamic by nature and it is subsequently my interpretation that in different functions, an auxiliary could fall onto different sections of a language-specific path similar to the generic one provided by Anderson.

\[
L[\text{lexical}] \ V[\text{verb}] \gg A[\text{auxiliary}] \ V \gg A[\text{ff}i]X \\
(\text{Anderson 2006:7})
\]

Anderson refers to this path as a “lexical verb-functional affix continuum” (2006:4). This fluidity of function is permissible in Anderson’s analysis since auxiliaries “…may constitute a closed class from a strict synchronic perspective but not when viewed diachronically in any sense” (2006:8).

I propose that the MalakMalak auxiliaries fall at different stages of the continuum depending on their contextual function. For example, the SIT auxiliary can a) occur by itself in SVCs, b) add grammatical and postural information to a CVC, and finally c) assume non-literal functions in CVCs.

As previously stipulated, the term 'auxiliary' is used in this thesis to refer to the semantically functional inflecting constituent. Whilst Birk also uses 'auxiliary' to describe this constituent, he never alludes to the possible predicational strength or argument structure that the auxiliary might encode.

Wambaya is a non-Pama-Nyungan language that uses auxiliaries more reminiscent of a prototypical auxiliary (Nordlinger 1998).

yarru \quad \text{ng-uba} \\
\text{go(FUT) 1SG.S-NP.AWY}
I will go. [Nordlinger, ex.5.5, 1998:138]

The Wambaya auxiliary is non-verbal on a synchronic level but it has been suggested that it is in fact verbal on a diachronic level. The auxiliary can carry subject, object, TAM and directional suffixes however it is not attributed with encoding any further semantics or argument structure. I will refer to auxiliaries such as these as ‘prototypical auxiliaries’.

In an historical account of ‘Proto-Mindi’, Green (1995) shows that coverbs and verbal auxiliaries were once a part of Wambaya verbal construction. This would support the recent historically-based explanation that auxiliary verb constructions such as presented above emerges from complex predicate constructions (Anderson 2006).

Given the range of possible verb phrase structures, Chapters 3 and 4 will investigate the grammaticalisation and function of the MalakMalak auxiliaries in SVCs with the intent of identifying the predicational strength of the MalakMalak auxiliary (or each auxiliary) in different constructions. This will naturally include a discussion of the predicational strength of the MalakMalak coverb and argument structure of particular complex predicates. As mentioned, Anderson (2006) proposes that auxiliation is a dynamic process. Based on this premise, I propose that auxiliaries that encode different functions in different environments could possibly lie on different parts of the aforementioned auxiliation continuum. For example, in an SVC, an auxiliary could have its own semantic function whereas in particular CVCs, this semantic function could be belached, resulting in an auxiliary function more similar to that of a prototypical auxiliary.

Auxiliation will be explored throughout the following chapters, commencing with the semantically functional postural auxiliaries. First however, I will review Birk’s system of auxiliary classification.
Chapter 3

3. STANCE AUXILIARY FUNCTIONS: SITTING, LYING AND STANDING

The aim of this chapter is to establish the functions of the three postural auxiliaries in MalakMalak. Birk’s discussion of auxiliary function will be reassessed in light of more recent fieldwork. After reviewing Birk’s system of auxiliary classification, the
The semantic and syntactic functions of the SIT, LIE and STAND auxiliaries will be considered in detail. The argument structure and semantic contributions made by the auxiliaries will be investigated.

By establishing whether the MalakMalak auxiliaries contribute to the argument structure of SV and CV constructions, we can infer whether or not the coverb contributes to argument structure in CVCs. For example, an auxiliary that can occur independently of a coverb in SVCs but cannot cross-reference a Direct Object is considered to be intransitive. Thus, when the same auxiliary occurs in a CVC that does feature a Direct Object it is inferred that the second argument is contributed by the coverb and the two verbal constituents share the first argument. Establishing the aspectual functions of both auxiliaries and coverbs will help to determine the motivation for particular auxiliary-coverb combinations.

3.1. **Birk’s Conjugation system**

Birk identifies two types of verbal constituents in MalakMalak: the ‘verb root’ (coverb) and the ‘auxiliary’ and refers to each auxiliary paradigm as one of six ‘Conjugations’. Each of the Conjugations 2-6 has a different semantic function whereas Birk refers to Conjugation 1 as a ‘transitivity index’ and observes that it does not entail a semantic meaning. As we shall see however, Birk’s classification system is flawed.

The term ‘Conjugation’ is somewhat misleading or possibly ambiguous. McGregor (2002) notes that Birk's analysis is not wrong but deficient since the MalakMalak verbal system "…consistently show[s] more features of a category than a class [conjugation] system” (McGregor, 2002:129). Thus, as previously mentioned I will employ Green’s re-analysis of the auxiliary paradigms that refers to Conjugations 1-6 as the DO, GO, GO*, SIT, LIE and STAND auxiliaries respectively. This re-analysis runs parallel to the systems proposed by Green (1989), Reid (1990) and Harvey (2003) in their respective analyses of the neighbouring languages Marrithiyel, Ngan’gityemerri and Kamu.
Birk’s classification of auxiliaries into Conjugation types on a semantic basis is not to be confused with the term 'Conjugation class' as it is used in reference to true class systems that are evident in the verbal systems of many Australian languages. Such use generally suggests that coverbs would be associated with just one particular Conjugation type. We will see that coverbs can in fact select for more than one auxiliary. However this does not disqualify Birk’s additional observation that the semantically weighted auxiliaries can be divided into two ‘(true) conjugation types’. This distinction is made on the basis of a morphophonemic feature. Group membership into the ‘rr’- or ‘t’-type groups depends on the phonological shape of the 1EAu, 2Au and 3Au bound person-markers in the present, past and imperfective paradigms. Table 3.1 shows inflections of examples of the imperfective paradigms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Inflection</th>
<th>1EAu</th>
<th>2Au</th>
<th>3Au</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'rr'-type (GO, GO# &amp; LIE)</td>
<td>arru/-arroe-</td>
<td>at-</td>
<td>nungkurru/-noengkoerroe-</td>
<td>nikit-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'t'-type (SIT &amp; STAND)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>woerroe-</td>
<td>wit-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The DO auxiliary (Conjugation 1) does not belong in either group since this paradigm does not inflect for the aforementioned tenses.

Birk also describes each Conjugation type as encoding one of two deictic functions. The 't' -type and 'rr' -type auxiliaries respectively encode the ‘in the vicinity of the speaker’ and ‘yonder’ deictic functions. This additional semantic function will be discussed for each auxiliary in the relevant sections.

Clearly, as the table shows, there are morphophonemic links, and examples show semantic differences between the auxiliary paradigms, however I reject this class analysis and reiterate my preference for the categorisations provided by Green.

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8 Birk's Conjugations 2, 3 and 5.
9 Birk's Conjugations 4 and 6.
10 According to Birk, the DO auxiliary inflects for 'Punctiliar', 'Sequential', 'Purposive', 'Future' and 'Subjunctive'.

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An area of interest when looking at languages with such categorisations is the question of how argument structure is determined. Primarily, does the auxiliary or the coverb independently establish the argument structure of the combination, or is it a result of a combination of the syntactic and semantic functions of the two verbal constituents? Birk essentially proposes that the coverb determines argument structure implying that auxiliaries do not have an argument structure independent of the combination with the coverb. Transitivity will be a principal focus of chapter 4 that discusses the DO auxiliary (referred to as the ‘transitivity index’ in Birk). Nonetheless, the transitivity of both SV and CV constructions will also be considered in the discussion of each auxiliary.

Before describing the various functions of each of the postural auxiliaries I will briefly reiterate and introduce some significant argument structure and aspectual features of MalakMalak already identified by Birk.

### 3.2. Some observations of transitivity in MalakMalak

Birk’s discussion of transitivity is minimal therefore the ensuing examination of the various functions of the auxiliaries aims to clarify how transitivity is determined in MalakMalak with the help of the recently collated data. As mentioned, the primary questions relevant to this investigation of argument structure include whether an auxiliary can encode its own inherent transitivity or if Birk’s conclusion that only coverbs are inherently transitive or intransitive is supported. Birk’s conclusion supports Baker’s aforementioned proposal that the coverb is the sole predicate in CVCs.

As previously mentioned in §1.5.2, unlike many other Australian languages MalakMalak does not have separate subject pronominal paradigms for intransitive and transitive constructions. MalakMalak has just one pronominal paradigm for free subject pronouns and another for bound object pronouns. External, unmarked noun

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11 ‘inherent transitivity’ is used to refer to the argument structure of an auxiliary or coverb in its most basic form i.e. without the semantic and syntactic influences of other verbal complements, compound coverbs, or serialised coverbs. For example, if an auxiliary can occur independently of a coverb, its most simple form would be [AUX]. The simplest form of a coverb would be [COVERB + default AUX].

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phrases also introduce subject and object arguments to a clause. Birk proposes that the transitivity of a CVC is encoded by the inherently transitive and intransitive coverbs. Transitivity is therefore “…a property of the Verb Complex” (1976:125), since according to Birk coverbs cannot occur on their own in non-imperative utterances.

Whilst Birk presents examples of these auxiliaries occurring independently, and mentions that “Conjugation 2-6 are able to stand as independent verbs” (1976:47), he does not investigate the argument structure of auxiliaries. Instead, he identifies the DO auxiliary as ‘transitivity index’ for MalakMalak coverbs that do encode argument structure. The rationale that is provided for attributing this indexical function is based on Birk’s observation that 96% of the transitive coverbs in his corpus are able to select for DO (however he recognises that transitive coverbs are combinatorially productive i.e. they are able to select other auxiliaries).

(21) mi ngak anma -wa
    food (veg) eat (non-meat) 1EM-DO.fut ?
    I will eat food. [Birk, ex.117, 1976:52]

(22) pendyi ang aya –noe bayang nga –we de -we
    yesterday give 1EM-DO.punct –3MO father 1EMposs –foc? meat ?
    I gave my father food (meat) yesterday. [BL, S5a.1, 28/7/06]

I will return to discussion of the DO auxiliary in Chapter 4. The remainder of this chapter focuses on the postural auxiliaries however the ensuing descriptions and observations of each of the six auxiliaries necessitates the theoretical exploration of aspect and Aktionsart that are of particular interest to the motivation for particular coverb-auxiliary combinations.

3.3. Aspect and Aktionsart

The following discussion is based on my proposal that in SV constructions, the auxiliary encodes Aktionsart. This situation aspect classification however, is
overridden by the Aktionsart encoded by coverbs in CV constructions enabling the auxiliary to potentially encode the range of aspectual functions applicable to its TAM inflections.

Although there are various general theories concerning the difference (if any) between aspect and Aktionsart, it is agreed that aspectuality generally concerns boundaries of events. That is, aspectuality helps to define possible beginning and end points for events, or conveys whether an event is persistent (ongoing) or unique (Sasse 2002). Some linguists choose to use a unidimensional model of aspect marking, while others prefer a bidimensional account, distinguishing between aspect and Aktionsart. Specifically, aspect in a perspective/viewpoint account is morphologically indicated by the perfective/imperfective dichotomy. Aktionsart provides the temporal dimension incorporating “…any type of intrinsic temporal characteristic of situations, such as dynamicity, stativity, durativity, punctuality, telicity, etc.” (Sasse 2002). Whilst I propose that the distinction between aspect and Aktionsart can be made in MalakMalak, I recognise that the way in which aspect and Aktionsart is represented in a language requires extensive investigation before drawing any sound conclusions. This is beyond the scope of this thesis, but I do suggest that this issue is relevant to the motivations for particular coverb-auxiliary combinations.

According to Birk aspectuality is expressed with the use of the progressive (imperfective) and punctiliar paradigms, –ma suffixation to coverbs and –ma suffixation to other word classes. Birk additionally notes but does not discuss an iterative function of the GO* auxiliary. Another significant marker of aspect in MalakMalak is reduplication of coverbs, which also normally represents iteration (e.g. tyurrp ‘cut’ and tyurptyurrp ‘cut lots of times’).

The two motion and three postural auxiliaries all inflect for imperfective aspect (‘progressive’ in Birk). Unlike these auxiliaries, the DO auxiliary does not inflect for imperfective aspect but is the only auxiliary to inflect for the tense inflections ‘punctiliar’ and ‘sequential’. Birk states that the underlying motivation for a coverb to select the DO auxiliary is to encode single events i.e. punctual events. From this we can infer that the DO auxiliary is inherently perfective. Additionally, the durative
suffix –ma does not appear when coverbs select for the DO auxiliary. This supports the proposal that the DO auxiliary is perfective since a coverb that is suffixally marked as durative entails the continuation of an event thus selection of an auxiliary that encodes punctual events would be illogical.

–ma suffixation is of particular interest to this discussion because according to Birk, this suffix, which he glosses as ‘continuous marker’ enables a coverb to be accessible to the GO auxiliary which potentially inflects for imperfective aspect. Birk calls this effect ‘–ma conversion’ which is exemplified by comparing the following two examples:

(23) \( mi \quad ang \quad aya \quad -noe \)

food (non-meat) give 1EM-DO.punct -3mMO

I gave him food.

[expanded: ex.275, 1976:90]

(24) \( mi \quad ang \quad -ma \quad ata \quad -noe \)

food (non-meat) give –dur 1EM-GO.pres/past -3mMO

I am giving/gave him food.\(^{12}\)

[expanded: ex.276, 1976:90]

Thus, if an event encoded by the coverb is punctual, it will select the inherently perfective DO auxiliary. While Birk’s proposal that –ma suffixation allows the coverb to combine with the GO auxiliary may in fact be correct, the reason(s) for this are not addressed. I propose that the –ma suffix marks coverbs for imperfective aspect. This proposal is supported by the observation that coverbs marked by this suffix do not occur with the DO auxiliary. Interestingly, Harvey (2003) notes that the –ma coverbal suffix in Kamu elicits imperfective interpretations of coverbs.

\(^{12}\) I would propose that the ‘past’ interpretation of this utterance is more likely to be ‘I was giving him food’.

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Harvey (2003) further indicates that coverbs marked for imperfectivity tend to occur with the ‘go’ and postural auxiliaries.

Vendler (1967) distinguishes between achievements and states, and actions and accomplishments. The latter two Aktionsart categories can have progressive expression e.g. the use of continuous tenses, and can be used with a durative. In contrast, achievements and states do not appear in progressive expressions but rather single moments in time (achievements) or shorter or longer periods (states) (Vendler 1967). Smith (Smith 1991) adds semelfactives to this catalogue of situation types in order to distinguish instantaneous atelic events from instantaneous changes of states with an outcome of a new state (achievement).

The aforementioned classical Aktionsart categories are in fact heterogenous. According to context, they select for ‘punctuality’ ‘durativity’, ‘boundedness’ (atelic/telic) and ‘dynamicity’ (Sasse 2002). Whilst ‘boundedness’ is not applicable to states, since these are considered to be inherently ongoing (Sasse 2002), activities are usually unbound processes, accomplishments are bound processes and achievements are bound events (Smith 1991). It is necessary, however to note that this analysis is inherently Anglocentric.

According to this theory, we can assume that states and achievements would not occur with the imperfective suffix –ma and that achievements would better cooccur with the DO auxiliary. From this we could then assume that activities and accomplishments would be able to occur with –ma suffixation and thus occur with the motion and postural auxiliaries.

Consider the following examples:
Together, (25) and (26) exhibit the productivity of the coverb kanyak ‘cough’. Example (26) shows that the addition of the imperfective suffix and an alternative auxiliary results in a different Aktionsart categorisation i.e. in (25) kanyak is an achievement, whereas (26) exemplifies the use of the same coverb in an ongoing, iterative, event construction.

Iteration is an element of durativity rather than punctuality since the description of the event is ongoing as opposed to instantaneous. Furthermore, kanyak ‘cough’ in (26) is not an achievement because there is no change of state and ‘cough’ is a dynamic rather than static coverb. The process of coughing ‘all night’ is not one continuous action. Rather, it is considered to be a series of sub-events on multiple occasions viewed as one encompassing action. It is an example of the intermittent repetition of coughing.

The following discussions of the three postural auxiliaries SIT, LIE and STAND provide descriptive accounts of the various functions of these auxiliaries in both SV and CV constructions. The semantically literal and non-literal functions of each auxiliary are considered in the terms of aspect, Aktionsart, and argument structure.

### 3.4. Sitting, lying and standing

The linguistics of postural verbs in languages has interested a number of authors (see Newman 2002). Of particular interest is how, if at all, a speaker encodes the difference between the dynamic process of assuming a postural stance and the stative ‘at-rest’ postures. Another interesting consideration is the possible difference between
the literal use of postural verbal constituents, and their semantically or syntactically extended functions. For example, the verbal constituent of a language that entails ‘sit’ commonly has the polysemous entries ‘stay’ or ‘live’ (Newman 2002). Indeed, such semantic extensions can be ascribed to ‘sit’ in MalakMalak.

The small number of auxiliaries in MalakMalak means that their respective functions can differ. This is not surprising given Anderson’s (2006) aforementioned (§2.5) recognition that auxiliaries are constantly evolving and thus their functions can vary within a language. A speaker’s semantic and syntactic intention potentially alters the contribution that an auxiliary makes to the argument structure and semantics of both SV and CV constructions.

The primary aim of the remainder of this chapter is to consider the semantic and syntactic functions of each of the postural auxiliaries individually (SIT, LIE and STAND respectively) as well as a selection of relevant postural coverbs that are commonly used to convey postural events in CVCs. It is generally suggested that particular accepted and restricted coverb-auxiliary combinations can be motivated by aspect and Aktionsart classifications. The contribution that a coverb makes to the overall aspect of a phrase can vary according to whether a coverb (i) appears in its unmarked form thus, contributing its ‘inherent’ Aktionsart to CVCs; (ii) features the imperfective suffix –ma; and/or (iii) is partially or fully reduplicated resulting in an iterative coverbal function.

3.4.1.1. The auxiliary paradigms

Green has provided me with his own paradigms for each auxiliary. Whilst Birk’s auxiliary paradigms can be found in Appendix A, I have used Green’s recent revisions of these paradigms in this thesis. Aside from the orthography, most of Birk’s word-forms are unchanged. However there are some obvious differences.

- Green’s exclusion of the –wa, -ka and -tya suffixes from some past, future and subjunctive tense inflections
- the division of Birk’s GO auxiliary ‘present/past’ inflection into two separate inflections (‘past’ and ‘present’)

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• the re-naming of the ‘Progressive’ inflection to ‘Imperfective’
• the redefinition of person number distinctions from single and plural to Minimal and Augmented sets.

Additionally, I have made minor orthographical revisions to the paradigms originally provided by Green. This was done in order to remain consistent with the orthography used throughout this thesis.

Each postural auxiliary inflects for past, present, progressive (henceforth ‘imperfective’), future, purposive and subjunctive TAM.

### 3.4.2. The SIT auxiliary

Table 3.2 is Green’s revised paradigm for the SIT auxiliary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1IM</td>
<td>anggunu</td>
<td>enggoenoe</td>
<td>enggininginy</td>
<td>enggidini</td>
<td>enggini</td>
<td>enggininy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EM</td>
<td>anu</td>
<td>enoe</td>
<td>eninginy</td>
<td>edini</td>
<td>eni</td>
<td>ewininy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2M</td>
<td>nunu</td>
<td>noenoe</td>
<td>nininginy</td>
<td>nindini</td>
<td>nini</td>
<td>niwininy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3fM</td>
<td>nunu</td>
<td>noenoe</td>
<td>nininginy</td>
<td>nini</td>
<td>nini</td>
<td>woewininy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3mM</td>
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<td>yini</td>
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<td></td>
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<table>
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<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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<td>ninggirini</td>
<td>ninggirrininy</td>
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<td>woetoe</td>
<td>witinginy</td>
<td>witini</td>
<td>wirrini</td>
<td>wirrinin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to distinguish my own analysis from that of Birk, the following is an abbreviated list of the functions that Birk assigns to the SIT auxiliary (1976:60-64).

1. The semantic function of ‘sitting’
2. The coverb pak ‘sit’ is the semantic cognate of the SIT auxiliary
3. The deictic function of ‘in the vicinity of the speaker’
4. "in its semantically marked function the Auxiliary is foregrounded”\(^\text{13}\) (Birk, 1976:61)

In addition to investigating the validity of the listed functions, this section considers the aspectual functions of the SIT auxiliary, some literal and extended uses, its inherent argument structure in SVCs, and its contribution to the argument structure of CVCs.

### 3.4.2.1. Aspect

According to Birk the coverb pak ‘sit’ is the semantic cognate coverb of the SIT auxiliary. Birk does however explain that the difference between the semantics of the auxiliary and the coverb seems to be aspectual. As mentioned, the aspectual difference is theoretically highlighted by the distinction between aspect and Aktionsart. As (27) shows, the auxiliary's meaning 'sit' is imperfective and stative in simple verb constructions.

\[(27)\] \text{mutyurr -wuna wuttoe}  
\text{many -qfN 3Au-SIT.past}  
Big mob they (are) always sitting (around).  
[BL, S7, 1/8/06]

In contrast, (28) shows that pak is required to indicate a change of state.

\(^{13}\) While Birk does not explain what the term ‘marked’ means here, it is assumed to indicate the complementary relationship between the meaning of the coverb and the auxiliary in question. For example the meaning of the SIT auxiliary is foregrounded when selected by a coverb encoding an event usually carried out in a sitting position e.g. lak eat (meat).
(28) **walk** **peyik** -an **wurruminy** **pak** **ningininy**
money (notes) bag -loc 3Au-DO-punct sit down 3fM-SIT.impf

The woman puts her money in her bag and sits down. [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

*Pak* therefore has a dynamic function as is illustrated by its use in imperative constructions with and without the auxiliary in (29a) and (b) respectively.

(29a) **pak nintini**!
sit 2M-SIT.purp

Sit down! [Birk, ex.180, 1976:63]

(b) **diny** -pak
try -sit

Sit down!\(^{14}\) [BL, S2, 23/4/06]

(c) **diny noenoe**
try 2M-SIT.pres

Example (28) shows an aspectual inconsistency between the use of a dynamic coverb and an imperfective auxiliary. This inconsistency can be explained by the proposal that in this example, the SIT auxiliary is assuming its semantically marked function ‘be in a sitting position’ to indicate the posture in which the animate subject assumes at the end of the dynamic event. This is supported by the selection of the SIT auxiliary by the dynamic coverb *parrat* ‘get up’ to mean ‘wake up’. Example (29c) shows that the SIT auxiliary does not assume a dynamic function. Whilst (c) is ungrammatical, the SIT auxiliary can be uttered independently of any coverb in non-imperative utterances as (30) below, shows.

### 3.4.2.2. Combinatorics

Where typically the SIT auxiliary will occur with a coverb forming a CVS, it can also function as a simple verb clearly demonstrating its semantic function ‘in a sitting position’. For example, when given the hypothetical context of talking to someone on

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\(^{14}\) My fieldwork observations indicated that this was the preferred form of the imperative for speakers.
the telephone whilst sitting down, and the caller asks, “Are you sitting down or are you standing up?” the receiver could acceptably reply:

(30) anoe
    1EM-SIT.pres
    I am sitting. [BL, S13, 10/8/06]

As well as exemplifying the SIT auxiliary's independent semantic function, this utterance further highlights the stative nature of the SIT auxiliary that is also evident in other Daly languages such as Ngan'gityemerri (Reid 1990). Reid (1990) refers to this type of auxiliary that can occur by itself as a 'simple auxiliary'.

Ng.

(31) ngini -tye
    1sgSit -Past
    SU Pimp
    I was sitting. [Ngan’gityemerri, Reid, ex.4.2a, 1990]

As mentioned in Chapter 2, different coverbs have different collocation potentials. The meaning of two separate complex predicates can differ according to which auxiliary is selected by the one coverb. It is therefore unsurprising that the semantic function of the SIT auxiliary can vary, depending on the coverb used. In some cases, the SIT auxiliary adds associated postural information to the situation entailed by a coverb by ultimately contributing postural information to the clausal meaning thus, the coverb is 'done in a sitting position'. Birk explains this as the 'foregrounding' of the semantically marked function of the auxiliary. Such constructions featuring this literal use of the auxiliary are called ‘associated posture constructions’ i.e. ‘do the action entailed by the coverb in the posture entailed by the auxiliary’ (Enfield 2002).
(32) *kanyak -m’ enuwa
    cough -imph 1EM-SIT.past
    I coughed (whilst in a sitting position). [BL, S2.4, 23/4/06]

and

(33) *mi tyurrptyurrp -m’ anuwa
    food (non-meat) cut (lots of times)(RDP) -imph 1EM-SIT.past
    I was sitting down cutting up the tucker. [BL, S5, 27/7/06]

The literal semantic role of the auxiliary in the above examples is reinforced by the following recent investigation into the use of the SIT auxiliary with the coverb *murrma 'dance (of men)'. According to Birk, (34) exemplifies the deictic function of the SIT auxiliary as ‘in the vicinity of the speaker’.

(34) yinya *murrma woetoe
    man (initiated) dance 3Au-SIT.pres
    The men are dancing here. [Birk, ex.166, 1976:60]

In my own corpus however the *murrma 'dance' + SIT auxiliary combination was repeatedly rejected, thus contradicting Birk’s claim:

(35a) *murra mannoe
    dance 1EM-SIT.pres

(30b) *mutjurr *murrma wutu
    mob dance 3Au-SIT.past

(30c) *pendyi mutyurr *murrma witinginy
    yesterday mob dance 3Au-SIT.imp

BL preferentially used the GO auxiliary with the *murrma coverb.
They danced. [BL, S4, 27/7/06]

Further evidence against a deictic function of the SIT auxiliary is evident in speakers’ use of demonstrative adjectives to indicate the location of the subject, even with the SIT auxiliary.

You will be sitting here. [BL, S13, 10/9/06]

While (32) and (33) show the literal semantic function of the SIT auxiliary in CVCs, this interpretation of the SIT auxiliary is not always obvious. For example, according to Green’s field notes (38) means “I am waiting for you”. However, when offered to BL, she supplemented this translation with the specification of “I’m waiting for you at home”.

I’m waiting for you. [JT, Green]

I'm waiting for you (at home). [BL, S5.2, 28/7/06]

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15 I have kept this utterance in its original form however BL rejected the position of the normally bound object pronoun. (39) shows the accepted utterance.

16 Birk lists *aniwa* as the future inflection of the first person singular for the SIT auxiliary. He suggests that *–wa* and *–ka* (the final syllable of the future tense for inflections of the two motion auxiliaries) occur auxiliary-finally even when a bound object is cross-referenced. Green however rejects this analysis identifying the suffixes as separate morphemes. However, the exact function of these suffixes is yet to be explained.
In conjunction with BL’s specification that ‘wait’ + STAND auxiliary means ‘waiting in the bus-stop’, this example suggests that auxiliary selection is motivated by the assumed posture in which the waiting is carried out i.e. the normal posture assumed for the entailed location.

The fact that postural information can be contributed by both the SIT and the STAND auxiliaries indicates that the SIT auxiliary is not in fact the default auxiliary for *tey*ma. The following example shows that when no extra semantic information is required, the GO auxiliary is selected.

(40)  *tey*m*’aeda*  –*nunu*  –*wa*
     wait  1EM-GO.past –2MO  ?

     I was waiting for you.  [BL, S5.1, 28/7/06]

The use of the GO auxiliary as a default auxiliary complements Birk’s observation that *tey*ma\(^{17}\) is one of the eight transitive coverbs in his corpus that cannot select the DO auxiliary. Examples similar to (40) will be considered in §4.?(GO). Before discussing argument structure further, I will briefly present two other semantic extensions of the SIT auxiliary.

Examples from the recently collected corpus suggest that this auxiliary can encode the extension of a situation encoded by the coverb through time. Specifically, the following examples represent the use of the SIT auxiliary to encode the continuous meaning ‘stay’. This semantic extension is common in Australian languages (Noonan and Grunow-Harsta 2002). Consider (41) and (42).

(41)  *awarra*  *ka*  *ninungka*  or  *niniwa*?
     cry     come  2M-GO.fut  or  2M-SIT.fut

     You say “Are you coming or you staying?”  [BL, August 2006]

\(^{17}\) In the collective corpus (Birk, Green and my own) the coverb encoding ‘wait’ always occurs with the durative morpheme –*ma*. I therefore propose that *tey* + –*ma* has been lexicalised.
I'm stopping (staying) here.  

The coverb Pak ‘sit down’ can also have an extended meaning. Pak + –ma + GO auxiliary results in the meaning ‘live (in a location)’ (Birk 1976:90). Counter-intuitively, pak-ma does not select the SIT auxiliary. However, I propose that the imperfective suffix over-rides the dynamicity of the coverb and that selection of the SIT auxiliary would inappropriately encode ‘in a sitting position’.

Finally, there are examples of the SIT auxiliary altering “the meaning of a verb root (coverb)” (Birk 1976:62). Consider the following examples:

(43) tik anuwa
    back 1EM-SIT.past
    ?I grew up.\textsuperscript{18} [Birk, ex.170, 1976:62]

(44) tik yita
    back 3mM-GO.past
    He came back. [Birk, ex.171, 1976:62]

Tik ‘back’ commonly selects the GO auxiliary. The GO auxiliary functions literally to encode motion in this construction. Furthermore, in my own data collection I noticed that tik was usually distributed in compound motion coverb constructions which also usually select the GO auxiliary. Thus, (44) is a predictable combination. Example (43) however presents a combination and translation that is not intuitively predictable. I account for this combination in aspectual terms. I propose that tik is in fact polysemous and that in this environment (43), the event as a whole can be classified as a telic accomplishment. This is most likely a default coverb-auxiliary combination

\textsuperscript{18} Birk has not provided a gloss for this example.
since its collocation with a motion auxiliary would unnecessarily encode a motion event, and it is not a punctual process and since the DO auxiliary frequently encodes punctual or single events, it would not be selected. Since the semantics of this auxiliary are bleached, I would propose that it functions as a prototypical auxiliary, providing grammatical information to the clause.

### 3.4.2.3. Argument structure

We now turn to the syntactic function of the auxiliary that is not discussed by Birk. As explained in §3.2, a monovalent clause and the inability for an auxiliary to cross-reference an object in SVC indicates intransitivity.

\[(45) \text{anoe} \quad \text{1EM-SIT.pres} \]
I am sitting. \[\quad \text{BL, S13, 10/8/06}\]

\[(46) \text{*anoe-ngayi} \quad \text{1EM-SIT.pres-3fMO}\]

The grammaticality of (45) and the rejection of (46) indicate that as a simple verb, the SIT auxiliary has an intransitive argument structure. The absence of an external subject NP highlights the role that the subject person number marker plays in argument structure as the first verbal argument.

As mentioned, Birk identifies \textit{teyma} as an inherently transitive coverb. According to the discussion of transitivity identification in MalakMalak (§3.2), an object (free NP or bound object pronoun) must be cross-referenced to indicate a transitive clause. Example (39) used a Direct Object without dative marking\(^{19}\) and since the SIT auxiliary is inherently intransitive, the second argument would need to have been introduced by the coverb. What then, is the function of the auxiliary in a transitive clause?

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\(^{19}\)Birk’s translation of \textit{teyma} as ‘wait (for)’ suggests that dative marking is not required.
The following example shows the use of the SIT auxiliary in a clearly transitive example

(47) lamlam –ma errdini woerroe
    talk (RDP) –impf 1IAu-SIT.purp 3AuO
    Us mob will talk to them. [JT, Green, 26/11/90]

The use of the SIT auxiliary is most likely semantically motivated since it could be assumed that talking would be done in a sitting position e.g. the implication of the combination is that the groups will sit around talking.

In terms of argument structure, the subject marker that is carried by the auxiliary supports the argument structure of the coverbal predicate. This analysis is based on Schultze-Berndt’s (2000) argument fusion/sharing. That is, the intransitive auxiliary shares its one argument with the transitive coverb’s first (subject) of two (subject and object). The fact that the SIT auxiliary cannot cross-reference a second argument independently of a coverb provides substantial evidence for the inherent transitivity of the coverb, since this is the only source for the object argument.

### 3.4.2.4. Conclusions

To summarise, the data presented in this section shows that the SIT auxiliary is not a semantically empty verbal unit (prototypical auxiliary). It can occur independently of a coverb as a simple verb yet it is unable to cross-reference more than one argument in these SV constructions. The SIT auxiliary is therefore, intransitive. However, it can also occur in complex verb constructions including those with transitive coverbs. In such constructions, it is proposed that the subject argument of both the auxiliary and the coverb fuse. The semantic weight of the auxiliary in CVCs varies according to context i.e. the focus on postural information differs. It appears as though the SIT auxiliary’s primary roles are to provide postural and, or only, grammatical information to a clause.
3.4.3. LIE auxiliary

Before considering the LIE auxiliary, it is necessary to note that some of the Minimal past and present auxiliary inflections featured in this paradigm are homophonous with the analagous word forms for the STAND auxiliary. Thus, when the context or English does not provide sufficient information to distinguish the two, the auxiliary meaning will be glossed as LIE/STAND. Examples such as (43) however would not require annotation due to the corresponding meaning of the coverb and the intended auxiliary.

(48) *arapuma* tigelm’ ayu –wa
    smoke lie 1EM-LIE.past?
    I’m lying smoking. [BL, S7a, 26/4/06]

Table 3.2 shows Green’s table of LIE auxiliary inflections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Past</strong></th>
<th><strong>Present</strong></th>
<th><strong>Imperfective</strong></th>
<th><strong>Purposive</strong></th>
<th><strong>Future</strong></th>
<th><strong>Subjunctive</strong></th>
</tr>
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<td>enggoeyoenguny</td>
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<td>enggoenoeyung</td>
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<tr>
<td>1EM</td>
<td>ayu</td>
<td>eyoe</td>
<td>eyoenuny</td>
<td>edoeung</td>
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<td>noendoeyung</td>
<td>noenoeyung</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3fM</td>
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<td>noenyoe</td>
<td>noenyoenenguny</td>
<td>noenyung</td>
<td>noenoeyung</td>
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</tr>
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<td>woerroenoeyung</td>
<td>wirriny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Birk describes the following functions of the LIE auxiliary (Conjugation 5):

1. This auxiliary is “semantically a conjugation of ‘lying’” (Birk, 1976:64)
2. The semantically cognate coverb of the LIE auxiliary is yur 'lie down'.
3. The auxiliary has the deictic function ‘yonder (far away from the speaker)’
4. the meaning of the auxiliary can be foregrounded in its “semantically marked function” (1976:64).

3.4.3.1. Aspect

Similar to the coverb pak ‘sit’, yur ‘lie down’ appears to have a dynamic function:

(49) yoendoen yur yuyu -wa
    3mM lie down 3mM-LIE.past
    He lay down.

(50) awat yur!
    neg imperative lie down
    Don't lie down. (M)       [BL, S4a, 24/4/06]

In order to establish whether the LIE auxiliary could function as a simple auxiliary, the telephone conversation scenario detailed earlier in (30) was used. It was hypothesised that as with the SIT auxiliary, the LIE auxiliary would occur on its own in a stative function. Contrary to this prediction BL used a coverb-auxiliary combination (51).

(51) tigelma ayoе
    lie 1EM-LIE.pres
    I'm lying down (stative).       [BL, S13, 10/8/06]

Any attempt to use yur ‘lie down’ in a stative function was rejected by BL who referred me once again to tigelma ‘lie’ + LIE auxiliary (51) as opposed to (52).
These examples would suggest that unlike the SIT auxiliary, the LIE auxiliary cannot occur independently of a semantically similar coverb. Anecdotally, this appeared to be the case however, Green’s fieldnotes suggest the contrary.

Examples (51-53) support the aforementioned proposal that while in SVCs the auxiliary encodes its own Aktionsart, this role is overridden by different Aktionsart categories encoded by different coverbs in CVCs.

The use of the stative coverb *tigelma* ‘lie’ with the LIE auxiliary could be motivated by one of two considerations. The first predicts that *tigelma* ‘lie’ is used to overcome the STAND/LIE auxiliary homophony-based ambiguity. This explains BL’s tendency to use this combination when context does not explicitly indicate the subject being ‘in a lying position’ as opposed to ‘standing’. One could speculate that in the following

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20 This example confirms this function of the LIE auxiliary since the 3fM minimal inflection is one of the LIE auxiliary inflections that is not homophonous with the corresponding STAND auxiliary minimal inflection.
example (54), JT uses the stative coverb after the auxiliary in order to clarify that the subject is lying, not standing.

(54) tyoeng ngun woeyoe tigelma
tree dem 3wM-LIE.pres lie
The tree’s lying down now. [JT, Green, 22/11/90]

As §3.3.3 will show, a similar analysis can be applied to the STAND auxiliary. The second consideration proposes that the LIE auxiliary is further along Anderson’s proposed path towards assuming a prototypical auxiliary function than the SIT auxiliary, which was found to readily occur independently of a semantically cognate coverb.

3.4.3.2. Combinatorics

Birk (1976:135-144) lists some acceptable and unacceptable coverb-LIE auxiliary combinations some of which can only occur in the plural\(^{21}\). It appears as though similarly to the function of the SIT auxiliary in CVCs, the LIE auxiliary is primarily selected to add postural information to a predicate. As mentioned in §3.3.1, constructions in which the auxiliary adds postural information to the situation entailed by the coverb are called ‘associated posture constructions’ (Enfield 2002) i.e. ‘do the action entailed by the coverb in the posture entailed by the auxiliary’.

In agreement with the simple auxiliary function exemplified by (53)\(^{a}\) and (b), Birk uses the following example to show the LIE auxiliary’s semantic contribution to a CVC.

(55) alawar kanyak -ma noenyoelawar kanyak -ma noenyoewoman cough -impf 3fM-LIE.pres
She is coughing lying down. [Birk, ex.188, 1976:64]

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\(^{21}\) The reason(s) for this restriction has not yet been investigated.
Note that Birk’s example features the auxiliary inflection (3fM) that distinguishes the STAND and LIE auxiliaries. Recent elicitations of similar constructions to (55) show that the auxiliary is used in conjunction with the stative ‘lie’ coverb tigelma to convey the postural information of being ‘in a lying position’:

(56) *tigelma lamlam –m’ ayu –wa*
    lie talk(RDP) –dur 1EM-LIE.past ?
    I was lying down talking. [BL, S7a, 1/8/06]

(57) *arapuma tigel m’ ayu –wa*
    smoke lie 1EM-LIE.past ?
    I’m lying smoking. [BL, S7a, 1/8/06]

The following example shows that at least some statives prefer to collocate with the DO auxiliary. cannot occur with statives in associated posture constructions.

(58) *dumurrkarrk aya ki -we eyoe tigelma eyoe*
    cold 1EM-DO.punct dem ? 1EM-LIE.pres lie 1EM-LIE.pres
    “I’m lying down and I’m cold.” [BL, S7a, 1/8/06]

It also shows that as with (54), the speaker first uses the LIE auxiliary independently of a stative ‘lie’ coverb but then clarifies her meaning by using tigelma in conjunction with the LIE auxiliary.

While this does not confirm that the LIE auxiliary can occur independently of a coverb in an SVC, I repeat the following example to show that the LIE auxiliary does assume an intransitive classification in SVCs.

(59) *noenye*
    3fM-LIE.pres
    She’s lying down. [JT, Green, 24/11/90]
So far I have shown the auxiliary occurring in intransitive CVCs. The following however, is one of the few examples from the combined data in which the LIE auxiliary occurs in a transitive construction. Birk’s analysis proposes that the auxiliary’s function in this example is to contribute deictic as opposed to postural semantic information.

\[(60) \text{noendoen antuk lurring } \text{–ma noenyoe} \]
\[3fM \quad \text{house clean } \quad \text{–dur 3fM-LIE.pres} \]

She is cleaning the house **over yonder**. [Birk, ex.204, 1976:70]

However, JT emphatically rejected this sentence offering the alternative, implausible translation “She’s lying down sweeping the house” (JT, Green, 22/11/90 p.7)\(^{22}\) that implies that ‘associated posture constructions’ are salient for MalakMalak speakers.

Example \( (61) \) suggests that in combination with a transitive coverb, the LIE auxiliary can cross-reference a Direct Object in complex constructions. However, this is not conclusive since the implied function of the auxiliary (i.e. to specify a lying or standing position) in \( (61) \) is neither clarified by grammar or context.

\[(61) \text{lamlam ayuwa ngayi -wa} \]
\[1EM-LIE/STAND.past \quad 3fMO \quad ? \]

I spoke to her. [BL, S5.1, 28/7/06]

\(^{22}\) Birk also uses the following to show the deictic function of the LIE auxiliary ‘over yonder’.

\[\text{yinya murma woerroe} \]
\[\text{man (initiated) dance } \quad 3Au-LIE.pres \]

The men are dancing over yonder. [Birk, ex.186, 1976:64]

However, BL rejects the use of the LIE auxiliary with *murma* ‘dance’. Even when explicitly asked if *murma* + LIE auxiliary combinations could indicate that the dancing would happen ‘over there’, BL rejected the collocations, preferring the use of the STAND and GO auxiliaries. BL would appear puzzled by examples such as above since after all; one cannot dance and be in a lying position simultaneously. This shows that the postural semantics of the auxiliary is salient for speakers.
From this section we can conclude that whilst the LIE auxiliary has been found to occur in SVCs, highlighting its intransitive function, it is at least recently, more likely to cooccur with semantically cognate coverbs. The reason for this is not obvious, however it may suggest that either the coverb is employed to disambiguate the LIE auxiliary from homophonous STAND auxiliary word forms, or because the LIE auxiliary has become semantically bleached, and is therefore behaving more similarly to a prototypical auxiliary.

### 3.4.3.3. Transitivity

The following negative evidence however, provides further support for the intransitive classification of the LIE auxiliary. The LIE auxiliary is not used in transitive constructions of ‘lie’ i.e. lie something down. The dynamic coverb *yur* alternatively selects the DO auxiliary for such constructions.

```
(62) nga w’ aya tyet aya –Ø way yur aya –Ø
1EM pick 1EM- plant/stand 1EM- –3iMO pick lie 1EM- –
up DO.punct DO.punct up(?) down DO.punct 3iMO
I put it down.23
```

[JT, Green, 16/11/90 p.2]

Whilst this example clearly shows that the LIE auxiliary is not involved in the transitive constructions of ‘lie down’, it does not necessarily provide negative or positive evidence for a transitive function of the coverb *yur* ‘lie down’ since the Direct Object could be introduced by the initial coverb in the clause, *wa* ‘pick up’. Further investigation is required into examples similar to (62) particularly since it is difficult to assess whether this is a serialised construction or an example of a compound coverb. This distinction is necessary to ascertain whether each coverb

---

23 This was the translation provided by Green. I assume that this is only a partial translation of the third clause (bold text). I have parsed and glossed this example and propose that a full translation could be: “I picked it up, I stood it up, and I lay it down.” Also note that I have added zero marking for the object. The original form of this example is:  
ngawaya tjudaya wa’y yur aya  
I have assumed that the vowel in the coverb *wa* ‘pick up’ has merged with the vowel and semivowel of the auxiliary in the first clause and then the initial semivowel of *yur* in the final clause. Finally the translation of the final clause is not ‘I picked it up and lay it down’ since the preceding example in the field notes “wa’y yur ‘put it down [lay it down]’” (Green, 16/11/90 p.2) shows that the two coverbs combine to give the presented meaning.
should be regarded as bringing its own internal argument structures and aspectual information (coverb serialisation), or if there is a separate ‘compound coverb’ that may have been lexicalised. If so, *wayur* would have its own internal argument structure and aspectual information. Whilst this requires further investigation, we can see from existing examples that *yur* appears as the final coverb in a number of compound coverbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coverb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tyalk.yur</td>
<td>fall down.lie down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘bend over’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kal.yur</td>
<td>carry.lie down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘carry (on shoulder)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karr.nil.yur</td>
<td>prod in ground.skin.lie down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘break skin (against an object)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngarrk.yur</td>
<td>twist?.lie down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘twist (a limb)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tapali.katy.yur</td>
<td>grab-hab/ptcpl?=have something for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a long time.leave.lie down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘buck (horse)’/ ‘pitch (canoe)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tarrp.yur</td>
<td>on top(?).lie down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘lie on top (of something) (predicated of an inanimate object)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that all of these compound coverbs include a coverb that is inherently transitive i.e. they encode or require the cross-referencing of a Direct Object, or at least potentially have a transitive form. According to Birk, all of them can occur with DO, not all with GO and not all with LIE. None of them can occur with the SIT or STAND auxiliaries. Interestingly, *tarp.yur* ‘lie on top (of something)’ can only select the DO and LIE auxiliaries suggesting that a) it can be used in both transitive and intransitive constructions b) it can be used in imperfective and perfective constructions or c) an ‘associated posture construction’ is made when combined with the LIE auxiliary. I reiterate that further investigation into the function of *yur* is required.

### 3.4.3.4. Conclusions

This section has shown that the LIE auxiliary can have a semantic function in both SV and CV constructions. However we have seen that most likely due to its homophonous inflections creating ambiguity between STAND and LIE distinctions,
the LIE auxiliary tends to occur with either the stative coverb *tigelma* or the dynamic
coverb *yur*. Whilst more examples of LIE auxiliary collocation with inherently
transitive coverbs is required, we can perceive from the examples provided that this
auxiliary is most likely intransitive, and assumes a stative function in SVCs.

We now turn to the function of the third postural auxiliary STAND.

### 3.4.4. STAND auxiliary

The STAND auxiliary seems to have similar, but semantically different functions to
the LIE auxiliary. Table 3.3 shows the STAND auxiliary word-forms described by
Green.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1IM</td>
<td>angguyu</td>
<td>enggoeyoe</td>
<td>enggiyenginy</td>
<td>enggidiyang</td>
<td>engginiyang</td>
<td>engginy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EM</td>
<td>ayu</td>
<td>eyoe</td>
<td>ayenginy</td>
<td>ediyang</td>
<td>eniyang</td>
<td>ewiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2M</td>
<td>nunydyu</td>
<td>noenydyoe</td>
<td>nunydyenginy</td>
<td>nindiyang</td>
<td>niniyang</td>
<td>niwiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3fM</td>
<td>nunydyu</td>
<td>noenydyoe</td>
<td>nunydyenginy</td>
<td>nunydyan</td>
<td>niniyang</td>
<td>woewiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3mM</td>
<td>yuyu</td>
<td>yoeyoe</td>
<td>yiyenginy</td>
<td>yinydyan</td>
<td>yiniyang</td>
<td>woewiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3MM</td>
<td>muyu</td>
<td>moeyoe</td>
<td>miyenginy</td>
<td>munydyan</td>
<td>miniyang</td>
<td>miwiny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3wM</td>
<td>wuyu</td>
<td>woeyoe</td>
<td>wiyenginy</td>
<td>wunydyan</td>
<td>winiyang</td>
<td>woewiny</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1IAu</td>
<td>arrdyu</td>
<td>errdyu</td>
<td>erdyenginy</td>
<td>errdyiyan</td>
<td>errginiyang</td>
<td>errginy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EAu</td>
<td>adyu</td>
<td>edyu</td>
<td>edyenginy</td>
<td>etiyang</td>
<td>erriniyang</td>
<td>erriny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2Au</td>
<td>nugudyu</td>
<td>nugudyoe</td>
<td>nugudyenginy</td>
<td>nigitiyang</td>
<td>ninggiriyang</td>
<td>ninggiriny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3Au</td>
<td>wudyu</td>
<td>woetyoe</td>
<td>wudyenginy</td>
<td>witiyang</td>
<td>wirriniyang</td>
<td>wirriny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Birk attributes the following functions to the STAND auxiliary (Conjugation 6):

1. This auxiliary is “semantically a conjugation of ‘standing’” (Birk, 1976:70)
2. The semantically cognate coverb of the STAND auxiliary is *tyet ‘stand’\(^{24}\).

3. The auxiliary has the deictic function ‘in the speaker’s vicinity’

4. The meaning of the auxiliary can be foregrounded in its “semantically marked function” (1976:72).

These observations will be addressed and revised where necessary in the following discussion of the STAND auxiliary.

### 3.4.4.1. **Aspect**

Before considering the functions of the auxiliary, it is necessary to look at the coverbs semantically related to ‘standing’ posture. The STAND auxiliary often appears with the coverb *wurruma\(^{25}\) in stative constructions. The stative nature of *wurruma is confirmed by the ungrammatical use of this stance coverb in imperative constructions.

\[(63) \text{ *awat wurruma neg imperative stand} \quad [\text{BL, S4a.1, 24/4/06}]\]

Nonetheless, this contradicts Birk’s implication that *wurruma is in fact an inherently dynamic coverb in his example regarding the past tense inflection of the STAND auxiliary (64).

\[(64) \text{ nga wurruma ayu -wa} \quad 1\text{EM stand up 1EM-STAND.past } ? \quad \text{[Birk, ex.206, 1976:73]}\]

From my observations, current use of *wurruma implies that it is in fact an inherently stative coverb. Nonetheless this is not to say that (64) is ungrammatical, but recent

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\(^{24}\) *tyerrat* is used for plural subjects.

\(^{25}\) A contemporary phonological analysis is required to determine whether this coverb is *wurruma or wurrma*. It will be written as *wurruma* in this thesis.
observations suggest that its meaning would be stative as opposed to dynamic. This observation is supported by two related factors. 1. *wurruma* cannot select for the inherently perfective auxiliary DO and 2. both *tigelma* ‘lie’ and *wurruma* ‘stand’ consistently appear with the imperfective –*ma* suffix. Therefore as hinted by my use of the two coverbs thus far, it is reasonable to suggest that –*ma* has been lexicalised for these two coverbs indicating that they are inherently continuous. This aspectual classification then implies a stative as opposed to dynamic function. As we will see, other coverbs are used for the dynamic function of ‘stand’.

Based on the fact that the semantically cognate coverbs for the SIT (*pak*) and LIE (*yur*) auxiliaries that Birk mentions each function as dynamic coverbs, one could predict that the same function could be attributed to *tyer*26 ‘stand’. However the following acceptable imperative constructions show that the use of a third coverb *parrat* ‘get up’ is preferred for dynamic constructions.

(65)  

\[
\text{awat} \quad \text{parrat} \\
\text{neg imperative get up} \\
\text{“Don’t stand up.”} \\
\text{[BL, S4a.1, 24/4/06]}
\]

*Parrat* ‘get up’ undergoes partial reduplication for plural subject constructions:

(66)  

\[
\text{mutyurr awat} \quad \text{parrarat} \\
\text{mob neg imperative get up (pl.S)} \\
\text{Don’t stand up (you mob).} \\
\text{[BL, S4a.1, 24/4/06]}
\]

*Parrat/parrarat* ‘stand up’ can cooccur with *tyet* (67)27.

---

26 This coverb is polysemous. It can mean ‘stand’, ‘plant’, ‘be born’ and ‘stop’. Additionally its nominal form is ‘thigh’. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the imperative use of *tyet* means ‘stop’ (BL, 24/4/06).

27 *parrat* + SIT auxiliary = ‘wake up’
I propose that the stative coverb *tyet* cooccurs with *parrat* in order to indicate the posture of the subject at the end of the dynamic event. From these examples I have identified that *wurruma* ‘stand’ is also an inherently continuous coverb and *parrat* is dynamic and punctual. I now turn to the aspectual function of the STAND auxiliary itself.

The STAND auxiliary can occur with all of the recently discussed coverbs *parrat* (*tyet*), *tyet* and *wurruma*.

(68) *parrat* yoeyoe –wa
    get up 3mM-STAND.pres ?

He stood up/got up.  

(69) *tyangar tyet* moeyoe
    spear stand 3vM-STAND.pres

The spear stands up.  

(70) *wurruma* ayanginy
    stand 1EM-STAND.impf

I was standing up (i.e. when you came).  

Based on the discussion of the frequent use of *tigelma* ‘lie’ with the LIE auxiliary in §3.4.3 one could predict that if the STAND auxiliary commonly occurs with the stative coverb *wurruma*, as well as functioning independently as a simple auxiliary, it will be inherently stative. Evidently this is the case. When explicitly asked to produce MalakMalak translations of English utterances such as ‘I am standing here’ *wurruma* will accompany the STAND auxiliary. However, when asked the meaning of (71), BL
offered ‘He’s standing up’. Obviously I am aware that such evidence is problematic since a speaker of the language has not produced the utterance itself, nonetheless, it does indicate that as a simple auxiliary, speakers can interpret the STAND auxiliary as encoding semantic and grammatical information. That is to say that the independent auxiliary is meaningful.

\[(71) \quad yoeyoe\]
\[3mM-\text{STAND}.\text{pres}\]

The common use of *wurruma* ‘stand’+ STAND auxiliary is likely to be motivated by the aforementioned ambiguous nature of some of the STAND and LIE auxiliary inflections. \((70)\) shows that *wurruma* is still used when the auxiliary is not homophonous with a LIE auxiliary inflection this word form is not homophonous with 1EM-\text{LIE}.\text{imf}.

Having said this, the ability of the STAND auxiliary to add semantic information to a clause independently of *wurruma* is evident in its independent literal use in \((72)\).

\[(72) \quad lamlam \quad -m' \quad ayu \quad -wa\]
\[\text{talk (RDP)} \quad -\text{imf} \quad \text{1EM-\text{STAND}.past} \quad ?\]
\[I \text{ was standing up talking.} \quad [\text{BL, S12, 9/8/06}]\]

### 3.4.4.2. Combinatorics

The examples in §3.4.4.1 show that the STAND auxiliary is intransitive. This section considers the role of the auxiliary in transitive clauses as well as the transitive form of ‘stand’ e.g. ‘He stood the book up’.

As with the LIE auxiliary, Birk presents an example of the STAND auxiliary in a transitive construction but interprets the auxiliary as a provider of deictic as opposed to postural information.
(73) noendoen antuk lurrung -ma noentyoe

3fM house clean ~impf 3fM-STAND.pres

She is cleaning the house here/nearby. [Birk, ex.203, 1976:70]

Once again, this semantic function was not observed in recent fieldwork and JT did not indicate a deictic function in his alternative translation: ‘She’s cleaning the house’ (Green). Nonetheless, JT’s acceptance of the utterance indicates that the STAND auxiliary can be selected by transitive coverbs.

(74) kurrut -m’ aniyangka weni -we
remove ~impf 1EM-STAND.fut grass -?

I am removing grass. [BL, S8, 2/8/06]

The motivation for the STAND auxiliary in this CVC is most likely semantically based since this is a job done in a standing position. It shows that the Direct Object ‘grass’ is introduced by the bivalent coverb kurrut ‘remove’.

Similarly to the transitive form of yur ‘lie down’, the STAND auxiliary is not used in transitive constructions such as

(75) turrptyet aya -Ø
plant 1EM-DO.punct -3iM

I stood something up e.g. in ground. [JT, Green, p.5]

It is assumed that the motivation for collocation with the DO auxiliary is that the coverb turrptyet ‘plant something’ is a punctual event thus, the inherently perfective DO auxiliary is selected in preference to the STAND auxiliary.

The following examples show the use of the STAND auxiliary in range of stative constructions. It seems that while the SIT and LIE auxiliaries can occur in stative constructions, the STAND auxiliary occurred more frequently. This may however
simply be a data-biased phenomenon. I will offer very brief motivations for each combination.

(76) mada tyarrkaty -ma yiniyang -ka
rain rain heavily –impf 3mM-STAND.fut ?
It will be raining [BL, S6, 25/4/06]

This combination could be motivated by the vertical nature of rain.

The STAND auxiliary can also be used in a copula-like function as shown in the following example.

(77) bur ayenginy
warm up 1EM-STAND.impf
I’m hot. [JT, Green, p.48]

(78) nguntyet ayenginy
sweat 1EM-STAND.impf
I’m sweating [JT, Green, p.20]

This combination is related to Birk’s note that colour- or light-descriptive terms as inchoatives tend to occur with tyet or tut.tyet (‘cause.stand’) + STAND (1976:134).

(79) nguparak tyet wiyanginy
dark stand 3wM-STAND.impf
It’s getting dark. [Birk, ex.498, 1976:134]

It is therefore proposed that the STAND auxiliary has an inchoative function ‘become’ that as (78) shows applies to more than just colour- or light- descriptive
terms. The following example additionally shows that the *tyet* coverb is not necessarily required to form a similar inchoative construction.

\[(80)\] \textit{numurru nga} \textit{–wa lerpma pirppma ayenginy}  
\textit{eye 1EMposs ? hot red 1EM-STAND.impf}  
My eye is becoming red (hot?). \[BL, S5.3, 24/4/06\]

**3.4.4.3. Conclusions**

This section has shown a variety of functions for the STAND auxiliary. While it can function independently in SVCs assuming its own Aktionsart classification ‘stative’, like the LIE auxiliary, it is more likely to occur with a semantically cognate coverb. In non-literal functions, the STAND auxiliary can occur in stative and inchoative constructions.

We now shift focus from the postural auxiliary functions to the motions and DO auxiliaries in Chapter 4.

**Chapter 4**

**4. THE MOTION AND DO AUXILIARIES**

This chapter considers the functions of the two motion auxiliaries and the DO auxiliary. As with Chapter 3, it presents Birk’s evaluations of each auxiliary before presenting my own analysis.

**4.1. GO auxiliary**

The present corpus shows that there are a number of literal and non-literal functions that can be attributed to the GO auxiliary. Thus, it can occur in both motion and non-motion constructions. As this discussion shows, my observations of the GO auxiliary often, but not always, run parallel to Birk’s descriptions. As with Birk’s examination of other auxiliaries, his presentation of the GO auxiliary is data heavy and his discussions and explanations for particular observations are minimal. Therefore,
whilst considering new data, I will expand on Birk’s observations, incorporating detailed suggestions and revising previous observations where necessary.

Before presenting my own observations on the functions of the GO auxiliary, the following describes Birk’s findings.

1. According to Birk, the GO auxiliary (Conjugation 2) is the most frequently used auxiliary and is semantically a “conjugation of ‘movement’” (1976:53).
2. It can cooccur with coverbs of ‘movement’ (81) or by itself (82), assuming a meaning of ‘movement’ in both CVCs and SVCs.

(81) kupuk yida waliwali –yinnga
  dive 3mM-GO.pres/past river –loc
  He dives/dived into the river. [Birk, ex.128, 1976:53]

(82) de –noe ada
  meat –dat 1EM-GO.pres/past
  I’m going/I went for meat. [Birk, ex.129, 1976:53]

3. Birk notes that the GO auxiliary can also occur independently of a coverb in a copulative function (83)

(83) nga lerrp anguny
  1EM hot 1EM-GO.impf
  I am hot. [Birk, ex.133, 1976:54]

4. Finally, as with the other semantically weighted auxiliaries, Birk states that the GO auxiliary can assume the deictic (84) function ‘yonder (far away from speaker)’.
They are/were hammering nails (over yonder). [Birk, ex.130, 1976:53]

My own discussion of the GO auxiliary considers Birk’s listed functions, as well as the additional functions identified from the combined data. First I consider the constructions that encode ‘movement’, introducing, in particular, the use of this auxiliary in associated motion constructions. Following this, §4.1.3 considers independent uses of the auxiliary, first in the role of encoding ‘motion’ and then in its copula-like role in ‘ascriptive’ constructions.

Section §4.1.4 considers the occurrence of the auxiliary in both intransitive and transitive CVCs involving non-motion coverbs. While Birk provides examples of each of these construction types, an explicit discussion of the semantic and syntactic functions of the GO auxiliary in such constructions is not provided.

Observations concerning aspect and Aktionsart are made throughout the pending discussions.

4.1.1. GO auxiliary with motion activity coverbs

The GO auxiliary is selected by a number of movement activity coverbs in both intransitive (85) and transitive (86, 87) constructions:

(85) tyakat ada
    run 1EM-GO.past

I ran away.28 [JT, Green, p.48]

28 A more accurate translation could be ‘I ran’ since as the next example shows, the coverb tyakatyiwaya means ‘run away’ (from an individual).
(86) *tyakat.yi.waya ada nunu -wa*
    run.leave.away 1EM-GO.past 2MO ?

    I ran away from you.  
    [JT, Green, p.48]

(87) *mi kurr.wa.pi nunda*
    food pull.pick up.go 3fM-GO.past
    =drag (away)

    She dragged the food away.  
    [BL, S16, 15/8/06]

By comparing the preceding example with (88) we can see that the GO auxiliary can occur with constructions indicating either direction away from (86, 87) or towards (88) a focal point.

(88) *de yinngi k’ an’gi yida lak yiminy –ngayi de wu*
    (clf) salt water come towards 3mM- eat 3mM-DO.punct –3fMO clf barramund
    meat crocodile speaker GO.past (meat) (meat)

    The crocodile came and ate her barramundi.  
    [BL, S1.5, 24/7/06]

The GO auxiliary also cooccurs with the coverb *pi ‘go’.*

(89) *aman p’ enungka*
    now go 1EM-GO.fut

    Now I will go.  
    [BL, S2.1, 25/7/06]

(90) *nga –we pi ada yi.pa wuta tik.ka*
    1EM –foc go 1EM-GO.past leave 3Au-GO.past back.come

    I went, they left and came back.  
    [BL, S6, 2006]
Other dynamic motion coverbs such as *tyelk* ‘fall down’ that cannot select the inherently perfective DO auxiliary commonly select the GO auxiliary.

(92)  
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{tyelk anguny} & \text{fall down 1EM-GO.impf} \\
I & \text{fell over.} & \text{[JT, S3, Green, 1990]}
\end{array}
\]

(93)  
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{tyelk nunguny mirri} & \text{fall down 3fM-GO.impf sun} \\
The & \text{sun went down.} & \text{[JT, S3, Green 1990]}
\end{array}
\]

(94)  
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{tyung tyelk wuda} & \text{tree fall down 3wM-GO.past} \\
Tree & \text{fell over.} & \text{[JT, Green, 16/11/90, p.3]}
\end{array}
\]

The following use of fall + GO auxiliary combination shows that the GO auxiliary could be inherently atelic, encoding dynamic situations, since it focuses on a certain part of the event of falling.

(95)  
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{tyelk ade} & \text{fall 1EM-GO.pres} \\
I & \text{‘m falling!} & \text{[BL, S16, 15/8/06]}
\end{array}
\]

Table 4.1. shows Green’s modified paradigm of inflections for the GO auxiliary. Note that as Appendix A shows, Birk does not distinguish between Past and Present tenses but alternatively has a single paradigm for ‘Non-future’. My thesis supports Green’s
re-analysis in which he recognises the subtle vocalic differences between the GO inflections for ‘past’ and ‘present’ tenses29.

Table 4.1 The GO auxiliary paradigm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past</th>
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<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
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<tr>
<td>2Au</td>
<td>nuguta</td>
<td>nuguete</td>
<td>nunggurrunguny</td>
<td>nugutungg</td>
<td>nunggurrungun</td>
<td>ninggirriny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3Au</td>
<td>wuta</td>
<td>woete</td>
<td>woerroenguny</td>
<td>woetung</td>
<td>woerroenung</td>
<td>wirriny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.1.2. Associated motion

The GO auxiliary can cooccur with non-motion coverbs in progressive constructions whilst retaining its semantic function of ‘movement’. The following examples show constructions involving associated motion (contemporaneity) as opposed to sequentiality of events. Example (96) is presented in order to show that the independent use of the GO auxiliary as a simple auxiliary can have the meaning ‘going along’.

29 This difference between Birk’s and Green’s paradigms creates a disparity between the glossing of examples taken from Birk and more recent examples. I have decided to gloss Birk’s examples as he presents them since there is no way of finding out which tense inflection (‘past’ or ‘present’) actually applied at the time of utterance.
Examples (97)-(100) are complex predicate constructions involving progressive activities in the form of associated motion.

(97) *kanyak –m’ ade*
    cough –impf 1EM-GO.pres
    I’m coughing as I walk. [BL, S2.4, 23/4/06]

Here, the speaker explicitly indicated that the auxiliary word form means ‘walking’.

(98) *erapu -ma nunda tat aya ngayi*
    smoke –impf 2M/3fM-GO.past see 1EM-DO.punct 3fMO
    I saw her coming over smoking. [BL, S6.3, 25/4/06]

    [She came over smoking] [I saw her]

(99) *rubbit bin taty -ma wuta*
    rubbish bin hit –impf 3Au-GO.past
    They were hitting the rubbish bin. [BL, S6, 29/7/06]

The transitive coverb *taty* ‘hit’ commonly cooccurs with the DO auxiliary. It appears as though, while selection of the DO auxiliary results in perfective, single event constructions, selection of the GO auxiliary in conjunction with the imperfective suffix *-ma* occurs when encoding a non-perfective construction. The context of this utterance suggests that the GO auxiliary could be selected in order to encode motion since the speaker was referring to a group of people walking along the street hitting rubbish bins. Nonetheless, this is not a conclusive interpretation since the motivation for the *taty*-*ma* + *GO* auxiliary combination could be purely aspectual i.e. the
subjects’ actions are continuous (as indicated by the imperfective suffix) and in the past (as indicated by the inflection of the GO auxiliary).

Green however, presents two clear examples of associated motion. Notice the contrast in auxiliary selection. The first uses the GO auxiliary whereas the second uses the alternative motion auxiliary GO*. The semantic difference however, remains unclear since recent attempts to elicit the GO* auxiliary were resulted in only a handful of examples (see §4.2).

(100) lak -m’ anguny30
    eat (meat) –impf 1EM-GO.impf
    I’m going along eating.                     [JT, Green, p.46]

(101) lak -m’ awoerre
    eat (meat) –impf 1EM-GO*.pres
    I go along eating.                         [JT, Green, p.46]

4.1.3. Independent uses of the GO auxiliary

As shown in examples (82) and (83), unlike his discussion of the other auxiliaries, Birk recognises that the GO auxiliary can function independently of a coverb. He considers that this auxiliary can either encode movement or assume a copulative function. Initially I will consider the semantic function of ‘movement’ and then provide my own analysis of the GO auxiliary’s other independent function.

Anecdotally, I can say that I did not find many examples of the GO auxiliary occurring as a simple auxiliary to encode ‘motion’. Instead, it regularly occurred with the coverb pi ‘go’ or ka ‘come’. This however, does not represent a preference to use coverbs such as pi ‘go’ and ka ‘come’ as such but rather highlights the use of the independent auxiliary when the direction of movement is unknown to the speaker or

30 Note that the original form of the auxiliary in Green’s fieldnotes was angun which is not a wordform present in any of the paradigms for any of the auxiliaries. From the translation provided, I have substituted the possibly erroneous velar nasal /ŋ/ with the palatal nasal /ny/. As shown, this substitution results in the plausible use of the 1EM imperfective form of the GO auxiliary.
irrelevant to the situation. This confirms the meaning of the GO auxiliary as ‘motion’ as opposed to ‘go’ or ‘come’. This notion of ‘motion’ has already been presented in the previous example (96) that is shown again below.

(96) [werrena wuta wundut –ta alulk] [tat aya –wurru/a (woendut)]
    two 3Au-GO.past dual -? girl see 1EM-DO.punct –3AuO (dual marker)
    “I saw the two girls going along.”

    [The two girls were going along] [I saw them (two)]

BL, S15, 14/8/06

The independent GO auxiliary can also be used to indicate the movement of inanimate subjects:

(102) mada woeneli woede
    rain big(w) 3wM-GO.pres
    Big rain came. 31

    [JT, Green, p.53]

This example suggests that at least in SVCs, the GO auxiliary is intransitive since it is the only verbal element present to carry an argument structure.

The following examples also show the independent use of the GO auxiliary but without the encoded meaning ‘motion’. Birk refers to such constructions as examples of the GO auxiliary’s copulative function.

(103) yinya yinydyarrik yide
    man short(m) 3mM-GO.pres
    He’s a short fella.

    [JT Green, 28/11/90]

31 Rain can also be classified as masculine:

mada yineli yide
rain big(m) 3mM-GO.pres
Big rain came                      [JT, Green, p.53]
(104) tyimityimity wunbayin woede
    boomerang good(w) 3wM-GO.pres

This is a good boomerang. [JT, Green, p.54]

(105) nunet nunde
    bad(f) 3fM-GO.pres

She’s not good [JT, Green, p.56]

(106) yinya akana noende   // nunydye   minydyidak
    man neg 3fM-GO.pres // 3fM-STAND/DO.pres/punct? emphP

She’s not married // She’s by herself [BL, S7, 2006]

The GO auxiliary also occurs with comitative (107) and existential constructions (108).

(107) alalk -nga wak -yen yide
    child –1EMposs water –comit 3mM-GO.pres

My kid got wet. [JT, Green p.4]

(108) yerra nga minydyidak aede
    now 1EM emphP 1EM-GO.pres

Just me myself alive now. [JT, Green, p.17]

Birk’s discussion of the copula-function of the GO auxiliary is minimal. From the provided examples however I propose that that the copular auxiliary’s function in such constructions is ‘ascriptive’. This role of the GO auxiliary is to ascribe attributes to animate subjects. Examples (103)-(105) show the ascription of adjectives to the subject whereas (106) represents that ascription of a NP to the subject.
An ascriptive function is also seen in the SVC use of the ‘sit’, ‘stand’, ‘lie’, ‘go’ and ‘go∗’ auxiliaries in Ngan’gityemerri. Reid (1990) also shows that adjectives or attributive NPs can be ascribed to subjects. Reid further specifies that this can occur with either stative or dynamic simple auxiliaries (Reid 1990). The selection of a stative auxiliary such as ‘sit’ results in a transitory reading whereas use of a dynamic auxiliary such as ‘go’ encodes a permanent perspective. Compare the following two Ngan’gityemerri examples:

Ng.: (109) lamurity dim
    happy 3sgSIT
    SU Pres
    She’s happy (at the moment). [Ngan’gityemerri, Reid 1990:ex.4-67a]

(110) lamurity yenim
    happy 3sgGo
    SU Pres
    She’s happy (by nature). [Ngan’gityemerri, Reid 1990:ex.4-67b]

Unfortunately, my own data does not feature examples that confirm or deny this difference.

We have so far seen that the GO auxiliary can function in both SV and CVCs encoding movement. We have also seen that the GO auxiliary can assume an ascriptive function as a semantically bleached auxiliary. We will now consider the role of the GO auxiliary in CVCs involving non-motion coverbs.

4.1.4. GO auxiliary with non-motion coverbs

Section §4.1.4. considers the role of the intransitive GO auxiliary in intransitive, non-motion CVCs before investigating the auxiliary’s role in transitive non-motion complex predicates. In both types of complex predicate (intransitive/transitive) the auxiliary is semantically bleached. The data suggests that in both intransitive and
transitive CVCs, the GO auxiliary is either selected by default, or specifically selected for atelic situations. Throughout the subsequent discussions, observations concerning additional GO auxiliary functions are elaborated.

4.1.4.1. Intransitive CV constructions

The following examples use coverbs identified by Birk as exceptional intransitive coverbs that unlike most intransitive coverbs, can cooccur with the DO auxiliary. This point is elaborated in the discussion of cognate objects in §4.3.2. Both (111) and (112) examples involving atelic activities that do not require the additional semantic information offered by the postural auxiliaries. Furthermore, the temporal adverb in the first example prevents the selection of the perfective DO auxiliary. Finally, as §4.2 shows, selection of the GO* auxiliary could encode ‘motion’.

(111) kanyak –ma ada nana
cough –impf 1EA-GO.past adv

I was coughing all the time. [BL, S5.7, 28/7/06]

(112) kaye –ma yide
scream –impf 3mM-GO.pres

He (crow) keeps crying. [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

Another use of the GO auxiliary with an intransitive coverb has been previously mentioned in this thesis §3.4.2. To reiterate, when the GO auxiliary cooccurs with the combination of the possibly polysemous coverb pak ‘sit down’ and the imperfective suffix, the resulting meaning is ‘live (in a location)’. This possibly confirms the preference for selection of the GO auxiliary for atelic, ongoing, imperfective, situations.

Green (1989) and Reid (1990) respectively show the use of the intransitive GO auxiliary in both Marrithiyel and Ngan'gitjemerrri with the normally transitive coverb ‘break’.

86
Mthyl.

(113) fundi thawurr gani –git -a
    arm tree 3sS.R’go’ –cut.sever -past

    The branch of the tree broke off (spontaneously, as a result of internal forces).

    [Marrithiyel, Green 1989:370]

Ng.

(114) yerr–ba yenim-pal
    tr-arm 3sgGo-break
    cl SU Pres

    The branch is broken off.

    [Ngan’gityemerri, Reid 1990:ex.4-39b]

Ng.

(115) ye –nim –pal
    3sgS –GO –break

    It is broken.

    [Ngan’gityemerri, Green and Reid conference hand out #14b]

According to Reid (1990), ‘break’ usually occurs with transitive auxiliaries such as ‘hands’ in Ngan’gityemerri. This collocation results in causative constructions. In contrast, the above examples have a resultant anticausative reading when ‘break’ and the GO auxiliary combine. In the anticausative constructions, the undergoer is realised as the subject. The same reading can be found in MalakMalak where the gender and number of the auxiliary agree with the NP.

MM.

(116) wurur –nen tapak wuda
    arm –encl? break 3wM-GO.past

    The branch (of the tree) broke.

    [BL, S13, 10/8/06]

and
(117) ngun tapak wude –narra
dem break 3wM-GO.pres ?

It’s broken. [BL, S15, 14/8/06]

In the above example, the demonstrative refers to a stick that was broken. Example (118) shows that the DO auxiliary is used to describe the punctual event that results in a broken stick i.e. the causative action.

(118) tapak niminy –Ø
break 3fM-DO.punct –3iMO

She broke it (the stick). [BL, S15, 14/8/06]

MalakMalak does not cross-reference inanimate objects thus zero marking is attributed to the otherwise unspecified argument. The causative function of DO will be returned to in §4.3. The analysis offered however, in (118) is supported by the use of the NP to refer to the object in the following example:

(119) nanyilk pit –nga tapak aya
hand nail –1EMposs break 1EM-DO.punct

I broke my finger-nail. [BL, S15, 14/8/06]

I therefore propose that the GO auxiliary acts to detransitivise the transitive coverb tapak ‘break something’. In returning to the anticausative reading of the GO auxiliary, it is evident that in contrast to the NP used in (119) the sentence-initial NP in the following examples specifies the possessed NP that has been broken.

(120) pimeli –nga tapak wuda –(arriny –dya)
elbow –1EMposs break 3wM-GO.past –(1EMO -?)

My elbow has broken. [BL, S15, 14/8/06]
The agreement between the auxiliary prefix and the (possessed) NP as opposed to agreement with the possessor indicates that these constructions are not causative. However, a normal intransitive construction would not call for the cross-referencing of the Direct Object that is presented above. The parentheses around the bound Direct Object pronoun in (120) show that the speaker proposed that -arriny is in fact optional i.e. an oblique pronoun. The following is an example of the anticausative without the object pronoun:

\[
\text{(122) wilit \text{-nga} \tapak yida} \\
\text{shin \text{\text{-1EMposs}} \text{break 3mM-GO.past}} \\
\text{My lower leg (shin) has broken.} \\
\text{[BL, S13, 10/8/06]}
\]

Note the absence of the object pronoun. This is convincing evidence for the use of the transitive coverb in an intransitive construction. Additionally note the inconsistency between the first person exclusive singular possessive clitic with the third person masculine auxiliary prefix. I propose that this inconsistency is evidence of an anticausative interpretation since the absence of a first person exclusive word form of GO suggests that the possessor is not employed as an active participant in the situation described.

Example (116) and the following confirm that the anticausative reading can also result from references to free, i.e. not possessed, referent.

\[
\text{(123) wurur \text{-nen} \taparruk.tyelk \text{woeta}} \\
\text{arm \text{-encl?} \text{break (plO) (PRD).fall down 3wM-GO.past}} \\
\text{The branches (of the tree) broke and fell.} \\
\text{[BL, S13, 10/9/06]}
\]

\[32\text{ Birk offers a literal interpretation of (121), \\
\text{“Spear has broken (to) me” (Birk 1976:127) that could} \\
\text{be applied to the interpretation of (120): ‘My elbow has broken ((to) me).}}\]
Whilst the proposed translation was originally “The woman fell in a hole and she broke her (upper) leg”, the gender inconsistency between the subject of the final auxiliary (masculine) and the subject of the rest of the utterance (feminine) confirms that the final clause is better interpreted as an anticausative construction resulting in the given meaning. The *alawar* ‘woman’ is adversely affected by the involuntary event 'break'. Further note that the form of this final clause (NP coverb aux-O) is in accordance with Birk’s example provided earlier (121).

\[
\begin{align*}
(124) & \quad \text{warrama tyelk nunda alawar noende dimin --nan tyet tapak yida --ngayi --wa} \\
& \quad \text{walk fall 2M- woman 3fM- hole --loc leg break 3mM- --3fMO -?} \\
& \quad \text{GO,past GO,pres GO,past}
\end{align*}
\]

The woman fell in a hole and her leg (upper) broke.33 [BL, S13, 10/9/06]

4.1.4.2. Non-motion transitive CV constructions

While I have previously shown that the GO auxiliary can occur with both transitive and intransitive motion coverbs, it also often occurs in non-motion transitive CVCs. The fact that the GO auxiliary does not cross-reference objects when it occurs by itself indicates that the relevant coverb contributes the second argument in transitive clauses.

By examining a variety of transitive CVCs, it is clear that the imperfective --*ma* suffix occurs in many CVCs employing the GO auxiliary. As previously mentioned, Birk regards this affixation as a type of process that he calls “-*ma* conversion” (Birk 1976:90) that makes the coverb “accessible” (Birk 1976:90) to the GO auxiliary.

It generally appears as though the non-motion transitive coverbs that are presented here cooccur with the GO auxiliary by default. Perfective, punctual information is the result of DO auxiliary selection and the postural auxiliaries can potentially encode

33 As an additional note, the masculine realisation of *tyet* 'thigh' in (124) shows that according to the animacy hierarchy in MalakMalak, at least parts of the leg are considered to encode a higher level of animacy than other body parts such as ‘elbow’ (see (120)).
often-irrelevant postural information. Furthermore, while the postural auxiliaries are static, the GO auxiliary is dynamic yet non-perfective, unlike the DO auxiliary. Thus, the GO auxiliary is selected by default by coverbs that would be semantically incongruous with the other auxiliaries. Although exceptions occur, it is generally evident that the GO auxiliary is selected for encoding atelic forms of situations.

(125) yalnap –m’ ada –ngayi
like? –impf 1EM-GO.past –3fMO
I like her (that woman). [BL, S8, 2/8/06]

(126) nguluk parrkut nen talktalk ada –ngayi
language white fella enclitic? talk (RDP) 1EA-GO.past –3fMO
I talk language to her (white woman). [BL, S5.8, 28/7/06]

(127) ngun lamlam m’ ede –woerroe ngun wutu –we
dem talk (RDP) –impf? 1EM-GO.pres –3AuO dem 3Au-SIT.pres ?
I speak to them (big group) all the time. [BL, S5.1, 28/7/06]

(128) nikita –many taty –ma yida –nen myiny
what –dpf (for) hit –impf 3mM-GO.? –enclitic dog
Why is he always hitting that dog? [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

(129) akana taty ada –ngayi –wa
neg hit 1EM-GO.past –3fM ?
I never hit her. [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

The following set of examples show that the GO auxiliary occurs in non-punctual, progressive CVCs.
(130) *kanyak m’ ada pana
    cough –impf 1EM-GO.past iter adv
    I coughed again. [BL, S5.7, 28/7/06]

(131) *elimirimany mi ngak -m’ ada
    before food (veg) eat (veg) –impf 1EM-GO.past
    We used to eat lots of bush tucker before. [JT, Green, p.47]

(132) *tarat -m’ ada –ngayi –wa puwarini –many akana tat.wa
    look/see (pIO?) –impf 1EM-GO.past –3fMO ? morning –dpf neg see.pick up
    =find
    I was looking for her (dog) all morning but I didn’t find (her). [BL, S16, 2006]

### 4.1.5. Conclusions

The GO auxiliary can occur in intransitive and transitive motion and non-motion
CVCs. It does not however, introduce second arguments to transitive CVCs. Apart
from its literal and associated ‘motion’ functions, the GO auxiliary can encode
ascriptive, atelic, and anticausative situations.

### 4.2. GO* auxiliary

The GO* auxiliary is the second auxiliary that encodes ‘motion’ in MalakMalak.
Interestingly, whilst Tryon (1974) presents an (incomplete) paradigm for a verb class
that is now referred to as the GO auxiliary, there is no mention of a second auxiliary
encoding ‘motion’ referring only to five “verb classes” (1974:8). He describes the GO
auxiliary as mainly occurring with “…verbs denoting actions of a type involving
physical movement of the actor from one place to another” (1974:11) but does not
distinguish an additional movement auxiliary. Nonetheless, it is not unusual for a
Daly language to feature two auxiliaries that both encode semantically different
functions of ‘motion’. Ngan’gityemerri has two dynamic movement auxiliaries, ‘go’
and ‘go*’ that encode ‘motion’ and ‘travel’ respectively (McGregor 2002). According
to McGregor’s (2002) cross-linguistic observations, languages featuring CVCs similar to MalakMalak will often distinguish between encoding general motion and more purposeful motion events. The following section describes the functions of the GO* auxiliary in MalakMalak.

Table 4.2 shows Green’s description of the GO* auxiliary.

Table 4.2. The GO* auxiliary paradigm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1IM</td>
<td>angguwurra</td>
<td>enengoewoerre</td>
<td>enengoewoereny</td>
<td>enengoedoerrang</td>
<td>enngoenoerrang</td>
</tr>
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<td>ewoerre</td>
<td>ewoereny</td>
<td>edoerrangg</td>
<td>enoerrang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2M</td>
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<td>noemboerre</td>
<td>noemboereny</td>
<td>noendoerrang</td>
<td>noenoerrang</td>
</tr>
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<td>3fM</td>
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<td>noenoerrang</td>
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<td>noegutoerrang</td>
<td>noenggoenoerrang</td>
</tr>
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<td>woerroerre</td>
<td>woerroereny</td>
<td>woetoerrang</td>
<td>woerroenoerrang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Birk notes that the GO* auxiliary has an iterative function in addition to its semantic function ‘motion’. Similarly to the other auxiliaries described thus far, Birk also attributes a deictic function to the GO* auxiliary that he glosses as ‘yonder (away from speaker)’ (1976:58).

\[(133)\] **wurrk** moewoerrra  
big fire 3mM-GO*.pres

Bush fire goes on (burning) a long way off. [Birk, ex.156, 1976:58]
Once again, I did not find evidence to support this deictic function however; my own data does not generally feature many examples featuring this auxiliary. On this note, currently it appears that at least anecdotally, the GO* auxiliary is rarely used. This became especially evident when BL indicated that a combination such as poeny ‘pregnant’ and the GO* auxiliary was “old fashioned” (2006). Nonetheless, according to BL, the GO* auxiliary can be used in associated motion constructions and “means walking” (BL, August 2006). The following example taken from Birk, simply meant that the subject was listening as he walked34.

(134) yoentoen tyeyantak –ma yoewoenrey
   3mM listen –impf 2M-GO*.impf
   He keeps on listening over there. [Birk, ex.161, 1976:58]

As mentioned (§4.1.2) both Green and Birk also found associated motion constructions.

(135) lak -m’ awoerra
   eat(meat) –impf 1EM-GO*.pres/past?
   I go along eating/I went along eating. [JT, Green, p.46]

In addition to the literal uses of the GO* auxiliary, both Green and Birk found that it can encode iterative activities. Birk glosses this function as “‘keep on/go on doing (something)’” (1976:57).

(136) anda, yoewoerra tyoeng yinnga
   all right 3mM-GO*.pres fire loc
   The meat is cooking. [JT, Green, p.46]

34 Speakers are also able to use coverbs that specifically encode this motion activity ‘walk’ telpoenoek or ‘walk slowly’ tapat.
Leave the rest(?) to go on cooking, you fellas wait, I’m watching it.  

[JT, Green, p 46]

The meat goes on hanging there.  

[Birk, ex.158, 1976:58]

Attempts to elicit an iterative function of the GO* auxiliary in my own fieldwork did not prompt the speaker to use the auxiliary. Alternatively BL used the coverb tapali that Birk glosses as ‘have something for a long time/be married’, or the GO auxiliary.

He keeps on hitting that dog.  

[BL, S7, 1/8/06]

He (that bird) keeps crying.  

[BL, S7, 1/8/06]

These two examples however do not provide evidence to suggest that speakers no longer use the GO* auxiliary in iterative constructions but in conjunction with the anecdotal evidence provided, they do suggest that more data featuring the GO* auxiliary is required to establish the current functions of the GO* auxiliary. The suggestion that the GO* auxiliary at least previously had an iterative function is

---

35 Having said this I think that a more appropriate meaning for ( ) would be non-iterative ‘He (the bird) is crying’.
supported by Reid’s (1990) observation that the two motion auxiliaries in Ngan’gityemerri are both used in iterative and habitual activities.

4.2.1. Conclusions

Whilst more investigation is required to comprehensively describe the GO* auxiliaries functions, we do know that it assumes a motion function of something akin to ‘going along’. The fact that BL referred to it as ‘walking’ possibly suggests an inherent iterative function since the activity of walking can be broken down into a series of ongoing and repetitive actions. Additionally, any semantic differences that may exist between the GO and GO* auxiliaries in their literal functions has not been established. Both auxiliaries can cooccur with elative and allative coverbs. Perhaps, as just mentioned, the iterative function of GO* is also inherent in its literal function of movement.

4.3. DO auxiliary

I have already suggested that the DO auxiliary is inherently perfective. This is supported by the fact that a) unless lexicalised, the durative suffix –ma is not employed by a coverb when it collocates with the DO auxiliary and b) as Table 4.3 shows, the TAM inflections for the DO auxiliary do not encode ongoing situations i.e. when coverbs combine with the DO auxiliary, a non-continuous, punctiliar reading results. The forthcoming discussion considers a variety of coverb-DO auxiliary combinations and motivations for DO auxiliary selection. It shows that in accordance with its perfective nature, constructions are more often punctual than not. There are also some stative coverbs that can combine with the DO auxiliary. An additional previously proposed function of the DO auxiliary is its causative force. This will be considered for both static and achievement situations.

This discussion of the functions of the DO auxiliary also focuses on Birk’s claim that the DO auxiliary is a “transitivity index” (Birk 1976:47) which is motivated by his observation that 96% of the transitive coverbs in his sample are able to cooccur with
the DO auxiliary\textsuperscript{36}. Recalling that the transitive coverbs are able to combine with other auxiliaries however, I investigate the possibility that the DO auxiliary itself actively contributes to argument structure as opposed to passively indexing transitive constructions.

Before considering the data associated with the above proposals, I provide Birk’s observations of the function of the DO auxiliary.

Table 4.3. shows the DO auxiliary word forms provided by Green.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Punctiliar</th>
<th>Sequential</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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<td>enggoendoen</td>
<td>enggoedoeme</td>
<td>enggunma</td>
<td>anggundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EM</td>
<td>aya</td>
<td>ewoendoen</td>
<td>edoeme</td>
<td>enma</td>
<td>awundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2M</td>
<td>nunydyana</td>
<td>noewoendoen</td>
<td>noendoeme</td>
<td>noenma</td>
<td>nuwundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3fM</td>
<td>niminy</td>
<td>woewoendoen</td>
<td>noenme</td>
<td>noenma</td>
<td>nuwundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3mM</td>
<td>yiminy</td>
<td>woewoendoen</td>
<td>yinme</td>
<td>yinma</td>
<td>wuwundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3MM</td>
<td>muya</td>
<td>moewoendoen</td>
<td>moenme</td>
<td>moenma</td>
<td>muwundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3wM</td>
<td>wuya</td>
<td>woewoendoen</td>
<td>woenme</td>
<td>woenma</td>
<td>wuwundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1IAu</td>
<td>arrguny</td>
<td>errgoendoen</td>
<td>errdoeme</td>
<td>errgunma</td>
<td>errgundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EAu</td>
<td>arruny</td>
<td>erroendoen</td>
<td>etoeme</td>
<td>errunma</td>
<td>errundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2Au</td>
<td>nunggurrny</td>
<td>nunggoerroendoen</td>
<td>nugoetoeme</td>
<td>nunggurrunma</td>
<td>nunggurrundu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3Au</td>
<td>wirrminy</td>
<td>woerroendoen</td>
<td>woetoeme</td>
<td>woerroenma</td>
<td>wurrundu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following list highlights some observations and functions that Birk assigns to the DO auxiliary.

1. The DO auxiliary does not have a semantic function and unlike the other auxiliaries cannot occur independently of a coverb.

\textsuperscript{36} Of Birk's sample of transitive coverbs, 8 are unable to select for DO. These are \textit{kurrp.wa.pi} (pull, pick up, go) ‘drag’, \textit{mittyerrat} (\textit{pelyi}) ‘paint (ceremonially)’, \textit{tultu} ‘dislike’, \textit{tey} ‘wait (for)’, \textit{pitinytyet} ‘dislike’, \textit{tyeowoer tarkaty} ‘remind’, \textit{wakuty} ‘throw away’, \textit{yipi} ‘leave’ (Birk 1976:118).
2. As stated, Birk’s reference to the DO auxiliary as a ‘transitivity index’ is an inference based on his observation that utterances featuring the DO auxiliary are, with some exceptions (to be discussed), transitive constructions.

3. The ‘Punctiliar’ paradigm of the DO auxiliary has an “aspectually perfective force… [that] describes unique events.” (Birk 1976:49). In contrast, the ‘Sequential’ paradigm is used to “express serial actions” (Birk 1976:49).

4. MalakMalak does not feature a transitive marker but Birk briefly mentions that the DO auxiliary has an “extremely limited” (1976:52) transitivising capacity. Interestingly, this capacity is limited to the semantically cognate coverbs for the LIE and STAND auxiliaries. The intransitive coverbs yur ‘lie down’ and tyet ‘stand’ that each normally select for their relevant auxiliaries can select for DO to created a transitive (causative) construction.

(141) tyangar yur aya pawurrik -an
   spear lay 1EM-DO.punct floor -loc
   I lay spear on floor. [Bk, ex.123, 1976:52]

(142) antuk tyet erroentoen
   house put up 1EA-DO.sequ
   We (ex) erect(ed) the house. [Birk, ex.124, 1976:53]

The remainder of this chapter reviews and elaborates these four functions with reference to recent data.

4.3.1. The DO auxiliary as an independent verbal constituent

Similarly to Birk, I found that the DO auxiliary does not occur independently of a coverb. This is not an unanticipated limitation of the DO auxiliary as it does not contribute additional semantic meaning information to CVCs. Nonetheless, the role of the DO auxiliary in the following data is interesting to consider briefly since if it can
in fact occurring independently of a coverb, the DO auxiliary itself has its own intransitive classification in SVCs.

\[(143)a\] aman nunma –wa
interg 2M-DO.fut ？
What are you doing?

\[(b)\] aman woerroenma –wa
interg 3Au-DO.fut ？
What are they doing?

\[(c)\] aman anggunma –wa
interg 1M-DO.fut ？
What are we (you and I) doing?

\[(d)\] *aman wunma –wa
interg 3wM-DO.fut ？

Birk (ex.116, 1976:52) also provides a similar example using the purposive and glossing *aman ‘what?’ as an interrogative adverb. He also specifically notes that it can only occur with the DO auxiliary. Green (pers. comm.) however questions whether *aman is a particle or a coverb that encodes its own event. This question requires further research in relation to the argument structure of the DO auxiliary.

### 4.3.2. The transitivity index

As mentioned, Birk observes that 96% of the coverbs that combine with the DO auxiliary form transitive constructions. Birk does not offer explanations for this and does not explicitly consider whether the auxiliary, the coverb, or both verbal elements are transitive. We can however assume that the DO auxiliary does not alone contribute the second argument to transitive constructions considering the following imperative construction in which an object pronoun is cross-referenced by the coverb. In its basic form, the coverb is bivalent.

\[(144)\] taty tyak arriny
hit stop 1EMO
Stop hitting me!

[BL, S7, 1/8/06]
Such examples lead to Birk’s implied conclusion that the DO auxiliary indexes transitive CVCs, but does not function as a transitive auxiliary. Birk possibly regards transitive coverb-DO auxiliary combinations as occurring by default when the situation requires no additional semantic information. However, he does not allow for the possibility that DO is in fact a transitive auxiliary that does not occur independently of a coverb since it has no semantic function.

In his introduction to auxiliary verb morphology, Birk states that intransitive coverbs do not usually cooccur with the DO auxiliary. He notes 12 exceptions to this sample-based observation (1976:118):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ngirrk</th>
<th>‘die’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>apap</td>
<td>‘sick/tired’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manpurity</td>
<td>‘be satisfied’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manwiyukngirrk</td>
<td>‘be starving’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nit</td>
<td>‘tell a lie’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tum</td>
<td>‘inhale’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wungwung</td>
<td>‘feel contented’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yakayakay</td>
<td>‘scream’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanyak</td>
<td>‘cough’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tumpurrk</td>
<td>‘hiccough’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tyirrya</td>
<td>‘sneeze’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nge</td>
<td>‘breathe’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no further mention of these ‘exceptions’, yet the list alone prompts some additional observations and possible alternative motivations for the resultant exceptional combinations. After offering some interesting observations concerning these rogue coverbs I will return to exploring possible motivations for the selection of the DO auxiliary by so many transitive coverbs and so few supposedly intransitive coverbs.
One interesting semantic observation regarding these deviant ‘intransitive’ coverbs is that they all can be related to bodily functions specifically involving the lungs and stomach. This observation is supported by the appearance of *man ‘stomach*’ as the first morpheme for two of the coverbs.

As mentioned, one suggestion to consider is that the DO auxiliary is selected by default i.e. when a speaker does not require additional semantic information. Thus, being the only semantically ‘empty’ auxiliary, the DO auxiliary is selected. This is supported by the fact that the listed coverbs are able to combine with other auxiliaries to encode with different meanings. Compare the following two examples that use the DO auxiliary and the SIT auxiliary with the same coverb.

(145) kanyak aya
cough 1EM-DO.punct
I coughed

37 Based on Hopper and Thompson’s (1980) continuum of transitivity, Peter Austin proposes that transitivity in some Australian languages is not as rigid as previously considered. Dixon’s steadfast statement that “Every verb in an Australian language is strictly transitive – occurring with subject (A) and object (O) core NPs-or strictly intransitive – occurring just with a subject (S) core NP.” (Dixon 1980) is challenged by Austin’s re-analysis of transitivity in a handful of Australian languages. Austin briefly examines ‘deviant’ verbs that appear in constructions with what he calls ‘cognate objects’. I will not examine the details of both types of subcategorisation evaluated by Austin.

The type of argument structure in question is illustrated by the use of certain verbs in Bandj랄ang, a northern New South Wales language (e.g. *ginjaama* ‘defecate’, *jaluba* ‘urinate’, *birrma* ‘yawn’, *ngaari* ‘dance’, *banma* ‘put on’ (clothing), *yarrbi* ‘sing’, *walbi* ‘make’ (noise), *juuma* ‘smoke (cigarette)*). This selection of verbs can occur with a transitive subject NP but never take a transitive object. Instead, the object is ‘understood’. In the following example, ‘some urine’ is the understood object and *jaluba* ‘urinate’ is the cognate object.

*mali -yu jaajam –bu jaluba –ni*
that –erg child –erg urinate –past definite

Austin classifies such a construction as neither wholly transitive nor intransitive. It does however fall somewhere on Hopper and Thompson’s continuum of transitivity. The absence of an object suggests an intransitive construction however the ergative case-marking suggests otherwise. This proposition can be used when considering the collocation of the aforementioned intransitive coverbs with the DO auxiliary.

Reflecting on some of these listed coverbs, we can see that the cognate object template X an X can be applied. For example one can ‘cough a cough’, ‘die a death’, ‘lie a lie’, ‘scream a scream’, ‘hiccough a hiccough’, ‘sneeze a sneeze’ and ‘breathe a breath’. The remaining coverbs are stative and will be examined in turn. Additional verbs treated as cognate objects in the other languages featured in Austin’s paper include ‘to speak’, ‘to lie’, ‘to wear’ (clothing), ‘to be painted’ (a pattern), ‘to dance’ (a ceremony), ‘to speak’ (a language), ‘sleep’, ‘to fear’, ‘to play’ (a game), ‘to walk’.
If this hypothesis were indeed correct, however, it is necessary to discern why most inherently intransitive coverbs do not habitually select for this same auxiliary.

A second suggestion considers the underlying role of aspect and Aktionsart in not just these, but all coverb-DO auxiliary combinations.

4.3.3. Aspect and Aktionsart

Based on different Aktionsart classifications, the coverbs that can cooccur with the DO auxiliary can be divided into the following two groups.

According to Vendler (1967), achievement and state situations can be perfective whereas actions and accomplishments are progressive, allowing imperfective aspects of the situations. The following data is presented with the aim of resolving whether viewpoint and situation aspect of the situation, and/or the underlying aspect of the auxiliary and/or coverb restrict/allow particular coverb-auxiliary combinations.

The proposal that the DO auxiliary encodes achievements and states is supported by the observation that the suffix that encodes ongoing situations (−ma) cannot appear
with the DO auxiliary. I subsequently propose that the DO auxiliary encodes punctual achievements and states.

The remainder of this chapter presents data that features a range of coverbs collocating with the DO auxiliary. Where possible, direct comparisons to the use of the same coverb with different auxiliaries are provided. Note that in Birk’s sample, there is no coverb that exclusively collocates with the DO auxiliary although he does observe a number of coverbs that cannot select the DO auxiliary. Many of these limitations are intuitively expected e.g. *pi* ‘go’ and *tyelk.yur* ‘bend over’.

Examples (147) and (148) show that the classically transitive event ‘hit’ commonly occurs with the DO auxiliary when encoding a single, punctual event.

(147) nga minydyidek taty yiminy arriny
    1EM emph PN hit 3mM-DO.punct 1EMO
    He hit me, myself. [JT, Green, p.49]

(148) taty yiminy –noe pana
    hit 3mM-DO.punct –3mMO iterative adv(again)
    He hit the dog again (once). [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

In contrast, the following examples show that iterative and habitual events i.e. non-singular events do not use the DO auxiliary.

(149) muyiny taty –m’ ayu
    dog hit –impf 1EM-STAND/LIE.past
    I hit the dog twice. [BL, S8, 2/8/06]

---

38 tyelk ‘fall down’ occurs with motion and LIE auxiliaries and yur ‘lie down’ occurs with the LIE auxiliary. According to Birk, the compound coverb *tyelk.yur* ‘bend over’ exclusively collocates with the LIE auxiliary.
These examples show that as I have already presented, the DO auxiliary is not the only auxiliary capable of encoding transitive events. Example (151) additionally confirms that the –ma suffix is necessary for the coverb to select auxiliaries other than DO.

\[(151) \text{*muyiny taty ayu}\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{dog} \quad \text{hit} \quad \text{1EM-STAND/LIE.past}
\end{array}
\]

As mentioned, the punctiliar encodes punctual, singular events and is an inflection exclusive to the DO auxiliary. It encodes a perfective force. The use of the coverb in its basic form (no durative suffix) with the DO auxiliary suggests that the taty ‘hit’ coverb is aspectually complementary to the DO auxiliary. That is to say, the coverb is inherently perfective. When the coverb is marked for durativity (-ma suffix) and occurs with one of the other auxiliaries, this perfectivity is over-ridden. The following selection of examples featuring different coverbs supports this analysis.

Example (152) shows the use of the unmarked form of the coverb tat ‘see/look’ as the predicate for a single moment in time. It encodes an achievement as opposed to the progressive activity that is represented by the use of the durative suffix and GO auxiliary in (153).

\[(152) \text{tat aya} \quad \text{–noe}\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{see} \quad \text{1EM-DO.punct} \quad \text{–3mMO}
\end{array}
\]

I saw him.

\[(153) \text{nga –we tarat} \quad \text{–m’ ede} \quad \text{madyan muluk –noe}\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{1EM} \quad \text{–foc? see/look(RDP)(plO) –impf} \quad \text{1EM-GO.pres shoes} \quad \text{–int}
\end{array}
\]

I’m looking for (my) shoes

[BL, S17, 16/8/06]
Both examples are transitive constructions suggesting that *tat* ‘see/look’ is a bivalent coverb. This perfective/imperfective contrast is also evident in intransitive CVCs (note that *tyirrya* ‘sneeze’)

(154) *tyirrya aya*

sneeze 1EM-DO.punct

I sneezed [JT, Green, p.23]

(155) *tyirrya -m’ enu -wa*

sneeze –imf 1EM-SIT.past?

I was sneezing [JT, Green, p.23]

The following example is especially interesting. MalakMalak allows the juxtaposition of two or more coverbs. They can appear as a) compounded coverbs where the two coverbs have been lexicalised to form one lexical entry, b) phonologically separate sequential events/actions, or c) serialised coverbs. Example (156) features the juxtaposed coverbs *kum* ‘bury’ and *tyet* ‘stand/ plant’\(^{39}\) but separates the motion and non-motion events by using two different auxiliaries.

(156) *de murut pi yida kum tyet yiminy*

clf (meat) bone go 3mM-GO.past bury stand/plant 3mM-DO.punct

He (the dog) buried the bone. [BL, S17, 16/8/06]

Another feature distinguishing the two events is aspectual. The first is imperfective and the second is a perfective achievement and thus collocates with the punctiliar form of the DO auxiliary. Another interesting point is that the DO auxiliary is selected in preference to the STAND auxiliary that would be expected to cooccur with *tyet* ‘plant/stand’.

\(^{39}\) Further inquiry is required to determine if these two coverbs actually form a compound coverb.
Another intransitive coverb listed as exceptionally occurring with the DO auxiliary is the punctual use of *ngirrk* ‘die’.

(157) *ngirrk yiminy*

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
die & 3mM-DO.punct \\
\end{array}
\]

He died. [BL, S7a, 1/8/06]

and

(b) *muyiny ngirrk yiminy*

\[
\begin{array}{lll}
dog & die & 3mM-DO.punct \\
\end{array}
\]

The dog died. [JT, Green, 26/11/06]

When attempting to elicit the MalakMalak for the imperfective form of ‘die’ e.g. ‘He is dying’, the following was offered:

(158) *apap wirrk yiminy eyarra*

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
tired/sick & finish & 3mM-DO.punct & now \\
\end{array}
\]

He’s very sick. [BL, S7a, 1/8/06]

Green’s field-notes show that *wirrk* ‘finish’ is a less direct option to imply ‘die’. Interestingly *apap* ‘tired/sick’ is one of the stative coverbs that can exceptionally select the DO auxiliary. The given translation was provided by BL and could possibly be interpreted as meaning ‘He was so sick that he died’ however it is also possible that both coverbs are stative. Further investigation into the imperfective form of ‘die’ is required.

The combination of stative coverbs with the DO auxiliary is a collocation that supports the analysis that the DO auxiliary encodes non-progressive i.e. perfective situations. Vendler (1967) groups achievements and states together as non-progressive situations and the basic forms of the coverbs (unmarked for
imperfectivity) that occur with the DO auxiliary generally encode achievement and stative expressions that are therefore non-progressive.

(159) nga apap aya
   1EM tired/sick 1EM-DO.punct
   I’m tired.

2/8/06]

160) nigata –many apap nunydy? apap
   what –dpf tired 2M-DO.punct
   Why are you tired?

[BL, S16,
15/8/06]

(161) wak menyik ar aya
   water ? dry 1EM-DO.punct
   I’m thirsty.

[BL, S4b,
24/4/06]

(162) menwiyuyn aya
   hungry 1EM-DO.punct
   I’m hungry now

[JT, Green,
p.21]

More investigation into stative constructions is required to establish which coverbs occur with which auxiliaries and why.

In section §4.1.4.1 I suggested that the DO auxiliary has a causative force as opposed to the anticausative function of the GO auxiliary. Before exploring this possibility however, it is necessary to note that MalakMalak also features the coverb tut ‘cause’ which according to Birk, can cooccur with all six auxiliaries. Here are some recent examples of the tut coverb combining with the STAND or LIE, GO and DO auxiliaries.
tut + STAND/LIE auxiliary (most likely LIE since tyelk ‘fall down’ that usually occurs with GO, can occur with the LIE auxiliary):

(163) dembel tut.tyelk.tut.tyelk –ma wiyoem
       leaf    cause.fall down(RDP) –impf 3wM-STAND/LIE.pres
       The leaves fall (in ariwarik season). [BL, S16, 15/8/06]

(164) eyikeyik tut.tyet wiyanginy
       black(RDP) cause.stand 3wM-STAND.impf
       It went black. [BL, S16, 15/8/06]

tut + STAND auxiliary:

(165) wak -tyaen tut woengyoem
       water –make?/comit? cause 3wM-GO.impf
       It’s becoming wet outside. [BL, S6.2, 25/4/06]

tut + GO auxiliary:

(166) mawuny lenggerrk tut aya
       clothes clean cause 1EM-DO.punct
       I make the clothes clean. [BL, S6.1, 25/4/06]

Additionally however, the causative forms of coverbal predicates that do not rely on the tut ‘cause’ coverb for a causative force tend to occur with the DO auxiliary.
(167) tapak aya -Ø
   break 1EM-DO.punct –3iMO
I broke it.                [JT, Green, 26/11/90, p.8]

(168) alawar ngun tapak niminy -Ø
   woman dem break 3fM-DO.punct 3iMO
The woman broke it         [BL, S13, 10/8/06]

MalakMalak features two coverbs that encode ‘cut’ that like the previous examples result in a change of state (resultative). Both the coverbs ngerrp ‘cut’ and tyurrp ‘cut’ can occur with the DO auxiliary (169) and (170). This combination allows the situation to be viewed as a whole (perfective).

(169) pundumet ngerrp anma -wa
   hair cut 1EM-DO.fut ?
I’ll cut my hair.            [JT, Green, p.49]

(170) tyung –nen tyurrp enma –wa
   tree –dem cut 1EM-DO.fut ?
I’ll cut that tree.          [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

The following uses of tyurrp/tyurrptyurrp ‘cut’ however show that situations requiring imperfective interpretation requires the durative suffix and non-DO auxiliary selection(171) and (172).

(171) muda -noe tyurrptyurrp -m’ eni -wa
   afterwards –dat/3mMO cut (RDP) –impf 1EM-SIT.fut ?
I’ll cut it up later.        [BL, S5.10, 28/7/06]
Yesterday I was cutting up the tucker. [BL, S5.10, 28/7/06]

I’ll cut him a few times. [BL, S7, 1/8/06]

4.3.3.1. Conclusions

The DO auxiliary has been shown to occur in both intransitive and transitive CVCs. Its causative force reiterates its potential to encode transitive events and the fact that it never occurs with imperfectively marked coverbs suggests that it has an inherently perfective function.

4.3.4. DO auxiliary function Conclusions

I have shown that the DO auxiliary commonly encodes perfective events and static situations. It cannot occur with coverbs that are marked for imperfectivity thus, the situations it encodes tend to be non-progressive achievements and some states. The DO auxiliary does occur with many transitive coverbs however argument structure does not seem to be the only motivation for coverbs to cooccur with this auxiliary since they can also occur with other auxiliaries. Nonetheless, the possibility that a causative force can be ascribed to the DO auxiliary, and in contrast an anticausative function to the GO auxiliary suggests that the DO auxiliary is the default auxiliary for resultative events. More investigation is required into the role of the tut ‘cause’ coverb, and other causative constructions in MalakMalak. Additionally, more investigation into enduring states is required.
Chapter 5

5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1. Summaries of auxiliary functions

In this thesis I have provided an account of verbal functions in MalakMalak. The functions of the six semantically variable auxiliaries in both simple and complex verb constructions have been presented. After an overview of the language situation and a brief cross-linguistic account of verb-coverb constructions, Chapters 3 and 4 specifically described the way in which the different auxiliaries are used in a range of constructions in MalakMalak. Some of these functions have been pre-described by Birk (1976) and were thus discussed in light of more recent fieldwork, whereas other functions have been identified in this thesis only.
The argument structure of SV and CV constructions has been a particular focus, in particular to determine how the argument structure of the complex predicate is composed: is the second argument in transitive construction contributed by the auxiliary, the coverb, or both? Whilst the data indicates that a number of auxiliaries can occur independently of coverbs, forming intransitive constructions, in some cases it could not be conclusively determined that the coverb alone always contributes the second argument in transitive constructions.

The motivations for and limitations on certain coverb-auxiliary combinations is an extensive area of investigation. I have proposed that aspect and Aktionsart classifications can influence particular collocations, however a full examination of aspectual functions in MalakMalak remains pending. I do however suggest that whilst auxiliaries encode their own Aktionsart classification in SVCs, this is over-ridden by the Aktionsart of the relevant coverb(s) in CVCs. Thus, in CVCs, the auxiliary potentially encodes the range of aspectual functions relevant to its TAM inflections.

The following six schemas provide a summary of functions and observations for each auxiliary in MalakMalak. Following this review I will discuss topics for future research to which the presented analyses can contribute.

**SIT aux** → contributes postural information of ‘in a sitting position’ to situations
   → can occur independently of a coverb, and cannot cross-reference a Direct Object in SVCs. It is thus intransitive
   → can occur in transitive CVCs
   → assumes a stative function in SVCs that is over-ridden by the Aktionsart of coverbs in CVCs.
   → has the semantic extension (non-literal function) ‘stay’.

**LIE aux** → contributes postural information of ‘in a lying position’ to situations
   → can occur independently of a coverb and is then intransitive but usually occurs with a coverb that encodes either a stative ‘lie’ or dynamic ‘lie down’
function
→ usually cooccurs with semantically related coverbs e.g. sleep
→ can occur in transitive CVCs
→ whilst it appears that the LIE auxiliary functions as a stative auxiliary in SVCs, this Aktionsart is over-ridden by the type of situation encoded by coverbs in CVCs.

**STAND aux**  → contributes postural information of ‘in a standing position’ to situations
→ can occur independently of a coverb in a stative function but usually cooccurs with coverbs encoding ‘stand’ or ‘stand up’.
→ as with the LIE and SIT auxiliaries, the stative Aktionsart of the auxiliary is over-ridden by the type of situation encoded by coverbs in CVCs
→ can occur in transitive CVCs
→ has non-literal function of ‘become’ when occurring in inchoative constructions.

**GO aux** → can encode motion events and associated motion events
→ can assume a copula function in ascriptive clauses with animate subjects
→ frequently occurs with coverbs marked for durativity
→ is intransitive when occurring on its own but can occur in transitive constructions.

**GO* aux** → can encode motion and associated motion events
→ possibly has an iterative function
→ can occur in intransitive and transitive CVCs
→ GO auxiliary possibly used in preference to the GO* auxiliary to encode motion events by current speakers.

**DO aux** → does not assume a semantic function
→ does not cooccur with coverbs encoding durative events
→ frequently encodes punctual events (achievements) yet can also occur in some
  stative constructions
→ does not appear to occur on its own
→ frequently occurs in transitive CVCs

An account of how speakers naturally use each of these auxiliaries e.g. in discourse, was not achievable given the time and access limitations to speakers. However, there are certain factors that would anecdotally support Anderson’s (2006) premise that auxiliaries are in a constant state of evolution. Anecdotally, it is possible that the already presumably historically depleted number of auxiliaries in MalakMalak (six) will decrease. This is based on the possibly redundant semantic function of an auxiliary (e.g. GO* auxiliary and also the LIE auxiliary since they usually cooccur with a semantically equivalent coverb) and the observed syntactic (predicational) and semantic strength of coverbs. That is not to say that auxiliaries will eventually be wholly redundant but they may evolve into the prototypical auxiliaries evident in other Australian languages.

Currently however, MalakMalak undoubtedly relies on the semantic and syntactic functions of the auxiliaries. Extensive investigation into speakers’ preferred coverb-auxiliary combinations is necessary. The following brief account of serial and compound coverb constructions in MalakMalak offers some specific areas of interest for future research.

5.2. Future research

5.2.1. Coverb compounding

Birk lists a range of compound coverbs (1976:97) but discusses neither the function of involved coverbs nor the relevant auxiliary in constructions involving compound coverbs.
Table 5.1. Compound coverbs listed by Birk  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound Coverb</th>
<th>Breakdown</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>turrk.wat</td>
<td>drink.send</td>
<td>‘swallow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tyurrrk.wat</td>
<td>enter.send</td>
<td>‘put inside’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>katy.wat</td>
<td>throw.send</td>
<td>‘let go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ang.wat</td>
<td>give.send</td>
<td>‘send over’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wa.kark.wat</td>
<td>pick up.come up.send</td>
<td>‘take out’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wa.tik.pi</td>
<td>pick up.back.go</td>
<td>‘take back’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tik.ki</td>
<td>back.come</td>
<td>‘come back’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>katy.yi.pi</td>
<td>throw.leave.go</td>
<td>‘leave (tr)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kat.parar</td>
<td>play.around</td>
<td>‘play around’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngalk.yur</td>
<td>full up.lie down</td>
<td>‘settle down’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karr.lak</td>
<td>prod in ground.eat(meat)</td>
<td>‘pick out off ground (and) eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kal.tyet</td>
<td>carry.stand</td>
<td>‘carry on head’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kurr.wa.pi</td>
<td>pull.pick up.go</td>
<td>‘drag along’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lam.tyak</td>
<td>talk.stop</td>
<td>‘stop’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piny.wa.ka</td>
<td>get water.pick up.come</td>
<td>‘get water and bring it’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pulyp.yur</td>
<td>extinguish.lie down</td>
<td>‘die down (of fire)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tik.tat</td>
<td>back.look</td>
<td>‘look back’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pat.ka.wa</td>
<td>fly.come.pick up</td>
<td>‘fly in (and) pick up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Anecdotally, it seems that current speakers use a range of compound coverbs that are additional to this list. I hesitate to conclude, however, that these additions are categorically compound as opposed to serialised coverbs (see §5.2.2). Thorough phonological and syntactic analyses are required to establish these distinctions.

A principal question concerns the collocational potentials of compound coverbs. That is, which auxiliaries can/cannot appear in compound coverb constructions and what is the motivation for acceptable combinations? For example, does a compound coverb such as katy.yi.pi throw.leave.go ‘leave’, which Birk specifically describes as

---

Speaker BL did not recognise this compound coverb.
transitive, always take the GO auxiliary to encode the motion event, or can it alternatively combine with the DO auxiliary? Furthermore, what is the relationship between the auxiliary required for the compound coverb and the auxiliaries selected by the component coverbs when used individually? For example, the following combination, that I have devised, is obviously semantically based:

\[(174) \text{tik.k}a \quad \text{y}ida\]
\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{back.c}ome \quad 3mM-GO.past \\
\text{He came back}
\end{array}
\]

The following example suggests that the similar\(^{41}\) compound coverb \(\text{pat.k}a.wa\)
fly.come.pick up ‘fly in (and) pick up’ provided by Birk, can actually be divided into two separate clauses, the first of which feature the compounding of the two intransitive coverbs:

**clause 1 (intransitive):** coverb\(_{1\text{intr.}}\).coverb\(_{2\text{intr.}}\) + GO auxiliary

and

**clause 2 (transitive):** coverb\(_{1\text{tr.}}\) + DO auxiliary.

\[(175) \text{yunmurr}un \quad \text{pat.k}a \quad \text{y}ida \quad -wa \quad de \quad wa \quad yiminy \quad \text{tik.pat} \quad \text{pi} \quad \text{yida}\]
\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{kite-hawk} \quad \text{fly.c}ome \quad 3mM-GO.past \quad ? \quad \text{meat} \quad \text{pick up} \quad 3mM-DO.punct \quad \text{back.fly} \quad \text{go} \quad 3mM-GO.past \\
\quad \text{=} \text{fly in} \quad \text{fly away}
\end{array}
\]
\[
\text{The kite-hawk flew in and he picked up meat and flew back.} \quad \text{[BL, S18, 17/8/06]}
\]

This recent example would suggest that compound coverbs do not usually combine complementary transitivity classifications. A formal analysis of possible compound coverb-auxiliary combinations would help determine (i) whether these constructions are truly morphological compounds, or whether they can be separated by other constituents (such as an NP object); (ii) whether transitive and intransitive coverbs can be compounded; and (iii) how these constructions differ syntactically from serialised coverbs (to be discussed below).

\(^{41}\) This compound is similar to \(\text{katy.yi.pi} \) ‘leave’ as it involves two motion coverbs with a transitive coverb.
5.2.2. Serialised coverbs

There are many examples which appear to contain serialised coverb constructions. In the current data, these constructions appear to differ from compound coverb constructions in that they are phonologically separated words. Of course, there is always the possibility that the compound coverbs are just further along the grammaticalisation path than these combinations.

As with compound soverb constructions, there are many issues to be resolved in the analysis of serialised coverb constructions. For example, analysis of examples such as the following could reveal whether an event is viewed by speakers as a single event (serialised), or two separate events.

(176) kurrut  ang yimnj -ngayi
     remove give 3mM-DO.punct -3fMIO
     He took it (watch) off (and?) gave it to her. [BL, S17, 16/8/06]

I would predict that the removing and giving is regarded as a whole event since only one auxiliary is used. Interestingly, even though the giver and receiver involved in this event were both sitting, the DO auxiliary was used. This implies that postural information in this event is not salient for the speaker.

The following is taken from an account of how to cook barramundi. The majority of the speech is a series of instructions and interestingly only uses one auxiliary. The presented clause breaks are suggestions (based on pause positions) but require confirmation since it is syntactically possible that the first clause break is in fact directly after the first auxiliary. Further research is needed to determine whether such clause sequences are better treated as coverb serialisation or auxiliary ellipsis.

(177) de payiwarat Yuri // yeli warat.katy Yuri kararl nanyilk katy //
     meat bring out cool? // paper bark take (piO).leave cool? skin hand leave //
Take the meat out and cool, take the paperbark off and peel off the skin and leave, you clean and eat (it). Not dirt/sand. No charcoal. 

This thesis has concentrated on the functions of the auxiliaries as opposed to coverbs in CV constructions. It seems that while second arguments are often lexicalised in coverbs, some auxiliaries can carry their own argument structure. A formal analysis of argument structure is required.

An additional observation relates to the aforementioned account that semantically cognate coverbs for the LIE and STAND auxiliaries (yur and tyet respectively) often occur in other compounded/serialised CVCs. The coverb karr ‘moult feathers’ is found as the initial coverb in a number of lexicalised, possibly historically compound, coverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coverb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>karr</td>
<td>moult feathers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrcikat</td>
<td>poke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrika</td>
<td>punt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrkarr</td>
<td>prod ground (with yamstick)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrkwut</td>
<td>sew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrlak</td>
<td>pick something out of ground and eat it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrngoyat</td>
<td>light (pipe, cigarette)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karnilyur</td>
<td>break skin (against an object)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karrturuk</td>
<td>poke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karryit</td>
<td>comb (hair)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karryiwuy</td>
<td>stir</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may in fact be the case that karr is polysemous with a second meaning ‘poke’ considering the reduplicated form of karr is ‘prod ground (with yamstick)’. Interestingly, ‘poke’ or a semantically similar meaning is an auxiliary that is
commonly found in other languages featuring composite verb constructions including Ngan’gityemerri (Reid 1990) and Marrithiyel (Green 1989). This observation elicits two predictions. Firstly, since ‘poke’ commonly classifies events in languages with which MalakMalak speakers have close contact, the concept that events could be classified using the event classifier ‘poke’ could have been borrowed. Additionally, note that a number of the listed coverbs do in fact encode borrowed concepts e.g. *karrkwut ‘sew’.*

The second prediction is that MalakMalak once featured an auxiliary that was in some way semantically related to ‘poke’. This is suggests a pattern of auxiliary loss whereby the semantically cognate coverb takes over the semantics of the auxiliary, leading to the semantic bleaching and subsequent loss of the auxiliary. Obviously, this proposal requires rigorous historical research.

Naturally, there are numerous areas for further investigation and it is necessary to consider such areas of research before the MalakMalak speech community disappears.
REFERENCES


Appendix A

Birk’s auxiliary paradigms

DO auxiliary subject person-tense marker paradigms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persons</th>
<th>Punctiliar</th>
<th>Sequential</th>
<th>Purposive</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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</thead>
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<td>a-töma</td>
<td>a-nmawa</td>
<td>a-wuntuwa</td>
</tr>
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<td>nu-wuntuwa</td>
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<td>yi-nma</td>
<td>yi-nmawa</td>
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(Birk 1976:50)

GO auxiliary subject person-tense marker paradigms

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(Birk 1976:54)

GO* auxiliary subject person-tense marker paradigms

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### STAND auxiliary subject person-tense marker paradigms

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(Birk 1976:65, 71)

---

### Appendix B

#### Green’s auxiliary paradigms

DO auxiliary
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<td>2Au</td>
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<tr>
<td>3Au</td>
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| Past | Present | Imperfective | Purposive | Future |
| 1Au   | arrda  | errde     | errunguny | errdung | errgunung | errginy |
| 1Au   | ata    | ete      | errunguny | etung   | erungung  | erriny   |
| 2Au   | nuguta | nugute   | nunggurrunguny | nungutungg | nunggurrunung | ninggirriny |
| 3Au   | wuta   | woete    | woerroenguny | woetung  | woerroenung | wirriny  |

<p>| Past | Present | Imperfective | Purposive | Future |
| 1Au   | arrguwurra | errgoewoerre | errgoeworenry | errdoerrang | errgoenoerrang |
| 1Au   | arrurra  | erroerre  | erroerenry  | etoerrang   | erroenoerrang |
| 2Au   | nunggurrurra | nunggoerroerre  | nunggoerroerenry | noegutoerrang | noenggoenoerrang |
| 3Au   | wurrurra | woerroerre | woerroerenry | woetoerrang  | woerroenoerrang |</p>
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2Au nugudyu nugudyoe nugudyenginy nigitiyang ninggirrinyang ninggirrininy
3Au wudyu woetyoe wudyenginy witiyang wirriniyang wirrininy

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