80. Warlpiri

1. Introduction
2. Some General Features of Warlpiri Clause Structure
3. Constituent Structure and the Sentence
4. The Auxiliary and Agreement
5. Predicates, Argument Structures and Case
6. Anaphors
7. Complex Clauses
8. Sentential Adjuncts
9. Operators and Logical Form
10. References

Warlpiri is an Australian Aboriginal language spoken in Central Australia. It has received a good deal of attention recently, because of its 'non-configurational' structure. The properties of Warlpiri that make it a 'non-configurational language' (such as free word order, discontinuous constituents and null anaphors) have been examined in various theories. Hanks (1981a) and Nash (1986) present accounts of Warlpiri as a W*-language in revived extended standard transformational grammar, as does van Riemsdijk (1981). Bouma (1985, 1986) presents an account of nonconfigurality within catastrophic grammar. Lexicalist accounts are given in Andrews (1985) and Simpson (1983b, 1991). Government-Binding accounts are given in Hale (1983), Jelinek (1986) and Laughran (1985a, b, c, 1989). Swartz (1988, 1991) looks at some of these properties in terms of a functional approach to grammar, and discursive pragmatics.

A general introduction to Warlpiri grammar is given in Nash (1986), and various aspects are discussed in papers in Swartz (1982a), in the citations in the bibliography. Apart from grammar, other work on Warlpiri includes work on language acquisition by Edith Bavin and Tim Shopen, and on an auxiliary language, Warlpiri sign language, by Adam Kendon. As well, Michael Kasik has prepared a parsing for Warlpiri, based on the Government-Binding theory. A large body of material in Warlpiri is available, including oral and written material in machine-readable files prepared by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Lexicon Project, as well as many books written by Warlpiri people and published by the Yuendumu Bilingual Resources Development Unit, and translations of the Bible prepared with the help of Stephen Swartz.

In this sketch, we outline some of the important features of Warlpiri grammar, referring wherever possible to published works on the topics discussed.

2. Some General Features of Warlpiri Clause Structure

2.1. Verbal and Nominal Sentences

Warlpiri has both verbal and nominal sentences. In the former, illustrated by (1) and below, the predicate is a verb. In the latter, illustrated by (3) and (4), the predicate is a noun.

Warlpiri, i.e. the noun:

(1) Ngaju ka-rna wangka-ni.
I IMPF-1s speak-NPST
'I am speaking.'

(2) Ngajulu-tha ka-rna-ngka ryanu-LERG IMPF-1s=2s-NNS you nya-nyi.
stalk-move-NPST
'The two men are stalking the (several) kangaroos.'

(3) Ngaju -(rma) mata.
I (-1s) tired
'I am tired.'

(4) Ngaju -(rma) ngajumurrpa nalji-k I (-1s) wanting tea-DA
'I want some tea.'

(See Appendix for abbreviations and glosses.)

80. Warlpiri

In a finite verbal sentence, an auxiliary (AUX) is obligatory – in (1) and (2) above, the base of the auxiliary is the present imperative element ka. This is constructed with the nonpast endings of the verb. In addition, persons marking clitics – corresponding to the direct arguments (subject, object) of the verb – are suffixed to the base of the auxiliary. In (1), an intransitive sentence, the auxiliary contains just the first person singular subject clitic (glossed ‘1stS’), corresponding to the subject argument. In the transitive sentence (2), in addition to the subject clitic immediately following the base, the auxiliary contains a noncorresponding to the second person singular object argument (glossed ‘2NdS’).

Nominal sentences are stative and have no phonologically overt auxiliary base, though they can optionally have pronominal clitics, as shown by the parentheses in (3) and (4). This essay will be concerned primarily with the syntax of verbal sentences.

2.2. Free Word Order

A prominent feature of Warlpiri surface syntax is free word order. A transitive sentence, as in (2), may exhibit any of the theoretically possible orderings of these arguments and the verb:

stalk-move-NPST
'The (two) men are stalking the (several) kangaroos.'

Wawiri-patu-ku ka-pala-jana kangeroo-PAUCAL-DAT
'The two men are stalking the (several) kangaroos.'

(5c) Wawiri-patu-ku ka-pala-jana ngarkajarra.
Wawiri-patu-ku ka-pala-jana ngarkajarra
'The two men are stalking the (several) kangaroos.'

(5d) wawiri-patu-ku ngarka-jarra.
Wawiri-patu-ku ngarka-jarra
'The two men are stalking the (several) kangaroos.'

This may be thought of as a phonological constraint – the AUX must be contained in the first phonological phrase of the phonological clause, where the phonological clause is an intonational unit marked by a final pause and a distinctive tonal melody. (Preceding the phonological clause there may be a topicalized element, as in (18).)

Although the choice of different word order alternatives is conditioned by stylistic and discourse factors, as yet only partially understood, it is also true to an extraordinary degree in Warlpiri that different orderings are considered to be repetitions of one another. When asked to repeat an utterance, speakers depart from the ordering of the original more often than not (cf. Hale 1981a, 1983, Laughran 1984, Swartz 1988, 1991).

2.3. The Ergative Case System

The sentences of (1) through (5) serve to illustrate the essential character of the Warlpiri ergative case system. The subject of a canonical intransitive sentence, like (1), or the nominal sentences (3) and (4), is assigned the so-called absolutive (phonologically unmarked) case, as is the object of a canonical transitive sentence, like (2). The subject of a noncanonical transitive sentence of this type appears in the so-called ergative case (glossed ERG and realized morphologically by the ending -nyi after disyllabic roots and -ku after polysyllabic roots and other exceptional disyllables). Canonical transitives are, however, not the only cases in which a dyadic predicate can appear. Thus, sentence (5) contains a dyadic verb which differs from that of (2) in that its subject is assigned the absolute case while its object is assigned the dative (glossed DAT and realized morphologically by the ending -Ny) and its transitive case (glossed ERG). The subject (4) contains a dyadic nominal predicate, with a similar case assignment; the subject is assigned the absolutive case, and the other argument is assigned the dative case.

2.4. Agreement with the AUXILIARY

These sentences also illustrate another prominent feature of the grammar of Warlpiri, tense clauses – to wit, agreement between the auxiliary complex and the arguments of the verb. As mentioned earlier, this is realized by means of pronominal clitics suffixed to the auxiliary base. These elements appear in the order subject/non-subject, with a partial exception to be noted later, and they embody the person and number categories of the corresponding argument. This agreement is suf-
ficiently "rich" to permit free use of so-called "null anaphora" in Warlpiri tensed clauses - i.e. arguments need not be expressed in syntax as overt noun phrases (cf. Hale 1973a, 1983, Jelinek 1984, Swartz 1991, Simpson 1991). This also holds for nominal sentences containing pronominal ctics. Thus, besides (1-5) above, we also find the following:

(6a) Wangka-mi ka-ma.

As an aside, it should be pointed out that this sentence illustrates an additional detail of Warlpiri grammar as well, namely, the fact that a third person singular dative argument is overtly registered in the auxiliary (here by the clitic -ma). Otherwise, third singular arguments, subject or object, are not overtly represented by ctics in the auxiliary, and we do not represent them in our interlinear glossing. (It is very rare for dative arguments of nominal predicates to be cross-referenced by ctics - hence the lack of a clitic agreeing with nataljak in (4)).

Sentence (8) also exemplifies the fact that an auxiliary complex with a complement being disyllabic, or longer, may remain in its initial position. The alternative, with the auxiliary following the verb, is also possible here of course.

2.5. Complex Clauses

As we show in Section 7., Warlpiri complex sentences involving tensed dependent clauses are adjoined at the margin or apodosis - i.e. not strictly speaking, embedded. Infinitival dependent clauses, however, can be embedded. In addition to the use of these dependent clauses in forming complex sentences, Warlpiri makes liberal use of the "secondary predication" of nominal expressions.

Secondary predicates may attribute a state or some referent, or describe the circumstances of an event, such as location, cause, reason, etc. Warlpiri, shuddering a large portion expressive burden in the language.

2.6. Syntactic Categories

The Warlpiri pronominal (or deictic) system recognizes two large classes of pronouns.

The absolutive argument is not represented in the Warlpiri verb. Here again, the direct arguments of the verb, including the absolutive, may be non-obtained.

(8) Kapi-ma-ra

yiyi

FUTCOMP-1s-3sDAT give-NPST

"I will give (it) to him."

(9a) Pina-ya-nyu-Ø-pala.

back-go-PST-PERF-3s

"They (two) went back."

(9b) Pina-Ø-pala.

back-PERF-3s

"They (two) went back.

(10) Ya-nyu-pala.

pina-Ø-PST-PERF-3s

"They (two) went back."

As hinted in the preceding paragraph, preverbs are not newly "productive". They range from those (like pina "back, returning") which are full productive, forming predicates whose semantics is entirely compositional, to those (like wurru) which are two syllables of the verb wurru-ka-nyi "stalk", see (5) above) which, though clearly preverbs, are unique in their occurrence (according to our records) and utterly obscure in their semantics.

3. Constituent Structure and the Sentence

3.1. Discontinuous Constituents and AUX Placement

The second-position placement of the auxiliary in Warlpiri offers certain clues to surface constituent structure in the language. If we can assume, as is usually done, that what precedes a second-position auxiliary (in the normal unmarked execution of a sentence) comprises a single constituent, then an argument expression consisting of a noun and modifier (e.g. determiner, genitive, or attributive) forms a single constituent, though it may consist of more than one word:
Complex locative expressions, consisting typically of a nominal in the locative case in position with an inherently locative nominal, may also appear in pre- auxiliary position and therefore, presumably, form syntactic constituents when they so occur, (cf. Hale 1981a, 1982a, Laughren 1989, Nash 1986).

Piriki-nongi kankurampara mountain-LOC over ka ya-ni pintapinta. IMPF go-NPST airplane 'The airplane is going over the mountain.'

5.2. Finit Structure

If it is true that what precedes the auxiliary in the above examples is a syntactic constituent, and if it is true that a sequence which cannot precede the auxiliary is not a constituent, but rather more than one, then it is evident that there is a surface constituent not corresponding to the verb phrase, as normally understood. The verb may precede the auxiliary, or even a complex verb including a prepositional phrase may do so, as in (9b) and (16). But this may not be done by any of the examples. Thus, (16) is ungrammatical.

(16) *Wawirri nya-nyi ka-ma.

Here the verb and its object, in the object-verb, jointly precede the auxiliary: the order verb-object is ungrammatical.

(17) *Nya-ni wawirri ka-ma.

The ill-formedness is presumably a fact that the verb and its object form a single constituent within the clause.

There is an apparent exception to the rule that the auxiliary is in second position in surface structure. This is the Warlpiri topicalization construction, in which a constituent, a topic, is displaced to the beginning of the clause to which it relates:

(18) Wawirri nya-nyu ngaaju-bu kangaroo this, 1-ERG 0-ma

The Warlpiri difference must appear on the infinitival verb, must be final in the phrase.

The Auxiliary Agreement

Aux has a flat template-like structure, using morphemes which express mood and tense (which we call "verbal morphemes"), and morphemes which express grammatical case. The full AUX consists of an auxiliary base, comprising an obligatory ASP element optionally preceded by a sentential COMPLEMENTS element; the auxiliary base is followed by obligatory nominal AGR nominative clitics.

Aux is obligatory in finite verbal clauses, although it may be phonologically null if there is no COMP and ASP is PERFactive. Aux is restricted in its occurrence in nominal-headed clauses: ASP is neutralized, and only the COMP elements is a (NEGCOMP) and kaja (FACTCOMP) can occur, while the AGR nominative clitics are optional. Aux cannot appear in nonfinite clauses.

4.1. Verbal AUX Morphemes

The nominal categories of tense, mood, and aspect are realized discontinuously in the surface string of a Warlpiri sentence. The meanings associated with the verbal inflectional suffixes correspond to those traditionally included in the tense and mood categories. For any given clause, the choice of verbal AUX morphemes and the choice of tense/mood suffix on the verb are interdependent. Thus, in a Warlpiri finite clause, tense-mood-aspectual information is encoded through the interaction of occurring members of each category.

There is a permissive/imperfective contrast expressed in Warlpiri by means of the T/AASP/ASP morpheme. The tense nominal, locative, and imperfective morpheme is phonologically null, while the imperfective aspectual morpheme is realized as -na. All combinations of tense and aspect are possible, with the past and irrealis verb forms, and as ka with the present tense.

The imperative-isomorphic contrast with -ja is shown in (19a).

(19a) Wati-ka ya-nya.

(19b) Wati-lpa-la ya-nya.

The man were leaving.
belonging to two subcategories: PERSON and NUMBER. These categories are indirectly related to the main predicate (verbal or nominal) of a finite clause, in the sense that they manifest features which identify the direct arguments of the predicate, in addition to certain more peripheral arguments.

The person-number auxiliary clitics and their interaction with the transitivity features of the clause are of considerable complexity (cf. Hale 1973a, Laughren 1977, Nash 1986, Hale/Laughren 1986, Simpson/Wightdon 1986, Simpson 1991, Swartz 1982b, 1991). There is one series of subject clitics, another of non-subject clitics. Warlpiri person number clitics can be classified according to whether, in their surface form, they are composed of a portmanteau person-number morpheme, or whether they consist of two distinct clitics — one being the person morpheme, the other, the number morpheme. The clitics belonging to the latter set may appear discontinuously in the AUX template.

The presence of a subject clitic is obligatory in the AUX except under some very specific conditions, which we will leave aside here. The presence or absence of a non-subject clitic depends on a number of complex factors (cf. Hale 1973a, Laughren 1977). Which argument agrees with a subject clitic, and which arguments agree with non-subject clitics will be discussed in Section 5.

Normally, both subject and non-subject clitics agree with the arguments of the verb in both Person and Number. However, there are certain exceptions. These include uses of plural for singular referents and of third person for second person referents, in "special language" (auxiliary languages used in addressing or referring to certain sets of kin relations). Another exception is found in the negative construction in which nominals with dual or plural marking appear with subject clitics of all persons:

(20) Jakamarra-jarra-rajjarra ya-nu. Jakamarra-DUAL-1ed-5 GO-PAST
A third exception, observed by Stephen Swartz in Lajamanu Warlpiri, is the appearance of second person clitics in sentences with presentential verbs and non-second person subjects. He says that, typically, this combination is used in narratives to announce a surprise development.

(21) Kala-npa nyina-nyu marliyarrara. but-2DS sit-PREST man
'There you go, the man's sitting there.'

The number portion of the clitic agrees with the actual subject of the sentence:

(22) Kala-npa nyina-nyu but-2DS sit-PREST marliyarrara. man-DUAL
'There you go, the two men are sitting there.'

5. Predicators, Argument Structures, and Case Arrays

Predicatives in Warlpiri may be headed by either of the two morphologically distinct categories: verbs or nouns (cf. section 2.1.). In either case this head, or predicative denotes an action, process, or state involving one or more participants, commonly referred to as its arguments. The lexical entry of a given predicative defines its argument structure, which in turn, determines the syntactic structure of core argument which it projects.

While the surface syntactic structure of Warlpiri sentence is evidently "flat", in the sense that there is no evidence for a phrase at all, the syntactic representation (cf. 3.2.), it is nonetheless clear that the syntactic organization of a predicative's arguments, as defined by its lexical argument structure, exhibits a systematic distinguishing schema from its complement, if any, which is revealed in the Warlpiri systems of anaphora, or binding. We look at verbs with and without arguments at verbs with absolutive arguments.

5.1. Verbs with Ergative Subjects

Consider, for example, the verb of below:

(23) Ngarka-jarra-rja ka-pala-jana man-DUAL-ERG IMPF-3eS-3PS maikit-patu paka-ri. dog-PAUCAL strike-NPST
'The (two) men are striking the dogs.'

This verb takes two core arguments assigned ergative case (ERG). The phonologically null absolutive case.

The argument with ergative case agrees with the subject clitic -pala, while the absolutive case agrees with the object clitic -jana.

Where one of these arguments actually binds the other, the binder is the

80. Warlpiri
tive argument, and the anaphor is the absolutive argument (represented only by the absolutive clitic -nyu) reflexive-replica (REFL), occupying some subject position within the auxiliary, as in:


strike-NPST
'The (two) men are striking themselves/ each other.'

This direction of binding, holding for all verbs which allow 3PS case array, is never reversed. Hence an ergative argument can only be anaphorically bound "from outside"; that is to say, an ergative argument of a nonfinite clause can only be bound by an argument in a matrix clause in a "control structure", as in (13). In that sentence, the ergative argument, the eater, of the non-finite verb nga-ri-nya 'eat' is bound — i.e. "controlled" — by the object wanyirri of the matrix verb nya-nya. Thus, for ERG-ABS verbs, the ergative argument is the "prominent" argument. It is the ergative which may bind another argument clause-internally in reflexive-impersonal constructions; and it is the ergative which may be bound from outside, by a matrix argument. Neither of these properties holds of the absolutive in these verbs. Since these are both properties indicating subordination, the ergative, therefore, is the object.

The facts of anaphoric binding and control, of course, are in accord with the facts of control. It is the ergative argument that agrees with the subject clitics, as can be seen (24) and (25), as well as in other illustrative cases used here.

For only for ERG-ABS verbs, but for all whose case arrays include an ergative argument is the subject. (25) exemplifies the typical ERG-ABS-DAT verb yi-nya.

The ergative argument is represented by the subject (not cross-referenced by a clitic), the ergative argument is represented by subject REFCL clitic -nyu. The structure indicates that the ergative is the subject, as does the binding according to which the ergative binds the dative object.

(25) Karntja-jarra-rja woman-DUAL-ERG ka-pala-nya-wu miyi yi-nya. IMPF-3eS-REFL food give-NPST 'The (two) women are giving each other food.'

And, correspondingly, the verb in (26) exemplifies the ERG-DAT array. The ergative argument agrees with the subject clitic, and the dative argument agrees with the non-subject clitic.

(26a) Kurdu-patu-rja child-PAUCAL-ERG ka-i-nya-gali-ri warri-ri IMPF-3PS-4PSNS seek-NPST ngaliga-ku us-DAT
'The children are looking for us (plural inclusive).' *

(26b) Kurdu-patu-rja child-PAUCAL-ERG ka-ku-nya-wu warri-ri. IMPF-3eS-REFL seek-NPST
'The children are looking for each other.'

Although it is not a prominent feature of Warlpiri, there exists a class of verbs whose case array consists solely of an ERG argument. Typically, these verbs have simple complex verbs containing preverbs of clearly nominal origin. The single argument of such verbs, not surprisingly, exhibits the properties of a subject, as illustrated by the agreement pattern of (27) and by the binding (control) relation of (28):

(27) Kurdu-jarra-rja ka-pala child-DUAL-ERG IMPP-3S ngungkurra-pang-ri. snoring-dig-NPST snoring-dig-IMP-OBJCOMF

'nI hear the (two) children snoring.' *

(28) Kurdu-jarra ka-na-palanga child-DUAL-IMPP-1ed-3DNS purda-nya-nya audio-sec-NPST ngungkurra-pang-nya-wu

I hear the (two) children snoring.'
5.2. Verbs with Absolute Subjects

Not all verbs have an ergative argument in their case array, as is evident from examples in Section 2. Where there is no ergative, the absolute assumes the subject function. This fact is illustrated in (1) above, where the verb *wanga-mi* 'speak' appears in its monotonic use, representing the simple ABS array. The ABS-DAT array is exemplified by (5) above, and also in (29), where *wanga-mi* appears in a dyadic use. In both (5) and (29), the absolute argument agrees with the subject clitic and the dative argument agrees with the non-subject clitic:

(29) *Ngaju ka-naguku* *wanga-mi*
    I IMPF-1S-2NS speak-NPST
    nyuntu-ku.
you-DAT
    'I am addressing to you.'

The dative argument may be bound by the absolute subject in a reflexive/reciprocal construction:

(30) *Wanga-mi ka-lu-nyamu*
    speak-NPST IMPF-3PS-REFL
    watti-patu.
    man-PAUCAL
    'The men are talking to each other.'

Similarly, the absolute subject of a nonfinite verb may be controlled by an argument of the matrix verb, as illustrated in (31) in which the dative argument of the higher verb controls the absolute subject of *nyina-nja-kurra*.

(31) *Wanga-mi ka-nra-rla*
    speak-NPST IMPF-1S-3DATT
    watti-nja-ka-lu-ka-rku.
    man-DAT sit-INF-OBCOMP-DAT
    'I am talking to the man while (he’s) sitting.'

The sentences so far exhaustively exemplify the assignments of grammatical case categories to the subject and object functions. The subject is assigned the ergative case, if there is one (i.e. if the verb has an ergative in its case array); otherwise, the subject is assigned the absolute. The object is assigned the dative, if there is one, otherwise the absolute. In a transitive case array, as in (25), the absolute is assigned to an argument of some purpose or to the subject nor the object function (cf. Swartz 1982b).

That the dative argument is the grammatical object in such structures can be shown, in part. Thus, in (7) above, the dative argument, not the absolute, is cross-referenced by non-subject agreement morphology in the auxiliary. The objecthood of the dative argument is shown also by control of infinitivs in *karru OBVCOMP* clauses (cf. Carrier 1976, Hale 1982, 1983). The subjects of these infinitivs are controlled by a matrix object. In (31) and (32) it is the dative argument which controls the infinitival subject.

(32) *Kurdu-jarra-ku*
    ka-nra-palangu
    child-DAT-IMPF-1S-3DNS
    miyi y-ti
    food-give-NPST
    nyina-nja-kurra.
    sit-INF-ORICOMP-DAT
    'I am giving food to the (two) children (while they are sitting).'  

5.3. Alternations in Semantic Role and Case


That both the dative and the absolute arguments act as objects is shown by the fact that they control the infinitival subject of OBCOMP clauses:

(33a) *Janganka-ja paka-ru*
    possum-1S-3ch chop-PAST
    ngaju-lu-ku nguna-nja-kurra
    I-ERG
    lie-INF-OBCOMP
    'I chopped a possum while it was sleeping and I got the possum.'

(33b) *Janganka-ja-ku nra-rla*
    possum-1S-3DATT chop-
    ngaju-lu-ku
    I-ERG
    lie-INF-OBCOMP-DAT
    'I chopped for a possum while it was sleeping and I didn’t need the possum.'

A special case of the alternation with impact and concession is the common or "attempted action" alternation, in which a second dative argument is attached to the dative that cross-references an absolute object:

(34a) *Ngarra-ngku* *ka maru*
    man-ERG IMPF kangaroo
    shoot-NPST
    'The man is shooting the kangaroo.'

(34b) *Ngarra-ngku* *ka-rla-jinta* *man-ERG IMPF 3SDAT-3DAT*
    kangaroo-DAT shoot-NPST
    'The man is shooting at the kangaroo.'

80. Warlipiri

Again, both the dative and the absolute argument can control the infinitival subject of OBCOMP clauses.

5.4. Adjunct Datives

In preceding sections, we have seen the suffix -ka used as a dative marking a core argument of the verb. We turn now to other uses of this suffix in which its status as a dative object argument marker is more questionable. (35) illustrates some such uses:

(35a) *Yapa ka-lu muku-ya-ni*
    Persu IMPF-3PS all-go-NPST
    miyi-ka
    food-PURP
    'The people are all going for food.'

(35b) *Purra-nja-rla* (ngaka)
    cook-INF-PRECOMP (later)
    Kelly
    'PASTCOMP set-off-PAST
    wurrkurdju-ku-warnu
    several-FREQ-ASSOC
    ngurr-ku-warnu
    camp-FREQ-ASSOC
    'Having cooked it, he set off again after several days.'

(36) *Ngarra-ngku-ka-rla*
    man-ERG IMPF-3DAT
    kurdu-ku karli jarriti-
    child-DAT boomerang trim-NPST
    'The man is trimming the boomerang on account of the child.'

(37) *Kurdu ka-rla*
    child-ERG 3SDAT laughing
    ngararrimi
    smile-NPST
    wanga-nja-ku-rku.
    talk-INF-OBCOMP-DAT
    'The child is laughing at the one talking.'

Agreement with the AUX allows the argument marked with -ku to be foregrounded, and raised to the status of object. However the dative participant may act as the controller of an *-larru OBVCOMP* clause, or a "pure obliative complementizer" clause, as in (38), even though such clauses cannot be controlled by objects (absolute or dative) in the matrix clause.

(38) *Ngarra-ngku ka-rla*
    jarriti
    child-ERG 3SDAT dog
    warru-waili-ki-nyi
    karnta-kt.
    around-chase-NPST woman-DAT,
miyi pura-nya-ramii(-ki)  
food-cook-INF-OVCMP-DAT  
The child is changing the woman's dog around while she is cooking food.

Control of the OVCMP is independent of whether or not the participant marked with -ka is foregrounded and agrees with the AUX, as the optionality of the third person singular dative non-subject clitic -ria in (38) shows.

Thus there are three main uses of the suffix -ka: as adjuncts with no AUX agreement (the FREQ or PURP uses), as adjunct datives with AUX agreement and control of OVCMP clauses, and as objects with AUX agreement and control of OVCMP clauses.

The relation of the dative participant to the action or event may be made more specific by combining the verb with one of a set of preverbs that add dative participants: jarata, jarikuma ‘with (dependents)’, jarinta ‘away from, removal from’, kaij, ngaii ‘for, on behalf of’, marlaja, marlangka ‘because of, associated with’, piki(piki) ‘in danger of’. The meanings given to the preverbs further specify the relation between the dative participant and the action or event de-noted by the verb. Thus, in (39) the action is asserting the boomerang, the dative participant is “the little child”, and the preverb kaiji indicates that the relation between the child and the boomerang-cutting is benefactive.

(39) Ngarrka-ngku ka-ra kardu man-ERG IMPF-3sDAT child,  
wiita-ku karli small-DAT boomerang-ABS kaij-jarnrti-mi. benef-trim-NPST  
“The man is trimming the boomerang for the little child.”


6. Anaphora

In Warlpiri, the pronominal features of person and number are expressed by two distinct syntactic categories: bound pronominal clitics realized in AUX, and optional free pronouns. The reciprocal-reflexive non-subject clitic -nyu is always coreferent with the subject of the finite verb in the same clause as itself. The anaphor can never be bound by an element bearing a non-subject grammatical function.

6.1. Disjoint Pronominal Reference and Pronominal Coreference

While a free pronoun occurs in the same syntactic position as a common or proper noun as the argument of a verb, bearing the same set of grammatical functions and case-marking, its distribution is restricted by relations of possible or impossible coreference between a pronoun and another argument in the same clause.

A free pronoun such as the third person pronoun nyanungu cannot be coreferent with the reflexive anaphor -nyu and hence with the subject of a sentence in which -nyu expresses the object of a verb that takes an ERG subject. This constraint is demonstrated in (40)–(41):

(40) Jakamarrar-ri ka-nya =  
Jakamarrar-ERG IMPF-REPFL *(nyanungu-s) PRONOUN hit-NPST  
"Jakamarrar is hitting him/herself."  
(40b) Jakamarrra-ka-nya =  
Jakamarrar-ERG IMPF PRON pronoun  
hit-NPST  
"Jakamarrar is hitting him/her."  
(40c) Jakamarrar-ka-nya  
Jakamarrar-ERG IMPF-REPFL *(nyanungu-s) PRONOUN  
meat-NPST  
"Jakamarrar is giving himself/herself meat."  
(40d) Wati-patu-ri man-PAUCAL-ERG  
ka-nya IMPF-3sREPFL  
warri-mi *(nyanungu-s) PRONOUN-LOC search-NPST PRON-PL-DAT  
"The man is looking for each other (themselves)."

The constraint which prevents the noun from bearing the absolute object function in (38)–(40) does not exist when it bears a dative adjunct function is constrained with the anaphor -nya as shown in (41):

(41a) Jakamarrar-ri  
Jakamarrar-ERG ka-nya =  
IMPF-REPFL-3sDAT search-NPST  
ku-yu-ku nyanungu-ku  
meat-DAT PRON-DAT  
"Jakamarrar is looking for his meat." OR "Jakamarrar is looking for meat for himself."

(41b) Jakamarrar-ri  
ka-nya =  
Jakamarrar-ERG IMPF-REPFL fire  
yarrpim-nya nyanungu-ku  
light-NPST PRON-DAT  
"Jakamarrar is lighting himself a fire."

A dative pronoun construed with the anaphor -nya bearing the object grammatical function may also be realized in a sentence containing a verb which takes an absolue object and a dative object, as shown in (42):

(42a) Nyanungu-ska-nya  
PRON-DAT IMPF-REPFL  
Jakamarrar, yulk-ni-wangka-mi.  
Jakamarrar love-talker-NPST  
"Jakamarrar loves himself/itself to himself."  
(42b) Jakamarrar, ka-nya =  
Jakamarrar-ERG IMPF-REPFL  
yulk-ni-wangka-mi.  
love-talker-NPST  
"Jakamarrar loves himself/itself to himself."

(42c) Jakamarrar, ka-ri  
Jakamarrar IMPF-3sDAT  
nyanungu-ska-nya yulk-ni-mi.  
PRON-DAT love-NPST  
"Jakamarrar loves himself/herself."

Farmers/Hale/Tjuqumara (1988), Laughrin (1985a, 1986a), Simpson (1991). No non-pronominal nominal expression can be construed directly with the anaphor -nya, which would imply binding of that nominal by the dative subject. However, indirect construal is possible - a nominal which predicates of the argument or adjunct expressed by the anaphor -nya may be expressed as shown in (43). In (a) the nominal jarru ‘head’ is predicated of the dative subject expressed by -nya (see Hale 1981b, Swartz 1992, for a detailed study of part-syntactic in Warlpiri). In (b) the ABS nominal murumuru ‘pain’ is predicated of the subject associated with the anaphor -nya.

(43a) Jakamarrar, -ngku-nya -pa-ku murruru.  
man-ERG-REFL hit-PAST head  
"The man hit himself (on the head)."
pect or overtly realized pronominal clitics associated with them. A secondary predicate consists with a nominal or infinitive verb to which a complementizer case and/or nominal case is suffixed. Non-subject arguments of the nominal or infinitive, as well as various adjectives and modifiers, may also be expressed.

There are basically two classes of secondary predicate: eventive and stative. Eventive predicates are headed by a complementizer case which indicates the temporal relation to the event denoted by the secondary predicate to the event or process denoted by the primary (or finite) predicate. The eventive interpretation is attributable to the complementizer case, since a referential nominal bearing one of these cases will be interpreted as referring to some event involving the referent of the subject of the secondary predicate and the referent of the nominal expression.

In (45), stative and eventive secondary predicates are compared. In (a) the ABS case-marked nominal nyamu ‘sick’ is a sta-
tive predicate. Its subject is karnta ‘woman’ which is the ABS case-marked object of the verb. In (b) nyamu is interpreted as part of an eventive predicate headed by the object complementizer case -kurra, meaning something like ‘involved with the sick one’. The subject of this eventive secondary predicate is coreferrant with karnta, the ABS case-marked object of the finite verb.

(45a) Wati-ngki karnta nyamu-ya
man-ERG woman see-PAST
nyamu. sick
‘The man saw the woman (was sick).’

(45b) Wati-ngki karnta nyamu
man-ERG woman see-PAST
nyamu-kurru. sick
‘The man saw the woman involved with the sick one.’


7.3. Eventive Predicates

Eventive predicates may be further classified according to their time-reference; whether they denote an event taking place at the same time as the event denoted by the main clause, or preceding it, or subsequent to it.

7.3.1 Simultaneous Event

Warlpiri has three complementizer cases which indicate that the event denoted by the secondary predicate occurs at the same time as the event denoted by the main verb. These are illustrated below. In addition to their temporal content, each of these complementizer cases specifies how the understood subject of the secondary predicate is to be interpreted.

(46a) Wati-ngki marlu nyamu-ya
man-ERG kangaroo see-PAST
nguru-kura. lie-INF-OBJCOMP
‘The man saw the kangaroo while it was lying down.’

(46b) Wati-ngki marlu nyamu-ya
man-ERG kangaroo see-PAST
parra-nya-kurru-ru. run-INF-SUBCPCOMP-ERG
‘The man saw the kangaroo while he was running.’

(46c) Wati-ra jurna-ya-nya
man-3DAT away-go-PAST
karnta-kurru woman-DAT
jarda-nguru-nya-rrarrri. sleep-INF-OBJCOMP
‘The man went away from the woman while she was sleeping.’

(46d) Kardu-ru pu-nya
child-3pl hit-PAST
ngati-nya wirrlinyi-rrarrri. mother-bis-DACT daytrip-OBJCOMP
‘They hit the child while its mother was out hunting.’

In (a) the secondary predicate consists of the infinitive form of the verb nga-rrmi, the complementizer case -kurra which indicates that the understood subject of the infinitive verb is obligatorily coreferred with the object marlu of the finite verb nga-rrmi, in the secondary predicate is made up of the infinitive form of the verb parra-nya-pl the complementizer case -rrarrri which specifies that the understood subject of the infinitive is the subject of the finite verb. This relationship is marked by the presence of the ergative ending -ra on the secondary predicate. The secondary predicate parra-nya-rrarrri contains the complementizer case -rrarrri which indicates that the understood subject of the compound verb jarda-nguru-nya-kura. is coreferent with the dative case-marked object karnta-ka. Karnta-ka is neither the subject nor the object of the finite verb, but the dative adjective (see Section 5.4.).

Whereas the dative case-marked nominal or infinitive predicate headed by either Object of

or SUBCPCOMP cannot be overtly expressed and is obligatorily interpreted as being coreferent with the subject of the finite verb, the subject of a predicate headed by the OBJCOMP -rrmarri may be overtly expressed by a dative noun phrase. In this case we may consider the combination of dative noun phrase plus -rrmarri headed predicate and its non-subject arguments to be adjoined to the clause headed by the main finite verb.

7.3.2. Preceding Events

(47a) Wati-ngki kuruu
man-ERG PUTCOMP meat
purna-nya-rra nga-kuru. cook-INF-PRECOMP eat-PAST
‘The man cooked the meat and ate it.’

(47b) Wati-ngki kuruu
man-ERG PUTCOMP meat
purna-nya-rra nga-kuru. cook-INF-PRECOMP eat-PAST
‘The man will cook the meat and eat it.’

(48a) Kulpur-ya-nya-ma kulu-kuji-ku
back-go-PAST-3pl fight-NEGURP
‘I turned back to avoid involvement in the fight.’

(48b) Yantarti nyina-ya kurkarda-kuju ka home stay-IMP spear-NEGURP
panti-nya-rru wirrlinyi-rrarrri. pierce-INF-NEGURP
‘Stay put so as not to get speared.’

(48c) Yampi-ya nyuru-kaju
leave-INF sick-NEGURP
‘Leave it alone (you) get sick.’ OR ‘Leave him alone lest (he) get sick.’

This NEGURP complementizer may also occasionally be used on finite verb forms, as in (50):

(50) Jiita-wangu wa-nya-
one-PRIV go-MP
kaalaka-nguru POTCOMP-2NS
jarnja-nguru kurdaitcha-ERG
paka-nya-kiaktu. hit-NPST-NEGURP
‘Don’t go alone lest a kurdaitcha man might attack you.’

7.3.4. Objects of Infinitive Verbs

Whereas a finite verb combines with AUX in such a way that certain of its arguments are expressed by means of person-number clitics with which a case-marked nominal expres-
sion may be construed, an infinitive verb does not combine with an independent AUX, fails, or is limited to the scope of the tense, mood, and aspect morphemes associated with AUX and the related finite verb in the clause. The arguments of the infinitival verb may be realized as nominal expressions, apart from the subject argument of an infinitive to which is suffixed one of the complementizer cases that requires obligatory control of the subject as in (52).

The definite case argument of a verb, finite or nonfinite, may always be expressed by a definite case-marked nominal expression. The object argument of an infinitive which would be expressed by an absolute case-marked nominal expression of the corresponding finite verb, cannot be thus expressed, since absolute case fails to be assigned to the object of an infinitive verb. Rather it falls within the scope of the complementizer case which marks the infinitive. However, when the object nominal immediately precedes the infinitive, overt complementizer case-marking on the nominal is not obligatory (giving the appearance of an absolute object), and the nominal and infinitive verb form a single phonological phrase, as in (48b). When the object nominal occupies another position in the clause, it too is overtly marked by the complementizer case ending (cf. Hale 1982b, Laumüllner 1989). Compare (51) with the sentences in (48). Not only does the object nominal fall within the scope of the complementizer case, but so does a modifying nominal which has semantic scope over the infinitive and its arguments.


The man picked up his things before going on a trip.

(51b) Kuyu-ku waal ya-nu same-PRECPOMP man go-PAST wirtinyi-piaa-ku, daytrip kill-INF-PRECPOMP

The man went hunting to kill game.

Arguments of an evemtual secondary predicate need not be overtly expressed in Warlpiri. Occasionally, as shown in (52), none of the arguments of the infinitive verb yi-nja ‘give-INF’ are overtly expressed.

(52) Wungka-jawu-rayi say-PAST-1S=3sDAT yi-nja-ku give-INF-PRECPOMP ‘I said to him to give (some one) something.’

7.3.5. Statictive Secondary Predicates

A statictive predicate typically attributes some quality to its ‘subject’ (which may be a nominal expression or a pronominal clitic or both). The statictive predicate consists of a nominal or infinitival expression which agrees in case-marking with its ‘subject’. 

(53a) Matu ka karnya nyina-mi tired IMPF woman sit-NPST wapa-nja-warna walk-INF-ASSOC

The woman is sitting tired.

(53b) Nyampa ka-nu nga-nu this IMPF-1sS eat-NPST wanka, warli-nga purra-nja-wanga raw fire-ERG, cook-INF-PRT ‘I am eating this raw without it having been cooked by fire.’

(54a) Kurra-kaa ngu-nu-mu next child-ERG purra-nja-warna, yarrampa-kaa-ku cook-INF-ASSOC hungry-ERG ‘The child ate the cooked meat, hungry.’

8. Sentential Adjuncts

Finite tensed clauses apparently never appear as complements in Warlpiri. However, they are used in a very common construction, the adjoined relative clause, illustrated in (56):

(56) Ngawulu-nu-ya yankirri patu-nu, 1-ERG-1sS emu spear-PAST, kuyu-lpa FACTCOMP-IMPF ngupa nga-mu, water consume-PAST ‘I speared the emu which was dead while it was drinking water.'

Morphologically, adjoined relative clauses are marked by the presence in the AUX of one of a set of complementizer (COMP) morphemes, such as kuwa above. The others include the factive siulu (FACTCOMP), the nonfactive kai (NFACTCOMP), and the relational yungu and its allomorphs (RELCOMP).

Syntactically, these clauses are dependent on the main clause, and peripheral to it. They are never embedded in the main clause, and
they are usually separated from it by a pause. They may be prepended to the main clause, which may start with the adposition element ngula, as in (57). There may even be multiple subordinations, as in (58).

(57) Yankirri-rl kuja-lpa emu-ERG FACTCOMP-IMPF ngupa nga-rnu, water consume-PAST, ngula-rnu pantu-rnu FACTCOMP-1sS spear-PAST ngajulu-rfu.
I-ERG 'The emu which was drinking water, that one I spattered.' OR 'While the emu was drinking water, then I spattered it.'

(58) Karli-ji ma-ninji-rta boomerang-1sS get-go-IMP yali, ngula-ka that.yonder, FACTCOMP-IMPF mardia-rni yapa-kari-rli hold-NPST person-OTHER-ERG ngula-ka ngurra FACTCOMP-IMPF camp ngaliga-nyanjihirra nyuna, us-GEN-LOC sit-NPST 'Get me that boomerang that that other person who lives in our camp has.'

Semantically, as the translations show, adjoined relative clauses are open to different interpretations, which have been the subject of some investigation (cf. Hale 1976; Larson 1983). Roughly speaking, there are two main classes of interpretation. The first is the "NP-Relative" interpretation, in which the adjoined clause modifies an argument of the main clause, and is often translated as a relative clause in English.

The second is the "T-Relative" interpretation, a term derived from the use of adjoined relative clauses to specify the time of the main clause, or to describe an event held at the same time as the main clause. However, it has been extended to cover the use of adjoined relative clauses for comments, which may be linked by any reasonable connection to the main clause. As well as time, these include comments on place, cause, purpose, reason, "enabling cause", contrastive parallels, and so on. They are often translated into English by clauses headed by conjunctions such as when, where, while, if, whereas, because and so on.

Many sentences may have both NP-relative and T-relative readings, and only context will disambiguate them. However, the choice of complementizer, the time reference of both the main clause and the adjoined clause, and the presence of coreferent noun phrases in both the main and the adjoined clause are factors in determining what reading is given. An example of a T-relative reading is given in (59):

(59) Ngaju-ri-rhu-lpa-ma karli I-ERG-IMPF-1sS boomerang jamantu-rnu, kuja-rpa trim-PAST, FACTCOMP-2sS ya-rwu nyuntu. go-PAST-HITHER you 'I was trimming a boomerang when you came up.'

There appears to be no difference in behaviour between coreferential noun phrases in clauses with NP-relative interpretations and those in clauses with T-relative interpretations. Both are represented by pronominal clitics, if they bear the right grammatical functions. In terms of pronounisation usually the second of the two (whether it happens to be in the main clause or the adjoined clause) undergoes pronounisation, but pronounisation is not essential.

9. Operators and Logical Form

In content questions the interrogative movement normally appears in immediate preceding clause, in which position, as in the sentence:

(60a) Nganja-ngulu ku karli who-ERG IMPF boomerang nyunu jamantu-rli? this trim-NPST 'Who is trimming this boomerang?'

(60b) Nyija-ngulu ka-npara-rli what-DAT IMPF-228s-2DAT warri-rni nyumpala-rfu? seek-NPST you:two-ERG 'What are you looking for?'

There is, however, no evidence that movement is involved in the formal position the question in Warlpiri. Initial position is available to any constituent simply the free surface ordering of Warlpiri syntax generally. Data such as the so-called "weak cross-over"
(d) Pronominal agreement clitics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1s</td>
<td>mna</td>
<td>ju</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de</td>
<td>rija</td>
<td>jarra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2s</td>
<td>ngku</td>
<td>pala pala</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) COMPLEMENTIZER SUFFIXES

(a) Simultaneous event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJCOMP</th>
<th>object-controlled complementizer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OBVCOMP</td>
<td>obviative-controlled complementizer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBICOMP</td>
<td>subject-controlled complementizer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Proceeding or purposive event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRECOMP</th>
<th>proceeding event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PURPCOMP</td>
<td>purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESIDCOMP</td>
<td>desiderative purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEOPURP</td>
<td>negative purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREPCOMP</td>
<td>preparatory purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEQCMP</td>
<td>directional purposive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) Stative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSOC</th>
<th>associative, resultative, perfective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRIV</td>
<td>privative, negative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(3) NOMINAL SUFFIXES

(A) Grammatical case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ABS</th>
<th>Absolutive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DAT</td>
<td>Dative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERG</td>
<td>Ergative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(B) Semantic case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALL</th>
<th>allative: 'to, into'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COMIT</td>
<td>comitative: 'with'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>elative: 'from'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>locative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESULT</td>
<td>resultative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANS</td>
<td>transitive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) Derivational case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSOC</th>
<th>associative, perfective: 'being'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LIKE</td>
<td>denizen of: 'belonging to'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERL</td>
<td>persitute: 'along'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSS</td>
<td>possessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSS</td>
<td>possessive (on pronouns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSS</td>
<td>possessive (on kin terms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIV</td>
<td>privative, negative: 'without'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROP</td>
<td>propriate: 'having'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOURCE</td>
<td>elative of source: 'from, because of'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(C) Number

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DUAL</th>
<th>dual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAUCAL</td>
<td>plural, paucal: 'few'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>plural</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(D) Nominal formations and other clitics

| CS | change of state: 'now, then' |
| OTHER | other, next |
| WARD | towards |

(4) VERBS

(A) Verbal inflections, arranged by conjugation

Conjugation class I II III IV V

(a) Tense, co-occurring with Aspect

| NPST | nonpast |
| PAST | past |
| IRR | irrealis |
| IMP | imperative |
| REST | presenational |

(b) Tense/Mood, No Aspect distinction

| BUT | future |
| IMP | imperative |
| REST | presenational |

(c) Non-finite verb forms

| NF | infinitive |
| OMIC | -en |

(d) Verb formations

AUS causative (transitive) N-ma-mi

NCH inchoative N-jarri-mi

(e) Directionals

| OTHER | thither, to here |
| OTHER | thither, to there |

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the Warlpiri people who have been teaching us their language. We would like to thank Robert Hockett, Stephen Lees, and David Nash for very useful comments on this work. This work has been supported by Government of the Northern Territory of Australia, the Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies and the MIT Lexicon Project (Syntactic Development Foundation, U.S.A.)

References

1. The Syntax of Creole Languages

Introduction

The Lexicon

Phrase Structure

Sentence Grammar

Conclusion

References

Introduction

Terms 'creole' has been applied to a wide variety of languages. For instance, languages identified as Proto-Germanic, Egyptian, Son-

Mbugu and Middle English have been called creole. Such indeterminacy use de-

fies the label of all meaning, and hence the belief that there is no distinct creole

language (see Muysken 1988 and comments in Section 5 below). In what follows,

I will be restricted to what, in Bickerton (1988), were described as 'plantation cre-

oles' that arose among peoples of non-European backgrounds who had been

'planted' from their traditional homelands in an era of colonial power and who

were obliged to "invent" some means of communication. Such languages

include, for example, Gullah, Haitian, Saramaccan, Papiamentu, Senewa, and

Hawaiian Creole, to take a sample of the two or three dozen ex-

amples of what can be said about creoles would apply also to 'fort

and 'maritime' creoles, as defined in Bick-

erton (1988). However, it is only about 'plantation creoles' that one can make typological statements which are both general and de-

tailed, without requiring frequent disclaimers of the type 'except in the case of X, where...'

Although questions surrounding the origin of creoles are and always have been contro-

erial, and are thus best left unbriefed in a study such as this, it is difficult to describe

these languages, except at a superficial level, without giving some idea of the problems they faced and the solutions that, accord-

ingly, they were obliged to adopt. The essen-

tials of creole syntax were created, for each of the languages in question, in a single gen-

eration. The input to this generalization was a highly variable pidgin continuum, the greater part of which was degraded to a point at

which it is probably fair to say that it was no longer rule-governed (in any sense of linguistic

tule); certainly, a syntactic system could not have been induced from it. At the same time, the input lexicon was radically reduced, both in the number of available items and in the frequencies which those items possessed. Yet

the creole-forming generation was equipped with the same set of syntactic principles as are all other members of our species. The in-

teraction between invariant principles and a degenerate lexicon is what gives creole lan-

guages their unmistakable stamp.

XXI. Syntaxskie Skizzen

Order Language. Massachusetts Institute of Technology MSc. dissertation. Cambridge, MA.

Larson, Richard K. 1983. Restrictive modification; relative clauses and adverbs. University of Wiscon-

sin doctoral dissertation.


Laughren, Mary. 1988a. Some data on pronominal disjoint reference and confluence in Warlpiri. MS.


Laughren, Mary. 1990. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.


Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Core structure and adjunction in Warlpiri syntax. For the proceedings of the Tilburg Scrambling Conference, October 1990.

Laughren, Mary. 1986. Notes on world view and semantic categories: Some Warlpiri examples. Features and Pro-

jections, ed. by Peter Muysken & Henk van Riemsdijk, 217-231. Dordrecht.
Handbücher zur
Sprach- und Kommunikations-
wissenschaft

Handbooks of Linguistics
and Communication Science

Manuels de linguistique et
des sciences de communication

Mitbegründet von
Gerold Ungeheuer

Herausgegeben von / Edited by / Edités par
Joachim Jacobs · Arnim von Stechow
Hugo Steger · Herbert Ernst Wiegand

Band 9.2

Syntax

Ein internationales Handbuch
zeitgenössischer Forschung
An International Handbook
of Contemporary Research

Herausgegeben von / Edited by
Wolfgang Sternefeld · Theo Vennemann

2. Halbband / Volume 2

Walter de Gruyter · Berlin · New York
1995
Vorwort zum zweiten Band

Der hiermit vorliegende zweite Halbband des Handbuchs Syntax konzentriert sich auf die die Syntax betreffenden Teile der Typologie und der Sprachgeschichtsforschung sowie auf das Verhältnis der Syntax zu einigen ihrer Nachbardisziplinen. Außerdem wird der Satzbau einer Reihe von Sprachen skizziert, die unter verschiedenen Gesichtspunkten interessant erscheinen. (Nähere Erläuterungen im Vorwort zum ersten Band.) Den Abschluß bilden ein Personen-, ein Sach- und ein Sprachregister für beide Halbbände.

Zwei Hinweise für die Benutzung der Register: (a) Aus technischen Gründen konnten im Personenregister Namensmehrdeutigkeiten nicht aufgelöst werden; gelegentlich beziehen sich also verschiedene Seitenangaben unter demselben (Familien-) Namen auf verschiedene Personen, was sich in der Regel durch Nachschlagen an den entsprechenden Textstellen oder in der jeweiligen Artikelnachbearbeitung klären läßt. (b) Im Sachregister ist bei Verweisen, die sich auf das Thema größerer Abschnitte (etwa ganzer Kapitel) beziehen, die Seite angegeben, auf der der Abschnitt beginnt. Auf eine weitere Kennzeichnung mit „ff“ oder „passim“ wurde in solchen Fällen verzichtet.

Für vielfältige Hilfe bei der Arbeit am zweiten Band haben wir (außer den schon im Vorwort zum ersten Band genannten Personen) Nützen Öztürk zu danken sowie auf Seiten des Verlags Christiane Graefe und Heike Plank. Unser besonderer Dank gilt darüber hinaus Birgit Kaiser, die das Register konzipiert und erstellt hat.

Im August 1995

Joachim Jacobs
Arnim von Stechow
Wolfgang Sternewald
Theo Vennemann