GRAMMATICAL SKETCH

OF WIK-MUNGKAN

1. PHONEMES

The phonemes (sounds) of Wik-Mungkan are set out below in chart form.
Where Wik-Mungkan practical orthography (spelling) is different from the
linguistic symbols used, it is shown in brackets.

Figure 1: The Phonemes of Wik-Mungkan

Consonants

	Labial	Inter-dental	Alveo-dental	Alveo-palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	p	t̪ (th)	t	tj (ch)	k	ʔ (')
Nasal	m	n̪ (nh)	n	nj (ny)	ŋ (ng)	
Lateral			l			
Vibrant			ř (r)*			
Semi-Vowel	w		r̥ (r)* y			

Vowels

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e		o
Low		a	

* These two r's are not written differently, as r̥ occurs
hardly at all, and even where it does occur, e.g. in *war*
'oyster', *remat* 'shellfish', several people are now using ř.
The only word where r̥ occurs initially, *remat*, may be a
borrowed word.

All five vowels are lengthened as well and are written as *aa*, *ee*, *ii*, *oo*
and *uu*. Length of vowels is phonemic; it makes a difference in the
meaning of words according to whether a vowel is long or short, e.g. *mut*
'tail', *muut* 'noise', and *tha'* 'foot', *thaa'* 'mouth'. Sometimes,
however, either a short or long vowel is lengthened for emphasis: *pi'an*
'big' is commonly pronounced as *pii'an* for emphasis; likewise *yot* 'many'
is frequently lengthened considerably for emphasis.

It is helpful to know some other things too about Wik-Mungkan phonemes.
Consonants are sometimes lengthened when following a vowel with primary
stress, the heaviest stress in the word. In certain situations *p* and *t*
come out sounding like *b* and *d*, i.e. they are voiced (said with the
vocal cords vibrating). For example, when *t* occurs following or between
consonants that are voiced, as in *nungantam*, it often sounds more like
d. The vibrant phoneme *r* is normally pronounced as a flap between
vowels, e.g. in the word *we'aram*, but it is pronounced as a trill when
next to another consonant, e.g. *erkam*. When some words are said with a
lot of emphasis, *y* comes out sounding like a very heavy *ch*, really more
like *dj*; *way* 'bad' said with heavy emphasis sounds more like *wadja*.

The vowel *a* is pronounced lightly and quickly in non-stressed syllables
(see the next section on stress) and has a little different sound, which
linguists write as *ə*. This happens in English too, e.g. the second *a* in
'catapult' is pronounced as *ə*. Some Wik-Mungkan words where this happens
are *nungantam*, *ka'ar* and *nhepan*. Sometimes, however, the *a* drops out
altogether and the next consonant is said heavily instead, e.g.
nungantam can be said as *nungntam* and even as *nungtam*.

2. WORD STRESS

The common stress pattern of Wik-Mungkan stems is Ś.S.S̀.S. (primary
stress, nonstress, secondary stress, non-stress, with S standing for
syllable.)

If a vowel other than *a* occurs in what would normally be a nonstress
position, it will receive secondary stress: *yéppè'an* 'unlucky hunter';
kíkkìy 'creek'. In many cases Wik-Mungkan readers and writers have
chosen to represent this by doubling the consonant before the vowel with
secondary stress.

There are a few words where the vowel *a* occurring in what would normally
be a nonstress position receives secondary stress. Again, many of these
are written with doubled consonants, e.g. *páththàm* 'really, very'. It
seems possible that these words were historically compounds.

There are another twenty forms recorded which have primary stress
occurring on other than the first syllable. Some of these are
onomatopoeic words or exclamations. Others were likely historically
compounds or phrases, as it is sometimes possible to isolate one word
root (morpheme). Some examples are: *kuchék* 'head', *chalúpam* 'splash'.

Primary stress is not symbolized in Wik-Mungkan spelling, but where it
occurs on other than the first syllable of a word, then this is noted in
the dictionary entry.

There are categories of suffixes in Wik-Mungkan according to how they
fit into the common stress pattern (Sayers 1970:11, 12; also 1976c).
Class I suffixes receive either secondary stress or lack stress
according to their environment, such as -ant and -am: púkant 'to/for
the child', kómanànt 'to/for the young woman'.

Class II suffixes have innate secondary stress and retain it whatever
the environment, e.g. -ak, which indicates goal or purpose. Other
examples are some of the future tense suffixes: -āng (first person
singular); -āl (first person dual); -ān (first person exclusive
dual/plural, and second person singular and plural); and -āmp (first
person plural). Because these future endings are an important
grammatical distinction and only differ from the corresponding past
tense endings by having secondary stress (as against no stress), they
are marked in the Wik-Mungkan orthography (by a macron symbol). Class
III suffixes innately lack stress, such as the past tense suffixes
mentioned above or such as -ang when it has a co-ordinating function.
Other suffixes again (Class IV) are made up of two syllables with a
nonstress-secondary stress pattern which is retained whatever the
environment, e.g. -antam, the possessive case suffix, or -antang, the
accompaniment case suffix. (For charts of case and verb suffixes, see
Figures 5, 6 and 8.)

3. THE RHYTHMIC JUNCTURE PHONEME -a

The vowel a often occurs suffixed to Wik-Mungkan words, either within
phrases or sentences or at the end of sentences. More commonly, forms
without a occur and so dictionary entries occur without a; however,
sentence illustrations occur with a where it is desirable. The
occurrence of a is related to clause and phrase rhythm and also to
matters of emphasis and style, e.g. it may occur not at all in a
sentence, but then occur in every word or most words of the same
sentence when spoken slowly and deliberately.

4. INTONATION-CARRYING CLITICS

There are nine intonation-carrying suffixes or particles, called <u>clitics</u>
here because they occur at the end of phonological clauses. These are
listed, along with the meanings they carry:

	Intonation Carrier	Pitch level or glide	Meaning
1.	-a	low	Indicative
2.	-a,	high	Sequential
3.	aa?	high-low	Tag Question
4.	ey?	high-low	Tag Question
5.	-a?	mid	Interrogative
6.	ee!	high-low	Pleading or Desiderative
7.	aa!	high-low	Pleading or Desiderative

| 8. | *-aa,* | high-low | Continued Action |
| 9. | *ow!* | high-low | Extreme Emphasis |

Some of these clitics finish a sentence, others help to show the relationship between clauses, and some do either, depending on where they occur.

5. PARTS OF SPEECH (OR MAJOR WORD CLASSES)

Not every Wik-Mungkan word belongs to just one word class, although most do. Some words are listed as being both adjective and adverb, as they can modify either a noun or a verb. Others do double duty as indefinite pronouns and temporals, e.g. *wiy* meaning 'sometimes' or 'some (people)'. Nouns, adjectives and verbs have derivational possibilities, i.e. suffixes can be added which change the part of speech. All word classes except conjunctions, intensifiers, diminutives, exclamations, responses, greetings, and some particles can take inflection, i.e. suffixes which modify the meaning (but do not change the word class). Some points about the word classes, and their derivational or inflectional possibilities, follow.

5.1 NOUNS

Nouns are suffixed with case endings where needed. These are in fact suffixed to the last word of the noun phrase. Nouns and pronouns differ at some points concerning case endings. For nouns a distinction is made between the subjects of transitive clauses (case ending *-ang*) and the subjects of intransitive clauses (zero case ending), whereas subject pronouns are the same regardless of whether they are subjects of transitive or intransitive clauses. (For case endings, see Section 7.)

Two derivational affixes which derive adjectives from nouns are *-athiy* and *-amiy*. The former means 'abundance of quantity' or 'oversize', e.g. *thip* is 'stomach', while *thipathiy* describes a person with a 'big stomach'; *kal* is 'rat' while *aak kalathiy* describes a place overrun with rats. The suffix *-amiy* also refers to abundance or fullness but only in respect to meteorological features, e.g. from *kep* 'moon' is derived *kepamiy* 'flooded with moonlight'.

Some nouns are preceded by classifiers, resulting in generic-specific phrases, described in Section 10.

The order of affixation of the clitics which may occur at the end of a noun phrase is as follows:

Possessive	Other Cases (e.g. Ergative)	Emphasis	Definite	Topic
-antam	e.g. *-ang*	*-am*	*-an*	*-iy*

5.2 ADJECTIVES

When there is ellipsis (omission) of a noun due to it being understood

from previous context, an adjective may become the head of a noun phrase. However, adjectives may be distinguished from nouns in that they have different derivational potential. Intransitive and transitive verbs may be derived from adjectives by the suffixation of *-am* and *-ath* respectively: *ongk* 'long, tall'; *ongkam(an)* 'grow long, grow tall'; *ongkath(an)* 'stretch, lengthen'.

Adjectives normally follow the noun they are describing. But sometimes for extra emphasis a speaker puts the adjective first in the phrase. Whichever order is chosen, the adjective has the heavier stress and higher pitch.

5.3 PRONOUNS

First, second and third persons are distinguished, and singular, dual and plural number. First person dual and plural pronouns are either inclusive (incl) or exclusive (excl). Pronouns, unlike nouns, are suffixed for case according to a nominative-accusative (subject-object) system.

Two series of partly coinciding base forms for personal pronouns are distinguished (Godfrey and Kerr 1964): those which take 'centre cases', namely nominative (subject), accusative (object) and vocative, and those which take 'adjunct cases', e.g. referent (indirect object) and accompaniment. (For explanation of the cases see Section 7.)

The subject pronouns are listed below in a chart. These are the same as the base forms for centre cases.

Figure 2: Subject Pronouns

		Singular	Dual		Plural	
1st	incl.		*ngal*	'we two'	*ngamp*	'we all'
	excl.	*ngay* 'I'	*ngan*	'we, but not you'	*ngan*	'we, but not you'
2nd		*nint* 'you (one)'	*nip*	'you two'	*niiy*	'you all'
3rd		*nil* 'he, she, it'	*pul*	'they two'	*than*	'they all'

For object pronouns (accusative case) the suffix *-ang* is added to the subject forms above, with the exception of *nil*, the third person singular, where the object form is *nunang*. Also, there is an alternate first person singular object pronoun form, *nganyang*. The vocative suffixes for the dual and plural second person pronouns are *-alang*, (close distance), *-aley* or *-aleey* (mid distance), and *-aloy* or *-alooy* (far distance).

For the adjunct cases, there are alternative bases for singular number: 1st person, *ngath*; 2nd person, *nungk*; and 3rd person, *nung*. Onto these bases, referent (indirect object), possessive, source, accompaniment and reflexive suffixes may be added. A chart showing the referent pronouns follows:

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Figure 3: Referent Pronouns

	Singular	Dual	Plural
1st incl.		*ngalant* 'to/for us two'	*ngampar* 'to/for us all'
1st excl.	*ngath(ar)* 'to/for me'	*ngant* 'to/for us, but not you'	*ngant* 'to/for us, but not you'
2nd	*nungk(ar)* 'to/for you (one)'	*nipar* 'to/for you two'	*niiyant* 'to/for you all'
3rd	*nung(ant)* 'to/for him, her, or it'	*pulant* 'to/for those two'	*thant* 'to/for them all'

In Figure 3, *ngath*, *nungk* and *nung* are shortened forms. Possessive and source pronouns are formed by adding *-am* to the full referent pronoun forms; accompaniment pronouns by adding *-ang*; goal pronouns by adding *-ak*; and reflexive pronouns by adding *-akam*. There are also alternative forms for the singular reflexive pronouns: *ngathamang* (first person); *nungkamang* (second person); and *nungamang* (third person).

When *ngant* and *thant* have possessive, accompaniment and reflexive suffixes added, the consonant *t* is doubled, so as to reflect the fact that in these cases the *a* in the second syllable has secondary stress. We therefore have *nganttam*, *nganttang*, *nganttakam*; and *thanttam*, *thanttang*, *thanttakam*.

There are a limited set of abbreviated forms of the pronouns which are optionally suffixed to the verb (following the tense-subject person markers). These are:

	1st Singular	3rd Singular
Accusative (Object)	*-any*	*-an*
Referent	*-ar*	*-ant*
Source/Possessive	*-aram*	*-antam*
Accompaniment	*-arang*	*-antang*

An example of the use of these would be:

> *Wik kuchekam ya' mo'aram.*
> 'It went right out of my mind.'

There are also 'mate' pronominal constructions, where the speaker links together two individuals or groups by suffixing an abbreviated form of one pronoun onto the full form of another:

> *nilar (nil-ar)*
> 'that close relative or friend of mine'

The third person singular subject pronoun *nil* is sometimes used as a

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collective pronoun. The third person plural subject pronoun *than* can be used with an impersonal meaning, when the speaker either cannot or does not wish to make the subject specific. The effect thus achieved is similar to English passive sentences.

Wik-Mungkan also has indefinite pronouns, e.g. *thonangan, thon* 'another', and *wiy* 'some'. (The word *wiy* takes case inflections as for nouns, i.e. distinguishing subjects of transitive and intransitive clauses.)

5.4 DEMONSTRATIVES

Demonstratives are marked for case as for nouns. Three degrees of distance are distinguished for demonstratives: *i*- close distance; *na*- mid distance; and *a*- far distance.

Demonstratives for ergative and nominative cases are given in chart form below. Plurals are formed by partial reduplication for demonstratives in ergative case, and by the affixation of -*ang* for those in nominative case.

Figure 4: Demonstratives in Ergative and Nominative Case

		Close	Mid	Far
Ergative	Sing.	*ilangan*	*nalangan*	*alangan*
	Plur.	*il-ilangan*	*nal-nalangan*	*al-alangan*
Nominative	Sing.	*inan*	*nanan*	*anan*
	Plur.	*inangan*	*nanangan*	*anangan*

Demonstratives in instrument case are identical with ergative. Other case suffixes (with the exception of locative) are added onto the bases *il*-, *nal*- and *al*-. For referent, -*ant* or -*antan* is added; for possessive, -*antam* and for accompaniment, -*antang*.

An affix which occurs with demonstratives is -*am*, meaning 'the same one', e.g. *alangaman* 'that same one'.

Locative demonstratives also have three degrees of distance. They have the base forms *ing*-, *nang*- and *ang*- or *in*-, *nan*- and -*an*, and can be suffixed with -*an* and -*am* or -*im* (the latter is more emphatic), and -*aman* or -*man*.

Goal demonstratives, expressing purpose and location towards, are formed from a different base. These are *iikanak, naakanak* and *aakanak*.

There are also two sets of demonstratives which have temporal or spatial meaning and which can refer to circumstances as well, namely *inpal(an) nanpal(an)* and *anpal(an)*; plus *imanam, namanam* and *amanam*. These can mean 'from now, from here, because of this reason', or in the case of the far distant ones, 'from then, from there, because of that reason'.

5.5 DIMINUTIVES AND INTENSIFIERS

There is a small class of words in Wik-Mungkan which modify adjectives, adverbs, locatives and temporals. Some of these, e.g. *chil*, *wal* and *mal*, have a diminutive effect: *wal ko'anch* 'partly blind'. Others intensify: *wuut pi'an* 'really big'. Intensification can also be achieved by reduplication (see Section 9).

5.6 VERBS

The Wik-Mungkan verb affixation system is very regular. There are no verb classes and only four verb-like words which do not conjugate.

Tense-person suffixes which occur with Wik-Mungkan verb stems simultaneously indicate tense or mood, and the person or number of the subject; i.e. they indicate the time an action took place or will take place (tense); whether the speaker is making a statement or a command or expressing more a 'should/would/could' idea (mood); and whether the subject of the sentence is the speaker himself, or the person(s) he is talking to or about (person); and whether that subject is one or more persons (number). Three tenses are distinguished: present, past and future, although the present tense form has more often the force of habitual aspect. Future tense suffixes differ from the corresponding past tense suffixes only by secondary stress (versus nonstress) on the vowel for first and some second persons. Subjunctive mood (sense of 'should/would/could') may also be distinguished. Figure 5, which is adapted from Godfrey (1970:745) shows the base forms of the tense-person suffixes. Figure 6, also adapted from Godfrey (1970:750), shows the addition of the reciprocal suffixes.

Figure 5: Base Forms of Wik-Mungkan
Tense-Person Suffixes

(Where there are alternatives, the more common form is starred.)

Person	Corresponding Free Subject Pronoun	Present	Past	Future	Subjunctive
1st sing.	*ngay*	-ang	-ang/ -angan	-āng	-ing
non-sing. excl.	*ngan*	-anan	-an	-ān	*-in/-iyin
1st incl.					
dual	*ngal*	-anal	-al	-āl	-il
plur.	*ngamp*	-anamp	-amp	-āmp	-imp
2nd					
sing.	*nint*	-anan	-an	-ān	*-in/-iyin
dual	*nip*	-anip	-uw	-ow	-iw
plur.	*niiy*	-aniy	-an	-ān	*-in/-iyin

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3rd					
sing.	*nil*	-an	-∅	-ow	*-iy/*-iw/ -in
dual	*pul*	-anpul	-pul	-owpul	*-iypul/ -iwpul
plur.	*than*	-antan	-in/ -iyin	-ayn	*-iythan/ -iwthan

Figure 6: Wik-Mungkan Reciprocal Plus
Tense-Person Suffixes

Person	Corresponding Free Subject Pronoun	Present	Past/Future	Subjunctive
1st excl. non-sing.	*ngan*	-wunan	-wun	-win
1st incl.				
dual	*ngal*	-wunal	-wul	-wil
plur.	*ngamp*	-wunamp	-wump	-wimp
2nd				
dual	*nip*	-wunip	-wuw/-uw	-wiw
plur.	*niiy*	-wuniy	-wun	-win
3rd				
dual	*pul*	-wunpul	-wuwpul/-uwpul	-wiypul
plur.	*than*	-wuntan	-wayn (fut) -win (past)	-wiythan

There are both transitive (tv) and intransitive (iv) verbs in
Wik-Mungkan. Transitive verbs (e.g. *piik(an)* 'hit') take direct
objects. Intransitive verbs (e.g. *iiy(an)* 'go', *mo'(an)* 'run') do not.
In many cases transitive verbs can be derived from intransitive verb
stems (as well as from adjectives, see Section 5.2). The transitiviser
-ath is added to intransitive verb stems: *wamp(an)* 'come', *wampath(an)*
'bring'.

Some intransitive verbs cannot be made transitive in this fashion, but
instead have a transitive 'mate':

   pench(an) 'burn' (iv) / *kiingk(an)* 'cook, burn' (tv)

There are at least four ditransitive (dv) verbs in Wik-Mungkan which may
take two external objects, such as *aath(an)*, 'give, offer':

   Nil may kam aath nunang.
   'He gave her fruit juice.'

While transitive and ditransitive stems in Wik-Mungkan may take the
reciprocal suffixes, there are a few verbs which are always reciprocal
in form, such as *pek-* 'fight': *pekwuntan* 'they are fighting'.

There are four verb-like words (v) which are never conjugated: *kaangk*

'like'; *mak* 'let be'; *weenth* 'loves'; and *aw* 'fond of'. The first two are normally followed by a verb in future tense, although *kaangk* can be followed by a past tense verb: *mak iiyow* 'let him go'.

Both *weenth* and *aw* follow the nouns or nominalized verbs which refer to the object of the person's love or taste. Although both can have either good or bad connotations, *aw* is a stronger word than *weenth*.

> *puk-weenth*   'fond of children'
> *engkan aw*   'inquisitive person'

Personal verbs, either transitive (tpv) or intransitive (ipv), are those which normally have a free form of the object or indirect object following the verb. In many cases in English this would be expressed in the subject form. In Wik-Mungkan the object or indirect object usually refers to a person who is experiencing the effect of the action or process referred to by the verb:

> *Kuchek weechan nunang.*
> 'He has a headache.'

> *May lollies al-alangan ngangk mungk-mungkan nunang.*
> 'He is longing for those lollies.'

The surface grammatical subject, if there is one, is either a body part, or inanimate material object, or a subject pronoun which agrees in person and number with the object or indirect object pronoun.

Nouns can be derived from verbs by suffixing the nominalizer *-an*; however this possibility is not exploited a lot, so language learners should be careful here. Following the nominalizer *-an*, the case suffixes *-am* (source), *-ang* (temporal) or *-ak* (goal) may occur, giving past and present participles, and purposive forms of the verb respectively: *Nil engkanak wamp*. 'He came to ask.'

Also, transitive verbs can be derived from English loan words (mostly verbs, but sometimes nouns) by suffixing *-impung* to the loan word. Normal tense-person suffixes then follow. Some examples of these forms are:

> *colourimpung*   'colour in'
> *torchimpung*   'shine a torch on someone'
> *doubleimpung*   'make two of something'
> *sweetenimpung*   'add sugar to tea'

5.7 VERBAL AUXILIARIES

There are two verbal auxiliaries (v.aux) in the dictionary, *kan* and *ngul*. These intersect with tense in Wik-Mungkan and help to indicate various moods and aspects. (Aspects help to describe the nature of an action, e.g. whether it is continuous, or quickly over and done with.) Both *kan* and *ngul* are described in detail in the body of the dictionary.

5.8 ADVERBS

The term adverb (adv) here is used more narrowly than in traditional grammar, and used mainly to refer to adverbs of 'manner', such as *erkam* 'quickly'. Adverbs normally precede the verbs they modify. Onomatopoeic adverbs are not uncommon:

> *cham cham mungk* 'He chomped on his food.' (literally 'he ate in a chomping manner')

There is also a set of adverbs with the base *yim-*, e.g. *yimanang* 'like that, in this manner'.

5.9 TEMPORALS AND LOCATIVES

Temporals (temp) are words indicating time. The specification of time is much less exact than in English, e.g. *peetan* 'yesterday, a few days ago, last week'. The suffix *-anam* occurs with a restricted number of temporals, such as *nyiingk* 'recently', and can give adjectival force: *aak nyiingkanam* 'recent days'.

Locatives (loc) indicate spatial orientation, such as *thinth* 'close', *pek* 'down' and *kaaw* 'east'. The points of the compass are much in focus in Wik-Mungkan conversation, and used far more frequently than in English and in many more contexts: someone may refer to his ear on the north side, or to choosing the piece of cake on the south side of a plate.

The suffixes *-angk* and *-am* occur with a restricted number of locatives. The suffix *-am*, when occurring with locatives, has the meaning of 'towards' rather than the source meaning of the homophonous case suffix *-am*, e.g. *kaawam* 'towards the east direction'. When locatives occur in a clause in which the verb refers to a stationary action, *-angk* may be suffixed to locatives with the meaning of 'at': *kenyangk* 'up on high'.

There are also several series of demonstratives which can have either temporal or spatial meaning and which can refer to circumstances as well (see Section 5.4).

5.10 PARTICLES

Wik-Mungkan has a few forms or <u>particles</u> (part) which modify the meaning of a sentence rather than just the noun or verb, e.g. *nath* 'maybe'.

5.11 CONJUNCTIONS

Conjunctions (conj) have a co-ordinating or subordinating function. Some have both, e.g. *puth*, which has been described by Sayers (1976b:112) as a broad spectrum conjunction, as it can variously mean 'and, but, because, so, therefore'.

Other examples of Wik-Mungkan conjunctions are *yipam* 'because' and *a'* 'and, and then'.

5.12 INTERJECTIONS

Interjections in Wik-Mungkan range from responses (res) such as *ee'* 'yes' and exclamations (excl) such as *yakkey* expressing alarm or sudden emotion, to greetings such as *appow* 'hullo, goodbye'. Interjections tend to be phonologically unusual. Wik-Mungkan is characterized by closed syllables (mostly CVC, CVCC, CVCCC, CV'C or CV'CC). One of the few exceptions to this is *yaa*, a response expressing agreement. Some interjections such as the exclamation *apu'!* have primary stress on other than the first syllable. Perhaps the only word in the language which can have primary stress on either the first or second syllable is *yakkey*. When it has primary stress on the second syllable, the vowel is usually lengthened as well.

5.13 QUESTION WORDS

Interrogatives or question words (ques) intersect with several of the above word classes. There are three interrogative stems: *ngeen* 'what'; *wee'* 'who'; and *want-* which concerns location and manner.

The interrogatives with *wee'* and *ngeen* as stems take case endings as for nouns. The stem *wee'* is reduplicated to indicate plurality, e.g. *wee'-wee'ang* would be 'who?' (plural subject of transitive verb). The interrogative *ngeen* when reduplicated has the meaning of 'how many?'.

Questions with *want-* as stem include *wanttak* 'what, how' and *wanttin* 'where'. When *want-* is reduplicated, the forms that result include *want-wanttak* 'whatever, however', *want-wanttin* 'whichever' and *want-wanttinak* 'wherever'.

6. MOODS AND ASPECTS

Some moods and aspects intersect with tense in Wik-Mungkan. Present tense affixes also indicate <u>habitual</u> aspect; future tense affixes normally indicate <u>imperative</u> mood when used with first or second person:

    Nint puy mo'āna!   'You run away!'
    Ngamp iiyāmpa!   'Let's go!'

Future tense may also indicate a mood of <u>advisability</u> or <u>duty</u>, when the verb receives the main stress in the clause:

    Than ngoonchayn.   'They should enter.'

The <u>subjunctive</u> mood is indicated by verbal affixes (see Figures 5 and 6), and <u>continuative</u> aspect by reduplication of the verb stem and sometimes the intonation-carrying clitic *-aa*.

The verbal auxiliaries *kan* and *ngul* also play a large part in the formation of several moods and aspects. The following chart (which draws heavily on unpublished work of Godfrey) sums up their functions (see dictionary entries as well):

Figure 7: *kan* and *ngul* Intersecting with Verbal Tenses

With verbs in:	Past Tense	Present	Future
kan	Punctiliar	Temporal (now, then)	a) Immediate Future b) Desiderative
kanam	Completive		
ngul	a) Predictive b) Temporal (then) c) Conjunction (so, so then, well then)	a) Temporal (later on) b) Intentional	Temporal (later on)
kanan	. . . . after		
ngulan-a, *ngulaniy-a*	Temporal (after that, then)		
kan-ngul	(a) Inchoative (begin to) (b) Completive (when in dependent clause)		Near Future

Other words also play a part in indicating moods and aspects. The unconjugated verbs *kaangk* and *mak* (see Section 5.6) express desiderative and permissive moods respectively.

There are also negative adverbs or responses, such as *ke'* 'not', *ya'angam* 'to no avail', and *ke'-ngul* 'never again'.

Again, *ep* expresses certainty, while *nath* and *yaaka'* express probability; *pur'* means 'hardly', while *yaa'an* or *yaan* has the sense of 'just'. The negative *ya'* used immediately preceding a verb has an intensifying effect (see dictionary entry). Adverbs such as *murkanam* and *ngoongkam* 'keep on doing something' and *ngoontan* 'always' give iterative and durative aspects respectively (i.e. actions or states which are repeated often, or last for a long while).

7. THE CASE SYSTEM

The case suffixes used in Wik-Mungkan are given in chart form below:

Figure 8: Wik-Mungkan Case Suffixes

	Nouns	Pronouns
ERGATIVE (subject of transitive verb)	-ang	NOMINATIVE (subject of either transitive or intransitive verb)
		$\emptyset$
NOMINATIVE (here – subject of intransitive verb or object)	$\emptyset$	ACCUSATIVE
		-ang
VOCATIVE	* -ang (close) -ey (mid) -oy (far)	Ayyang! (free form vocative) -alang (close) -aley/-aleey (mid) -aloy/-alooy (far) (these latter three are suffixed to pronouns nip and niiy)
INSTRUMENTAL (including means and concept of 'with')	-ang thamp(ang)	
STATIONARY LOCATIVE	-ang	-antang/-arang/-tang*
TEMPORAL	-ang	
REFERENT (to, for)	-ant	-ant/-ar/-t*
GOAL (for, towards)	-ak	-ak
ACCOMPANIMENT	-antang thamp(ang)	-antang/-arang/-tang*
SOURCE (including causal and location 'from')	-antam -am	-antam/-aram/-tam*
POSSESSIVE	-antam	-antam/-aram/-tam*

* See Section 5.3 for an explanation of which pronoun forms
take which of the alternate suffix forms.

The case suffixes shown above are all suffixed onto the last word of the
phrase. There are also the free forms *thamp* and *thampang* which have as
one of their functions the indication of instrumental and accompaniment
case. The case of a noun may be indicated by a demonstrative following
the noun (or occurring on its own) instead of a case enclitic. The two
do not normally occur within the one phrase.

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Nouns, demonstratives and interrogatives are marked for case according to what is called in linguistics a nominative-ergative system. In this system the subjects of transitive and intransitive verbs are distinguished, and the former is referred to as being in ergative case. On the other hand, intransitive subjects and transitive objects are both marked for nominative case. Pronouns, on the other hand, function according to what is called in linguistics a nominative-accusative system. Here pronoun subjects of both transitive and intransitive verbs are indicated by the same pronoun forms and are referred to as being in nominative case. Objects are distinguished from both and are in accusative case. (For more details see Section 5.3.)

The potential of case suffixes to be stressed or unstressed or either, depending on context, is discussed in Section 2.

Following are some examples of the various case suffixes or demonstratives used with nouns or noun phrases in sentences. The relevant suffix or demonstrative will be underlined, unless the case is manifested by zero.

Ergative

> *Nil kaath-kunchangan kechanangam pungan nunang.*
> 'Her own mother hits her with a digging stick.'

Nominative

> *Pam wanch yot kungk mo'in.*
> 'Lots of people flew north.'

> *Ngay pam wanch yot thathang.*
> 'I saw lots of people.'

(In both sentences above *yot* could be followed by the demonstrative *anangan* 'those' (nominative case).)

Vocative. For vocative suffixes the hyphen is used, as the vocative suffixes are said with heavy stress.

> *Kaath-ang! Pal iiya!*
> 'Mother! Come here!'

Instrumental covers several closely related semantic concepts: instrumental, concomitant ('with'), means and even manner. In the example under Ergative, the word *kechanangam* has the instrumental *-ang* suffix. Some examples of other uses of instrumental case follow:

> *Palam wampantan wukal tha'iyang.*
> 'They come back here with lots of money.'

> *Puk many wiy-a, dinghyang mo'in.*
> 'Some of the children travelled by means of the dinghy.'

> *Wumpang iiy-iiy.*
> 'He walked hunched over.'

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Stationary Locative

Ma'-kucham wun wukarang.
'He (the ghost) stayed in the hole for two days.'

Nil puk manyan ingkang nyiin ngatharang.
'The child sat on my shoulder.'

Temporal

Than ngul wampin ngampar, kinch thonamang ananiy.
'I predict they'll come to us on another day.'

Referent. The referent enclitic *-ant* is used with animate nouns and pronouns to indicate indirect object, a locative 'to' meaning, or a benefactive 'for' meaning.

Nil puk manyant thee'.
'He gave it to the child.'

Nil may inan wampath puk manyant.
'He brought this food for the child.'

Goal

Minhak iiyampa!
'Let's go fishing!'

Accompaniment

Benny.antang wee' iiyowa?
'Who will go with Benny?'

Source. The source suffix *-antam* with animate nouns and pronouns has the meaning of cause, or location 'from'.

Nil winynyang mo' oonyantam.
'He was frightened of the ghost.'

The second form of the source suffix *-am* is used with inanimate nouns to mean location 'from' or cause.

Nil waangkaman maay, kunttowan.
'He took the stones from the dillybag.'

In yiinch wunan ngakam.
'This is wet because of the rain.'

Either *-antam* or *-am* may be used with inanimate nouns with the meaning of original source: *kangk banana.antam* 'leaves from the banana tree'. The suffix *-antam* can also be glossed 'about, concerning' in some contexts, e.g. in initial sentences of stories where the speaker is announcing his topic:

Ngay wik kath inan waa'ang wanchinthantam.
'I'm going to tell you a story about an old lady.'

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Possessive

> *Puk Martha.antam nana.*
> 'Martha's child is over there.'

Body parts are normally not possessed, although with the influence of English, phrases with possessed body parts are now sometimes heard. More traditionally, object pronouns would occur in apposition to the body part concerned:

> *Ma' path nunang thuukangan.*
> 'The snake bit his hand.'

8. OTHER AFFIXES

There are at least four other affixes which occur commonly and need attention:

1) **The definite suffix -an.** As indicated by its name, -an has a main function of marking definiteness. A noun is definite if it refers to given or known information. Demonstratives and personal pronouns are also considered definite and therefore relate to given information. The suffix -an does not normally co-occur with demonstratives, but may do so with personal pronouns.

There are several other uses of -an. One of these relates to relative clauses, where -an is suffixed to the first or second word of the clause:

> *Ana ingam weentan, aak nilan mul wun, angan.*
> 'He goes round and round here, in the place where he died, there.'

In clauses which have a topic-comment sequence, -an is normally suffixed to the noun phrase which is topic, but not to that which is comment:

> *Goroka.an aak min.*
> 'Goroka is a good place.'

The suffix -an is very complex and attempts at understanding and explaining it may be read in Kilham (1977) and Sayers (1982).

2) **The topic suffix -iy.** The suffix -iy, as its name suggests, is used to bring prominence to the topic or topics of a story or discourse; this could be the main topic of a story, or minor topics brought into prominence for a little while in a discourse.

3) **The compassionate suffix -wey.** This suffix is an expression of compassion to another, or of sensitivity towards oneself. It can be suffixed to a number of parts of speech and sometimes occurs more than once in a sentence.

4) **The emphatic suffix -am or -im.** There is also an emphatic suffix -am or -im which can occur on several different parts of speech. Younger people mostly say -im.

9. REDUPLICATION

Reduplication constitutes the basic form of some Wik-Mungkan words and phrases. Many of these are onomatopoeic names for birds and animals (often describing e.g. the bird's call) or descriptions of human actions or reactions: *minh kang-kang* 'eagle'; *kur'-kur' thawan* 'stomach rumblin

Apart from this, reduplication has several functions, described below:

<u>Continuous aspect</u>. Verb stems may receive partial or full reduplication of their first syllable to indicate continuous aspect, e.g. *peey-peey* 'cried and cried'; *ka-kal* 'he rowed and rowed'.

<u>Intensification</u>. Words from several word classes may be reduplicated or intensified, such as adjectives and adverbs and some temporals and locatives: *erkam* 'fast' but *erk-erkam* 'really fast'; *ngutang* 'night', but *ngut-ngutang* 'in the dead of night'; *kech* 'far', but *kech-kech* 'a really long distance'.

<u>Plurality</u>. As already mentioned, demonstratives with an *al-* base and interrogatives with *wee'* base may be reduplicated to indicate plurality. In addition a restricted number of nouns referring to older child and teenage age groups can be reduplicated to indicate plurality: *koman* 'young woman', but *kom-koman* 'young women'.

<u>Alternation</u>. Numerals and *ma'* 'hand' may be reduplicated to express alternation:

| *thonam* | 'one' | but | *thon-thonam* | 'one by one' |
| *ma'* | 'hand' | but | *ma'-ma'ang* | 'to take in turns' |

<u>Exclusion</u>. Pronouns reduplicated and suffixed with the emphatic *-am* express exclusion, e.g. *nil* 'he', but *nil-nilam* 'he by himself'.

<u>Non-comformity or difference</u>. Personal pronouns may be reduplicated to emphasize that something or a way of doing something is different from the norm. Here the primary stress goes on the second stem: *nil* 'he', but *nil-níl* 'different, unique.'

10. COMPOUNDING AND CLOSE-KNIT PHRASES

Wik-Mungkan is very rich in both of these, and they have been described in detail in Kilham (1974).

Wik-Mungkan has compounds for all word classes except intensifiers and particles, and there are close-knit phrases paralleling most of these same word classes. The majority of compounds have the stress pattern primary stress-secondary stress, whereas in close-knit phrases the second morpheme receives the primary stress. Compounds tend to have a tighter degree of semantic fusion than close-knit phrases, in that they are more often idiomatic and also in that the meaning of one or both morphemes is not always easy to determine.

Some compounds express the semantic relationship of either modification or co-ordination; others are metaphors which have become the names of

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things. There are several hundred verbal compounds which express an
action, a process, or state of being. These are largely idiomatic and
mainly composed of body part plus verb stem, e.g. *ma'-aath(an)*
(hand-offer) 'help'.

In fact, body parts feature largely in both compounds of various word
classes and close-knit phrases. They are used in both their literal and
extended meanings; e.g. *kon* 'ear' is often used when mental processes
such as realisation, perception and memory are involved, while *man*
'neck', 'throat' is often used in compounds or phrases which have
unpleasant connotations: *man-aath(an)* (neck-offer) 'tease', but
kon-aath(an) (ear-offer) 'remind'.

Hundreds of close-knit phrases have been recorded which express a
generic-specific relationship. These phrases are juxtapositions of noun
plus noun, where the first word gives the broader setting and the second
narrows the field. The phrases are considered close-knit because of
their frequent collocation: *kuchek kaanch* (head bone) 'skull'; *puk
wanch* (child woman) 'female child'.

In the majority of cases, generic-specific phrases are terms for such
things as body parts, specific animal types, foods, spear types,
geographical features, age brackets or social status. Some generic
nouns such as *yuk* 'tree, thing'; *may* 'carbohydrate food'; *minh* 'protein
foods, edible animals' are very widely used and are similar to noun
classifiers, e.g. *minh pangk* 'wallaby'; *may po'al* 'yellow fruit'.

11. SYNTACTIC PHRASES

11.1 NOUN PHRASES

Two of the most common types of noun phrases will be mentioned here, the
Modified Noun Phrase and the Co-ordinate Phrase.

Modified Noun Phrase. The head of the modified noun phrase is a noun or
close-knit noun phrase. It may be modified by adjectives, possessive
pronouns, indefinite pronouns, locatives and demonstratives, all of
which normally follow the noun. Adjectives in their turn may be
modified by intensifiers. There is a highly preferred order of these
modifiers in a noun phrase: Noun-Adjective-Pronoun (Possessive or
Indefinite)-Locative-Demonstrative.

In practice it is extremely rare to hear more than two modifying
elements occurring in a noun phrase. The noun may not occur at all, and
in this instance an adjective, indefinite pronoun or demonstrative acts
as head of the phrase. Some examples of noun phrases are:

> *pam min anangan*
> 'those good men'

> *piny ngatharam alangan*
> 'that aunt of mine'

wiy anangan
'some of them'

yuk pek-pekang
'down underneath the tree'

Co-ordinate Noun Phrases. When a co-ordinate phrase refers to the
speaker or listener and a third person, the normal pattern is the
juxtaposition of a pronoun with a proper noun or kinship noun suffixed
by the co-ordinate suffix *-ang*, e.g. *ngan Topsy.ang* 'Topsy and I', *nip
kaathang* 'you and mother'.

When only third person nouns and pronouns are involved, the speaker may
or may not choose to name both. There is more freedom in the order of
pronouns and nouns in co-ordination of third persons, and also the
co-ordinate suffix *-ang* occurs sometimes once, twice, or not at all.
Where the co-ordinate phrase functions in cases like referent or
accompaniment, then the pronoun will be suffixed with the relevant case
marker.

kaalang pul
'mother's younger brother and the other person'

than Marie wee'anang
'Marie and the rest of that group'

John.ang pul Michael.ang
'John and Michael'

Michael.ang pulant David.ang
'to Michael and David'

The particle *thak* 'etcetera' also functions in co-ordinate phrases, e.g.
may thak 'food and all the other things'.

Co-ordination is also expressed by listing, where the conjunction *a'*
occurs between each item listed, and normally *a' puth* will occur before
the last item.

11.2 VERB PHRASES

The verb is the head of the verb phrase. It may be modified by modal
and aspectual particles, adverbs, onomatopoeic words, noun phrases
expressing modification, and nouns marked with instrumental case suffix
-ang. Some examples follow:

Itangam iiy.	'He walked slowly.'
Lopam thuucha!	'It came right off!'
Mee' we'aram iiy.	'He went wide-eyed.'
Umang iiy.	'He went straight ahead.'

11.3 TEMPORAL AND LOCATIVE PHRASES

Temporals and locatives may be modified by a small set of adjectives,
e.g. *ngutang ongk* 'all night'; *kinch keny* 'midday'.

In another locative phrase construction, demonstratives precede the
locative or directional which they modify: *in kaaw* 'here close in the
east'; *anam pek* 'down over there'.

Locative phrases are sometimes formed by the juxtaposition of two
locatives: *pal puy* 'everywhere'.

12. WORD ORDER IN SENTENCES

Because of the case-marking system, Wik-Mungkan word order is freer than
that of English, and quite a lot of variety is possible, especially in
oral speech. There are, however, some preferred orders and it is good
to be aware of them. When the free form of the subject occurs, noun or
pronoun, it typically occurs initially in a clause. When an object is
expressed by a noun, it will normally precede the verb phrase; but if it
is expressed by a pronoun, it will normally follow the verb phrase,
especially third person pronouns. Not too many words occur preceding
the verb in Wik-Mungkan -- if they do, the effect is 'overcrowding'.
Case ranking is apparent in that subject and object have prime right of
way to occur preceding the verb, and nouns marked with referent case
have the next highest rank. If one or more of the above do not occur,
then by default words or phrases marked for cases such as locative,
source and accompaniment may occur preceding the verb.

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       ASP = Aurukun School Press

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