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English summary

This book presents an in-depth linguistic description of one Papuan Malay variety, based on sixteen hours of recordings of spontaneous narratives and conversations between Papuan Malay speakers.

‘Papuan Malay’ refers to the easternmost varieties of Malay (Austronesian). They are spoken in the coastal areas of West Papua, the western part of the island of New Guinea. The variety described here is spoken along West Papua’s northeast coast. Papuan Malay is the language of wider communication and the first or second language for an ever-increasing number of people of the area. While Papuan Malay is not officially recognized, and therefore not used in formal government or educational settings or for religious preaching, it is used in all other domains, including unofficial use in formal settings, and, to some extent, in the public media.

After a general introduction to the language, its setting, and history in Chapter 1, this grammar discusses the following topics, building up from smaller grammatical constituents to larger ones: phonology, word formation, noun and prepositional phrases, verbal and nonverbal clauses, non-declarative clauses, and conjunctions and constituent combining. Of special interest to linguists, typologists, and Malay specialists are the following in-depth analyses and descriptions: affixation and its productivity across domains of language choice, reduplication and its *gesamtbedeutung*, personal pronouns and their adnominal uses, demonstratives and locatives and their extended uses, and adnominal possessive relations and their non-canonical uses.

Chapter 2 examines the phonology of Papuan Malay. The language has 18 consonant phonemes and a basic five-vowel system. The consonant system consists of six stops, two affricates, two fricatives, four nasals, two liquids, and two approximants. The vowel system includes two front and two back vowels, and one open central vowel. Papuan Malay shows a clear preference for disyllabic roots and for CV and CVC syllables; the maximal syllable is CCVC. Stress typically falls on the penultimate syllable, although lexical roots with ultimate stress are also attested.

Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 discuss word formation processes in Papuan Malay. The language has very little productive morphology. Word formation is limited to the two derivational processes of affixation (Chapter 3) and reduplication (Chapter 4). Inflectional morphology is lacking, as nouns and verbs are not marked for any grammatical category such as gender, number, or case. There is also no voice system on verbs. Reduplication in Papuan Malay is a very productive morphological device for deriving new words. In terms of lexeme formation, three different types of reduplication are attested: full, partial, and imitative reduplication. The most common type is full reduplication, which involves the repetition of an entire root, stem, or word; bound morphemes are not reduplicated. Full reduplication usually applies to content words, although some function words can also be reduplicated. Partial and imitative reduplication are rare. The *gesamtbedeutung* of reduplication is “a HIGHER/LOWER DEGREE OF ...” in the sense of augmentation and diminution. There is, however, no specific, one-to-one relation between the meaning aspects of the reduplicated lexemes and the syntactic class of the corresponding base words.

Affixation in Papuan Malay has very limited productivity. This conclusion is based on an investigation of six affixes. Given the sociolinguistic profile of Papuan Malay (lack of language awareness, diglossic distribution with Indonesian, negative language attitudes towards Papuan Malay, substantial amount of language contact, and high degree of bilingualism) no productivity testing was conducted, as a substantial amount of interference from Indonesian was expected. This interference would have skewed testees' naïve judgments. Instead, the six affixes were examined in terms of seven language internal and two language external factors considered relevant in establishing the degree of productivity of these affixes. Compounding (Chapter 3) is a third word-formation process; it remains uncertain, however, to what degree it is a productive process.

Chapter 5 discusses the Papuan Malay word classes. The main criteria for defining distinct word classes are their syntactic properties, due to the lack of inflectional morphology and the rather limited productivity of derivational patterns. Three open and a number of closed lexical classes can be distinguished. The open word classes are nouns, verbs, and adverbs. The major closed word classes are personal pronouns, interrogatives, demonstratives, locatives, numerals, quantifiers, prepositions, and conjunctions. At the same time, however, Papuan Malay has membership overlap between a number of categories, most of which involve verbs. This includes overlap between verbs and nouns which is typical of Malay varieties and other western Austronesian languages. However, nouns, verbs, and adverbs have distinct syntactic properties which warrant their analysis as distinct word classes.

Three word classes are discussed in more detail, namely personal pronouns in Chapter 6 and demonstratives and locatives in Chapter 7.

Chapter 6 deals with Papuan Malay personal pronouns. The pronoun system distinguishes singular and plural numbers and three persons. In addition to signaling the person-number values of their referents they also signal their definiteness. Each pronoun has at least one long and one short form, with the exception of the second person singular pronoun. The use of the long and short forms does not mark grammatical distinctions but represents speaker preferences. The pronouns have pronominal and adnominal uses. In their pronominal uses, the pronouns substitute for noun phrases and designate speech roles. The long and short pronoun forms occur in all syntactic slots within the clause. Pronouns also occur in inclusory conjunction, summary conjunction, and appositional constructions. In their adnominal uses, the pronouns occur in post-head position and function as determiners. That is, signaling definiteness and person-number values, the pronouns allow the unambiguous identification of their referents. As determiners, the pronoun forms of all person-number values are employed, with the exception of the first person singular. NP PRO' noun phrases with plural personal pronouns have two possible interpretations. With indefinite referents, they have an additive plural reading and with definite referents an associative inclusory reading.

Chapter 7 describes the Papuan Malay demonstratives and locatives. They are deictic expressions that provide orientation to the hearer in the outside world and in the speech situation, in spatial as well as in non-spatial domains. Both deictic systems are distance oriented, in that they signal the relative distance of an entity

vis-à-vis a deictic center. At the same time, the two systems differ in a number of respects. They are distinct both in terms of their syntactic characteristics and forms and in terms of their functions. With respect to their syntactic properties, the demonstratives have a wider range of uses (adnominal, pronominal, and adverbial uses) than the locatives. Likewise, in terms of their functions, the demonstratives have a wider range of uses than the locatives. The locative system, by contrast, allows finer semantic distinctions to be made than the demonstrative system, given that the former expresses a three-way deictic contrast, whereas the latter expresses a two-way deictic contrast.

Chapter 8 examines the Papuan Malay noun phrase. The head of a noun phrase is typically a noun or personal pronoun. Further, although less common, demonstratives, locatives, or interrogatives can also function as heads. The canonical word order within the noun phrase is HEAD-MODIFIER. Depending on the syntactic properties of the adnominal constituents, though, a MODIFIER-HEAD order is also common. Attested in the present corpus is the co-occurrence of up to three post-head modifiers.

Chapter 9 describes adnominal possessive relations. In Papuan Malay, adnominal possessive constructions consists of two noun phrases linked with the possessive marker *punya* 'POSS', such that 'POSSESSOR *punya* POSSESSUM'. Possessive constructions with *punya* 'POSS' have a number of different realizations. The possessive marker can be represented with long *punya*, reduced *pu*, clitic =*p*, or a zero morpheme. There are no syntactic or semantic restrictions on the uses of the long and reduced possessive marker forms. By contrast, omission of *punya* only occurs when the possessive construction expresses inalienable possession of body parts or kinship relations. In addition to signaling adnominal possessive relations between two noun phrases, *punya* 'POSS' has a number of derived, non-canonical functions, namely (1) as an emphatic marker of locational relations or relations of association, (2) as a marker of beneficiary relations, (3) as an attitudinal intensifier or stance, and (4) as a ligature in reflexive constructions. The possessor and the possessum can be expressed with different kinds of syntactic constituents, such as lexical nouns, noun phrases, or demonstratives. In addition, personal pronouns can also express the possessor. In non-canonical possessive constructions, verbs can also take the possessor and/or possessum slots. Further, mid-range quantifiers, temporal adverbs, and prepositional phrases can take the possessum slot. The possessum can also be omitted in canonical or non-canonical possessive constructions. Semantically, the possessor and the possessum can denote human, nonhuman animate, or inanimate referents.

Chapter 10 deals with prepositional phrases in Papuan Malay. They are formed with eleven different prepositions, encoding location in space and time, accompaniment and instruments, goals, benefaction, and comparisons. Prepositional phrases take on different functions within the clause; that is, they can function as peripheral adjuncts, nonverbal predicates, or arguments. They also combine with different types of syntactic constituents, namely nouns, personal pronouns, demonstratives, locatives, and temporal adverbs. The complements of the prepositions take different

semantic roles within the clause, depending on the prepositions they are introduced with.

Chapter 11 discusses verbal clauses in Papuan Malay. The most pertinent distinction is that between intransitive and transitive clauses. There is no one-to-one correspondence between valency and transitivity, however, as Papuan Malay verbs allow but do not require core arguments. Trivalent verbs most often occur in monotransitive or intransitive clauses rather than in ditransitive clauses. Along similar lines, bivalent verbs are very commonly used in intransitive clauses. The predicate typically follows the subject and, in transitive clauses, precedes the direct object. In negated verbal clauses, the negator precedes the predicate. Causative clauses are also very common. They are the result of a valency-increasing operation. Papuan Malay causatives are monoclausal V_1V_2 constructions in which causative V_1 encodes the notion of cause while V_2 expresses the notion of effect. Papuan Malay has two causative verbs which usually produce “causer-controlled” causatives: trivalent *kasi* ‘give’, and bivalent *bikin* ‘make’. While *kasi*-causatives stress the outcome of the manipulation, *bikin*-causatives focus on the manipulation of circumstances, which leads to the effect. Another common type of verbal clauses are reciprocal clauses, formed with the reciprocity marker *baku* ‘RECP’. In these clauses, two predications are presented as one, with two participants equivalently acting upon each other. In simple reciprocals, both participants are encoded as the clausal subject. In discontinuous reciprocals, the second participant is expressed with a comitative phrase. Both clause types typically result in a reduction in syntactic valency. Also discussed are existential clauses formed with the existential verb *ada* ‘exist’. Two clause types can be distinguished: intransitive clauses with one core argument, and transitive clauses with two core arguments. In one-argument clauses, *ada* ‘exist’ precedes or follows the subject, or theme, depending on its definiteness. Existential clauses express existence, availability, or possession. A final type of verbal clauses discussed in this book are degree-marking and identity-marking comparative clauses. Degree-marking clauses denote superiority, inferiority, or superlative. In these clauses, the parameter follows the index, the comparee takes the subject slot, and the optional standard is expressed in a prepositional phrase. Identity-marking clauses designate similarity or dissimilarity. In these constructions, the parameter either precedes the index or is omitted. The comparee takes the subject slot while the standard is usually expressed with a prepositional phrase. In similarity clauses, the standard can also be encoded as the clausal subject together with comparee.

Chapter 12 examines nonverbal clauses in Papuan Malay. The language employs three syntactically distinct types of nonverbal predicate clauses, namely nominal, numeral/quantifier, and prepositional predicate clauses. These clauses are formed by juxtaposition of the two main constituents; no copula intervenes. The three clause types also have distinct semantic functions. Nominal predicates have ascriptive or equative function and also encode possession. Numeral and quantifier predicates have attributive function. Prepositional predicates encode locational or nonlocational relations between a FIGURE and the GROUND.

Chapter 13 describes negative, interrogative, and directive clauses. Negative clauses are formed with the negation adverbs *tida/tra* 'NEG' or *bukang* 'NEG'. Negator *tida/tra* 'NEG' is used for the negation of verbal, existential, and nonverbal prepositional clauses. Negator *bukang* 'NEG' is used to negate nonverbal clauses, other than prepositional ones, and to mark contrastive negation. As for interrogative clauses, three types of clauses can be distinguished: (1) content, or information questions which are formed with interrogatives and which elicit new information, (2) polar questions which elicit yes-no answers, and (3) alternative questions which require the interlocutor to choose the supposedly right answer from a list of possible answers. Directive clauses in Papuan Malay include imperatives and hortatives, permissions and obligations, and prohibitives. They are used with any kind of predicate.

Chapter 14 discusses Papuan Malay conjunctions and constituent combining. Conjunctions typically conjoin same-type constituents. Most of them combine clauses with clauses. Only two link different-type constituents, such as verbs with clauses. Typically, the conjunctions occur at the left periphery of the constituent they mark. The 21 conjunctions linking same-type constituents are divided into six groups according to the semantic relations they signal, namely addition, alternative, time and/or condition, consequence, contrast, and similarity. Almost all conjunctions occur in clause-initial position, while only two occur in clause-final position. Typically, the clause marked with a conjunction follows the unmarked clause; only a few conjunctions mark clauses which precede the unmarked clause.

