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A Grammar of Qiang



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# A Grammar of Qiang

# with annotated texts and glossary

by

Randy J. LaPolla

with Chenglong Huang

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### Abbreviations

1	first person	HABIT	habitual action marker
2	second person	HORT	hortative marker
3	third person	HS	hearsay marker
ADJ	adjective (stative	imp.	imperative verb form
	verb)	IMP	imperative suffix
ADV	adverbial marker	INDEF	indefinite marker
AGT	agentive marker	INDTV	indirect directive
ASP	aspect marker		marker
AUX	auxiliary particle for	INF	inferential/mirative
	monosyllabic Chinese		evidential marker
	loan words	INT	interjection,
BEN	benefactive marker		intensifier <sup>1</sup>
CAUS	causative suffix	INST	instrumental marker
Ch.	Chinese	lit.	literally
CL	classifier	LOC	locative marker
COM	comitative marker		(includes the use of
COMP	comparative marker		the locative markers
CON	continuative aspect		to mark temporal or
	marker		other relations)
COP	copula	LNK	clause linker
CSM	change of state marker	n.	noun
DAT	dative marker	NAR	narrative (hearsay)
DEF	definite marker		form made up of the
DEM	demonstrative		inferential and
	pronoun		hearsay particles
DIR	directional prefix		(this abbreviation is
dl	dual		used in the stories to
DTV	directive particle		save space)
EMPH	emphatic sentence-	NEG	negative prefix
	final particle	NEG.IMP	negative imperative
EXC	exclusion particle		(prohibitive) prefix
EXP	experiential particle	NOM	nominalizer
GEN	genitive marker	NUM	numeral

xiv Abbreviations

PART	clause/sentence	WH	interrogative
perf.	final particle perfective form of a	†()	pronoun a gloss that appears
pen.	verb	()	in parentheses with
PERF	perfective marker		-
	•		a dagger in front of
pl POST	plural		the parentheses
POST	postposition		glosses a Chinese
PRS	prospective aspect		code-mixed stretch
	suffix		of text (possibly
РТВ	Proto-Tibeto-		very short). Only
	Burman		clear examples of
Q	question marker		code mixing rather
RCA	relevant condition		than loan words are
	achieved marker		marked this way.
RECIP	reciprocal form		Items that have a
REFL	reflexive form		dagger but no
REP	repetition ('again')		parentheses are
	marker		items that may be
REQU	request marker		either code mixing or
RESULT	this form marks a		loans.
	transition in the Texts,	×	allofam marker
	and was often translated		(marks two
	by the Chinese word		reconstructed forms
	jiéguŏ 'result'		as being related
sg	singular		variants in the
Tib.	Tibetan		protolanguage)
ТОР	topic marker	/ vs. ~	In the glossary, a
U	bound non-actor		slash (stroke)
	marker (e.g. '2sgU'		between forms means
	means 'second person		the two forms are
singular	non-actor marker')		assumed to be different
v	verb		words, whereas a tilde
v.	ambitransitive verb		between forms means
vi.	intransitive verb		they are assumed to be
VIS	direct (usually visual)		different pronunciations
evidential	marker		for the same form.
vt.	transitive verb		for the sume form.
۷۱.			

# Plates

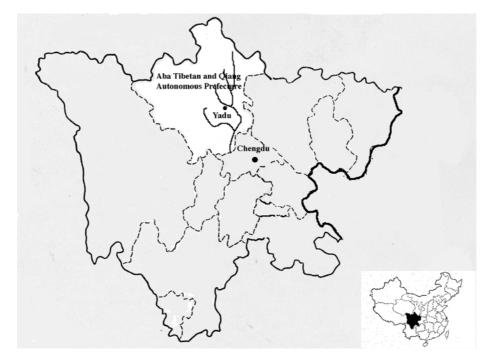


Plate 1: Sichuan Province, showing Aba Tibetan and Qiang Autonomous Prefecture, the Min River and Yadu Township xvi Plates



Plate 2: Ronghong Village

Plates xvii



Plate 3: Watchtowers of Heihu Village

### Chapter 1 Introduction

#### 1.1. The land

The speakers of the Qiang language live in Aba Tibetan and Qiang Autonomous Prefecture, on the eastern edge of the Tibetan plateau in the northwest part of Sichuan Province, China (roughly 103 to 104 degrees longitude east and 31 to 32 degrees north). The entire prefecture covers 4046.35 square kilometers. The Qiang people mainly live along the Min River and in tributaries in the counties of Mao, Wenchuan, Heishui, Songpan and Beichuan, all contiguous areas in the southeast of Aba Prefecture (see Plate 1). A small number of Qiang people live in Danba County of Ganzi Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture, to the west of Aba Prefecture, and in Shiqian and Jiangkou of the Tongren area in Guizhou province, to the east of Aba Prefecture.

The entire area is very mountainous, with many mountains 4,000 meters (13,000 feet) high. The Qiang build their villages on the top or side of the mountains, with generally one village (often thirty-odd families or less) per mountain side. In many cases there are no roads to the village, and as the villages are often 2,500-3,500 meters up the mountain, the only way to get to the village is to climb a steep path.

The weather is generally cold in the winter and cool in the summer. It is usually dry and windy and the temperature varies greatly between day and night. Weather conditions also vary greatly between the mountains and the valleys; in the springtime, there is still snow up in the mountains, but flowers are already blooming down in the valley. The weather in different valleys also varies. In those below 2,500 meters the weather is relatively warm, with very little rain. In those valleys above 2,500, the weather is cold all year round, with an average temperature of five degrees Celsius. Above 4000 meters it is very cold all year, often with snow ten months of the year. The typography and varied weather conditions contribute to the stunning beauty of the landscape.

The geographic features, weather conditions and soil composition also contribute to the abundance and peculiarities of the natural flora and fauna of the area. The mountains are heavily wooded. Gingko, camphor, Chinese hemlock, and Chinese little leaf box trees grow wild in the valleys, as do 189 types of grasses and bushes, including some rare medical herbs such as *Cordyceps sinensisia*, *Fritillaria thunbergii* (unibract fritilary bulb; "chuan bei", a popular sore throat remedy), and *gastrodia elata*. The Qiang will pick these for their own use and to sell. Forty-one types of wild animal, among them endangered species such as the giant panda, the small panda, the golden monkey, the wild donkey, and the musk deer, can be found in the area.

#### 1.2. The language

The Qiang language belongs to the Qiangic branch of the Tibeto-Burman family of the Sino-Tibetan stock. Some of the characteristics of the Qiangic branch include having a cognate set of direction marking prefixes; quite degenerate, though clearly cognate person marking paradigms; and radical loss of syllable final consonants, but preservation of complex initials and clusters.<sup>2</sup>

Sun (1981a:177-78) divides the Qiang language into two major dialects, Northern Qiang and Southern Qiang (see Wen 1941 for an earlier classification into eight dialects). Qiang speakers living in Heishui County and the Chibusu district of Mao County, including those designated by the Chinese government as Tibetans, are said to be speakers of the Northern dialect. Sun further subdivides the Northern dialect into the Luhua, Mawo, Cimulin, Weigu, and Yadu subdialects. Qiang speakers living in Li County, Wenchuan County, parts of Mao County other than Chibusu, and Songpan County are said to be Southern dialect speakers. The Southern dialect is also subdivided by Sun into the Daqishan, Taoping, Longxi, Mianchi, and Heihu subdialects. Liu (1998b:17) adds Sanlong and Jiaochang to the list of Southern subdialects. Recent fieldwork as part of the Qiang Dialect Map Project (funded by City University of Hong Kong and the Research Grants Council of Hong Kong) has called into question some aspects of this classification. In particular, dialects in Songpan County and the Sanlong area of Mao County are now considered to be within the Northern dialect area. The dialect situation should become clearer with the completion of the Qiang Dialect Atlas Project.

Until recently there was no writing system for the language. The Qiang carved marks on wood to remember events or communicate. In the late 1980's a team of Qiang specialists from several different organizations developed a writing system for the Qiang language, based on the Qugu variety of the Yadu subdialect of the Northern dialect. In 1993 the government officially acknowledged the writing system.

The writing system uses 26 Roman letters to represent the 42 consonants and eight vowels in that variety of Qiang. Twenty of the consonants are represented by single Roman letters while the remaining 22 consonants are represented by double Roman letters (the letter r is not used as a single consonant). Five of the vowels are represented by single letters while the other three are represented by double letters. (See Table 1, overleaf).

The promulgation of the writing system has not been successful, and one of the main reasons is the complexity of the Qiang sound system and the concomitant complexity of the writing system. It is quite difficult for adult villagers, especially the illiterate peasants, to remember all of the letters and combinations representing different types of consonants and vowels. Another factor is the diversity of Qiang dialects. As the writing system is based on the Qugu variety of the Yadu subdialect of the Northern dialect, those who are not Northern dialect speakers resent learning another variety of the Qiang language in order to read and write (ideally they would eventually be able to write their own dialect, but would learn the script using the Qugu dialect). A third and very important factor is the fact that even if somebody masters the sound system and is able to read and write using the writing system, there are no reading materials available to make what they have learned useful.

Education in the Qiang areas is all in Chinese, though in recent years there has been a movement to implement bilingual education. Many of the children now can go to school, but the children often have to travel great distances to get to school. They will often live at the school, either for one week at a time, if the school is relatively close, or for months at a time, if it is farther away. Local educators have noticed that even with the opportunity for free education offered by the central government, there has been a continuously high drop-out rate among children from

remote villages. One reason, they believe, is that most of the children from the remote villages cannot cope with the school education because teaching in the schools is all in Chinese and they cannot speak Chinese. The call for a bilingual approach in education mainly refers to the use of spoken Qiang as a medium of instruction in the lower grades alongside Mandarin in order to facilitate the learning of Chinese. Another reason for the high drop-out rate is the fact that while schooling is technically free, the schools charge various fees and the cost of room and board, so it can be prohibitively expensive for the villagers.

Qiang	IPA	Qiang	IPA
A a	a	Ll	1
AE ae	æ	LH lh	ł
Вb	р	M m	m
BB bb	b	N n	n
Сc	tsh	NG ng	ŋ
CH ch	tşh	NY ny	ŋ,
D d	t	0 o	0
DD dd	d	Рр	ph
DH dh	dz	Qq	tçh
Еe	ə	RR rr	Z
EA ea	e	S s	S
F f	f	SH sh	8
Gg	k	SS ss	Z
GG gg	g	T t	th
GV gv	q	U u	u
H h	X	V v	χ
HH hh	Y	VH vh	ĥ
HV hv	h	VV vv	R
Ιi	i	W w	W
IU iu	у	Хх	Ç
Jj	tç	XX xx	Z
JJ jj	dz	Yу	j
K k	kh	Ζz	ts
KV kv	qh	ZH zh	tş
		ZZ zz	dz

*Table 1:* The Qiang orthography

In general, Chinese has been the main language of education and communication with non-Qiang people. The spoken form of Chinese used is the Western Sichuan subdialect of Southwest Mandarin, while the written form used is that of Standard Modern Chinese. The Qiang have been in contact with the Han Chinese for centuries (see Sun 1998). However, in the past, only the men who left the Qiang area to trade or work or had to deal with Han Chinese on a regular basis would learn Chinese. Children below the age of fifteen rarely spoke Chinese, but now with more universal access to Chinese schooling and to TV (which is all in Standard Modern Chinese), even small children in remote villages can speak some Chinese. Now very few Qiang people cannot speak Chinese, but there are many Qiang who cannot speak the Qiang language. In many villages by the main roads, and in some whole counties in the east of Aba Prefecture (where contact with the Han Chinese has historically been most intense), the entire population is monolingual in Chinese. The tendency toward becoming monolingual in Chinese is becoming more prevalent now than ever before due to strong economic and social pressure to assimilate, and to the popularization of free primary and secondary education in Chinese. The number of fluent Qiang speakers becomes smaller day by day. Qiang is therefore very much an endangered language. The culture of the Qiang people is also in jeopardy of disappearing. This loss of the Qiang language and culture was noted as early as the 1940's (Graham 1958; see also Sun 1988), and accelerated greatly after 1949. It is hoped that the linguistic and cultural information presented in the present volume will serve as a record of some part of this vanishing language and culture.

#### **1.3.** The people and their culture

#### 1.3.1. The people

In most studies of the Qiang, especially those written in China, there is an assumption that the people classified by the present Chinese government as the Qiang living in northern Sichuan can be equated with the Qiang mentioned in Chinese texts dating back to the oracle bone inscriptions written 3,000 years ago. A more careful view would be that the ancient "Qiang" were the ancestors of all or almost all of the modern Tibeto-Burman speakers, and the modern "Qiang" (who call themselves

/z me/ in their own language, written *RRmea* in the Qiang orthography), are but one small branch of the ancient "Qiang". They in fact did not think of themselves as "Qiang" (a Chinese exonym) until the early 20th century. It is clear that the culture of the stone watchtowers (see Plate 3), which can be identified with the modern Qiang people, has been in northern Sichuan since at least the beginning of the present era. Being in this area, the Qiang people are between the Han Chinese to the east and south and the Tibetans to the west and north. In the past fighting between these two larger groups often took place in the Qiang area, and the Qiang would come under the domination of one group or the other. At times there was also fighting between different Qiang villages. The construction of the watchtowers and the traditional design of their houses (with thick stone walls and small windows and doors; see Plate 2) give testimony to the constant threat of attack.<sup>3</sup>

The majority of Qiang speakers, roughly eighty thousand people, are members of the Qiang ethnicity, and the rest, approximately fifty thousand people, are a subgroup of the Tibetan ethnicity.<sup>4</sup> These ethnic designations are what they call themselves in Chinese. In Qiang they all call themselves /z me/ or a dialect variant of this word. Not all members of the Qiang ethnicity speak Qiang, and as just mentioned, not all of those who speak Qiang are considered members of the Qiang ethnicity.

#### 1.3.2. Architecture

The traditional Qiang house is a permanent one built of piled stones and has three stories. Generally one nuclear family will live in one house. The lowest floor houses the family's animals, and straw is used as a ground covering. When the straw becomes somewhat rotted and full of manure and urine, it is used for fertilizer.<sup>5</sup> A steep wooden ladder leads to the second floor from the back of the first floor. On the second floor is the fireplace and sleeping quarters. Beds are wooden platforms with mats made of straw as mattresses. The third floor has more rooms for sleeping and/or is used for storage. A ladder also leads from there to the roof, which is used for drying fungi, corn or other items, and also for some religious practices, as a white stone (flint) is placed on the roof and invested with a spirit. The fireplace, which is the central point of the main room on the second floor, originally had three stones set in a circle

for resting pots on, but now most homes have large circular three or four-legged iron potholders. In some areas, particularly to the north, enclosed stoves are replacing the old open fires. On the side of the fireplace across from the ladder leading to the second floor there is an altar to the house gods. This is also the side of the fireplace where the elders and honored guests sit. Nowadays one often finds pictures of Mao Zedong and/or Deng Xiaoping in the altar, as the Qiang are thankful for the improved life they have since the founding of the People's Republic and particularly since the reforms instituted by Deng in the late 1970's and after.<sup>6</sup> Traditionally the Qiang relied on spring water, and had to go out to the spring to get it. In recent years pipes have been run into many of the houses, so there is a more convenient supply of water, though it is not like the concept of "running water" in the West. There are no bathrooms inside the house, though in some villages (e.g. Weicheng) a small enclosed balcony that has a hole in the floor has been added to the house to function as a second story outhouse. Many villages now have electricity, at least a few hours every night, and so a TV (relying on a large but inexpensive satellite dish) and in some cases a VCD player can be found in the house. All TV and VCD programs are in Chinese, and so the spread of electricity has facilitated the spread of bilingualism.

In the past each village had one or more watchtowers, six or seven story-high six- or eight-sided structures made of piled stones. The outside walls were smooth and the inside had ladders going up to the upper levels. These allowed early warning in the case of attack, and were a fallback position for fighting. In some villages underground passages were also dug between structures for use when they were attacked. In most villages the towers have been taken down and the stones used to build new houses.

#### 1.3.3. Food

The main staple foods are corn, potatoes, wheat, and highland barley, supplemented with buckwheat, naked oats, and rice. Wheat, barley and buckwheat are made into noodles. Noodles are handmade. Among the favorite delicacies of the Qiang are buckwheat noodles cooked with pickled vegetables. Because potatoes are abundant in the area, the

Qiang have developed many ways of cooking potatoes. The easiest ways to cook them is by boiling or baking (that is, placing the potatoes into the ashes around the fire). The more complicated and more special ways of preparing them involve pounding boiled potatoes in a stone mortal and then shaping the mashed potatoes and frying them to become potato fritters or boiling them with pickled vegetables. The latter is eaten like noodle soup, the same way as noodles made of buckwheat flour are eaten.

Since corn is also quite abundant in the area, the Qiang have also developed different ways of eating corn. Corn flour is cooked with vegetables to become a delicious corn porridge. Corn flour mixed with water without yeast and then left in the fire to bake is the Qiang style of corn bread. This bread is often eaten with honey. Honey is a delicacy in the Qiang area. It is not easy to come by as they have to raise the bees in order to collect honey. Another important item is salt. Because the Qiang live in the highlands, salt was traditionally difficult to come by, so when you are invited to eat in a Qiang family, the host will always try to offer you more salt or will see to it that the dishes get enough salt.

The Qiang also grow walnuts, red and green chili peppers, bunge prickly ash peel (*pericarpium zanthoxyli*), several varieties of hyacinth bean, apples, pears, scallions, turnips, cabbage, and some rape. Crops are rotated to preserve the quality of the fields, some of which are on the mountain sides and some of which may be on the side of the stream found at the bottom of many of the gorges between the mountains. Qiang fields are of the dry type and generally do not have any sort of irrigation system. Aside from what they grow, they are also able to collect many varieties of wild vegetables, fruit, and fungi, as well as pine nuts. They now eat rice, but as they do not grow rice themselves, they exchange other crops for rice. Many types of pickled vegetables are made as a way of preserving the vegetables, and these are often cooked with buckwheat noodles or potato noodles in a type of soup. Vegetables are also salted or dried in order to preserve them.

While grain is the main subsistence food, the Qiang eat meat when they can, especially cured pork. In the past they generally ate meat only on special occasions and when entertaining guests. Now their economic circumstances allow them to eat meat more frequently. They raise pigs, two kinds of sheep, cows, horses, and dogs, though they do not eat the horses or dogs. Generally there is only one time per year when the animals are slaughtered (in mid-winter), and then the meat is preserved and hung from the rafters in the house. The amount of meat hanging in one's house is a sign of one's wealth. As there are no large fish in the streams and rivers, the Qiang generally do not eat fish. In the past they would hunt wild oxen, wild boars, several types of mountain goat, bears, wolves (for the skin), marmots, badgers, sparrows, rabbits, and musk deer (and sell the musk). They used small cross-bows, bows and arrows, pit traps, wire traps, and more recently flint-lock rifles to hunt. Now there are not many animals left in the mountains, and many that are there are endangered species, and so can no longer be hunted.

The low-alcohol liquor made out of highland barley (similar to Tibetan "chang") or occasionally corn or other grains, called /ci/ in Qiang, is one of the favorite beverages of the Qiang. It plays a very important role in the daily activities of the Qiang. It is an indispensable drink for use on all occasions. It is generally drunk from large casks placed on the ground using long bamboo straws. For this reason it is called  $z\bar{a}ji\check{u}$  'sucked liquor' in Chinese. Opening a cask of /ci/ is an important part of hosting an honored guest.

*1.3.4. Clothing* 1.3.4.1. Men's clothing

At present only a few of the older Qiang men still wear the traditional Qiang clothing except on particular ceremonial occasions. One item of traditional clothing still popularly worn by men and women is the handmade embroidered shoes. These are made of cloth, shaped like a boat, with the shoe face intricately embroidered. The sole is made of thickly woven hemp. It is very durable and quite practical for climbing in the mountains. In the summer men often wear a sandal version of these shoes with a large pomp on the toe. These shoes are an obligatory item of a Qiang woman's dowry when she gets married. In many villages, embroidered shoe soles or shoe pads are still a popular engagement gift of a woman to her lover. Recently some women have taken to selling them as tourist souvenirs as well.

Another item still popular among the Qiang men and women as well is the goat-skin vest. The vest is reversible; in the winter it is normally worn with the fur inside for warmth, and when worn with the fur out, it

serves as a raincoat. It also acts as padding when carrying things on the back.

Qiang men often carry a lighter (traditionally it would be flint and steel) and knives on a belt around their waist. The belt has a triangular pouch in front. There are two types of these triangular pouches: one is made of cloth and intricately embroidered, another is made of leather (the skin of a musk deer). Men sometimes will also wear a piece of apron-like cloth (also embroidered with a floral pattern) over their buttocks, to be used as seat pad.

#### 1.3.4.2. Women's clothing

The majority of Qiang women in the villages still wear traditional clothing. Qiang women's clothing is very colorful, and also varies from village to village. The differences are mainly manifested in the color and styles of their robes and headdresses. Headdresses are worn from about the age of twelve. Women in the Sanlong area wear a square headdress embroidered with various floral patterns in wintertime. In the spring, they wear a headband embroidered with colorful floral patterns, and wear a long robe (traditionally made of hemp fiber) with fancily embroidered borders, and tie a black sheep-leather belt around the waist. Women of the Heihu area wear a white headdress, and are fond of wearing blue or light green robes (the borders are also embroidered with floral patterns). Women from the Weimen area wear a black headdress and a long robe. The border of the robe is embroidered with colorful floral patterns. They also often wear an embroidered apron (full front or from the waist down) and an embroidered cloth belt. The headdress worn by women of Mao county and the Muka area of Li county is a block-like rectangle of folded cloth, with embroidered patterns on the part that faces backwards when worn. Women in Puxi village of Li county wear plain black headdresses, oblong in shape with the two sides wider than the front. In the Chibusu district of Mao counry women wear brick-shaped headdresses wrapped in braided hair. They braid their hair, and at the tip of their braid sometimes add a piece of blue fake hair braid in order to make the braid longer (if necessary), and then coil the braid around the headdress to hold it in place.

Clothing of those living near the Tibetan areas bear the influence of the Tibetan ways of clothing.

Other than the headdresses and the robes, Qiang women are also fond of wearing big earrings, ornamental hairpins, bracelets, and other silver jewelry. Jewelry pieces of those who are wealthier are inlaid with precious stones like jade, agate, and coral. They often hang a needle and thread box and sometimes a mouth harp from their belt.

Babies wear special embroidered hats with silver ornaments and bronze and silver bells, and a small fragrance bag.

#### 1.3.5. Family and kinship relations

Although in the Qiang language traditionally there are no surnames, for several hundred years the Qiang have been using Han Chinese surnames. The clans or surname groups form the lowest level of organization within the village above the nuclear family. In one village there may be only a few different surnames. The village will have a village leader, and this is now an official political post with a small salary. Many of the traditional "natural" villages have now been organized into "administrative" villages comprised of several "natural" villages. Before 1949 (as early as the Yuan dynasty-13-14th century), above the village level there was a local leader (called  $t \check{u} s \bar{i}$  in Chinese) who was enfiefed by the central government to control the Qiang and collect taxes. This leader could also write his own laws and demand his own taxes and servitude from the Qiang people. The Qiang had to work for this local leader for free, and also give a part of their food to him. His position was hereditary, and many of these leaders were terrible tyrants and exploiters of the people. Some of the Qiang traditional stories are of overthrowing such tyrants.

Kinship relations are quite complex, and while generally patrilineal, the women have a rather high status, supposedly a remnant of a matriarchal past. Only men can inherit the wealth of the parents, but women are given a large dowry. Marriages are monogamous, and can be with someone of the same surname, but not within the same family for at least three generations. The general practice is to marry someone of the same village but it can also be with someone outside the village. Increasingly Qiang women are marrying out of the villages to Chinese

or Qiang living in the plains to have an easier life, and many of the young men who go out to study or work marry Han Chinese women. In the past marriages were decided by the parents of the bride and groom, although now the young people generally have free choice.

The traditional form of marriage in the village is characterized by a series of rituals focused around drinking and eating. It is consists of three main stages: engagement, preparation for the wedding, and the wedding ceremony. The rituals start when the parents of a boy have a girl in mind for their son. The parents will start the "courtship" by asking a relative or someone who knows the girl's family to find out whether she is available or not. If the girl is available, they will move on to the next step, that is, to ask a matchmaker to carry a package of gifts (containing sugar, wine, noodles, and cured meat) to the girl's family. This is only to convey their intention to propose a marriage. If the girl's parents accepted the gift, the boy's parents will proceed to the next step, asking the matchmaker to bring some more gifts to the girl's parents and "officially" propose. If the girl's parents agree, then a date will be set to bring the "engagement wine" to the girl's family. On that day, the girl's parents and all the siblings will join in to drink and sing the "engagement song". Once this is done, the couples are considered to be engaged, and there should be no backing out. After being engaged, the girl should avoid having any contact with members of the groom's family.

Before the wedding, a member from the groom's family will be accompanied by the matchmaker to the bride's family, carrying with them some wine which they will offer to the bride's family members and relatives of the same surname, to have a drink and decide on the date of the wedding. Once the wedding date has been set, the groom, accompanied by the matchmaker and carrying some more wine, personally goes to the bride's family to have a drink with the bride's uncles, aunts and other family members.

The wedding ceremony itself takes three days, and is traditionally hosted by the oldest brothers of the mothers of the bride and groom. On the first day, the groom's family sends an entire entourage to the bride's place to fetch the bride. The entourage usually consists of relatives of the groom and some boys and girls from the village whose parents are both still living, with two people playing the trumpet. They carry with them a sedan chair, horses (in some cases), clothing and jewelry for the bride. The entourage has to arrive in the bride's village before sunset. They stay there overnight. The next day, the bride has to leave with the group to go to the groom's family. Before stepping out of her family door, she has to cry to show how sad she is leaving her parents and family members. One of her brothers will carry her on his back to the sedan chair. Once the bride steps out of her parents' house she should not turn her head to look back. She is accompanied by her aunts (wife of her uncle from her mother's side, and wife of her uncle from her father's side), sisters and other relatives. Before the bride enters the groom's house she has to step over a small fire or a red cloth (this part of the ceremony varies among areas). The bride enters the house and the actual wedding ceremony starts. The couple will be led to the front of the family altar, and, just like the wedding practice of the Chinese, the couple will first make vows to heaven and earth, the family ancestors, the groom's parents, the other relatives, and finally vows to each other. There is a speech by the hosting uncles, and the opening of a cask of highland barley wine. There will then be dancing and drinking. As the cask is drunk, hot water is added to the top with a water scoop, and each drinker is expected to drink one scoop's equivalent of liquor. If the drinker fails to drink the required amount, he or she may be tossed up into the air by the others in the party.

Before the couple enter the room where they are to live, two small children (whose parents are both still living) will be sent in to run around and play on the couple's bed, as a way of blessing the couple to soon have children.

On the third day the bride returns to her parents' home. When she leaves her newlywed husband's village, relatives of the husband wait at their doorways or at the main entrance to the village to offer her wine. The bride's family will also prepare wine and food to welcome the newlywed couple. The groom has to visit and pay respects to all of the bride's relatives. The bride then stays at her parents' house for a year or so, until the birth of the first child or at least until around the time of the Qiang New Year (see below). The groom will visit her there and may live in the woman's house. She returns to her husband's family to celebrate the birth or the New Year, and stays there permanently.

In recent years there has been movement away from traditional style marriage ceremonies towards more Han Chinese style or Chinese-Western-Qiang mixed style marriage ceremonies.

#### 1.3.6. Religion

The Qiang native religion is a type of pantheism, with gods or spirits of many types. To this day when a cask of /ci/ (barley wine) is opened, a ritual is performed to honor the door god, the fireplace god, and the house god. Flint stone (called "white stone" in Qiang and Chinese) is highly valued, and when a house is built a piece of flint is placed on the roof of the house and a ceremony is held to invest the stone with a spirit.<sup>7</sup> The fireplace at the center of the house is considered to be the place where the fireplace spirit lives. Before each meal, the Qiang will place some food near the iron potholder for the fireplace spirit. The iron potholder is treated by the Qiang people with great respect, and cannot be moved at random. One cannot rest one's feet on it, or hang food there to grill. Most important is that one cannot spit in front of the potholder. When the Qiang drink barley wine or tea, or eat meals, an elderly person who is present has to perform the ritual of honoring the god of the fireplace, that is by dipping his finger or the drinking straw into the barley wine and splashing the wine into the fireplace.

Every household has an altar in the corner of the main floor of the house facing the door. It is usually ornately carved, and its size reflects the financial status of the family. The altar and the area around the altar is considered to be sacred. One cannot hang clothes, nor spit, burp, expel flatuence, or say inauspicious words around the altar area. Pointing one's foot toward the altar is strictly prohibited.

Other than believing in the spirits of the house and of the fireplace, the Qiang also believe in the spirits of all natural phenomena, such as heaven, earth, sun, moon, stars, rivers, hills and mountains. Two of the biggest festivals in the Qiang area are related to their worship of these spirits: the Qiang New Year, which falls on the 24th day of the sixth month of the lunar calendar (now the festival date is fixed on October 1st), and the Mountain Sacrifice Festival, held between the second and sixth months of the lunar calendar. The former is focused on sacrifices to the god of Heaven, while the latter is to give sacrifice to the god of the mountain.

Religious ceremonies and healing rituals are performed by shamans known as /cpi/ in Qiang and *Duān Gōng* in Chinese. To become such a shaman takes many years of training with a teacher. The *Duān Gōng* also performs the initiation ceremony that young men go through when

they are about eighteen years old. This ceremony, called "sitting on top of the mountain" in Qiang, involves the whole family going to the mountain top to sacrifice a sheep or cow and to plant three cypress trees. These shamans also pass on the traditional stories of the Qiang. The stories include the creation story, the history of the Qiang (particular famous battles and heroes), and other cultural knowledge (see the Texts for some of the stories). As there was no written language until recently, story telling was the only way that this knowledge was passed on. Very few such shamans are left, and little story telling is done now that many villages have access to TVs and VCD players.

#### 1.3.7. Mobility

Because the Qiang villages are generally high up on the mountains, and there often is no road to the village, only a steep narrow path (this is the case, for example, in Ronghong village [see Plate 2], where the nearest road is hours away), travel has traditionally been by foot, though horses are sometimes used as pack animals where the path or road allows it. In the summer the horses are taken to remote pastures to prevent them from eating the crops near the villages. In some cases there is a road to the village large enough for vehicles to pass, but the condition of the road is usually quite bad, and as it runs along the very edge of the mountain, it can be quite dangerous. On every field trip we saw at least one car or truck that had just fallen off the side of a mountain. Because the condition of the road varies with the weather and there are sometimes landslides, before attempting to drive to (or near) a village, one has to try to find out if the road is actually passable. The streams and rivers are too shallow to navigate, and so the Qiang do not make boats.

#### 1.3.8. Livelihood

In general it was the work of the men to hunt, weave baskets (large back baskets and small baskets), shepherd the cows, gather wild plants, and do some of the harder labor such as plowing the fields, getting wood, and building houses, and it was the work of the women to weave cloth,

embroider, hoe the fields, spread seeds, cook most of the food, and do most of the housework. In the winter men often went down into the flatlands to dig wells for pay (this often involved a twelve-day walk down to the Chengdu area!). Any trading was also only done by men. In the past the Qiang traded opium, animal skins and medicinal plants in order to get gold, silver, coral, and ivory. These items were often made into jewelry for the women. Nowadays both men and women cook and gather wild plants, and it is common for men to leave the village for long periods of time to go out to work in the flatlands or to sell medicinal herbs, wood, vegetables, animal skins or other items in exchange for money or rice.

Although some ancient ceramics have been unearthed in the Qiang areas, in the recent past ceramics were not made by the Qiang. Most Qiang-made utensils were of wood, stone or iron. There were specialists in metalworking. Nowadays most such items are bought from outside the Qiang area.

#### 1.4. Previous work on Qiang

Fieldwork on Qiang and initial analysis was first carried out by Wen Yu in the late 1930's (Wen 1940, 1941, 1943a, 1943b, 1943c, 1945). Wen also did some initial comparisons and historical work on the language (1943b, 1947), and published two vocabularies of Qiang (1950, 1951). Chang Kun (1967) used Wen's data for a comparative study of the southern Qiang dialects, and attempted to reconstruct the protolanguage. In the late 1950's the Chinese Academy of Sciences organized teams of linguists to go to the different areas where ethnic minority peoples lived and carry out fieldwork. Two members of the team that worked on Qiang were Sun Hongkai and Liu Guangkun.<sup>8</sup> An early report drafted by them was published with "Institute of Nationalities, Chinese Academy of Sciences" as the author in the journal Zhongguo Yuwen in 1962. They have also published much of the material available on Qiang since then (Sun 1981a, 1981b, 1982, 1983, 1985, 1988; Liu 1981, 1984, 1987, 1997, 1998a, 1998b, 1999). Huang Bufan, another member of the team, now retired from the Central University of Nationalities, has also done important work on Qiang (1987, 1991, 1994, 2000, 2002), and is now in the process of writing a grammar of the Qugu Village variety of the Yadu subdialect of the Northern dialect. These three scholars have trained a native Qiang linguist, Huang Chenglong, who has published a number of articles on his native dialect, the Ronghong Village variety of the Yadu subdialect of the Northern dialect (1992, 1993, 1994, 1997, 1998, 2000a, 2000b, 2003; Huang, Yu & Huang 1992), on which this grammar is also based. Sun Hongkai and Huang Chenglong are currently preparing a manuscript entitled Studies on Qiang Dialects that will compare 20 different Qiang dialects in terms of phonology and to some extent grammar as well. Randy LaPolla has published an overview sketch of Ronghong Qiang (LaPolla 2003c) and a paper on the evidentials of the Ronghong variety (LaPolla 2003d), as well as a lexical list and texts in the Qugu variety (LaPolla, 2003e; LaPolla & Poa, in press). Randy LaPolla and Huang Chenglong have presented papers on adjectives (LaPolla & Huang 2002a) and copula constructions (LaPolla & Huang 2002b) in Qiang. Jonathan Evans has published a monograph on the Southern Qiang lexicon and phonology (2001a) and a paper on contactinduced tonogenesis in Qiang (2001b), and has presented a paper on the directional prefixes (2000). Randy LaPolla, Huang Chenglong, Dory Poa, Jonathan Evans, and Wang Ming-ke are currently collaborating with Zhou Facheng and a team of other Qiang linguists on the Qiang Dialect Map Project, which will attempt to record the language and customs in at least fifteen Qiang villages and make the data and images available on an Internet web site (the Qiang Language and Culture Web Site: http://victoria.linguistlist.org/~lapolla/qiang/index.htm).

#### 1.5. The data and their presentation

All data presented in the Grammar, Texts, and Glossary are of the Yadu subdialect of northern Qiang spoken in Ronghong Village, Yadu Township, Chibusu District, Mao County (see Plates 1 and 2). The data are from Mr. Huang Chenglong, a native of Ronghong Village, and members of his family. The grammatical analysis is based on naturally occurring texts (narratives) as well as elicited sentence patterns. Examples taken from the Texts are marked by the number of the text and the line number(s) the example appears on. For example, "(T3:23-24)" means the example appears in lines 23-24 of Text 3, "An Orphan".

Stories and lexical items were also collected from the Qugu variety of Northern Qiang, also of Chibusu district, from Mr. Chen Yonglin, though as the Qugu variety differs somewhat from the Ronghong variety, those data are not presented here. The lexical data and some of the stories have been published separately as LaPolla, 2003e, and LaPolla & Poa, in press, respectively. All of the fieldwork was carried out in Chinese, and the first draft of the grammar and stories had only Chinese glosses. The glosses and free translations were then translated into English. The English glosses for the items in the Glossary are largely from the Handbook of Chinese Dialect Vocabulary, which was used as a basis for the lexical elicitation.<sup>9</sup> For this reason the glosses are in a sense twice-removed (twice-translated) from the Qiang, and so some ambiguities may have been introduced that were not in the first translation. If readers have questions about any such items, they should contact Randy LaPolla (ctrandy@cityu.edu.hk). The glossary is also available as a freestanding Hypercard<sup>™</sup> application which includes the original Chinese glosses (and the Qugu lexical data mentioned above), for those who might be able to make use of it. Again, contact Randy LaPolla. Reconstructions given for Proto-Tibeto-Burman forms are from Benedict 1972, except for the numerals, which are from Matisoff 1997.

The last section of this chapter is a typological overview of the language. The discussion in the rest of the grammatical description is divided into four main parts: the sound system of the language (Chapter 2), the form of representation of the participants of an action or state and the expression of their relationship to the verb and to each other (Chapter 3), the form of representation of an action or state (Chapter 4), and complex structures (Chapter 5). Following the grammatical description are Qiang oral texts, presented with interlinear glosses and a free translation at the end of each text. Following the Texts is an annotated glossary of basic Qiang vocabulary organized by semantic field, and an English alphabetical index to the glossary.

The *Lingua Descriptive Studies: Questionnaire* (Comrie & Smith 1977) was very helpful in collecting part of the data, though the mode of presentation in this grammar is not always that of the *Questionnaire*. The guidelines for summarizing grammatical information prepared as part of the research project "The Categories of Human Language" being carried out by R. M. W. Dixon and Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald were also

helpful in trying to make the information presented here as complete as possible.

### **1.6.** Typological profile

Qiang is a largely agglutinative language, with some phonological processes of vowel harmony, lenition, and morpheme coalescence. Nouns take only a limited number of optional suffixes with restricted distribution, while verbs take up to three prefixes and four suffixes. Except for nominalizing suffixes and the causative suffix, which are derivational, all other verbal affixes are inflectional. Reduplication of verbs is of the whole root, and with active verbs it signifies reciprocal action (and intransitivization) or an iterative sense; with stative verbs it signifies intensification or plurality.

Qiang has a rather complex phonological system, with thirty-seven initial consonants, including voiced and voiceless fricatives at seven different points of articulation and many consonant clusters. Unlike most Tibeto-Burman languages, Qiang has many consonant finals, including clusters, due to the collapsing of two syllables into one (there is a tendency towards monosyllable words).

There are two open lexical classes: nouns, those forms which can take definite marking and number marking, and verbs, those forms which can take the negative prefix and person marking (see Chapters 3 and 4 respectively). Adjectives are a subset of the verbs, and can be identified as a set by their semantics and their morphosyntactic behavior (§4.2.3). Closed lexical classes include pronouns (including demonstratives, interrogatives, and personal pronouns; §3.1.2), classifiers (§3.1.6), postpositions (§3.2), definite/indefinite markers (§3.1.4), clause-final particles (§4.3), and adverbs (§4.4). Of these the pronouns and classifiers are subsets of the nouns.

Qiang has both head marking and dependent marking. Noun phrases can take enclitic postpositions to show their semantic or pragmatic role in the clause (§3.2), and there is person marking of an animate actor and/or an animate non-actor on the verb (§4.3.2). There is no other agreement marking in Qiang. Qiang has not grammaticalized syntactic relations (i.e. there are no syntactic pivots—see Van Valin & LaPolla 1997, Ch. 6 on this concept); the postpositions and person marking are

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of the semantically based type discussed in Dixon 1994, Ch. 2. The use of the topic marker, and to some extent the non-actor person marking, are controlled by pragmatic factors. While the word order is generally verb-final, the order of noun phrases is determined by pragmatic factors. Negation precedes the verb, while modal and aspect marking follow the verb.

Within the noun phrase, the noun head can be preceded by a genitive phrase or relative clause, and may be followed by an adjective, a demonstrative pronoun or definite marker, and a numeral plus classifier phrase, in that order.

There are intransitive, transitive, and ditransitive verbs, plus some ambitransitive verbs where the single argument of the intransitive use corresponds to the actor of the transitive use. Transitives can be formed from intransitives, or ditransitives from transitives, by the addition of the causative suffix. There is no intransitivizing marking other than the reduplication that marks the reciprocal. When a verb is part of a predicate (verb complex), it can be preceded by an adverbial, a directional prefix, a negative marking prefix, and an aspectual prefix, and can be followed by the causative suffix, aspectual suffixes, and person marking suffixes. This complex can be followed by clause final particles marking illocutionary force, modality, mood, and evidentials.

# Chapter 2 The phonological system

In the context of Tibeto-Burman, the phonological system of Qiang is rather complex, as there are a large number of consonants, both in initial and final position, and a large number of complex consonant clusters, also both in initial and final position. In particular, having such a variety of consonant finals and clusters sets it apart from most other Sino-Tibetan languages. While the basic vowel inventory is not large, there are phonemic length and r-coloring distinctions. There is also a complex system of vowel harmony, and there are vowel changes due to differences in stress. We will discuss and exemplify the consonant system in §2.1, the vowel system in §2.2, the syllable canon in §2.3, and phonological processes in §2.4.

Sound symbolism does not seem to play a significant role in the language. The only somewhat sound symbolic form found was the use of /ca/ for the meaning 'small' instead of the usual word / $\chi$ tsa/ (which is very un-sound-symbolic!) in one example:

(2.1) *moʁu-ca-ka: de-w!* wind-small-INDEF:CL DIR-exist 'There is a light wind (blowing)!'

The only iconic forms are the ideophonic adverbials, such as / $\chi$ ua  $\chi$ ua/ 'the sound of water flowing' (see §4.4 for examples of these adverbial uses).

## 2.1. Consonants

There are thirty-seven consonant phonemes found in the Qiang language, as listed in Table 2:

	labial	dental	retro- flex	palatal	velar	uvular	glottal
voiceless stop voiceless	р	t			k	q	(?)
aspirated stop	ph	th			kh	qh	
voiced stop	b	d			g		
voiceless affricate voiceless		ts	tş	tç			
aspirated affricate		tsh	tşh	t¢h			
voiced affricate		dz	dz	dz			
voiceless fricative	$\phi(f)$	s	ş	¢	х	χ	h
voiced fricative	(v)	Z	Z (1)	(Z)	(γ)	R	ĥ
nasal	m	n		n 10	ŋ		
voiceless lateral		ł					
voiced lateral		1					
approximant	(w)			(j)			

#### Table 2. The Qiang consonants

The items in parentheses in Table 2 are not phonemic: [I] is an allophone of /z/ in initial position; [Z] and [ $\chi$ ] are voiced allophones of /c/ and /x/, respectively, when they appear as the first consonant of clusters where the second consonant is voiced (see the discussion of clusters below). A glottal stop can also often be heard when there is an absence of any other initial, but it does not contrast phonemically with a pure vocalic onset. There also does not seem to be a contrast between /u/ and /w/ or /i/ and /ji/, but I am using the symbols /j/ and /w/ rather than /i/ and /u/ respectively for the relevant sounds when they appear in syllable-initial position to allow for easy syllable recognition in words such as [tiwike] 'a tall one'. As these sounds do not follow the voicing harmony pattern of consonant clusters (that is, they can be preceded by a voiceless consonant, as in the second syllable of  $/z_{c}\alpha uc/$  'inside'),

they are clearly within the vocalic segment of the syllable and not part of the initial, and so I have not used j and w when they are not the initial sound in the syllable (to avoid them being confused with consonant clusters).

All of the phonemic consonants can be initials, though /fi/ only appears as the initial of one of the directional prefixes and a commonly used filler/emphatic interjection /fid/, and /ŋ/ only appears as an initial before the vowel /u/. Many of these consonants (almost all except the aspirated stops) can be finals. The large number of finals is not due to the preservation of Proto-Tibeto-Burman finals; all of the original Proto-Tibeto-Burman finals were lost (cf. Liu 1984, Benedict 1983, Huang 1998). Only in Chinese loan words can the finals be said to be "original". After the loss of the original finals, and the destressing of second syllables in two syllable compounds, the two syllables merged, with the initial of the original initial syllable, or a reduced form of it, becoming the final of the original initial syllable (e.g. [səf] 'tree' < /sə/ 'wood' + /phə/ 'forest', where /phə/ reduces to [f] in non-word-initial position due to the stress on the initial syllable; see §2.3).

Following are examples of single consonant contrasts in initial position:

ра	'bloom (vi.)'	zawa	'stone'
pha	'sun (clothes) (vt.)'	ça-	INDTV prefix
ba	'old'	tça-la	'where'
fa	'clothes'	tçha	'drink (1sg)'
ma	'mother (address term)'	çi	'release'
wa	(verb particle)	tçi	'bear'
ta	'wear a hat'	dzi	'brother's son'
tha	'there'	ŋа	'and'
das	ʻfinish (v.)'	ja ku	'ivory'
tsa	'here'	ka	'go (1sg)'
tsha-tha	'wipe' (< Ch.)	kha	'rice husk' <sup>11</sup>
dza	'pursue'	gan khəu	'snap button' (< Ch.)
sa	'blood'	хu	'fragrant'
Za	'rice ladle'	ทุนอ	'silver'
na	'good'	qa	1sg pronoun
łа	'slippery'	qha(q)	'bitter'
la	'wolf' (< Ch.)	χaf	'grass'

tşa	'filter, strain (solids)'	ва	locative postposition
tşha	'deep'	ha-n_i	'twelve'
dza	'early'	ha-qa	'go up'
şa	'border (garments) (vt.)	' ha-qa	'go down'

Following are examples of single consonants in final position:

şuap	'torch'	ataz	'immediately'
виат	'servant'	tşhətş	'weigh (vt.)'
χaf	'grass'	үzəc	'land otter'
wet	'stick'	spetc	'patch (vt.)'
WƏS	'egg'	ipək	'arrive'
dz uz	'chew the cud'	jimigų	'trace'
tşuats	'table' (< Ch.)	tşhoŋ-tha	'aggressive' (< Ch.)
tşhuen	'tread on' (< Ch.)	şuaq	'moonlight'
ju-spul	'fist'	tşueχ	'have the mumps'
tşhəş	'spider'	haĸ	'exit (v.)'

Phonemically, consonant clusters are formed by /§/ followed by /p, t, k, q, t¢, b, d, g, m, dz/, /x/ followed by /k, s, t¢, §, t§, ł, l, z, dz, z, dz/, or / $\chi$ / followed by /q, s, §, t§, ł, l, d, z, n, dz, n, z, dz/. Phonetically the situation is more varied, as /§/ becomes [s] before /t/ and /d/, and becomes [¢] before /pi/, /pe/, /bi/, /t¢/ and /dz/,<sup>12</sup> and the preinitials all become voiced before voiced initials. Following are examples of the various consonant clusters in initial position.

mi:-xkam	'eyebrow'	χsu	'living, to be alive'
sta	'entrust to'	χşə	'manure'
XSƏ	'new'	χtşu	'six'
xtşu	'sweat'	χłu	'hawk'
xtşap	'pitch dark'	χłate	'wave'
xtcepi	'knife'	z bu	'drum'
xşu	'barking deer'	zgue	'fox'
xłiex-buz	'loess soil'	z mu	'corpse'
zdu	'deer'	zdzi	'disease'
şkuə	'thief'	вdua	'hammer (n.)'
spa	'sorghum'	вlu	'stone'
şqu	'boil'	вnəi	'kind of wild goat'

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şqa-ŋ i	'dice'	вzu	'chisel (n.)'
ylu	'roll (v.)'	ĸdz əs	'toenail'
γzə	'hot (peppery); numb'	вŋlis	'spring (of water)'
үzет	'rice gruel, congee'	cpies	'noodle'
χqu	'gold'	ctci:mi	'heart'
ydz ə	'enough'	zbie	'soak (barley to
-			make wine)'

Examples of some clusters in final position:

tşhexł	'sip (vt.)'	dzactc	ʻlaugh (v.)'
ωәχջ	'horse dung'	laxş	'palm (of hand)'
ləyz	'book'	əxtş	'shade (vt.)'
əyl	'upright'		

## 2.2. Vowels

## 2.2.1. The basic inventory

There are eight vowel positions, seven of which show a phonemic contrast in length. Table 3 gives the forms for all the Qiang vowels:

Table 3. The Qiang vowel inventory

	front	mid	back	
high mid	i, i: y, y:		u, u:	
mid	e, e:	ə	0,0:	
low	a, a:		a, a:	

The functional loads of the /u/-/o/ contrast and the /i/-/e/ contrast are not very great: in many cases /o/ and /u/ are interchangeable, and /i/ and /e/ are interchangeable. Aside from this, /o/ can also be pronounced [ɔ], and /e/ is often pronounced [ $\epsilon$ ]. The length contrast in some cases is lexical, but in many cases it is grammatical, reflecting a collapsing of a lexical item and a following classifier or locative postposition, or reflecting the prospective aspect marking, as in the following examples:

(2.2)	a.	the	'that'	+	ze (CL)	>	the:	3sg pronoun
	b.	tça	'where'	+	la (LOC)	>	tça:	'where'

c.	zdzyta	'Chengdu'	+	la	(LOC)	>	zdzyta:	'in/at Chengdu'
d.	qəpatş	'head'	+	la	(LOC)	>	qəpatşa:	'at the head'
e.	kə	'to go'	+	а:	(PRS)	>	ka:	'will go'

There is also nasalization of some word-initial high vowels, such as in the second person singular pronoun /? $\tilde{u}$ /, but this may be related to what Matisoff (1975) has called rhinoglottophilia, the spontaneous nasalization of vowels when they are preceded by a glottal segment (see also the affirmative reply [? $\tilde{a}h\tilde{a}$ ], §4.3.5.3).<sup>13</sup>

Following are examples of the vowel contrasts in open syllables:

pi	'pen, writing brush'	ba	'old'
pe	'snow'	ba	'big'
paha	'straw'	ba:	'cloth'
рә	'buy'	khəsta	'husband's mother'
ра	'bundle (CL)'	baha	'remote'
ро	'thick (e.g. thread)'	zdzyta:	'in/at Chengdu'
pu	'pint, 1/10 peck'	tço	'ten fen (cents)'
mi	'human being'	dzo:	'chin'
mi:	'eye'	ku-tha	'hire, to employ'
phi-phi	'dig'	ku:	'elder brother'
se	'sprinkle (vt.)'	gu	'able to fit in'
SƏ	ʻday; wood'	gu:	'plow-share'

Examples of some of the vowels in closed syllables:

phiş	'white'	buz me: <sup>1</sup>	'drizzle'
fen	'powder' (< Ch.)	phoş	'vulva'
dam	'forget'	baq	'scarf'
bəl	'maggot'		

## 2.2.2. Diphthongs and triphthongs

Aside from the monophthongs listed above, there are fourteen native diphthongs (/ia, ia, ie, ye, eu,  $\exists u$ , ei,  $\exists i$ , oi, ua, ua, ua, ue, ui/) and one native triphthong (/u $\exists$ /). Another diphthong, /ya/, only appears as a result of person marking, as in /tcya/ 'I carry', from /tcye/ + the first

person suffix /-a/ (when /a/ is added to a root ending in /-e/, /-i/, or /-y/, the resulting form is generally /-a/; see §4.3.2). There is also a longvowel form of this diphthong (/tcya:/), which appears only in the prospective aspect, as the prospective aspect marker is the suffix /-a:/ and is subject to the same assimilatory process (see §4.3.4). Among the native diphthongs there are both on-glides and off-glides. Some forms also show length and r-coloring distinctions (see below, §2.2.3). Aside from these native forms, there are two off-glide diphthongs (/ai/, /au/) and two triphthongs (/uai/, /iou/) that appear only in Chinese loan words (see examples below). In theory, all of the native diphthongs should be able to appear in both open and closed syllables, as originally, before the coalescence of two syllables into one that gave rise to the consonant finals, all were open syllables, but no unmarked lexical examples of /ai, oi, ye, eu, ui/ in closed syllables have been found. Even so, for those diphthongs where there are no lexicalized closed syllables, closed syllables could be formed by the addition of certain grammatical morphemes, such as the agentive nominalizer /-m/, the instrumental nominalizer /-s/, the comparative standard marker /-s/, and the genitive marker /-tc/. Following are examples of each type of diphthong and triphthong.

Examples of the native diphthongs and triphthong in open syllables:

mia-pi	'eyelid'	киа	'outside'
phie	'plant (vt.)'	киа	'left'
ei-ŋ i	'next year'	kuə şa	'have diarrhea'
ispəi	'mother's brother's wife'	gue-n i	'near'
doroi	'call to, summon (vt.)'	gue <sup>1</sup>	'army'
tçye	'hoe (n.)'	gue:"	'road'
tçəu	'home'	dza:khui	'afternoon'
(ctcy) heu	'repay (debt)'	şkuəi	'mountain goat'
phia-que	'grey'		

Examples of the native diphthongs in closed syllables:

ji-miaq	'thumb'	şuaq	'moonlight'
pies	'meat'	duaĸl	'curved knife'
stuəş	'pot luck meal'	tuəs	'carrying pole'
təkhuez	'anger (vt.)'		

Examples of diphthongs and triphthongs due to Chinese borrowings:

phai	'playing cards'	kuai-tha	'blame (vt.)'
tçau-tsə	'dumplings'	phiau-tsə	'paper money'

## 2.2.3. R-coloring

An additional aspect of the vowel system is r-coloring, which is a retroflexion of the tongue at the end of the vowel. At least four of the basic vowels show a contrast in lexical items (i, e,  $\vartheta$ , a),<sup>14</sup> and all vowels can take r-coloring when they are the final vowel of a verb with first person plural marking (which is /-<sup>1</sup>/; see §4.3.2). This r-coloring is often lost in rapid speech, and it seems that it is being lost completely among the younger people, as there is variation and uncertainty about its use. The r-coloring also often appears on words followed by the expression meaning 'all'. This meaning is variously expressed as [wu], [le-wu], [yle-wu], [le<sup>1</sup>wu], [-e<sup>1</sup>wu], and [-<sup>1</sup>wu]. In the case of the latter form, the final vowel of the previous word becomes r-colored, e.g.:

(2.3)	a.	tsa-χsə¹wu	[this:one-few (< χsə):all]	'all these'
	b.	a-sə <sup>1</sup> wu	[one-day (< a-sə):all]	ʻall day'
	c.	a-jə <sup>1</sup> wu	[one-night (< a-jə):all]	'all night'
	d.	mi <sup>1</sup> wu	[person (< mi):all]	'all the people'

While the r-coloring is used to represent Chinese final /-<sup>1</sup>/, /-n/ or /-ŋ/ in nativizations of some Chinese loan words (e.g., /fe<sup>1</sup>/ 'cent' < Chinese *fēn;* /thioukə<sup>1</sup>/ 'spoon' < Chinese *tiáogēng*), and may in some cases be due to either the historical evolution of a post-initial retroflex segment (/I/ or /Z/ e.g., \*phri > phi<sup>1</sup>; see Huang 1992:154, 157) or to synchronic assimilation to a following retroflex consonant, it is not treated here as a consonantal phoneme, as it participates in the vowel harmony scheme (see §2.4.3). Following are some examples of contrasting r-colored and non-r-colored vowels, and long and short r-colored vowels.

se	'sprinkle (vt.)'	khəsta	'husband's mother'
se <sup>1</sup> fu	'mourning apparel'	khə	'saw (vt.)'
se:'-mujų	'mushroom'	phi-phi	'dig'

SƏ	'day; wood'	phi <sup>1</sup> -phi <sup>1</sup>	ʻrip (v.)'
SƏ:"	'willow tree'	pauxua <sup>1</sup>	'shavings'
(səl	'face south') <sup>15</sup>	guə <sup>1</sup>	'army'
we <sup>1</sup>	'reduce'	guə:"	'road'
we	'exist/be at'		

Examples in closed syllables:

khe <sup>1</sup> x	'comb'	fia-khə¹p	'go blind'
$pa^{J}\chi$	'claw'	dzy-gə¹m	'doorkeeper'
zə-te <sup>1</sup> m	'earthquake'	кэ₁b	'Han person'
pe <sup>1</sup> z	'breed, raise (vt.)'		

## 2.2.4. Morphologically derived vowel forms

The following are vowels and diphthongs that only appear in morphologically derived verb forms:

a:1	tsa:1	(< <i>tse</i> )	'look (PRS:1pl)'
a:1	pa:"	(< pə)	'buy (PRS:1pl)'
u	qhu <sup>1</sup>	(< qhu)	'fire gun (1pl)'
Уı	tcy <sup>1</sup>	(< t c y)	'bring/carry (1pl)'
ie <sup>1</sup>	phie	( <i>&lt; phie</i> )	'till land (1pl)'
ia:	phia:	( <i>&lt; phie</i> )	'till land (PRS:1sg)'
ia:1	phia:"	( <i>&lt; phie</i> )	'till land (PRS:1pl)'
uə	guə <sup>1</sup>	(< guə)	'put on clothes (1pl)'
ua:	gua	(< guə)	'put on clothes (PRS:1sg)'
ua:1	gua:1	(< guə)	'put on clothes (PRS:1pl)'
ye <sup>1</sup>	<i>tchye</i> <sup>1</sup>	(< tchye)	'pen livestock (1pl)'
ya	tçhya	(< tchye)	'pen livestock (1sg)'
ya:	tçhya:	(< tchye)	'pen livestock (PRS:1sg)'
ya:"	t¢hya:"	(< tchye)	'pen livestock (PRS:1pl)'
ua:	stua:	( <i>&lt; stue</i> )	'pull up weeds (PRS:1sg)'
ua:1	stua:"	( <i>&lt; stue</i> )	'pull up weeds (PRS:1pl)'

### 2.3. The syllable canon

The coalescence of syllables resulting in the creation of new finals and clusters (discussed in §2.1) has affected the syllable canon, which is given in Figure 1:

Figure 1. The Qiang syllable canon

The minimum syllable type is a single vowel, such as one of the forms for the word for 'one': /a/. While a glottal stop often appears at the beginning of a syllable with no other consonant initial, there is no phonemic difference between glottal stop onset and vocalic onset.<sup>16</sup> Glottal stops also often appear at the end of syllables with short vowels and no final consonant, but again, this is not phonemic. The initial consonant of the syllable may be any of the consonants listed in Table 2, but if there is a pre-initial consonant (i.e. the first consonant of a cluster), it must be a fricative.<sup>17</sup> As the final consonant clusters derive from initial clusters, the same restriction applies: the first consonant of the two must be a fricative.<sup>18</sup> Most of the combinations of the optional items given in parentheses in Figure 1 are possible forms in Qiang. I have not yet found an example where there is an off-glide and a following consonant cluster, though there is nothing in principle that would make this an impossible combination. Following are the possible syllable types and examples ("V" here is used for both full vowels and on/off glides within a single syllable):

V	а	'one'	CVVC	duap	'thigh'
VV	au	'one pile'	CCV	xtşe	'louse'
VC	as	'one day'	CCVV	şkue	'roast'
VCC	əχş	'tight'	CCVVV	şkuəi	'mt. goat'
CV	рә	'buy'	CCVC	spəl	'kidney'
CVV	khuə	'dog'	CCVCC	spəχs	'Chibusu'
CVVV	kuai-tha	'strange'	CCVVC	şquap	'quiet'
CVC	paq	'interest'	CCVVCC	cpiexł	'scar'
CVCC	bəxş	'honey'			

The VC and VCC forms are generally formed from a single vowel form, such as the number 'one' or the 'inner-directed' directional prefix (§4.3.3), plus a reduced form of a classifier or verb, respectively.

The word in Qiang is defined on phonological grounds, as a free form with pauses at both ends within which the phonological processes discussed in §2.4 operate. It may include more than one grammatical word, such as when a directional verb follows a main verb and forms one phonological word with it. While very often bimorphemic, the word tends to reduce to a single syllable in the case of unmodified nouns and verbs. Huang (1998:64) counted 836 basic words, and found 444 were monosyllabic and 392 were bisyllabic or polysyllabic. Even when various derivational and relational affixes have been added the root may still be monosyllabic due to processes of syllable weakening and vowel dropping (see §2.4 below, and Huang 1998).<sup>19</sup> There is no sense of 'word' in the Qiang language (what we would call the sociological word), only /sa/ 'sentence'. Other than the word, we recognize the noun phrase, the verb complex, the clause, and the complex sentence as levels of grammatical structure.

## 2.4. Phonological processes

In this section we will discuss the weakening of initial consonants, stress, vowel harmony and epenthesis. These phonological processes occur within a unit that can be defined as the phonological word.

## 2.4.1. Initial weakening

Several types of initial consonant undergo a form of weakening when, due to derivation, they appear in non-word-initial position, particularly in non-syllable-initial position. This occurs both in compounds and when the directional prefix is added to verb roots. Following are some examples (see also Huang 1998; see §2.4.2 on the effects of the change in stress on the vowels):

(2.4) 
$$ph > \phi \sim f:$$
  
a.  $\partial$ - DIR +  $ph\partial$  'blow' >  $\partial \phi$  'blow (imperative)'

	b. $s a$ 'tree' + $pha$ 'forest' > $s a f$ 'tree/shrub' c. $da$ - DIR + $phu$ 'escape' > $du\phi u$ 'escaped (perf.)'
(2.5)	$kh > x:$ $a. me:^{I}$ 'rain' + $kh\partial^{I}$ 'fall (of frost)' > $me^{I}x$ 'frost (n.)' $b. n\partial^{-}$ DIR + $kh\partial^{I}te$ 'hit (people)' > $n\partial xte$ 'hit (perf.)'
(2.6)	dz > z: $\partial$ - DIR + $dzu\partial$ 'sit' > $\partial zu\partial$ 'sit (imperative)'
(2.7)	$dz > 1:^{20}$ ma- NEG + $dz a$ 'able' > ma-l 'not able'
(2.8)	b > w: a. $ta$ - DIR + $ba$ 'pile' > $taw$ 'piled (perf.)' b. $ta$ - DIR + $ba$ 'big' > $tawa$ 'become big'

When an aspirated initial becomes the final of a preceding syllable, losing its own vowel, it also generally loses its aspiration. For example, when the word /tchə/ 'drink, eat (wet foods)' takes a directional prefix (as in an imperative), it becomes [sətc].

Comparing the Ronghong forms with those of some of the more conservative Qiang dialects, such as the Mawo dialect (Sun 1981a), we can see that a similar type of weakening has occurred historically to preinitial consonants in Ronghong. Compare the following Ronghong and Mawo dialect forms.

(2.9)	<u>Ronghong</u>	<u>Mawo</u>	<u>Gloss</u>
	XSƏ	khsi	'god'
	XSƏ	khsə	'new'
	xşuçtç	khçust	'hear/listen'
	χsutu	qhsu	ʻjump'
	χsa	qhsa	'know/understand'
	χξə	qhşə	'manure'
	γzə	gzə	'government official'
	yzəifa	gzigua <sup>1</sup>	'wing'
	үzə	gzə	'four'

### 2.4.2. Stress and its effects

Intonation is usually even in a clause, with no particular peaks on any one part of the clause. Stress is used for emphasis in, for example, imperative constructions, where the prefix and sometimes the root as well are stressed, but stress does not seem to be used for emphatic (focal) contrast, e.g. in English *I came YESTERDAY* with phonetic stress on *yesterday*, marking it as the focus of the assertion. To have emphatic focus on the verb in Qiang (e.g. the equivalent of English *I BOUGHT this*, *I didn't MAKE it*), it is necessary to use a cleft construction (see §5.2).

Within individual words, in most cases, the stress is on a single vowel, with the other vowels being to different degrees unstressed. Changes in stress often occur when syllables form compounds, or when grammatical morphemes are added to root forms. In cases where the unstressed vowel is any vowel other than /i/ or /e/, that vowel may be reduced to [ə], devoiced, or dropped altogether. Following are some examples (stress is marked by an acute accent mark in these examples):

(2.10) a	a.	fia-	DIR	+	tşha	'deep' + -	z CAUS >	hátshəz 'deepen'
1	b.	tə-	DIR	+	watsi	'short' >	təwátsi	'become short'
(	c.	tça-	CON	+	watsi	'short' >	tçáwətsi	'still short'

It seems in the examples of /watsi/ 'short' given in (2.10b-c) that there is a three-way pattern of stress and vowel form: without any prefix, the first vowel of the root is [a], with an unstressed prefix it is [a], and with a stressed prefix, it is [ə].

In general there is a trochaic pattern of stress,<sup>21</sup> which leads to the loss of second syllables in bisyllabic words, but the stress of a particular derived form depends on the number and type of syllables that appear in the particular word, and this effects the realization of the vowels. Compare the following two examples:

(2.11) a	. há-mə-tçí-xtşápə-tç	b. <i>ĥá-xtʂəp-ŋ.ike</i>	
	DIR-NEG-CON-dark-GEN	DIR-dark-after	
	'before it got dark'	'after it got dark	,

In (2.11a), there is stress on the continuative aspect prefix (as well as the directional prefix), even though it breaks the usual strong-weak stress pattern, as this prefix is always stressed, and on the root vowel, so the root vowel is realized as  $[\alpha]$ , whereas in the example in (2.11b), the stress is only on the directional prefix, and so the root vowel reduces to  $[\neg]$ .

In cases where the final vowel of a compound or prefixed verb is /u/ or /uə/, unstressing/devoicing often gives a rounded quality to the preceding syllable (e.g. the prefix). Following are some examples of words where this happens (I do not have a way to mark the rounding, but the initial syllables in the forms on the right are more rounded than they would be in isolation):

(2.12)	a.	а	'one'	+	guə	'basket'	>	agyş	'one basketfull'
	b.	ma-	NEG	+	ทุนอ	COP	>	maŋyş	'is not'
	c.	ə-	DIR	+	dzuə	'sit'	>	əzyş	'sit! (imperative)'
	d.	а	'one'	+	tu	'span'	>	atų	'one handspan'

If the final is /ə/, then it is simply dropped. We saw several examples of this just above, in §2.4.1. Following are some other examples:

(2.13)	a.	ə-	DIR	+	dzə	'eat'	>	əΖ	'eat! (imperative)'
	b.	SƏ-	DIR	+	tçhə	'drink'	>	sətç	'drink! (imp.)'
	c.	bə	'bee'	+	χşə	'manure'	>	bəxş	'honey'
	d.	tsuə	'water'	+	ZӘ	'OX'	>	tsuəz	'water buffalo'

In some cases, where the final vowel of a bimorphemic compound that would otherwise be dropped becomes a non-final vowel due to the addition of a third syllable, the vowel takes on a full, harmonized form, e.g.  $[p \Rightarrow s]$  'today' (\Rightarrow s $\Rightarrow$ ), but  $[p \Rightarrow su-qua]$  'this morning'.

This dropping of an unstressed final vowel is a regular phonological process, and has led to the total loss of the final vowel in some cases (i.e. it has lexicalized), e.g. there are two forms [pək] 'arrive there' and [pəl] 'arrive here'. These are seen as indivisible lexical items by many Qiang speakers, yet they clearly derive from the verb /pə/ 'arrive' plus the deictic motion verbs /kə/ 'go' and [lu ~ lə] 'come' respectively.

There is also a loss of an unstressed vowel when a prefix is added to forms whose base form is a reduplicated form. E.g.:

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Another type of vowel loss often occurs in certain combinations of demonstrative, number, and classifier (e.g. [tsou] < tse-o-u (this-one-CL) 'this (child)') or definite marker, number and classifier (e.g. /tou/ < /te-o-u/ (DEF-one-CL) 'the (child)'). The word [tsai] 'now' is derived from such a coalescence: /tse-a-i/ (this-one-time).

## 2.4.3. Vowel harmony

In general, the pattern of vowel harmony is for the vowel of the first syllable of a compound or prefix + root combination to harmonize with the vowel of the second syllable or root. This is most common when the first vowel is /ə/. The harmony pattern is generally roughly in terms of the height of the vowel: before /o/ or /u/ the first vowel becomes [o] or [u], before /i/ or /e/ the first vowel becomes [i] or [e], before /a/ and /uə/ the first vowel becomes [a]. In cases where the first vowel is /a/ and the second vowel is /i/, then the first vowel often changes to [a]. Following are some examples (See also the examples of the kinship prefix in  $\S3.1.1.1$  and the directional prefixes in  $\S4.3.3$ ):

(2.15)	a.	WƏ	'bird'	+	spu	'flock'	>	wuşpu	'(wild) pigeon'
	b.	тə	'fire'	+	-xu	'smoke'	>	muxų	'smoke'
	c.	phə	'forest'	+	xşu	'roe deer'	>	phuxşu	'wild animal'
	d.	ə-	DIR	+	pi	'uncle'	>	ipi	'uncle'
	e.	<b>ə</b> -	DIR	+	tse	'look at'	>	itse	'saw'
	f.	ha-	'ten'	+	tşi	'one' <sup>22</sup>	>	hatşi	'eleven'
	g.	ji	'two	+	-su	'ten'	>	jusu	'twenty'

R-coloring is also involved in vowel harmony: if the second syllable of a compound or prefix + root form has r-coloring, in many cases the first syllable also takes on r-coloring. E.g.:

(2.16) a.  $\kappa ua$  'five' +  $khe^{i}$  'hundred' >  $\kappa ua^{i}-khe^{i}$  'five hundred'<sup>23</sup> b. me 'not' +  $we^{i}$  'reduce' >  $me^{i}-we^{i}$  'unceasingly'

This shows that r-coloring is feature of the vowel, and so is not a consonant phoneme (see §2.2.3).

There are also cases where the vowel harmony works in the opposite fashion, that is, the vowel of the second (or third) syllable harmonizes with the vowel of the preceding syllable, as in the following examples involving loan words from Chinese that take the Qiang verb /pə/ 'to do' (see §3.1.1 on loan words):

(2.17) a. Chinese zhàogù + Qiang pə 'to do' > tşauku-pu 'take care of'
b. Chinese wākǔ + Qiang pə 'to do' > wuakhu-pu 'be sarcastic of'

## 2.4.4. Epenthetic vowels

While there are many consonant clusters in Qiang, there are restrictions on the type of clusters allowed by the syllable canon. When there is a collocation of consonants due to derivation or compounding that results in a cluster of consonants not allowed by the canon, an epenthetic vowel (/2) is inserted to break up the cluster. Following are some examples:

eous'
,

## 2.4.5. Assimilation

In Section 2.1 it was mentioned that there is assimilation of the first consonant of a cluster in terms of voicing and place of articulation to that of the second consonant of the cluster, with the phonemically posited / $\S$ / becoming [s] before /t/ and /d/, and [c] before /pi/, /pe/, /bi/, /tc/ and /dz/, and all the preinitials becoming voiced before voiced initials. Aside from this we also find assimilation of /l/ to [n] when it follows a nasal in rapid speech, as in [themne], an alternate form of the 3pl pronoun [themle], in several tokens of the word [le<sup>1</sup>wu] 'all' in the Texts pronounced as [ne<sup>1</sup>wu] when it followed [-hcn] 'kind' (e.g.

T5:54), and in several tokens of the definite marker /le/ in the Texts which were pronounced [ne], e.g. one token of [jin-ne:] (< /jin-le:/) 'monk's robe' in "The Story of a Lazy Man" (T5:163). Vowel harmony, both in the position of articulation and the retroflexion of the vowel, discussed in Section 2.4.3, is also a kind of assimilation.

## 2.4.6. Free variation

Quite a number of lexical items in Qiang allow variation of the preinitial, initial, vowel, or final consonant. Examples:

phiş ~ phiχ ~ phi	'white'	n iq ~ n ix	'black'
muxų ~ muφų	'smoke'	fut ~ futs	'incense'
squats ~ xquats	'steal'	xupa ~ fupa	'fur'
quət ~ quətç	'cover'	şqu ~ xqu	'mouth'
khesu ∼ khe¹su	'eighty'		

The most common of these is the  $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\chi}$  variation. There are also cases where there is variation not in the form of the final, but in whether there is a final or not, or whether there are two syllables or one, as in the following:

```
mutu ~ mutup 'sky' qha ~ qhaq 'bitter' kap ~ kapətş 'orphan'
```

## Chapter 3 The noun phrase

In Section 3.1 we discuss the syntax of the noun phrase and certain individual elements of the noun phrase, plus modifiers of nouns within the noun phrase. In Section 3.2 we discuss the various roles the noun phrase can have in the clause and the different types of marking it takes when it has those roles.

## 3.1. Structure

The structure of the noun phrase is generally head-initial, though a genitive phrase or relative clause (or both) precedes the head noun. The maximum structure of a simple noun phrase is as in Figure 2:

GEN phrase + Rel. clause + Noun + ADJ + DEM/DEF + (NUM + CL)/PL *Figure 2*. The structure of the Qiang noun phrase

Any combination of the above elements is possible, as long as they follow the order given above, though a numeral must be followed by a classifier. Classifiers also occur with demonstratives alone (i.e. without numerals). A demonstrative plus classifier expression, or an adjective plus (in)definite marking and classifier, or even (in)definite marking plus classifier alone, can be used alone as a noun phrase. Some items can be doubled, such as the adjective (no more than two can appear together<sup>24</sup>). When more than one adjective appears in a noun phrase, the relative order of the adjectives in terms of type of adjective (value, shape, quality, age, or color; see Dixon 1982) is the mirror image of that in English (i.e. HEAD^color^shape^age^quality^value), but the same if one thinks in terms of order relative to the head. Compare the examples in (3.1a-j).

(3.1)	a.	виatşa	lapa	ba	b.	fa	phiş	dz
		bowl	flowery	big		clothing	white	lon
		'big colo	rful bowl?	,		'long whi	ite cloth	ing'

- c. fa phis ba clothing white old 'old white clothing'
- e. *mianpau phis* matsa f. *tshetsə* XSƏ na bread white soft car new good 'soft white bread' 'good new car'

d. fa

dzə

clothing long

'old long clothing'

dzə

long

ba

old

- g. xtşepi dz ə na h. səf po ti-wi knife long good tree thick DIR-tall 'nice long knife' 'tall thick tree'
- i. stei xsə tse j. mi XSƏ tshimpe smart axe new sharp new person 'sharp new axe' 'smart young person'

Modification of a noun by an adjective phrase can be done by either a non-nominalized post-head adjective, as in the examples in (3.1), or by a nominalized adjective in a pre-head relative clause structure. Whether a post-head adjective or a pre-head relative clause structure is used often depends on the complexity of the modifier: a complex modifier will appear in the pre-head relative clause structure, while the simple adjective will generally appear in the post-head position. Compare the following two examples:

(3.2)	a.	çtçimi	na-tç	mi	b.	mi	na
		heart	good-GEN	person		person	good
		'(a) go	od hearted	person'		'(a) good per	rson'

There is also a form where the head noun is followed by a nominalized adjective which is in apposition to the head, e.g. /mi ba-m/ [person big-NOM] 'a person, a big one' (see §4.2.3).

The noun phrase may also be followed by postpositions and/or the topic marker (see §3.2). Following are some examples of complex noun phrases (the noun phrases are in brackets for clarity):

- (3.3) [nes lu-m spe thə xsə-zi]-wu yesterday come-NOM Tibetan that three-CL-AGT *tşhetsə-le:* de-ctci-ji-tci. car-DEF:CL DIR-push-CSM-3pl 'Those three Tibetans who came yesterday pushed the car away.'
- (3.4)[qa pətsa-n<sub>i</sub>] ba: zə-pə-tç niq tsa 1sg just.now-ADV DIR-buy-GEN cloth black this i-jə-ts]-ŋuən i qa 2ĩ de-le ctcaq-lu-a. one-two-feet-TOP 1sg 2sg DIR-give heart-come-1sg 'I want to give you these few feet of black cloth that I just bought.'
- (3.5) [the:-tc-tcisua ba the-zi] piena-la [zawa ba xsə-zi]
  3sg-GEN-house old that-CL beside-LOC rock big three-CL sə.
  exist
  'There are three big rocks beside that old house of his.'
- (3.6) [tcile nəs i-pə-l-əm tuətşu-le:]
  1pl yesterday DIR-arrive-come-NOM younger.brother-DEF:CL xumtşi ŋuə.
  (name) COP
  'Our brother who returned yesterday was Xumtşi.'

This last example has both a genitive phrase (though one not marked by the genitive postposition) and relative clause preceding the head noun.

In some instances, an adverbial noun phrase is formed from a combination of a demonstrative and a numeral plus classifier or measure word. In these cases it is as if the demonstrative pronoun precedes the head, though it is the normal order for DEM + (NUM)-CL.<sup>25</sup>

(3.7)	a.	tse	'this'	+	a 'one'	+	рә	'year' >	tsəp	'this year'
	b.	the	'that'	+	a 'one'	+	sə	'day' >	thas	'that day'

c. tse 'this' + a 'one' + i 'time' > tsai 'now'

It is also possible to have noun phrases in apposition to pronouns or other types of noun phrases where they specify the nature of the pronoun or first noun phrase, as in the following examples:

(3.8)	a. <i>tçile sətşhucu</i> 1pl Sichuan 'we/us Sichua	people	<i>tçile leyz su-m</i> 1pl book learn/teach-NOM 'we/us scholars/teachers'
(3.9)	<i>dzemi sə-1</i> (name) DIR-look	ζ.	<i>sim jautsan</i> vife man.eating.devil (T6:298-300) -eating devil Dzemi, boked'

Kinship terms used with personal names follow this pattern as well (unlike the order found in Chinese), e.g. [upu- $\chi$ umtşi] 'Uncle Xumtşi'.

Noun phrases can be omitted if they are recoverable from the context. There is no system for distinguishing more important third person referents from less important ones, such as in an obviative/proximate system; there is only the topic/non-topic contrast (see §3.2.1), the person marking (see §4.3.2), and the definite/indefinite contrast (see §3.1.4). (See also the discussion of the pronoun /qupu/ in §3.1.2, below for something of an exception to this statement).

## 3.1.1. The noun

The noun in Qiang may be defined as a free form that can be followed by an (in)definite marker<sup>26</sup> and a numeral-classifier phrase or number marking, and is generally not predicative without the use of a copula. Some nouns can also take gender and diminutive marking. When acting as a noun phrase, they can be followed by the relational morphemes that are introduced in Section 3.2, and can appear as the complement of a copula clause. Aside from being the head of a noun phrase, nouns can be used to modify other nouns directly (appearing immediately before the modified noun) or in a genitive phrase (also pre-head, with or without a genitive postposition). There does not seem to be any semantic restriction on the class of nouns (e.g. only words with concrete reference). In terms of structure, a noun may be as simple as a single monosyllable, or it may be a complex construction consisting of two nouns, one modifying the other, two tightly coordinated nouns, a nominalized verb, a noun plus classifier, or a noun plus verb combination.

As in all Sino-Tibetan languages, in the case of compound nouns where one noun modifies the other, the modifying noun must always precede the modified noun, as in (3.10):

(3.10)	a.	sə-вuatşa wood-bowl 'wooden bowl'	b.	<i>bu-zdə</i> plank-ladder 'plank ladder'
	c.	<i>pie-nəs</i> pig-bed 'pig-pen'	d.	<i>bə-xş</i> bee-manure 'honey'

In the case of tightly coordinated nouns, no mark of coordination is used, and the two nouns simply appear one after the other, as in (3.11):

(3.11) a.	ep-ew	b.	tu-tuwa
	father-mother		yngr.brother-older.brother
	'parents'		'brothers'

Lexicalized deverbal nouns are formed using one of two types of marking. The nominalizing suffix /-s/ is used to form instrumental, locative, and object nouns out of verbs:

(3.12)	a.	nə	'sleep'	+	<b>-</b> S	NOM	>	nəs	'bed'
	b.	guə	'wear'	+	- <i>S</i>	NOM	>	guəs	'clothing'
	c.	dzə	'eat'	+	- <i>S</i>	NOM	>	dzəs	'grain'
	d.	suəsua	'calculate'	+	- <i>S</i>	NOM	>	suəsuas	'abacus'

In some cases a noun + verb combination is nominalized using the /-s/ suffix to form an instrumental noun phrase:

(3.13) a. pies 'meat' + qhua 'cut' + -s > piesqhuas 'chopping knife'
b. fa 'clothing' + jeji 'sew' + -s > fajejis 'needle & thread'
c. tcymi 'child' + bie 'carry' + -s > tcymi bies 'baby strap'

The nominalizing suffix /-m/(</mi/ 'man') is added to a verb or noun + verb combination to form an agentive noun (this term from Comrie & Thompson 1985), that is, one which refers to an animate being, generally a person ('one who . . .'):

(3.14)	a.	виа	'help'	+	-m	<i>suam</i> 'servant'	
	b.	tçisua	'house'	+	le	'exist' + $-m > t c isualem$ 'occu	pant'
	c.	ma	NEG	+	qə	'have' + $-m > maq am$ 'paup	er'

Comrie & Thompson (1985) divide lexical nominalizations into two major categories, 'name of activity or state' and 'name of an argument', and divide the latter into six sub-types: 'agentive nouns', 'instrumental nouns', 'manner nouns', 'locative nouns', 'objective nouns', and 'reason nouns'. Qiang does not seem to have any nominalizations of the 'name of activity or state' type, and within the 'name of an argument' type have no 'manner nouns' or 'reason nouns' formed by lexical nominalization have been found. Examples of the other types were given above.

Nouns can also be formed from adjectives (reduplicated or not) by simply adding one of the definite markers after the adjective:

(3.15)	a.	ҧiq	'black'	+	le:	DEF:CL	>	n iqle:	'the black one'
	b.	ba	'big'	+	te:	DEF:CL	>	bate:	'the big one'
	c.	tiwi	'tall'	+	ke:	INDEF:CL	>	tiwike:	'a tall one'

There are few clear examples of nouns formed from a noun plus a classifier in Qiang (though this method of forming nouns is found in other Sino-Tibetan languages, e.g. Chinese; see Chao 1968:396). One example is the word /tcisa/ 'room', from /tci/ 'house' plus /sa/, the classifier for rooms and sections.

The nouns formed from a noun plus verb combination without overt nominalization are sometimes straightforward, such as [sə-ste] 'fire tongs', from 'firewood' + 'pick up with chopsticks', but often they involve a verb that is uniquely used for the action involving that noun, and it isn't clear whether the noun was formed from a monosyllabic noun plus the verb, or the verb was formed from part of the original disyllabic noun. Most of the examples are natural phenomena.<sup>27</sup> Following are some examples:

(3.16)	a.	me <sup>x</sup>	'frost'	< me: <sup>1</sup>	'rain'	$+ khe^{x}$	'fall (of frost)'
	b.	zdəqhu	'fog'	< zdə	'cloud'	+ qhu	'descend (clouds)'
	c.	tsəpa	'ice'	< tsə	'water'	+ <i>pa</i>	'form (of ice)'
	d.	me¹gų	'thunder'	< me: <sup>1</sup>	'rain'	+ <i>gu</i>	'thunder (v.)'
	e	çişue	'moon'	< çi	'moon'	+ şue	'bright' <sup>28</sup>
	f.	la(m)pa	'flower'	< la(m)	'flower'	+ <i>pa</i>	'to bloom' <sup>29</sup>

In each case the verb can follow the combined noun plus verb form, e.g. /tsəpa pə/ 'to form ice', /zdəqhu do-qhu/ 'fog formed', /lampa da-pa/ 'flowers bloomed'.

There are many nouns which include an identifiable morpheme, but there is also an added final consonant relative to the usual form of the morpheme. This final consonant may be the result of compounding, though the rest of the original syllable has been lost, and so is no longer identifiable. In some cases, the form with the extra final consonant has the same or a very similar meaning to the plain form, but in some cases the meaning is quite different. The most common such finals are /-q/ and /-p/. The final /-q/ in many cases may be a remnant of  $/q_{\varphi}/$  'head'. The use of a morpheme meaning 'head' in forming nouns would parallel the use of tou 'head' in Chinese, where it also sometimes changes the meaning of the root form and sometimes doesn't, e.g. quán-tóu [fisthead] 'fist', chī-tóu [eat-head] 'the quality of being good to eat'. The suffix /-p/, as suggested by James A. Matisoff (p.c., 1997), may derive from the common Tibeto-Burman suffix \*-pa. This is particularly likely in cases where the form with /-p/ refers to a type of person, as in (3.17a) and (3.17e), below. Following are more examples of both suffixes:

(3.17)	a.	tçip	'master'	< tçi	'house'
	b.	zəp	'earth, ground'	< <i>z</i> ə	'ground, land'
	c.	mutup	'sky'	< mutu	'sky'
	d.	duap	'thigh'	< dua	'leg'

e.	кэ₁р	'Han person'	$< R \mathfrak{I}_1$	'Han person'
f.	məziq-pə	'talk in sleep'	< məzi	'sleep'
g.	ji-saq	'finger' [hand-section]	< sa	'section, joint'
h.	qhaq	'bitter'	< qha	'bitter'
i.	¢t¢aq-lu	'think of, want'	< ctci	'heart'
j.	şuaq	'light'	< şue	'bright'

There may even be related sets that have the same root but differ in terms of the finals, such as /liaq/ 'penis' and /lies/ 'sperm, semen', though I do not have enough evidence to be sure of this sort of connection.

Some nouns, particularly the names of some birds, are iconic with the sound the bird makes: /gugu/ 'pigeon', /kuput/ 'cuckoo bird', /ctcictcaq/ 'magpie'. Another type of iconic noun is a sound that represents an action, such as in /mi: phəq-phəq-pə/ [eyes-*phəq-phəq-do*] 'to bat the eyes, blink'. This type is rather rare.

A large number of loan words are also used by the Qiang people. The majority of these loan words are from Chinese (the Southwestern Mandarin dialect), as there has been substantial contact with Chinese since at least the thirteenth century (Sun 1988), but there are also some loan words from Tibetan. There are in fact two or more layers of loans from Chinese, as there are older, harder to identify loans, such as /lup/ 'radish' (< Chinese *lúobo*) and /la/ 'wolf' (< Chinese *láng*), and newer, more transparent loans, such as /kuntşhantan/ 'communist party' (< Chinese *gòngchǎndǎng*). As shown by Sun (1988), there are differences in the phonology and use between the old and the new loans.

The Tibetan loans are generally old loans, such as /sin/ (or /singi/) 'lion' (from Sanskrit, through Tibetan). This form is now being replaced by the Chinese loan /sətsə/ ( $< sh\bar{z}i$ ) in the speech of the younger Qiang speakers. Tibetan loans are somewhat more frequent in the Qiang spoken by the Tibetans of Heishui County. The loan words which appear in the Glossary are identified as being from Chinese or Tibetan. (See also Liu 1981 on the Tibetan loans).

When verbs (including stative verbs) are borrowed into Qiang, they are generally borrowed as nouns. In order to be used as verbs in Qiang, the suffix /-tha/ is added to monosyllabic borrowed verbs, and the verb /-pə/ 'to do' is added to polysyllabic borrowed verbs. Following are some examples:

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(3.18)	a.	tuen-tha	'squat'	<	<i>dūn</i> (蹲)
	b.	şə-tha	'spend (money)'	<	shǐ (使)
	c.	thau-tha	'wash (rice)'	<	táu (海)
	d.	χua-tha	'paint'	<	hùa (畫)
	e.	cunn_ian-pə	'train'	<	xùnliàn (訓練)
	f.	tetsui-pə	'offend'	<	dézùi (得罪)
	g.	phəiphan-pə	'criticize'	<	<i>pīpàn</i> (批判)
	h.	pethiau-pə	'chat'	<	<i>bǎitiáo</i> (擺條)

Even if the total phrase borrowed from Chinese involves more than one syllable, if the verbal part of it is monosyllabic, then /-tha/ is added, as in, for example, /phitchi fa-tha/ 'to lose one's temper' (< Chinese  $f\bar{a}$  piqi [emit temper]. In the case of verbs with the /-tha/ suffix, the borrowed verb, with the affix attached, is treated the same as a native verb, to the extent that it can take the directional prefixes, as in /sə-phin-tha/ 'make level' (< Chinese ping), and can take the postpositive adverb /-wa/, as in /khuai-tha-wa/ 'very fast' (< Chinese kuài). In the case of those loan words that take the native verb /pə/, the prefixes are added to this verb, as in /thuntşə-tə-pə/ 'notified' (< Chinese  $t\bar{o}ngzh\bar{i}$ ). A few adjectives borrowed from Chinese, such as /phin/ 'level', can be used as nouns or verbs, taking /tha-/ when they are used as verbs. Another small set of adjectives recently borrowed from Chinese, such as /cixan/ 'rare' (< Chinese  $x\bar{i}han$ ) and /tchikuai/ 'strange' (< Chinese qiguài), are only used as nouns, and take the copula if used predicatively.

With a small number of adjectives (intransitive stative verbs), possibly older loans, instead of having the /-tha/ suffix, the form /-ti/ follows the borrowed form, e.g. /nin-ti/ 'fragmentary, piecemeal' (< Chinese *líng*), /lan-ti/ 'blue' (< Chinese *lán*), /jyuan-ti/ 'round' (< Chinese *yuán*). This suffix is itself a loan form of the Chinese genitive/ nominalizing particle *de*.

Aside from direct loans, there are a number of items that might be calques on Chinese expressions. For example, /ləɣz-bie/ ['book' + 'carry on back'] 'recite lessons from memory, memorize' is probably a calque on Chinese  $b \hat{e} i s h \bar{u}$  ['turn back on, carry on back' + 'book'] 'recite lessons from memory, memorize'.

#### 3.1.1.1. Gender marking

In Qiang there is no division of nouns into gender (or other) classes, and so there is no marking of grammatical gender, only of natural gender. In fact, only animals are marked for gender. For female animals the suffix is /mi/, though in a few cases /miaha/ can be used (e.g., as /jy-mi/ could be either '(female) chicken' or 'female musk-deer', /miaha/ is added to /jy/ for 'chicken'); for male animals, the suffixes used are /zdu/ (for small animals), /z ə/ (for bovine only; this can be used alone to mean 'stud bull', or it can be suffixed to /soru/ 'cow'), /- $\chi$ / (for castrated male animals), /ci/ (for pigs), and /pi/ (for birds). Some examples:

(3.19)	xşe-x	'mixed breed ox' <sup>30</sup>	khuə-(zdu)	'dog'
	xșe-mi	'mixed breed cow'	khuə-mi	'bitch'
	sorn	'common cow'	khuə-miaha	'bitch'
	<i>ŋuə/ŋuə-mi</i>	'female cow'	punu	'cat'
	sokn-ùns	'female cow'	pun u-zdu	'male cat'
	sorn-z ə	'bull'	z ətçhaq	'rabbit'
	pie-ci	'male pig'	z ətçhaq-zdu	'male rabbit'
	piej-mi	'sow'	tçy:	'chicken'
	tshe	'goat'	jy-miaha	'hen'
	tshe-mi	'female goat'	jy-pi (jy < t¢y:)	'cock'
	WƏ	'horse'		
	wə-mi	'mare'		

There seems to be a markedness difference, where the male and female animal names form a privative opposition, but in the case of the larger animals, it is the male name that is unmarked, whereas for the smaller animals, it is the female name that is unmarked. That is, for larger animals, using the unmarked form, e.g. /wə/ 'horse', the implication is that it is male, and female gender marking is needed to mean 'mare', whereas for the smaller animals, e.g. /pun,u/ 'cat', the implication is that it is female, and male marking is necessary to express the meaning 'male cat' (cf. English *cat* vs. *tom cat*).

### 3.1.12. Diminutive marking

The diminutive, which is used only for animals, has one main form, /-tsuə ~ tsu/ (< /tsuə/ 'child'), and two forms with exclusive uses, /- $\kappa$ l/ and /-zdue/. These latter two are used for dogs and sheep respectively. None of these forms is widely used, and when they are used, they have the concrete sense of 'child'. They are not used for hypocoristic or other abstract uses. The origins of the / $\kappa$ l/ and /zdue/ forms are unclear. Examples:

(3.20)	a.	xşe-tşuə ~ xşetşy	'calf'	b.	n owu-zdue	'kid'
	c.	tçy-tşu	'chick'	d.	tshe-zdue	'lamb'
	e.	khua-ʁl	'puppy'			

It seems the word /wətshi/ 'sparrow' might be formed from the word for bird (/wə/) plus some sort of diminutive suffix, but it is the only such form found so far.

## 3.1.1.3. The kinship prefix

The majority of Qiang kinship terminology (largely terms for the older generation) is comprised of a vocalic prefix plus a root. The form of the prefix depends on the vowel of the root (see §2.4.3 on vowel harmony). Following are some examples (see the Glossary for other examples):

(3.21)	a.	a-pa	'grandfather'
	b.	u-tuma	'grandmother'
	c.	i-pi	'uncle (older brother of father)'
	d.	i-mi	'aunt (wife of older brother of father)'
	e.	u-pu	'uncle (younger brother of father)'
	f.	i-tçi	'aunt (wife of younger brother of father)'
	g.	a-kua	'uncle (brother of mother)'
	ĥ.	i-spəi	'aunt (wife of brother of mother)'
	i.	a-tsa	'husband of father's sister; brother-in-law'

An interesting feature of this system is that the male relatives on the father's side seem to be largely based on a /p-/-initial form, with the

vowel of the root and prefix varying for the specific relation. In (3.21) compare 'grandfather', 'uncle (older brother of father)', and 'uncle (younger brother of father)', and also [ep] 'father', most likely a shortened form of \*epe.

## 3.1.2. Pronouns

Three persons and three numbers are marked in the personal pronouns, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. The Qiang personal pronouns

	singular	dual	plural	
1	qa	tçi-zzi	tçi-le	
2	2 <b>ũ</b>	?i-zzi	2i-le	
3	the: / qupu	thi-zzi	them-le	

There are two forms for the third person singular pronoun, /qupu/ and /the:/. The form /qupu/ is used to refer to a third person who has a close relationship to the speaker, such as a spouse (see the two examples in (3.22) below). It is also used as a logophoric pronoun, that is, in indirect quotes when the person quoted and the one being talked about are the same, as in (3.23) below.<sup>31</sup>

- (3.22) a. *qupu zdzyta: fia-qə*. (Closely related to the speaker) 3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go 'She (my wife) went to Chengdu.'
  - b. *the: zdzyta: fia-qə*. (Not closely related to speaker)
    3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go.
    'She went to Chengdu.'

(3.23)	the: <sub>i</sub>	qa-ta	kə-ji	qupu <sub>i</sub>	ma-ka:-i.
	3sg	1sg-LOC	thus-say	3sg	NEG-go:PRS-HS
	'He told	me he is not	going to go.	.,	

The form /the:/ is a reduced form of /the ze/ ('that' + classifier) 'that one'. It is the most generally used form. Secondarily, a reduced form of the proximate demonstrative plus classifier (/tse/ + /ze/ > [tse:]) is also

sometimes used. The third plural pronoun /themle/ is often pronounced [themne], due to assimilation.

There is no exclusive/inclusive distinction in the pronouns, and there are no differences in the pronouns depending on semantic role or whether it is followed by a postposition, as is found in some Southern Qiang dialects, such as the Taoping dialect (Sun 1981, Liu 1987). While there are dual forms of the pronouns, the plural pronouns are not exclusively used for more than two referents; they can be used for dual referents when the precise number of referents is not important. The dual pronouns are used only for emphasis of the dual number. The dual and plural forms seem to be based on roughly the same root forms, but have different suffixes, [-zzi] (which possibly derives from a combination of /jə/ 'two' and the classifier /ze/, or a combination of a form of the plural marker /yle/ plus /jə/ 'two' and the classifier /ze/) in the case of the dual pronouns, and a form of the plural marker /yle/, discussed in §3.1.7, in the case of the plural pronouns.

The pronouns can appear in all positions, can be used in imperatives, can appear in cleft and pseudocleft constructions, and can be used in answer to 'who is that?': /qa nua!/ (1sg COP:1sg) 'It's me!', and the demonstrative pronouns can be used anaphorically, including for discourse deixis (see the Texts for examples). Pronouns do not seem to be used for non-specific reference. They can be omitted if recoverable from context. In fact they are usually dropped except when there is a change of topic or when they are needed for emphasis. Pronouns are freely used; there does not seem to be any restriction, in terms of politeness, on addressing someone with a pronoun, as in Chinese, except one does not usually use /the:/ for one's spouse.

Pronouns take the same cases and case marking forms as nouns. It is possible to associate numbers and classifiers with pronouns, as in the dual forms and in /tcile  $\chi$ sə-tş/ (1pl three-classifier) 'us three'. In pronoun-noun apposition constructions, all persons are possible, but only plural numbers are possible. There are no special adjectival forms of any pronouns; there are no special possessive/genitive pronouns (the postposition /-tc/ is added if necessary; see §3.2.15 on the genitive construction), and no pronominal possessive prefixes (such as those found in many other Tibeto-Burman languages), but the plural pronoun is generally used before kinship terms (this is considered more polite; e.g. /themle-tatə/ (3pl-'father') 'his father'). No gender and no verbal

categories are reflected in the pronouns. There are no reciprocal pronouns, as reciprocal meaning is expressed by reduplication of the verb (see §4.2.1). Except for the use of /qupu/ and the use of the plural pronouns before kinship terms, no status distinctions (familiar, honorific) are marked in the pronouns. There is no construction meaning 'John and the others' involving pronouns as in Chinese (e.g. *Zhāngsān tāmen* (Zhangsan 3pl) 'Zhangsan and the others'); instead the plural marker is used after the personal name, as discussed in §3.1.7.

The demonstrative pronouns mark relative distinctions from the point of view of the speaker only. There are only proximate and distal forms,<sup>32</sup> and there is no difference of visibility or not, or other factors. Table 5 gives the basic forms and several extended forms:

	singular	plural	locative	locative (side)	extent/ method	kind
proximate	tse	tsaha	tsa / tsu / tsakua	tsexse	tsəi	tsahan
distal	the	thaha	tha / thu / thakua	thexse	thəi	thahan

Table 5. The Qiang demonstrative pronouns

Aside from the main locative forms, /tsa/ and /tha/, given in Table 5, there are also two other less frequently used forms, /tsu/ and /thu/ that also mean 'here' and 'there' respectively, but /tsu/ refers to a smaller, more immediate area around the speaker than /tsa/, and /thu/ means a place somewhat closer than /tha/. The third set of locative forms given in Table 5 include /-kua/ 'side'.

The demonstrative pronouns are marked for number in the same way as nouns, by adding [ $\alpha$ -h $\alpha$ ], with the vowel of the demonstrative pronoun becoming [ $\alpha$ ] because of the addition of the word / $\alpha$ / 'one', with which it coalesces. The demonstrative pronouns take the same postpositions as nouns, but cannot take the definite marker, as the demonstrative pronouns and the definite markers both fill the same functional slot. They must take a classifier (or numeral plus classifier), or the vowel can be lengthened to represent a classifier (e.g. /tse-ze/ or /tse:/). The one exception to this is the discourse deixis use of /the/ in the phrase /the-wu/ [that-ABL] 'after that' to refer to a previously mentioned action or set of actions (see T3:29, T5:130, T5:191, T6:191, T6:228, T6:242, T6:284 for examples). When the number following the demonstrative pronoun is 'two', the combination of pronoun + number + classifier results in [tsəizzi] and [thəizzi]. The same form of the demonstrative pronoun is used for both free pronoun and adjectival uses. Demonstratives are also used in a number of temporal adverbials, such as /tsai/ 'now' < /tse/ 'this' + /a-i/ 'one time'. In the Texts demonstrative pronouns often take the prefix /fia-/, which acts as an intensifier. For example, [fia-tha] would represent a place farther away than [tha] 'there'.

Following is a list of the interrogative pronouns:

(3.24)	a.	sə-(le:)	'who'
	b.	tça-la ∼ tça:	'where'
	c.	n iyi	'what'
	d.	n iyi-le:	'which one'
	e.	n iyi-la-kua	'which side' [what-DEF:one-side]
	f.	n iyi-lai	'what time' [what-DEF:one:time]
	g.	n i-kai	'how long (time)' [what-INDEF:one:time]
	h.	n,a-wu / n,a-we	'how much/many'
	i.	n iyi-xua-n i	'why' [what-because-ADV]
	j.	n i-qəs	'how'
	k.	n i-ke:	'how'
	1.	tçho:	'when'
	m	na-tian	'what hour'

The majority of the forms here are built around a general interrogative morpheme  $[n_a \sim n_i \sim n_o \sim n_a]$ , the most common derived form of which is  $[n_i: \sim n_i\gamma_i]$  'what, which'. The forms for 'who' and 'what' can sometimes take the definite marker /le/, with the meaning of 'what' becoming 'which one' ('which side' also includes this form and /a/ 'one'). The form for 'where' includes the locative postposition /la/. The forms for 'which one', 'which side', and 'what time' have the same structure, the interrogative pronoun  $[n_i\gamma_i]$  plus the definite marker, 'one', and a classifier, measure word, or locative noun, such as [kua] 'side' here, or as in [n\_i\gamma\_i-la-tshua] 'which village?'. The form for 'how long (of time)' has roughly the same structure, but with the indefinite marker rather than the definite marker. A second option is to have the noun before 'which', and so 'which' forms a modifier of the noun with the definite marker and classifier:

(3.25) *tçiвua n\_iyi-le:-ta le-ŋua*? house which-DEF:CL-LOC exist-Q 'Which house does he live in?'

The expression /n<sub>i</sub>-qəs/ [what-form] is used for the sense of 'how' in /pe<sup>1</sup>sen n<sub>i</sub>-qəs we/ [body what-form exist] 'how is your health?'. The form meaning 'why' is that for 'what' plus the adverbial marker of cause. The form for 'what hour?' is the question particle plus the word for 'hour' (< Chinese *diăn*; possibly a calque of Chinese *jĭdiăn* 'what time?' plus borrowing). The expression [n<sub>a</sub>-wu] 'how much/many' involves the question word /n<sub>a</sub>/ plus /wu/ 'many'. When it is used, it follows the noun it is modifying, just as with numeral plus classifier expressions:

(3.26) a-tc dzigů-n,awu nuə-nua?
one-catty money-how.much COP-Q
'How much money is one catty?' (i.e., how much does one catty cost; 'catty' = one unit of 500 grams)

Other units of time or measurement or classifiers can also be used with the general interrogative particle, as in the following examples:

(3.27)	the:	n,a-çi-tç-n,o-tçu-ва	zdzyta:			
	3sg	WH-month-GEN-WH-day-LOC	Chengdu:LOC			
	ә-рә-1-пиа?					
	DIR-arrive-come-Q					
	'When	will he arrive in Chengdu?'				

- (3.28) ?*ile tcəu-la mi n,a-tşə z,ə-i-wa*? 2pl home-LOC person WH-CL exist-2pl-Q 'How many people do you have at home (in your family)?'
- (3.29) 2ũ-tç-tuətş n,a-p le-ji-wa?
  2sg-GEN-yngr.brother WH-year exist-CSM-Q
  'How old is your younger brother?'
  (lit.: 'How many years does your younger brother have?')

The interrogative pronouns take the same postpositions as lexical nouns, and can appear in any preverbal position in the clause.

(3.30) a. 2ũ sə-na ha-qə-n? 2sg who-COM DIR-go-2sg 'With whom did you go?'
b. sə 2ũ-na ha-qə? who 2sg-COM DIR-go 'Who went with you?'

There is only one unique indefinite pronoun, /iɣi/ 'anything', though the interrogative pronouns /sə/ 'who' and /n,iɣi/ 'what' can also be used as indefinite pronouns, as in (3.31)- (3.33a-b). The indefinite pronoun /iɣi/ contrasts with the indefinite use of /n,iɣi/ in that /iɣi/ is only used with a negated verb, while /n,iɣi/ is only used with a non-negated verb. Contrast (3.33b) and (3.33c).

- (3.31) sə-(le:) kə ctcaq u-lu-tu, sə ca-kə. who-(DEF:CL) go heart DIR-come-LNK who INDTV-go 'Let whoever wants to go go.'
- (3.32) qa  $n_i i \gamma i$   $dz = n_i i$   $n_i i \gamma i$   $dz = \dots$  (T5:225) 1sg what eat-ADV what eat 'Whatever I eat, (you) will eat, ...'
- (3.33) a. Q: 2ũ n*iyi* dzə topu-n-a? 2sg what eat like-2sg-Q 'What would you like to eat?'
  - b. A: *n\_iyi lə fie-si*. what also DIR-allow 'Anything would be fine.'
  - c. pəs-ŋuən,i iyi lə de-me-zde. (T6:9-10) today-TOP anything also DIR-NEG-hit '(He) didn't hit (kill) anything today.'

Otherwise a construction such as /mi e: le/ ('person' + 'one (plus lengthening representing classifier)' + 'exist') 'there is a person' or a nominalized clause is used for an indefinite referent.

(3.34) kə-ctcaq-lu-m la-he<sup>x</sup>wu ça-kə-tçi. go-heart-come-NOM DEF:one-pl:all INDTV-go-3pl 'Let all that want to go go.'

Reflexive pronouns for first and second person are formed by reduplication of the regular pronouns. In the case of the 3rd person, there are the forms /n,in,i/ (3sg reflexive) and /n,il(e)/ (3pl reflexive). It is also possible to add the third person pronoun before these latter forms. The reflexive pronouns exhibit person and number differences, as they are based on the regular pronouns, except that there are no dual reflexive forms. Table 6 gives the forms of the reflexive pronouns:

Table 6. The Qiang reflexive pronouns

	singular	plural	
1	qa-qəi	tçil-tçile	
2	2 <b>ĩ-</b> 2 <b>ĩ:</b>	il-ile	
3	(the:)n,in,i ~ n,i:	n il-n ile	

The reflexive pronouns can be marked for case, with the same postpositions as nouns. There is no other way than by reduplication of the pronouns to express reflexive meaning.

(3.35)	nini	die-șe.
	3sgrefl	DIR-die
	'(S/he) con	nmitted suicide.'

The reflexive pronouns are also used as emphatic pronouns. In some cases there is ambiguity between an emphatic and a reflexive use, but case marking can be used to differentiate the two, as in (3.36b,c). It would also be possible to have both an emphatic and reflexive use in the same clause, though this would be unusual.

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 $(< dzete)^{33}$ (3.36) a. *qaqəi* zə-dza. DIR-hit:1sg 1sgREFL 'I hit myself/I hit it myself.' (ambiguous between emphatic and reflexive) b. qaqəi-wu fia-tshua. (emphatic) (< tshuə) DIR-smash:1sg **1sgREFL-AGT** 'I myself smashed it (someone/something).' c. qaqəi-ta fia-tshua. (reflexive) (< tshuə) 1sgREFL-DAT DIR-smash:1sg 'I smashed myself.'

In some cases either type of marking (or no marking) may be possible:

(3.37)	?ĩ?ĩ:-(wu)/(ta)	tşauku	tu-pu-n.
	2sgREFL-(AGT)/(DAT)	take.care	DIR-do-2sg
	'You take care of yourse	elf.'	

It is also possible to have benefactive, genitive, and other non-directargument reflexives, as in the examples in (3.38a-c).

(3.38) a.	qaqəi-tç	pa:
	1sgREFL-GEN	buy:PRS:1sg <sup>34</sup>
	'I'll buy it for my	yself.'

b. 2i2i-n,a tce-khue. 2sgREFL-COM NEG.IMP-upset 'Don't be mad at yourself.'

c. Khumtsi upu-ta kə me-jə, Khumtsi uncle-DAT thus NEG-say n,i:-tc-khuə-le: u-tcu-s me-z i-ji.
3sgREFL-GEN-dog-DEF:CL DIR-see-NOM NEG-exist-CSM 'Khumtsi did not tell her uncle that her dog is missing.' (lit.: 'Khumtsi did not say to her uncle, the seeing of self's dog does not exist now.')

As can be seen from (3.38c), the antecedent of a reflexive/emphatic pronoun in Qiang does not have to be in the same clause as the pronoun.

For emphatic genitives, it is possible to have a genitive phrase with a reflexive/emphatic pronoun, as in /qaqəi-(tc)-fa-le:/ (1sgREFL-(GEN)-clothing-DEF:CL) 'my own clothes'.

Following are a few other forms that have uses like pronouns:

(3.39)	a.	<i>e-ylewu</i> [one-pl:all]	'we all, all of us'
	b.	<i>mi</i> [= 'person']	'other people'
	c.	nai [= 'other']	'others'
	d.	nutçuku	'each, individually'
	e.	<i>səse:<sup>1</sup>wu</i> [exist:REDUP:all]	'everything; all of them'
			• •

# 3.1.3. Locational nouns

One closed class of items within the general class of nouns is the set of locational nouns. There is a complex subset of locational nouns where the form for a locational noun meaning 'above/upper part' or 'below/lower part' differs depending on the type of location. These are presented in Table 7, along with the locative postpositions they take if postpositions are used (see §3.2.20):

Table 7. Locational nouns for 'above' and 'below'

type of location	above/upper part	below/lower part			
mountain	məq-(ta)	qəl-(la)~şqəl-(la)			
space	zuχu-(la)	guaq-(ta)			
river valley	n,i-(la)	khi-(la)			
story of building	tçy-(ta)	tşhə-(la)			
fireplace	wətçi-(la)	wəi-(la)			
house	tcu <b>xu-</b> (la)	tçike-(la)			

Aside from the forms given in Table 7, there are also the following forms:

(3.40) a.	tçiqua	'inside'
b.	zaχua	'inside (deeper inside than /tciqua/)'
с.	виа-la	'outside'
d.	tchupu	'where the sun comes up'

- e. *dz upu* 'where the sun goes down'
- f. steke 'behind'
- g.  $q \mathfrak{g}$ : 'in front of'
- h. *zekų* 'between'
- i. *piena* 'near, (be)side'

The forms for 'behind' and 'in front of' are also used for the temporal notions 'after' and 'before, long ago' (see §3.2.21). There is also some metaphorical use of body parts for certain locations, such as the use of /qəpatş/ 'head' for the top of a ladder (/buzd-te-qəpatşa:/ [plank.stairs-DEF-head:LOC (LOC realized as a long /a:/ on 'head'] 'at the top of the stairs') in the story "An Orphan" (T3:114).

## 3.1.4. Definite, indefinite marking

In this variety of Qiang it is usual to have either definite or indefinite marking on referential noun phrases. Generics and mass nouns are not marked this way. There are two definite markers, /le/ and /te/; /le/ is used more for animate referents and after nouns that end in voiced segments, while /te/ is used more for inanimate referents and after nouns that end in voiceless segments, though very often they are interchangeable. There is also an indefinite marker, /ke/, which marks newly introduced referents and predicate noun phrases. Newly introduced referents can also be marked with just a number (usually 'one') and a classifier. All three of these markers appear after the head noun and post-head adjective, if there is one, in the same position as the demonstrative pronouns, so cannot appear together with the demonstrative pronouns.<sup>35</sup> They must be followed by a classifier or numeral plus classifier, though, as with the demonstrative pronouns, the classifier may simply be reflected in a lengthened vowel. The two definite markers can be used with proper names (though this is not common), but /ke/ cannot be used with proper names. All three can be used to nominalize adjectives (single argument state verbs), e.g. /n.iqle:/ or /niq-te:/ 'the black one', /niq-ke:/ 'a black one', and occasionally to nominalize other verbs, especially existential verbs, as in (3.41a), and when it nominalizes other verbs it can have the sense of a simultaneous action or state, as in (3.41b), or simply a state, as in (3.41c). This latter

sense is often expressed by using [ka-han] (INDEF:one-kind) instead of [ke:].

(3.41) a. ep lə me-zi ew lə me-zi-ke: father also NEG-exist mother also NEG-exist-INDEF:CL nuə-kəi-tcu. COP-INF:HS-PART
(I) am one who has no father or mother.'

- b. fie-zei-ke: tse:-steke da-qə-kəi-stũ. DIR-cry-INDEF:CL this:CL-behind DIR-go-NAR-PART '(She) went (followed) behind him crying.' (T4:16-17)
- c. kapətş tou-ŋuən,i fia-tsəi orphan DEF:one:CL-TOP INT-this.manner mo-qu-ke: zi-kəi.<sup>36</sup> (T3:99-100) NEG-afraid-INDEF:CL exist-NAR
  'In this way the orphan was not afraid' (lit.: 'There was the orphan who was not afraid').

The use of /ke/ on a predicate noun (a non-referential noun which forms the main semantic content of the predicate) is not obligatory, but it is obligatory if /ke/ is acting as a nominalizer of a predicate noun formed from an adjective or verb.

With dual forms, the number and classifier merge with the (in)definite marker to form [ləzzi], [təzzi], and [kəzzi]. When the plural marker /a-ha/ (§3.1.7) is added after any of these forms, the vowel of the definite/indefinite marker is supplanted by [a]: [laha], [taha], [kaha]. The vowel of the definite marker often changes to [a] when it is followed by the locative postposition /ka/, but in this combination the vowel of the postposition also changes, so /le:-ka/ and /te:-ka/ result in [la:ka] and [ta:ka], respectively, in rapid speech. As mentioned in §2.4.2, in some cases the definite or indefinite marker combines with the number 'one' and a classifier to form a single syllable, e.g. [tou, lou, kou] (< /te, le, ke/ + [o] 'one' + u 'classifier for round objects and groups'). As mentioned above, the vowel of the (in)definite marker can sometimes be lengthened to represent the marker plus a classifier. That is, rather than have a classifier following, for example, /ke/, the vowel is

lengthened, e.g. /ke-ze/ > /ke:/. If a referent is known to the speaker, but not to the hearer, then the indefinite form is used; there is no difference in marking of specific vs. non-specific referents. Space relations between referents do not affect the form of the definite marking. Following are some examples of the differences in meaning the use of the markers can make:

- (3.42) a. *the: sum-ke-ze (or -ke:) ŋuə.* 3sg teacher-INDEF-CL COP 'He is a teacher.'
  - b. *the: sum-le: ŋuə.* 3sg teacher-DEF:CL COP 'He is the teacher.'
- (3.43) a. qa pi-le: me<sup>1</sup>z a. (< me<sup>1</sup>z) 1sg pen-DEF:CL search:1sg 'I am looking for the pen.'
  - b. qa pi-a-la me<sup>1</sup>z a. (< me<sup>1</sup>z) 1sg pen-one-CL search:1sg 'I am looking for a pen.'
- (3.44) a. *zdzyta:* k*ə-tc tşhetsə-e-ze* Chengdu:LOC go-GEN car-one-CL (one of several cars) 'a car that is going to Chengdu'
  - b. *zdzyta: kə-tç tşhetsə-le:* Chengdu:LOC go-GEN car-DEF:CL (one specific car) 'the car that is going to Chengdu'

Following is the first part of one Qiang story, "An Orphan", to show how the definite and indefinite markers are used in context.

(3.45)	qe: <sup>1</sup> -qe <sup>1</sup> -tu	ĥala	ka	pətş- <b>kou</b>	
	before-before-LNK	INT	orp	phan- <b>INDEF:c</b>	one:CL
	ŋuə-kei-tçu,	ep	lə	me-z i	ew
	COP-INF:HS-PART	father	also	NEG-exist	mother

ə	me-z i- <b>ke:</b>			ŋuə	-kəi-tçu.	
also	NEG-exist-	INDEF:CL		COP	-INF:HS-PA	RT
tu	ĥala	şkup- <b>le:</b> -ŋ	juən i		ha-tsu	
RESUL	T INT	orangutan	-DEF:C	L-TOP	INT-here	
kapətş	-tou	dz	ə .	kantchi	-kui-tçu,	
orphar	-DEF:one:C	L eat	t	think/w	ant-INF:HS	-PART
kapətş	-lou	dzə	kantç	i:	tu	fiala,
orphan	-DEF:one:C	L eat	think/	'want	RESULT	INT
kapətş	-tou	gəs-i	ta	ha-xtş	əpa:-jə-tu	
orphar	-DEF:one:C	L nigh	t-LOC	DIR-da	ark:PRS-RE	P-LNK
qu-kəp	)ə-kəi-ş,					(T3:1-7)
be.afra	uid-HABIT-II	NF:HS-LNK				

'Long ago (there was) an orphan, one with no father or mother. The orangutan wanted to eat the orphan, wanted to eat the orphan, (so) the orphan was afraid at night, when it will get dark again, . . .'

In the first line the orphan is introduced with the /ke/ indefinite marker (in this case combined with the number 'one' and a classifier into a single syllable), and in the second line, in giving a characterization of the orphan as a person with no father or mother, the indefinite marker is again used, but after that (in lines four and five) the two definite markers are interchangeably used in referring to this referent. It is interesting that the /skup/ 'orangutan' is not introduced into the story, but is assumed at its first mention to be accessible to the audience. The /skup/ shows up in a lot of Qiang stories,<sup>37</sup> and is the typical bogeyman, and so is known to all the Qiang. It is for this reason that it does not need to be introduced.

# 3.1.5. Numerals and quantifiers

The cardinal numeral system is a simple decimal system, with 'one' to 'ten' being unique forms, 'eleven' to 'nineteen' being 'ten' + 'one', etc., 'twenty' to 'ninety' being 'two' + 'ten', etc., and the numerals in between being 'two' + 'ten' + 'one', etc., though the forms for 'ten' used in 'eleven' to 'nineteen' and 'twenty' and up are different: /ha/ is used for the former, and /su/ is used for the latter. The forms of the basic

numerals differ somewhat in word initial and non-initial position; most notable, the prefixes are dropped from 'three', 'four', 'six', and 'nine'. As mentioned in §2.3, this is significant because more recent word formations generally preserve the prefixes of second syllables. The bisyllabic numerals then must have been formed and fossilized at a time before the prefixes became inseparable parts of the root morphemes. The element meaning 'five' in 'fifteen', [-ŋu] more closely reflects the original form of the word 'five' in Proto-Tibeto-Burman (\*b/l-ŋa). It is unclear whether the initial /B-/ in /Buɑ/ is the original prefix and has preempted the initial, or is a reflex of the original initial \* $\eta$ -. Counting of the numbers is done without classifiers: [a, jə, xsə, yzə...].

All of the forms are the original Qiang forms, except for 'zero' and 'ten thousand', which are Chinese loan words. There are variant forms for 'one' ( $[dz_{\vartheta} \sim t_{\vartheta}]$ ) which appear in 'eleven', 'twenty-one', 'thirty-one', etc., a form for 'two' ([n,i]) which appears only in 'twelve', and a form for 'three' ([si]) which appears only in 'thirteen'. The forms  $[dz_{\vartheta} \sim t_{\vartheta}]$  and /-n,i/ representing 'one' and 'two' in combinations seem to be more direct descendants of the Proto-Tibeto-Burman forms \*g-tik  $\approx *g$ -tyak and \*g-ni-s/k respectively (the reconstructed forms are from Matisoff 1997). Following are the basic numbers and combinations:

(3.46)	lin	'zero'	χtşu	'six'
	а	'one'	<i>ctcə</i>	'seven'
	jə	'two'	khe <sup>1</sup> ~khe <sup>38</sup>	'eight'
	XSƏ	'three'	zguə	'nine'
	үzə	'four'	hotçu	'ten'
	RNA	'five'		
	hadz i ~ hatsi	'eleven'	jusutși	'twenty-one'
	hani	'twelve'	jusujə	'twenty-two'
	hasi	'thirteen'	jusuxsə	'twenty-three'
	haz	'fourteen'	xsusu	'thirty'
	haŋu	'fifteen'	yz usu	'forty'
	hatşų	'sixteen'	KOSU	'fifty'
	haç	'seventeen'	χtşusu	'sixty'
	hakhe <sup>1</sup>	'eighteen'	çtçusu	'seventy'
	hagų	'nineteen'	khesu ~ khe <sup>1</sup> su	'eighty'
	jusu	'twenty'	zgusu	'ninety'

$e$ - $khe \sim e$ - $khe^{3}$	100	a-stu	1,000
e-khe-ŋ.a-e:(eze)	101	a-suan	10,000

There are no ordinal numerals in Qiang; only 'the most front one' (= 'the first one'), 'the one after this (one)' (= 'the next one'), 'the one after that' (= 'the third one'), and 'the last one' have special forms, but they do not involve the use of numbers.

(3.47) a	. t¢i-qə:¹-le:	(most-front-DEF:CL)	'the first one'
b	. tsə-steke-le:	(this-back-DEF:CL)	'the second/next one'
с	. thə-steke-le:	(that-back-DEF:CL)	'the third one'
d	. tçi-steke-le:	(most-back-DEF:CL)	'the last one'

Above the first three, the cardinal numbers plus classifiers are used as ordinal numbers, e.g.  $/\gamma z_{\partial}-ze/$  ('four' + classifier) 'the fourth (one)' (= 'four (of something)').

Following are some other quantifiers:

(3.48)	a.	<i>mi<sup>s</sup>wu</i> [person:all]	'each one'
	b.	a-ha [one-pl]	'some/a few (number)'
	c.	<i>e-ze</i> [one-CL]	'anyone'
	d.	<i>e-ze e-ze</i> [one-CL]	'one by one'
	e.	$a$ - $za \sim a$ - $z \Rightarrow$ [one-CL]	'a little, some (quantity)'
	f.	<i>əizi</i> [one:two:CL]	'several'
	g.	<i>a-i</i> [one-time]	'a little while'
	h.	hodzu-ma-xtşe	'ten odd'
	i.	aspala	'somewhere'
	j.	iyi-lə	'what also; anything'
	k.	<i>le<sup>1</sup>wu</i> [pl:all]	'everyone/body; all'39
	1.	<i>şəşe:<sup>1</sup>wu</i> [exist:REDUP:all]	'everything; all'
	m.	fia:n	'about'

The modifier  $[a:n \sim ha:n]$  'about' follows a numeral expression:

(3.49)	γzusu-n₊a-a-χau-ĥa:n	tşua.	(< tşuə)
	fourty-and-one-size-about	wear(shoes):1sg	
	'I wear about a size 41 (of sh	noes).'	

### 3.1.6. Classifiers and measure words

Classifiers are necessary whenever a number, demonstrative pronoun or (in)definite marker is used, though often the classifier is simply reflected in a long vowel on the demonstrative pronoun or (in)definite marker. The long vowel can represent almost any classifier. That is, there is a neutralization of classifiers in rapid speech when the classifier is replaced by the lengthened vowel. Only one classifier can be used with a noun at any one time. The classifiers in Qiang are not used to mark specific referents the way they are in, for example, Cantonese, though a number plus classifier can be used without a head noun to refer to a referent (see §3.1.5).

The classifiers can be divided semantically into measure words and sortal classifiers, depending on whether they represent quantities rather than forms/functions, but syntactically they pattern in the same way. A number of both types, particularly measure words, are clearly related to nouns, e.g. /qu/ 'mouthful' < /şqu/ 'mouth', /tşa/ 'bowlfull' < /tşa/ 'bowl'; /sa/ 'classifier for sections' < /saq/ 'joint'. Following is a list of some common classifiers (the form of the number 'one' is given with each classifier to show how it varies due to harmony with the vowel of the classifier—the vowels of all of the numbers from 'one' to 'ten', except for 'six', 'eight', and 'nine' harmonize with the vowel of the classifier; numbers above ten do not harmonize with the classifier):

- (3.50) *e-ze* General (default) classifier, used for people, houses, belts, and many other types of objects, particularly if one is unsure of the usual classifier used.
  - *a-la* Used for stick-like, long, thin objects, and clothes (native word).
  - *a-pa* Used for long stick-like objects (where the stick is a handle, e.g. a broom; < Chinese *bǎ*).
  - *e-xse* Used for one item of things that usually come in pairs, such as shoes and chopsticks.
  - *e-tue* One pair (< Chinese *dùi*).
  - *e-tsi* One pair (native word).
  - *o-u* Used generally for (small) round objects (such as steamed bread), but in some cases also for people (with the same semantics as [eze]).

a-w	Used for piles of things (cf. the verb /bə/ 'to pile'
	which becomes $[wa \sim w]$ when there is a prefix, e.g.
	[təw] 'piled'). <sup>40</sup>

- *a-tş* Used only for people (there seems to be no difference in the semantics or occasion of use of the three classifiers that can be used for people, though there is a difference in frequency, with [eze] being the most frequent).
- *e-pe* One bowl (of something).
- *a-tsa* One bowl (of something) (< /tsa/ 'wooden bowl').
- *o-zgu* One tree.
- *o-pu* One liter (of something).
- *a-zə* A little bit (of something).
- *e-fi* ~  $\phi i$  Used for flat, thin things, such as a leaf.
- *e-pi* The form for a unit of currency (< Chinese *bi*).
- *o-qpi* Used for a family of people.
- *e-kue* Used for a backload of things (< /kue/ 'to transport').
- a-qa Used for a string of small things, such as beads.
- *a-quət* One bushel (of something).
- *a-sa* One clause or other stretch of speech (</sa/ 'sound').
- *o-xo* One box (of something) (possibly < Chinese *hé*).
- *a-sa* Used for sections (e.g. room of a house), joints (cf. /saq/ 'joint').
- *a-tu* One handspan, thumb to tip of extended middle finger (< PTB \**twa*).
- *e-ze* One fathom (finger to finger with arms outstretched).
- a-p(a) One year (of time/age).
- *a-виа* One step (cf. /виаtsi/ 'to step over/across'). Also used as a classifier for houses in some dialects (e.g. Qugu).
- *e-se* One lifetime.
- *a-s* One day.
- a-c(a) One month.
- *o-lu* One ounce (< Chinese *liǎng*).
- *e-pen* One volume (< Chinese *běn*).
- *e-phin* One bottle (< Chinese *píng*).
- *a-tşan* Used for flat things, like tables (< Chinese *zhāng*).
- *a-tc* One catty (a unit of 500 grams) (< Chinese  $j\bar{i}n$ ).
- a-qəp One can/bottle (</qəp/ 'bottle').

a-gyə	One backbasketful (cf. /guaxga/ 'backbasket'); also
	used as a classifier for houses.
o-z bu	One team (of people).
a-han	One kind/type (sometimes pronounced [xan]).

Of the two words for 'pair', /tsi/ is used for shoes, chopsticks, and (legs of) pants, while /tue/ is used for earrings and bracelets.

Some of the classifiers are borrowed from Chinese. A borrowed word will not necessarily take a borrowed classifier, though. Where the semantics of the Chinese word fit a native classifier, then a native classifier will be used. There are also cases where a native Qiang word is used with a borrowed classifier. Following are examples of these different possibilities.

Qiang word-Qiang classifier:

(3.51) a.	wets e-ts	i b.	khuə	e-ze
	chopsticks one-	pair	dog	one-CL
	'one pair of chop	osticks'	'one do	og'
с.	japa e-xşe			
	hand one-CL			

Qiang word-Chinese classifier:

'one hand'

- (3.52) a. *dzigų e-pi* money one-CL 'one dollar'
  - c. *tolu* a-pa broom one-CL 'one broom'
- b. *ləyz e-pen* book one-CL 'one book'

Chinese word-Qiang classifier:

beer

(3.53)	a.	<i>phicye</i> leather.boot 'a pair of lea		<i>thantsə</i> blanket 'one blanl	one-CL
	c.	<i>pi: a-la</i> pen one-CL 'one pen'			
Chines	se w	ord-Chinese	classifier:		

(3.54) a.	phinko a-tç	b.	tşuats	a-tşan
	apple one-catty		table	one-CL
	'one catty of apples'		'one tab	ole'
c.	phitçəu e-phin			

one-bottle

'one bottle of beer'

Verbal action classifiers precede the verb they modify. They are often derived from the verbs themselves, as in the case of (3.55c,d) below. Following are some examples (verb forms that might be used with these classifiers are given in imperative form in parentheses in the normal word order):

(3.55)	a.	a-ş (ulu)	'(come in) one time'
	b.	o-qu (ətç)	'(eat) one bite' (cf. <i>squ</i> 'mouth')
	c.	e-xłi (təxłi)	'(hit) one time'
	d.	a-tşu (ətşy)	'(kick) one time'
	e.	a-xui (ək)	'(go) one time' (< Chinese húi)
	f.	a-i (uzulu)	'(wait) a little while'
	g.	e-zdue (han)	'(sleep) one time'

#### 3.1.7. Number marking

Number marking on nouns involves only singular and plural. Singular is unmarked. There are two plural markers, / $\alpha$ -h $\alpha$ / [one-pl] 'a few', which is used for the vast majority of referent types, and [le] (<  $\gamma$ le 'few'), which is used only on pronouns, kinship terms, and some nouns referring to people. Following are examples of these latter two uses (see §3.1.2 for its use with pronouns):

(3.56) a.	apə-le	b.	upu-le	c.	itçi-le	d.	tçymi-le
	'grandfathers'		'uncles'		'aunts'		'children'

The full form of this latter marker, / $\gamma$ le/, appears only after the definite marker (possibly because the reduced form of the plural marker has the same form as the definite marker—the two are distinguished by the fact that the definite marker is followed by a classifier or has a long vowel), e.g. /tcymi-le- $\gamma$ le/ (child-DEF-pl) 'the children', /wutshu-pu-m-le- $\gamma$ le/ (help-do-NOM-DEF-pl) 'the helpers'; in all other cases the form is [le].

Aside from this use of [le] (/ $\gamma$ le/), there is no animate vs. inanimate or other distinction in plural marking, all types take /a-ha/. The plural marker follows the definite marker or demonstrative pronoun, if there is one. It was mentioned in §3.1.4 above that the vowel of the definite/indefinite marker is supplanted by the /a/ of /a-ha/, becoming [laha], [taha], or [kaha]; this is true also of the demonstrative pronouns, e.g. /the/ + /a-ha/ > [thaha]. When there is no definite marker or demonstrative pronoun, /a-ha/ can be used alone. Following are some examples of the use of /a-ha/:

- (3.57) a. *qhal-la-ha qa de-l.* (< le) steamed.bun-DEF:one-pl 1sg DIR-give 'Give me the steamed buns.'
  - b. *qhal-tha-ha qa de-l.* steamed.bun-that:one-pl 1sg DIR-give 'Give me those steamed buns.'

c.	qhal-la-ha	je-wa.
	steamed.bun-DEF:one-pl	delicious-very
	'The steamed buns are very	delicious.'

d. *the: qhal-a-ha zə-p.* 3sg steamed.bun-one-pl DIR-buy 'He bought some steamed buns.'

A less prototypical use of the plural marking is when it follows a proper name in order to refer to that person 'and others', as in the following example:

(3.58)	tçiqua-la	upu-bəs-la-ha-ŋuəŋ i	çi			
	inside-LOC	uncle-snake-DEF:one-pl-TOP	liquor			
	tşhe-kəi-stũ,			(T4:57-58)		
	drink-INF:HS-PART					
	'Uncle Snake	and others are drinking inside.'				

Plural marking is not used when a numeral + classifier phrase is used, and when plural marking is used, there is only one token of the number marking within a noun phrase. That is, there is no number marking on adjectives in agreement with nouns. In a noun phrase containing two coordinated plural noun phrases there may be one token of the plural at the end of the total noun phrase or one token at the end of each of the two coordinated noun phrases, e.g. [pun,u (la-ha) n,a khuə la-ha] (cat-(DEF:one-pl) COM dog DEF:one-pl) 'the cats and the dogs'. Number marking on verbs is part of the person marking system (see §4.3.2) and unrelated to this system.

# 3.2. Nominal relational morphology

In this section we discuss the forms and uses of relational morphology, essentially postpositions, which express relations between the verb and its arguments or between the arguments themselves, but also word order. In this section we are only dealing with marking which appears on the noun phrase; for relational morphology marked on the verb, see Section 4.3.

The semantic and pragmatic roles of the major arguments of a clause are mainly expressed by word order and postpositions. Postpositions are used for marking some topics, some agents, instruments, genitives, goals, recipients, locatives, ablatives, allatives, perlatives, temporal expressions, comitatives, and comparatives, among others. There is no vocative marking postposition. Postpositions are generally used alone, but there are some instances where a locative and the ablative postposition, or a semantic postposition (e.g. a locative postposition) and the topic marker, are used together. The postpositions are enclitic on the noun phrase, that is, they follow whatever elements appear in the noun phrase and generally form a phonological unit with the noun phrase. The use of postpositions after nominalized verbs or clauses is the same as after non-derived nouns and noun phrases.

Below we will discuss each of the roles a noun phrase can play in a clause, and its marking when it has that role. See Section 3.2.22 for a form-function summary of the relational marking.

#### *3.2.1. Topic*

The topic is the first noun phrase or postpositional phrase in a clause, regardless of its semantic role, and sometimes there is a secondary topic after the first topic. If there are two topics, one is usually a scene-setting temporal or locative adverbial phrase. The topic may be a lexical noun, a pronoun, or a nominalized sentential complement (with or without overt nominalization marking). It is optional to use the topic marker /ŋuəŋ,i/ after a topic, and when there are multiple topics it is possible for there to be marking on the second topic and not the first, as in (3.59b), below, or on both topics, as in (3.59c-d). That is, there could be no overt topic marking only on the second, or marking on both, depending on which topic(s) the speaker wants to emphasize. This marking is unlike the other types of marking to be discussed below, as it marks a pragmatic rather than a semantic status. Following are some examples of its use:

- (3.59) a.  $dz = \eta u = \eta i$  qa the:-ta k = ji wa. affair-TOP 1sg 3sg-LOC thus-say-3sgU:1sg 'I told him about the affair.'
  - b. tciqua-la upu-bəs-la-ha-ŋuən i ci
    inside-LOC uncle-snake-DEF:one-pl-TOP liquor
    tşhe-kəi-stũ, ... (T4:57-58)
    drink-INF:HS-PART
    'Uncle Snake and others are drinking inside, ...'
  - c. *tsa-tau-tu-ŋuən,i* kapətş-tou-ŋuən,i this:one-time-LNK-TOP orphan-DEF:one:CL-TOP *tsa-xsa<sup>1</sup>wu* gul fie-se-kei-stu... (T3:79-80) this:one-few:all friend DIR-make-INF:HS-PART 'This time, the orphan had made friends with all these, ...'
  - d. tçiqua-la-ŋuəŋ,i tçy-le:-ŋuəŋ,i воi-kә-m inside-LOC-TOP chicken-DEF:CL-TOP call-go-NOM he-çi-kui-stũ,... (T4:25-26) DIR-send-INF:HS-PART '(Uncle Snake) while inside sent the chicken to come and call,...'

There may even be three topics marked in a clause, as in (3.60) (in this case the first topic is marked by position alone, while the second and third are marked by the topic marker):

(3.60)	ma:-le:-wu		a-s-meqa	-றுவு ்	n_iu-ŋuən_i
	Mom-DEF:CL-AGT		one-day-each-TOP		wool-TOP
	a-s pan-tçi		in-wu	pan-tçin	tə-tşhə-ŋ,i
	one-day	one-day half-ki		half-catty	DIR-weigh-ADV
	'Each day M	lom (tal	kes) half a	catty of woo	l and weighs it (to
	make yarn b	alls).'			

The topic may also be a clausal complement or complex noun phrase in sentence-initial position. In this case it may or may not be followed by the topic marker: (3.61) a. *[?ũ* ma-k] pəs *fie-mə-si*. 2sg today NEG-go **DIR-NEG-allow** 'You cannot not go today.' (lit.: 'Your not going is not allowed.') b. [pətsa-n,i-zə-pə-ji-panə-la-ha]-nuən,i qa just.now-ADV-DIR-buy-CSM-thing-DEM:one-pl-TOP 1sg the: de-l-wa. (< le + wa + a)DIR-give-3sgU:1sg 3sg 'I gave him the things that were just bought.'

There is also a "double topic" construction similar to that described for Chinese and Japanese, where there is a genitive or part-whole relation between the first and second topics, and in this case it is possible to have a topic marker after the first noun phrase in the construction:<sup>41</sup>

(3.62)	the:-ŋuəŋ i	səkue	zdzi.
	3sg-top	stomach	pain
	'His stomach		

The topic marker is often used for contrastive topics, as in (3.63) (from T6:17-18):

(3.63) *pitc-ŋuən,i z mətşi spi-ş, qə:'-ŋuən,i* juankuai *z mə.* now-TOP emperor call-LNK before-TOP yuanwai be.named 'Now he's called emperor; in the past, he was called yuanwai.'

In a noun phrase with a numeral expression modifying the head, the topic marker can appear between the head and the numeral expression, as in (3.64):

(3.64) zbə-ŋuən,i xsə-zi	zə-p-n i	tçaвa-la
yak-TOP three-C	L DIR-buy-ADV	cowpen-LOC
ha-zdzy-ŋ i	z i-z ə-kui-t¢u,	(T5:69-70)
DIR-tether-ADV	exist-CAUS-INF:HS	-PART
'(He) had three y	aks (he) had boug	ht and tethered in the
cowpen.'		

In the sections to follow, we will state whether the noun phrase representing the particular role being discussed can be followed by the topic marker or not.

### 3.2.2. Single direct argument of an intransitive verb

The single direct argument of an intransitive verb is the only argument that is semantically necessary for the verb to be used in a clause. All other arguments are oblique arguments, are optional, and when present in a clause, are marked by some sort of relational morphology showing their non-direct status. The direct argument of an intransitive verb can be of at least two different semantic types, actor (including experiencer) or undergoer. In Qiang clauses where there is an intransitive verb, the single direct argument always precedes the verb, and is often in sentence-initial position, but may be preceded by a temporal or locative adverb(ial). There is no word order difference based on information structure (as is found, e.g. in Italian and Chinese, where the direct argument of an intransitive verb can occur after rather than before the verb if that argument is not topical). The single direct argument of an intransitive verb is generally a topic, and so can be followed by the topic marker /ŋuən,i/, but no semantically based marking can be used, whether the argument is an actor or an undergoer (e.g., neither the agentive marker /-wu/ or the dative /-ta/ can be used with the single argument of an intransitive verb, though the locative and ablative markers can be used for a second non-direct argument). There is no difference whether the noun phrase is a pronoun or a lexical noun. Following are examples of agentive and non-agentive arguments:

### Agentive:

(3.65)	qa	tçəu-la	ka:.	(< kə)
	1sg	home-LOC	go:PRS:1sg	
	'I'm goir	ng to go home.'		

(3.66) *the: jəts-le:-ta o-zu.* (< dzu) 3sg chair-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-sit 'He sat down on the chair.'

(3.67)	a.	the:	tçy-ta-wu	ĥo-χsu.	
		3sg	building-LOC-ABL	DIR-jump	
		'He jumped from a/the building.'			

b. *the: tsə-ва вlu.* 3sg water-LOC swim 'He is swimming in the river.'

Non-agentive:

(3.68)	pupp	n <i>ul-le: die-şe.</i> by-DEF:CL DIR-die puppy died.'		
(3.69)	rain	<i>de-çi!</i> DIR-fall raining!'	b.	χ <i>qα.</i> clear is clear.'
		<i>ə-tsų.</i> DIR-shine sun is out.'		
(3.70)	the: 3sg	<i>tçy-ta-wu</i> building-LOC-ABL	<i>dzəq</i> floor	ə. come

'He fell down from a/the building.'

It is also possible to have a non-referential/impersonal subject, but again the marking (i.e., the lack of postposition, the word order) is the same:

(3.71)	mi	wu-ŋua,	то-wu-ŋua?
	people	many-Q	NEG-many-Q
	'Are the	re many people?'	

One subtype of intransitive clause is an exception to the rule given above in that it has two unmarked noun phrases. This is the double-topic construction mentioned in §3.2.1, for example (3.62), above, and (3.72a-b), below. Even though there are two unmarked noun phrases,

the clause is intransitive, as the primary topic of the clause is not acting on the secondary topic, but instead has a possessive relation with it. Although there is a possessive relation between the referents of, for example, [the:] 'he' and [qəpɑtş] 'head' in (3.72a) (the two topics), no genitive marking can appear between the two noun phrases, so they cannot be considered a single noun phrase. The latter noun phrase, while part of a comment about the primary topic, also cannot be considered part of the predication, as if an adverb is added to the predicate, it would follow the secondary topic, not precede it.

(3.72)	a.	the:	qəpatş	zdzi.	b.	the:	ku	şa.
		3sg l	head	ache		3sg	stomach	runs
	'He has a headache.'			adache.'		'He h	nas diarrhe	a.'

### 3.2.3. Actor of a transitive verb

The actor of a transitive or ditransitive verb is the argument that performs, either volitionally or not, or experiences the action or state specified by the verb. Depending on the semantics of the verb and the context, the actor may be agentive, or it may be non-agentive, i.e., a force, an effector, or an experiencer. In both transitive and ditransitive clauses, if the word order is <Actor-(Recipient/Goal)-Undergoer-Verb>, that is, when the actor is the topic, then the noun phrase representing the actor need not take any agentive marking. With few exceptions, this is true regardless of whether the noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun, or whether the referent is first, second, or third person, or whether the argument is agentive or non-agentive, and is true for all aspects. The topic marker can be used after the noun phrase, though, to emphasize the topical nature of the actor referent. The person marking on the verb generally reflects the person and number of the actor, regardless of whether the actor is agentive or non-agentive. Following are some examples:

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Agentive:

(3.73)	a.	3sg	<i>pautşə</i> newspaper reading a/the		look.at/r	ead	
	b.		<i>pautşə</i> newspaper eading a/the		look.at/r	ead:1sg	(< tse + a)
	c.		<i>pautşə</i> newspaper re reading a/				
(3.74)	1sg		stuaha ice/food g.'				(< t¢hə)
(3.75)	Χι	ımtşi	<i>z ətchaq-e-z</i> rabbit-one-( lled a rabbit.	CL		ce(kill)	
(3.76)	a.	3sg a	fa χu clothes wa washing clot	sh		U	chop
Non-ag	gen	tive:					
(3.77)	a.	Xumtşi	<i>khumts</i> Khumt i likes Khun	si	-		

b. qa khumtsi topu-a. 1sg Khumtsi like-1sg 'I like Khumtsi.'

c.	2ũ	khumtsi	topu-n.
	2sg	Khumtsi	like-2sg
	'You		

(3.78) qa the:-tc-z əwa me-ctca. 1sg 3sg-GEN-word NEG-believe:1sg 'I don't believe what he says.' (< ctce)

(3.79) *the: isou po.* 3sg sneeze do 'He sneezed.'

There is an agentive marking postposition /-wu/, but generally only when there is marked word order, or when there is a need to emphasize the agentivity of the actor, is the agentive marker used after the noun phrase representing the actor, as in the following example:

(3.80) the:-tc pi:-xsə-la sum-wu de-l-ji ŋuə. 3sg-GEN pen-three-CL teacher-AGT DIR-give-CSM COP 'The teacher gave him three pens.'

In this example, because the noun phrase representing the actor is not in the clause-initial topic position, in order to avoid ambiguity in the assignment of actor status (especially as the actor and recipient are both third-person singular referents, so person marking on the verb is of no assistance in identifying the actor), the agentive marker /-wu/ must appear after /sum/ 'teacher'.

Consider the following two clauses:

(3.81)	a.	χumtşi-(wu) χumtşi-(AGT) 'χumtşi hit Khum	<i>khumtsi</i> khumtsi tsi.'	<i>zə-dzə-u.</i> DIR-hit-VIS	(< dzete)
	b.		ntşi-wu ntşi-AGT by xumtşi.'	<i>zə-dze-u.</i> DIR-hit-VIS	(< dzete)

In (3.81a), it is not necessary to have the agentive marker after the noun phrase representing the actor. If it is used, it is to emphasize that  $\chi$ umtşi, and not someone else, is the actor. In (3.81b), as the noun phrase representing the actor is not in initial position, the agentive marker must be used. (This is not a passive clause, but the English passive translation comes closest to approximating the pragmatics of the word order difference.) This agentive marker can only be used on the actor of transitive clauses; it cannot be used in intransitive clauses.

As there has been no grammaticalization of a passive construction in Qiang (in the sense of a construction in which the actor of the verb does not appear as a direct argument and the verb is intransitve), in order to take the undergoer's perspective in presenting an action, generally the noun phrase representing the undergoer will be put in the clause-initial topic position, and possibly take the topic-marking postposition.<sup>43</sup> In this case the noun phrase representing the actor must take the agentive marking, otherwise the meaning might be unclear. In this regard, compare the following three clauses:

(3.82)	a.	the: 3sg 'He is]	1sg			
	b.	1	U	GT	<i>zə-dze.</i> DIR-hit	(< dzete)
	c.	<i>the:</i> 3sg 'He wa	lsg-A	GT	<i>zə-dza.</i> DIR-hit:1sg	(< dzete)

In some cases, even when the word order is actor-undergoer, if the flow of action is marked (e.g. a third person referent is acting on a first person referent), or if the actor is inanimate, then agent marking is often used for clarity, as in the following examples:

(3.83)	mi-wu	qa	zə-dzi.
	person-AGT	1sg	DIR-hit
	'Somebody hi	t me.'	

(3.84)	тови-мп	qa	da-tuə-z -(şa).
	wind-AGT	1sg	DIR-fall.over-CAUS-1sgU
	'The wind knock	ked me	e over.'

(3.85) *tshəma-wu qa-dzoquq-ta ə-tş-(şa).* thorn-AGT 1sg-foot-LOC DIR-pierce-1sgU 'A thorn pierced my foot.'

These last two examples are evidence that non-animate actors can take the agentive marker /-wu/, so the condition on the use of /-wu/ is not related to volitionality. (In these two examples there is no need to mark the number or definiteness of the actor, and the 1sg non-actor marking is not obligatory; it would be used only for emphasizing one's affectedness.)

If on the other hand the semantic relations are clear given the nature of the referents and the action involved, then even with marked word order the agent marking is not necessary, as in the following example:

(3.86)	khuə-le:	qa	zə-p-ji	ŊUƏ.
	dog-DEF:CL	1sg	DIR-buy-CSM	COP
	'The dog was	bought	by me. / It was me	who bought the dog.'

People buy dogs, dogs do not buy people, so even with marked word order and no agentive marking, the relationship between the two referents is still clear.

In many cases it is possible to omit the noun phrase representing the actor, particularly when the person and number of the actor and/or a non-actor animate argument are reflected on the verb (see §4.3.2). Following are some examples where there is no noun phrase representing an actor, but there is non-actor marking:

(3.87) a.	qa dze-şa	b.	2ũ	dze-san
	1sg hit-1sgU		2sg	hit-2sgU
	'I was hit (by him).'		'You	were hit (by him).'

c. *the: dze-w* 3sg hit-3sgU 'He was hit (by him).'

#### 3.2.4. Topic of a copula clause

The nature of the initial noun phrase of an equational (identifying) or attributive copula clause is quite different from the direct argument of an intransitive verb or the actor of a transitive verb, in that it has no semantic role, only a pragmatic role, that of topic, but the formal treatment of this argument in Qiang does not differ from that of the direct argument of an intransitive verb. The noun phrase representing this referent must appear in clause-initial position, and no semanticallybased postpositions can be used after the noun phrase. Only the topic marker can be used, as in (3.88) (see also (3.129) below).

(3.88)	<i>the:-ŋuəŋ,i</i> 3sg-TOP 'He is a Tiber	Tibetan	<i>ŋuә.</i> СОР		
(3.89)	qa sun 1sg teac 'I am a teach	cher	ŋua. COP:1sg		(<
(3.90)	<i>ləyz-tse-pen</i> book-this-CL 'This book is	•	- <i>tç</i> g-GEN	<i>ŋuә.</i> СОР	

There is no formal difference between identificational and attributive copula clauses other than the addition of the definite marking in the case of the former. Compare (3.89) above (an attributive) with the following identificational clause:

(3.91) qa sum-le: ŋua. (< ŋuə) 1sg teacher-DEF:CL COP:1sg 'I am the teacher.'

### 3.2.5. Undergoer of a transitive verb

The undergoer of a transitive verb is often within the focus of the information structure, and so the noun phrase representing the

undergoer often appears in the immediately preverbal focus position, following the noun phrases representing the actor and any locative and temporal adverbs. Less commonly it appears in the clause-initial topic position. In this case the noun phrase may be followed by the topic marker. Other than this, the noun phrase representing the undergoer of a transitive verb, whether it is a topic or part of the focus, is definite or indefinite, whether it is a pre-existing referent or one created by the action of the verb, generally does not take any marking of its undergoer status. (In the following examples the noun phrase representing the undergoer is underlined.)

(3.92)	3sg 'He is tl	-	•	<i>le-ji.</i> exist-CSM	
(3.93)	3sg	<i><u>qhal-xsə-zi</u> steamed.bu three steamed</i>	n-three-CL	<i>sə-dzə-ji.</i> DIR-eat-CSM	
(3.94)	3sg	<i>ləyz-jə-pen</i> book-two-CL d two books.'	DIR-look.at/re	ad-CSM	(< tse <sup>44</sup> )
(3.95)	3sg			<i>.ji.</i> look.at/read-CSM	
(3.96)	3sg	book-that-two	<u>en</u> le <sup>⊥</sup> wu i- o-CL all D se two books.'	<i>tsi-ji.</i> IR-look.at/read-CS	SM
(3.97)	lovz_th	n_in_nen	the i_tsi	ii	

(3.97) <u>ləyz-thə-jə-pen</u> the: i-tsi-ji. book-that-two-CL 3sg DIR-look.at/read-CSM 'Those two books he read.'

- (3.98) qa <u>tcymi-tc-qəi</u> ə-ma. (<mə) 1sg child-GEN-voice DIR-hear:1sg 'I heard a/the child's voice.'
- (3.99) xumtşi <u>the:-tç-tşi-le:</u> fia-təctçy-n,i xumtşi 3sg-GEN-child-DEF:CL DIR-take-ADV upu-tç-tçəu-la kə. uncle-GEN-house-LOC go 'xumtşi took his son to (his) uncle's house.' (lit.: 'Taking his son (he) went to uncle's house.')
- (3.100) *the:-tc-doqu-le:* <u>zo:pu-e-ze</u> *de-w.* (< we) 3sg-GEN-pants-DEF:CL hole-one-CL DIR-exist 'There is now a hole in his pants.'

Non-referential/non-specific object:

(3.101) *the:* gue:<sup>*i*</sup>-piena-la <u>bi</u> ce. 3sg road-side-LOC urine release 'He's urinating on the side of the road.'

Stimulus of a cognitive verb (T3:90-91):

(3.102) pə-maha-ŋuən,i <u>şkup-te:</u> mo-qu-a. day-evening-TOP orangutan-DEF:CL NEG-be.afraid-1sg 'Tonight (I) am not afraid of the orangutan.'

The one exception to the lack of marking of the undergoer of a transitive verb is when the undergoer is animate and the noun phrase representing the actor does not have agentive marking, so there might be confusion of which referent is the actor and which is the undergoer. In this case the dative/allative marker /-tɑ/ can be used after the noun phrase representing the undergoer to disambiguate the actor from the undergoer or emphasize the undergoer, as in the following examples:

(3.103)	the:	qa-ta	dze!
	3sg	1sg-dat	hit
	'He is l	hitting me!'	

(3.104)	<i>khuə-le:</i>	<i>qa-ta</i>	<i>ĥa-вdz e-sa.</i>
	dog-DEF:CL	1sg-DAT	DIR-bite-1sgU
(3.105)	'The dog bit me.' <i>xşe-le:</i> bull-DEF:CL 'The bull gored yo	<i>?ũ-ta</i> 2sg-DAT ou.'	<i>ə-tə-san.</i> DIR-gore-2sgU

In example (3.102) above about being afraid of the orangutan, no undergoer marking was necessary, as there is no possibility (in the story) of the orangutan being afraid of the young boy (the orphan). There is no change in the transitivity of the clause with the use of this marking (even though it is often used to mark peripheral arguments), as its use here is purely to distinguish semantic roles. While generally it is used when the agentive marking is not used, the two markers can appear in the same clause. For example, (3.103) could also have the agentive marker /-wu/ after the noun phrase representing the actor.

We can see the locative origins of this marking in examples that straddle the line between a purely locative sense and a non-actor direct argument sense, such as the following example:

(3.106)	xtşə	khuə-le:-ta	de-we!		
	bullet	dog-DEF:CL-DAT	DIR-exist		
	'(The) bullet hit the dog!' (as opposed to the intended tar				
	lit.: ' ca	me to be at the dog.')			

The noun phrase representing the undergoer of a ditransitive verb also takes no marking other than the topic marker (and this only if it is in clause-initial position). Its position in the clause also depends on the information structure of the clause, appearing most often in the position immediately before the verb, following the noun phrases representing the actor, any locative and temporal adverbs, and the recipient/goal. Unlike the noun phrase representing the undergoer of a mono-transitive verb, though, the noun phrase representing the undergoer of a ditransitive verb has a third possibility in terms of position: if the undergoer is neither the topic nor the focus of the information structure, the noun phrase representing it can appear before the noun phrase in the focus position but following any other noun phrases in the clause. Following are some examples; see also the examples in §3.2.6.

(3.107)	a.	<i>sum</i> teacher		<u>pi:-xsə-la</u> pen-three-(		
		'The teache	er gave him t	hree pens.'	-	
	b.	lsg 3sg	:-ta <u>kz:</u> -LOC fisl hree fish fron	n-three-CL	<i>zə-pa.</i> DIR-buy:1sg	(< pə)
	c.	lsg fis	<i>ə-xsə-la</i> h-three-CL nree fish <i>fron</i>	3sg-loc	<i>zə-pa.</i> DIR-buy:1sg	(< pə)

## 3.2.6. Goal or recipient of a ditransitive verb

Qiang formally distinguishes between two types of argument that we will call goal and recipient. The goal of an action is the referent at which an action is directed, such as a person being told something. The verb involved may be a transitive or a ditransitive verb. The recipient of an action is the referent who receives some object as a result of the action. The verb expressing such an action must be ditransitive. These two types of argument are marked by different postpositions in Qiang. The positions in the clause in which noun phrases representing these arguments can appear are the same, though. The unmarked position is between the noun phrases representing the actor and the undergoer, but it is also possible to have the noun phrase representing the goal or recipient appear in the immediately preverbal focus position or the clause-initial topic position (see examples below).

The postposition used after a noun phrase which represents a goal argument is /-ta/, the same form as one of the locative postpositions. We saw above (§3.2.5) that this form is also used in some cases for the undergoer of a transitive verb. Following are examples of its use in ditransitive clauses and of the different positions in the clause in which the noun phrase representing the goal (here underlined) can appear.

- (3.108) the: <u>qa-ta</u> *Bzə-xsə-la* tə-χua-(şa).
  3sg 1sg-LOC fish-three-CL DIR-sell-1sgU
  'He sold me three fish.'
- (3.109) *tşhetsə-z ə-ŋuən,i qa <u>the:-ta</u> kə-ja.* (< ji) car-affair-TOP 1sg 3sg-LOC thus-say:1sg 'I told him about the car.'
- (3.110) qa <u>the:-(ta)</u> zme-z su-a. 1sg 3sg-LOC Qiang-language teach-1sg 'I teach him Qiang.'

In these clauses, the only postposition that can be used after the noun phrase representing the goal is /-ta/, it is not possible to use /-tc/, the postposition used for marking a recipient. For example, were (3.108) to have /-tc/ instead of /-ta/, then the meaning would be either 'He sold fish for me' or 'He sold my fish' (see Sections 2.2.10 and 2.2.15). What is possible, at least in (3.110), is to not use any postposition after the relevant noun phrase, as the fact that the first person is the actor is clearly marked on the verb, so there would be no ambiguity even if the postposition marking the goal were to be omitted. It would even be possible to omit the noun phrase representing the actor without any problem of ambiguity, as the person and number of the actor are recoverable from the person marking. Even so, if there is a marked word order, where the noun phrase representing the goal appears in topic position with only the topic marker following, then the noun phrase representing the actor would take the agentive marker /-wu/ (see §3.2.3), as in (3.111).

(3.111) <u>the:-nuəni</u> qa-wu zme-z su-a. 3sg-TOP 1sg-AGT Qiang-language teach-1sg 'I teach him Qiang.'

As mentioned above, the postposition used to mark a noun phrase representing a recipient argument is /-tc/, the same form as the genitive postposition. Consider the clause in (3.112):

(3.112) sum <u>the:-tc</u> pi:-xsə-la de-l. teacher 3sg-GEN pen-three-CL DIR-give 'The teacher gave him three pens.'

While the recipient marker has the same form as the genitive marker, in this example [the:-tc] and [pi:-xsə-la] are two noun phrases (the word order could be changed with [pi:-xsə-la] appearing in topic position, and native speakers feel they are two separate arguments, not one possessed entity). In this clause, the noun phrase representing the recipient argument can only take the postposition /-tc/, it cannot take /-ta/. Comparing (3.108) and (3.112), we can see that even though the person to whom something is sold is often treated in grammatical theories as a semantic recipient, the formal treatment of this argument in the grammar of Qiang is not the same as the recipient of the verb 'to give'. Yet there are some situations where the relevant referent can be profiled (presented) in the clause as either a goal or as a recipient, and therefore either /-ta/ or /-tc/ can be used, but the meanings of the resulting two clauses will differ somewhat. Compare (3.113a) and (3.113b).

- (3.113) a.  $\chi umt si-le:$  <u>lis1-ta</u> tə-yzə.  $\chi umt si-AGT$  daughter-DEF:CL Li.Si-LOC DIR-marry.off 'Xumt si married off his daughter to Li Si.'
  - b.  $\chi umt si-wu$  tsi-le: <u>lisq-tc</u> tə-yz ə.  $\chi umt si-AGT$  daughter-DEF:CL Li.Si-GEN DIR-marry.off 'Xumt si gave his daughter in marriage to Li Si.'

In (3.113a), the emphasis is on Li Si as the goal of the action, not as recipient of an object, whereas (3.113b) emphasizes the nature of Li Si as "recipient" of the woman in marriage.

If a true genitive phrase occurs in a clause with a recipient, then there can be two tokens of the same marker, but with different meanings, as in (3.114).

(3.114) qa the:-tc-fa-le: the:-tc de-l-a. 1sg 3sg-GEN-cothing-DEF:CL 3sg-GEN DIR-give-1sg 'I gave him his clothes.'

#### 3.2.7. Standard of a comparative construction

In a comparative construction, the usual word order is as follows: [NP<sub>entity</sub> being compared | NP<sub>standard</sub> of comparison-COMP | Predicate]. The noun phrase representing the standard of comparison in a comparative construction follows the clause-initial topic noun phrase, and is followed by the comparative marker. In positive clauses, the comparative marker is /-s/, while in negative clauses it is /-n<sub>i</sub>ki/. The clause initial noun phrase can take the topic marker, and actor person marking on the verb, if there is any, reflects the person and number of this topic. It is also possible to have non-actor person marking reflecting a salient standard of comparison, as in (3.115). (In the examples below, the standard of comparison is underlined.)

(3.115)	the:-ŋuəŋ i	<u>qa-s</u>	ba-(şa).
	3sg-TOP	1sg-COMP	big-1sgU
	'He is bigger th	nan me.'	

(3.117)	qa	<u>the:-s</u>	tçe-fia.	(< phi)
	1sg	3sg-COMP	CON-white:1sg	
	'I am lighter (in color) than him (a lot lighter).'			

It is not possible, as it is in some other Tibeto-Burman languages, to change the order of the two noun phrases in a comparative construction, even if the topic marker is used after the fronted standard of comparison:

(3.118)	* <u>the:-s-ŋuəŋ i</u>	qa	tçe-fia.
	3sg-COMP-TOP	1sg	CON-white:1sg

Where long phrases or clauses are compared, only the referent(s) that differs between the two things or actions being compared need be mentioned in the standard of comparison:

(3.119) 2ũ-tc-tcika-le: <u>the:-s</u> tca-wa. (< ba) 2sg-GEN-house-DEF:CL 3sg-COMP CON-big 'Your house is bigger than his.'
(3.120) qa-kə-s-ta <u>the:-s</u> tca-dza. 1sg-go-NOM-LOC 3sg-COMP CON-early

'I went earlier than him.' (lit.: 'When I went was earlier than (when) he (went.')

# 3.2.8. Standard of an equative comparative construction

In Qiang there is no way to say one referent is 'the same as' some other referent, but the same meaning can be expressed by saying that one referent and another are 'the same' in respect to some quality. If there are two noun phrases representing the two referents, they are joined by the comitative/conjunction marker /-n,a/ (which comes between them; see \$3.2.13), to form a single large noun phrase, and so the person marking on the verb, if there is any, is plural.<sup>45</sup> This larger noun phrase is the topic of the construction, so can be followed by the topic marker.

(3.121)	? <b>ũ-ŋ</b> a-qa	a-qəs	ba <sup>1</sup> .	(< ba)
	2sg-and-1sg	one-form	big:1pl	
	'You are as big as me.' (lit.: 'You and I are the same big.'			;.')

(3.122)	?ũ-ŋ,a-the:-tç-tçівиа	a-qəs	ba-tçi.		
	2sg-and-3sg-GEN-house	one-form	big-3pl		
	'Your house is as big as his.'				
	(lit.: 'Your house and his house are the same big.')				

It is also possible to have one plural noun phrase representing the two referents:

(3.123)	a.	tçizzi	z uaha	a-qəs	we <sup>1</sup> .	(< we)
		1dl	height	one-form	exist:1pl	
	'The two of us are of the same height.'					

b.	thizzi	z uaha	a-qəs	we-(tçi).
	3dl	height	one-form	exist-3pl
	'Those two persons are of the same height			ame height.'

If, instead of the comitative/conjunction marker coming between the two noun phrases, it follows the second noun phrase, then the meaning is somewhat different, as there are then two arguments (one direct, one oblique) instead of one, and the person marking, which reflects the singular topic, is singular. Compare the following two examples:

- (3.124) *the:-n,a-n,ile-ku: a-qəs me-w-(tçi).* (< we) 3sg-COM-3plREFL-brother one-form NEG-exist 'He is different from his brother.' (person marking is optional here)
- (3.125) the: n\_ile-tatə-n\_a a-qəs we. 3sg 3plREFL-father-COM one-form exist 'He is very much like his father.'

In (3.124) the two referents form one plural topic. The literal meaning of the clause is 'He and his brother do not have the same form'. In (3.125) the topic is the single third person referent, and the literal meaning is 'He has the same form as his father' (see §3.2.13 for more on the use of the comitative/conjunction marker).

# 3.2.9. Predicate noun phrases

Predicate noun phrases in some cases can appear without a following verb, as in (3.126) and (3.127), though in most cases the predicate noun phrase is followed by the copula, /ŋuə/, the verb / $\chi$ mə/ 'be called', or the verb /pe/ 'become', as in (3.128) to (3.131). If the predicate noun phrase is attributive, it is often followed by the indefinite marker /ke/ plus a classifier (or the classifier is represented as a lengthened vowel on the indefinite marker: /ke:/). If it is identificational (equational), then it can be followed by the definite marker (/le/ or /te/; see discussion in §3.1.4) plus a classifier or lengthened vowel. There is no other formal difference between attributive and identifying copula clauses. The

initial noun phrase in this construction is a topic, and can take the topic marker (see §3.2.4).

- (3.126) pəs xsə-cə-tc-bo-tcu. today three-month-GEN-five-beginning 'Today (is) March fifth.'
- (3.127) khumtsi akua-wutçin-tçə-sətsim. Khumtsi uncle-Wutçin-GEN-wife 'Khumtsi is Uncle Wutçin's wife.'
- (3.128) the: mi nuə. 3sg person COP 'He is a person (man).'
- (3.129) *the:-ŋuəŋ,i khumtsi ŋuə / z mə.* 3sg-TOP Khumtsi COP / be.called 'She is (is called) Khumtsi.'
- (3.130) *the: sum-(ke:)* pe. 3sg teacher-INDEF:CL become 'He became a teacher.'
- (3.131) *butsqha xtsampha-(ke:) pe.* caterpillar butterfly-INDEF:CL become 'The caterpillar became a butterfly.'

## 3.2.10. Benefactive

The benefactive is the referent for whose benefit an action is performed. The noun phrase representing this referent is generally marked with the postposition /-tc/, the same form as the genitive marker and recipient marker. As the form of the clause involving a benefactive argument with this marking is sometimes the same as the genitive construction, out of context there is the possibility of ambiguity, as in (3.133) and (3.134).

- (3.133) qa ma:-tc kuşu i-tşhue-la.
  1sg Mom-GEN(BEN) vegetable DIR-fry-REQU:1sg
  'Let me fry Mom's vegetables.' / 'Let me fry vegetables for Mom.'
- (3.134) ma: qa-tc fa spetc. Mom 1sg-GEN(BEN) clothing sew 'Mom is sewing my clothes,' / 'Mom is sewing clothes for me.'

As with the use of this marker for the recipient sense (see \$3.2.6), native speakers feel, for example in (3.132), with a benefactive meaning, that the speaker and the door are two separate arguments, and not one argument with a possessor. The order of the noun phrases can also be reversed, such as if the door were made a topic.

Aside from the use of /-tc/, it is also possible to mark a benefactive with the postposition / $\chi$ ua-n,i/ 'in order to, in place of, for, for the sake of'. (/ $\chi$ ua/ can be used by itself, but generally the adverbial marker /n,i/ is used together with it.)

(3.135)	the:	qa-xua-n i	SƏ	gue-k.
	3sg	1sg-BEN-ADV	firewood	chop-go
	'He wer	nt to chop wood for	r me.'	

(3.136) *tcile tcy:mi-le:-\chi ua-n\_i z botcu-s nuə-nuə.* (< wa) 1pl child-DEF:CL-BENADV think-NOM COP-EMPH 'We should think about the child('s benefit).'

## 3.2.11. Source

The type of marking that appears on a noun phrase representing a semantic source can be of three types, depending on the semantic nature of the source. If the source referent is a person, then the marking is the locative postposition /-ta/. (In the following examples, the noun phrase representing the source is underlined.)

- (3.137) qa-ŋuən,i <u>the:-ta</u> ə-ma. (< mə) 1sg-TOP 3sg-LOC DIR-hear:1sg 'I heard it from him. '
- (3.138) qa <u>the:-ta</u> *Bzə-xsə-la zə-pa*. (< pə) 1sg 3sg-LOC fish-three-CL DIR-buy:1sg 'I bought three fish from him.'

If the source is the origin in time or location of an action, or is the object out of which something is made, then the marking used is the ablative postposition /-wu/.

- (3.139) steke <u>tcetci-la-wu</u> la-s-ва, mufu behind DEF:one-day-LOC everywhere-LOC-ABL smoke tə-la-i. tsəi-nike, lu-ji. mi **DIR-come-HS** like.this-after people come-CSM 'The next day, smoke could be seen coming up out of everywhere, and from that time on there were people.' (T1:15-16)
- (3.140) <u>the-xse-te:-wu</u> ə-ma. (< mə) that-side-DEF:CL-ABL DIR-hear:1sg '(I) heard (it) from there.'
- (3.141) <u>tsaq-(ta)-wu</u> suəq i-pə-k. Spring/Summer-LOC-ABL Fall/Winter DIR-arrive-go 'from tsaq (Spring/Summer) up to suəq (Fall/Winter)'<sup>46</sup>
- (3.142)wətshi-le:zawə-wutə-χqua-jiŋuə.sparrow-DEF:CLstone-INSTDIR-carve-CSMCOP'The sparrow was carved out of a stone.'
- (3.143)the:zawo-wuwətshi-e-zetə-χqua.3sgstone-INSTsparrow-one-CLDIR-carve'S/he carved a stone into a sparrow.'47

If the source is some sort of containment out of which a referent comes, then the marking is the locative postposition /-ʁɑ/.

(3.144)	<i>tshefų-ŋuən i</i> wool-TOP	<u>tshe-ва</u> sheep-LOC	<i>lu-ji</i> come-CSM	<i>ŋuә.</i> СОР
	'Wool comes fro	om sheep.'		
(3.145)	<i>me:<sup>1</sup>-ŋuəŋ,i</i> rain-TOP 'Rain comes out	<u>zdam-ка</u> cloud-LOC t from clouds.'	<i>lu-ji</i> come-CSM	<i>ŋuә.</i> СОР

# 3.2.12. Instrument

The noun phrase representing an instrumental referent usually appears just before the noun phrase representing the undergoer, and after the noun phrase representing the actor, unless the instrumental noun phrase is the topic and therefore in clause-initial position. It is also possible for the instrumental noun phrase to follow the undergoer noun phrase, so that the instrumental noun phrase is in the immediately preverbal focus position. The instrumental noun phrase is marked by the postposition /wu/, the same form as the agentive and ablative markers.<sup>48</sup> Very often the definite marker appears between the noun and the instrumental marker if the referent is identifiable.

- (3.146) a. qa <u>*vduaş-te:-wu*</u> the: dzeta. (< dzete) 1sg hammer-DEF:CL-INST 3sg hit:1sg 'I use the hammer to hit it.'
  - b. qa-ŋuən,i the: <u>kduaş-te:-wu</u> dzeta. 1sg-TOP 3sg hammer-DEF:CL-INST hit:1sg 'I use the hammer to hit it.'
  - c. qa <u>kduaş-te:-wu</u> the: zə-me-dza. (< dzete) 1sg hammer-DEF:CL-INST 3sg DIR-NEG-hit:1sg 'I didn't use the hammer to hit it.'

- (3.147) qa <u>zawə-le:-wu</u> ısduaş ha-ŋuş-zə-n,i 1sg stone-DEF:CL-INST hammer DIR-COP-CAUS-ADV *tintsə zeta.* (< zete) nail pound:1sg 'I used the stone as a hammer to pound in the nail.'
- (3.148) *fa-tsa-qəi-ŋuən,i qa <u>kosu-pi-wu</u> zə-p-ji ŋuə.* clothing-this:one-CL-TOP 1sg fifty-CL-INST DIR-buy-CSM COP 'This item of clothing I bought with fifty dollars.'

#### 3.2.13. Comitative, conjunction

A referent in a comitative relation with another referent is represented using one of two constructions: either the two noun phrases representing the two referents are conjoined together in a single large noun phrase with the comitative/conjunction marker /-n,a/ between them, or one noun phrase is made the topic, and the second noun phrase is made an oblique argument followed by the comitative/conjunction marker. These two constructions express slightly different meanings: in the first case, the meaning is that the two referents are doing something together ((3.149)-(3.150)), whereas in the second the meaning is that one referent (the referent represented by the noun phrase in topic position) does something 'with', or 'follows', the second referent in doing something, similar to the difference between *John and Mary went to the store* and *John went to the store with Mary* ((3.151)).

- (3.149) mə-na-ylu-jə-tş-ŋuəni, zuamə-фu-o-zgu-ta brother-COM-sister-two-CL-TOP cypress-tree-one-CL-LOC *i-pi-xua-n,i, fio-mu-xtçu-wei.* (T1:2-4) DIR-hide-because-ADV DIR-NEG-burn-INF:HS 'Because the brother and sister hid in a cypress tree, they did not get burned.'
- (3.150) *mutsitşu-n,a-tugantşu zəpəq-ta fio-lu-a:-ji.* (T2:1) Mutsitşu-COM-Tugantşu earth-LOC DIR-come-PRS-CSM 'Mutsitşu and Tugantşu wanted to come to earth.'

(3.151)	qa	khumtsi-ŋ a	tiantsә-ва	ka:.
	1sg	Khumtsi-COM	store-LOC	go:PRS:1sg
	'I am go	oing to go to the sto	re with Khum	tsi.'

Compare these structures with the equational clauses presented in §3.2.8, repeated below.

(3.152)	a.	<i>the:-n,a-themle-tatə</i> 3sg-COM-3pl-daddy 'He and his father are the s		<i>a-qəs</i> one-form ame.'	we-(tci). exist-3pl
	b.	3sg	<i>themle-tatə-ŋ.a</i> 3pl-father-COM a lot like his father.'	<i>a-qəs</i> one-form	<i>we.</i> exist

The marker  $/n_{\alpha}/$  is also used for certain arguments of certain verbs (e.g. the stimuli of some cognition verbs), such as in the examples below:

- (3.153) 2*i2i-n<sub>a</sub>a tce-khue.* 2sgREFL-COM NEG.IMP-upset 'Don't be mad at yourself.'
- (3.154)  $kap > t_{s} to u$  ...  $\chi a le: -n_{c}a$ orphan-DEF:one:CL needle-DEF:CL-COM  $e - t_{s} ep e - k_{s} - t_{c}u$ . (T3:5-10) DIR-meet-INF:HS-PART 'The orphan . . . met (with) a needle.'
- (3.155) 2ũ-ŋ.a fia-sə-ŋ.i ctci-kuə na-wa. 2sg-COM DIR-know-ADV heart-base good-very 'I am very happy to know (meet) you.'

While  $/n_{\alpha}/can$  be used for the comitative sense of English *with*, there is no use of this marker with, for example, a negative prefix for the privative sense of English *without*. A possessive structure with a negated possessive verb (see §3.2.14 below) must be used to express a privative meaning. See also §5.4 for more examples of coordination.

#### 3.2.14. Possessor in a possessive clause

In a clause in which the predication expresses possession, the form that the possessor noun phrase takes depends on the type of relationship involved (temporary possession or ownership) and on the nature of the possessed referent. The verb involved in all cases is one of the existential verbs (see §4.2.4). If the relationship is inalienable possession and the referent is something that does not normally exist apart from the possessor, such as a body part, then the clause takes the form of a simple existential clause, and the possessor appears as a genitive possessor of the body part in a single noun phrase with the body part, and the verb is intransitive (with that one noun phrase as its sole argument), as in (3.156a). The person marking on the verb reflects the person and number of the possessor, not the possessed. If instead the relationship is one of temporary physical possession, and not ownership, and the referent is able to exist independently of the possessor, then the noun phrase representing the (temporary) possessor takes the locative/dative marker /-ta/, as in (3.156b). Here again the verb is intransitive, with the noun phrase representing the possessed referent as the single direct argument in an existential clause, but with the noun phrase representing the possessor appearing as an oblique argument and the person marking reflecting the person and number of the possessed referent rather than those of the possessor (inanimates are unmarked).

- (3.156) a. *qa-dzoqu-ji-tua wa*. (< we) 1sg-leg-two-CL exist:1sg (connected to main entity) 'I have two legs.' (lit.: 'My two legs exist.')
  - b. 2*ũ-dzoĸu-le:* qa-ta gə. (inanimate) 2sg-key-DEF:CL 1sg-LOC exist 'Your key is at my place.' / 'I have your key.'

If the situation involves ownership of an object which is not part of the person (i.e. is not physically inalienable, including other people, such as in kinship relations), then the causative suffix (see §4.2.2) is used with the verb of possession to make it transitive. The noun phrases representing the possessor and the possessed referent then are both

direct arguments of the verb, and so the possessor does not take any semantic case marking, as in (3.157)-(3.159).

- (3.157) *khumtsi dzəgų kən a-ha gə-z.* (inanimate) Khumtsi money very one-pl exist-CAUS 'Khumtsi has a lot of money.'
- (3.158) *khumtsi tutş-yz ə-zi z i-z.* (animate) Khumtsi younger.brother-four-CL exist-CAUS 'Khumtsi has four younger brothers.'
- (3.159) *the: səf-a-ha we-z.* (connected to main entity) 3sg tree-one-pl exist-CAUS 'He has some trees.'

Verbs of possession/existence differ with the type of noun possessed (see §4.2.4; the type of possessed noun is given at the right margin of each example). There is no difference between present and past possession, and there are no nouns that are obligatorily possessed. There is also no difference in the construction based on whether the possessor is represented by a pronoun, a proper noun or common noun.

Aside from the verbs given above, which are inherently intransitive and have both existential and possessive uses, there is one verb, /qəqe/, which is inherently transitive and used only for possession, and particularly for personal ownership of some important or valuable entity, as in (3.160a-c). With this verb the noun phrase representing the possessor always is a direct argument, and does not take any semantic case marking.

(3.160)	a.	?ũ 2sg	<i>şku</i> gold	<i>qusu</i> much	<i>qəqe-n.</i> have-2sg
		'You l	nave a lot o	of gold.'	
	b.	<i>qupu</i> 3sg 'S/he ł	<i>tcym</i> child nas five ch	five-CL	<i>qəqe.</i> have

c.	qa	tshe	a-wų	qəqa.	(< qəqe)
	1sg	sheep	one-flock	have:1sg	
	'I hav	e a flock of	f sheep.'		

There is no preposition that can be used with the possessive sense of English 'with', as in 'The man with the knife', or 'the man without the knife'; instead a relative clause using a possessive verb must be used.

(3.161)	a.	<i>xtşepi</i> knife '(the) per	<i>şə-z -əm</i> exist-CAUS-NOM son with (the) knife'	(inanimate)
	b.	knife	ma-ş-z-əm NEG-exist-CAUS-NOM son without (the) knife'	(inanimate)

Possession of a quality involves the same structure as possession of an object; the use of a relative clause structure (see \$5.2) is also possible ((3.162c)).

(3.162)	a.	3sg	<i>qhu-s</i> hate-NO s very mi		we. exist yous.'	(connected to main entity)
	b.	3sg		exist		(inside vessel) lish <i>She's got a head on her</i>
	C	ctcimi	na-tc		mi	

c. *ctcimi na-tç mi* heart good-GEN person '(a) good hearted person'

# 3.2.15. Genitive

A genitive noun phrase appears before the noun it modifies, and can be followed by the genitive marker /-tc( $\vartheta$ )/. When the relationship between

two nouns in a genitive relationship is clear, as in most cases of inalienable possession, the genitive marker is not needed. Generally the closer the relationship between the possessor and the thing possessed, the less likely the genitive marker will be used. With kinship relations, usually the plural pronoun of the possessor is used (to be more polite; see \$3.1.2), and no genitive marker is used, but if the singular is used, then the genitive marker is often used.

(3.163)	a.	<i>ciautsaŋ-tcə puŋ,ı</i> Little.Zhang-GEN cat 'Little Zhang's cat'	ı b.	<i>the:-tç pi:</i> 3sg-GEN pen 'his/her pen'
(3.164)	a.	<i>qa-tç ləyz</i> 1sg-GEN book 'my book'	b.	?ũ-tç tçіва 2sg GEN house 'your house'
(3.165)	a.	<i>khuə sikue</i> dog tail '(a) dog's tail'	b.	<i>səf qə-sta</i> tree head-place 'top half of a tree'

Where the noun modified by the genitive phrase is a common noun (not a pronoun or proper name), and the noun phrase is identifiable, the noun phrase can take definite marking, as in the following example:

(3.166) *ciautṣaŋ-tcə-puŋu-le: tə-zdzi.* Little.Zhang-GEN-cat-DEF:CL DIR-sick Little Zhang's cat is sick.

The genitive postposition is also used for some temporal phrases that modify nouns:

(3.167)	tse:	nəp-tç-pautşə	пиә.	
	this:CL	last.year-GEN-newspaper	COP	
	'This is last year's newspaper.'			

We have seen that the genitive marker is used for recipient (§3.2.6) and benefactive (§3.2.10) arguments, and for some nominalizations/relative

clauses (e.g. exx. (3.2) and (3.4)—see §5.2 for more on relative clauses).

## 3.2.16. Whole-part relations

Aside from the whole-part relationships discussed in Section 3.2.15, above, such as 'dog's tail', etc., there are no expressions for 'among', 'of' (as in 'two of (some set)' or 'a part of (some set)' or 'none of (some set)'). If the whole of the whole-part relation is mentioned, it usually is in topic position and takes the locative postposition meaning 'location within some sort of containment' ((3.168a-b)), unless the part is all of the whole, as in (3.169). If the whole is not mentioned, the relevant part can be made the topic, as in (3.170a-b). A nominalized structure is often used when the part equals zero ((3.171)).

- (3.168) a. *themle-Ba xsə-zi kə-s ŋuə.* 3pl-LOC three-CL go-NOM COP 'From among them, three people must go.'
  - b. *qhal-вua-zi-вa qa ji-zi sə-dza*. (< dzə) steamed.bun-five-CL-LOC 1sg two-CL DIR-eat:1sg 'I ate two of the five steamed buns.'
- (3.169) themle wu stuaha sə-tç-jy-(tçi). (< tçhə) 3pl all rice/food DIR-eat-ASP-3pl 'They have all eaten.'
- (3.170) a. *tşi-ji-tş-ŋuən,i u-tcu-s me-z,i-ji-(tci)*. boy-two-CL-TOP DIR-see-NOM NEG-exist-CSM-3pl 'Two of the boys (among them) have disappeared.'
  - b. *tşi-a-ha-ŋuən,i u-tçu-s me-z i-ji-(tçi).* boy-one-pl-TOP DIR-see-NOM NEG-exist-CSM-3pl 'Some of the boys have disappeared.'

(3.171) stuaha sə-tç-əm<sup>49</sup> me-z i. (< t¢hə) rice/food DIR-eat-NOM NEG-exist 'No one has eaten.'

## 3.2.17. Price, value

When a noun phrase representing the price/value of a referent is added to a clause as an oblique argument, if it is marking the amount of money used to buy an item, it can be marked by the instrumental postposition /-wu/, as in (3.172), below, or it can take the locative marker /- $\kappa\alpha$ /. If it is marking how much something sold for, it may not take any postposition, or it may take the locative postposition, as in (3.173). There seems to be a relationship between the completion or not of the action and the marking on the noun phrase representing the price/value involved, in that when it is completed, /-wu/ or /- $\kappa\alpha$ / can be used, but if the action is not completed, then no marking is used. In (3.174) no marking is possible because the auxiliary verb marks it as a state rather than a completed action. Without the auxiliary verb, /-wu/ or /- $\kappa\alpha$ / could be used.

- (3.172) fa-tsa-qəi-ŋuən,i qa ĸosu-pi-wu zə-p-ji ŋuə. clothes-this:one-CL-TOP 1sg fifty-CL-INST DIR-buy-CSM COP 'I bought this piece of clothing for 50 dollars.'
- (3.173) fa-tha-qəi-ŋuən,i qupu ĸosu-pi-(ĸa) χua. clothes-that:one-CL-TOP 3sg fifty-CL-LOC sell 'S/he is selling that piece of clothing for fifty dollars.'
- (3.174) *pi-tsa-la e-khe-pi ləla dz ə.* pen-this:one-CL one-hundred-CL exchange can 'This pen is worth one hundred dollars.'

If the price/value is a direct argument of the verb, then it does not take any postpositional marking, as in (3.175). (3.175) *fa-tha-qəi-ŋuən,i BOSU-pi lu.* clothes-that:one-CL-TOP fifty-CL worth 'That piece of clothing is worth fifty dollars.'

# 3.2.18. Extent, distance

The extent of an action, or the distance covered by an action, is generally expressed by a preverbal adverbial with no adverbial or temporal/locative marking.

(3.176)	qa	dza:-tçəkų	wu	the:	dza.
	1sg	lunch-before	all	3sg	chase:1sg
	'I was chasing him/her all morning.'				

- (3.177) *hotcu-tşan-ti-wi-tç-səf* ten-zhàng(CL)-DIR-tall-GEN-tree 'a ten-zhang<sup>50</sup> tall tree'
- (3.178) *Bua-stu-li-dz ə-tc-gue:*<sup>1</sup> five-thousand-lǐ(CL)-long-GEN-road 'a distance (road) of five thousand li'

# 3.2.19. Inclusion, exclusion, addition

To express the idea 'not only/aside from X but also Y', [me-tchi] 'not only' is used after the X argument, which is the topic of the sentence, as in the following example:

(3.179)	khumtsi	me-tchi	e-yle <sup>1</sup> wu	lu-ji-(tçi).
	Khumtsi	NEG-only	one-pl:all	come-CSM-3pl
	'Not just K	.'		

If this sentence has a negative predicate phrase, then it means 'all the people, including Khumtsi, didn't come':

(3.180) *khumtsi me-tchi e-yle<sup>1</sup>wu mo-lu-ji-(tci).* Khumtsi NEG-only one-pl:all NEG-come-CSM-3pl 'None of the people, not even Khumtsi, came.'

To express the concept 'except for X', then  $[ma-\eta_u_v-tci]$  ('not' + COP + exception marker) or the exception marker  $[tci ~ ji ~ j_v]$  alone is used after the noun phrase, and the verb is not negated. The same structure, but with the verb negated, is used to express 'only X' (i.e. 'except for X, there is nothing else'; cf. Japanese X sika nai [X aside.from not.have/exist] 'there is only X'). Compare the following two examples:

- (3.181) *khumtsi ma-ŋuɣ-ji e-yle¹wu lu-ji-(tci).* Khumtsi NEG-COP-EXC one-pl:all come-CSM-3pl 'Except for Khumtsi, everyone came.'
- (3.182) *khumtsi ma-ŋu̥ə-ji e-yle³wu mo-lu-ji-(tçi).* Khumtsi NEG-COP-EXC one-pl:all NEG-come-CSM-3pl 'No one came except Khumtsi / Only Khumtsi came.'

Following are more examples of the 'only X' usage:

- (3.183) qa ylu-o-u-tci me-zi.<sup>51</sup>(3sg person marking)
  1sg younger.sister-one-CL-EXC NEG-exist
  'I only have one younger sister.'
  (lit.: 'Aside from my younger sister, there is no one.')
- (3.184) qa zdzyta: ma-ŋuə-tçi ma-ka. (< kə) 1sg Chengdu:LOC NEG-COP-EXC NEG-go:1sg 'I only go to Chengdu.' (lit.: 'I don't go anyplace that is not Chengdu.')

Either [maŋu̥ə-t¢i] or [t¢i ~ ji ~ jə]<sup>52</sup> alone are possible, but the former is more emphatic. Compare the following two examples:

(3.185) a. qa fa-a-qəi-tçi ma-şə-za. (< zə) 1sg clothes-one-CL-EXC NEG-exist-CAUS:1sg 'I only have one piece of clothing.' b. qa fa-a-qəi ma-ŋuə-tçi ma-şə-za. (< zə) 1sg clothes-one-CL NEG-COP-EXC NEG-exist-CAUS:1sg 'I only have one piece of clothing.'

If the noun phrase that precedes the exception marker is a time phrase, then the expression can have the meaning 'only then' or 'until':

(3.186)  $t \Rightarrow p - n_i i - j \Rightarrow dz \Rightarrow me - we.$  (no reference to person) tomorrow-ADV-EXC thing NEG-exist 'I'm free (there is nothing) until tomorrow.'

This same structure, when used with the phrase [me-tchi] 'not want', has the meaning 'can, be able to'.

(3.187) *mutu su-ji-(wa)*, *tcile kə-jə me-tchi-ji*. sky bright-CSM-RCA 1pl go-EXC NEG-want-CSM 'It's daybreak; we can go.'

There is also a somewhat metaphorical use of this construction to mean 'just X' as in English *I'm just a kid*. In Qiang we have the following example from the story "An Orphan":

(3.188) qa ep lə me-zi, əw lə me-zi, 1sg father also NEG-exist mother also NEG-exist kapətş-kou-jə ma-ŋua. (T3:46-48) orphan-INDEF:one:CL-EXC NEG-COP:1sg 'I have no father and no mother, I am just an orphan.'

To express 'X, in addition to Y', then a comitative structure (see \$3.2.13) is used, as in the following example:

(3.189) *mi-xsə-tşə-n,a-khumtsi lu-ji-(tçi).* people-three-CL-and-Khumtsi come-CSM-3pl 'In addition to Khumtsi, three people came.'

#### 3.2.20. Locative, directional phrases

A noun phrase representing a locative referent may be marked in a number of ways. Noun phrases representing some large locations, such as cities, and some locational nouns, can appear without a locative postposition for unmarked location in that city or place. Most noun phrases representing locative referents require one of four types of locative postposition. The unmarked locative postpositions are /-ta/ and /-la/. Both of these postpositions also can have the meaning of an allative postposition, depending on the context. In the case of allative meaning, then the use of the locative postposition with the names of cities, etc. is not optional. Both these locative postpositions can be (though are not necessarily) used with the ablative postposition /-wu/ to form a more specific ablative (e.g. (3.191b)). The difference between /-la/ and /ta/ is that /-la/ is more often used with bisyllabic place names or locational nouns, while /-ta/ is more often used with monosyllabic place names or locational nouns, though there are many common exceptions to this generalization, such as /tcəu-la/ 'at home'.53 It is also possible in some cases for the locative postposition to appear as a lengthened vowel on the noun representing the location, e.g. /zdzyta-la ~ zdzyta:/ 'in/to Chengdu'. The locational nouns also take the locative markers; /məq/ 'top' and /z eku/ 'between' take /-ta/, while the others all take /-la/ (see also below). The locative postpositions are also used for non-direct arguments of certain verbs, as in (3.194b) and (3.202c), below. Following are some examples of the use of /-la/ and /-ta/:

(3.190)	a.	<i>petcin-(la) z i</i> Beijing-LOC exist '(someone) is in Beijing'	b.	petcin-lakəBeijing-LOCgo'go to Beijing'
(3.191)	a.	<i>tçəu-la</i> home-LOC 'at home'	b.	<i>tcəu-la-wu</i> family-LOC-ABL 'from home'
(3.192)	the 3sg 'I v	,	da-o DIR	<i>qa.</i> -go:1sg

- (3.193) a. *bəixa tşuatsə-le:-məq-ta la.* housefly table-DEF:CL-above-LOC fly 'A fly is flying above the table.'
  - b. bəixa tşuatsə-le:-şqəl-la z i. housefly table-DEF:CL-under-LOC exist 'A fly is under the table.'
- (3.194) a. *pi-le: tşuatsə-le:-ta şə.* pen-DEF:CL table-DEF:CL-LOC exist 'The pen is on the table.'
  - b. *the: za Ba bələ-s-ta he-the-wa*. 3sg land LOC do/work-NOM-LOC DIR-capable-very 'She is very good at working in the fields.'

It is also possible for noun phrases representing human referents to take the locative marker /td/. Depending on the context, the meaning is either that of an undergoer or dative argument (see Sections 3.2.5 and 3.2.6), or that of a location associated with the human referent(s), as in the following example:

(3.195)	qa	themle-ta	ja.	(< je)
	1sg	3pl-LOC	live/stay:1sg	
	'I live a	at (am staying	g at) their place.'	

The locational nouns /steke/ 'behind', /məq/ 'top, above', /zeku/ 'between, center', /şqəl/ 'below', /piena/ 'near, (be)side', and /qə:<sup>1</sup>/ 'before' do not require the genitive marker when in a genitive relation with a noun (e.g. /tɕiʁuɑ-le:-piena/ 'beside the house', lit.: 'the house's side'). Use of the locative postposition with bisyllabic locational nouns is optional, but monosyllabic locational nouns must take a locative marker.

(3.196)	a.	şqəl-la	kə	b.	z ekų-ta
		under-LOC	go		between-LOC
		'go under'			'between (two things)'

(3.197)	a.	виа-la	zi	b.	tĢ
		out-LOC	exist		h
		'(a person	) is outside'		'(

- b. *tçisua-le:-piena zi* house-DEF:CL-near exist '(a person) is near the house'
- (3.198) *tcisua-le:-piena-la kə* house-DEF:CL-nearby-LOC go 'go to the area near the house'
- (3.199) a. *tshetsə-le:-qe:<sup>1</sup>-la zi* car-DEF:CL-before-LOC exist '(a person) is in front of the car'
  - b. *tshetsə-le:-steke-la z i* car-DEF:CL-behind-LOC exist '(a person) is in back of the car'
- (3.200) a. *tşuatsə-le:-piena-la zi* table-DEF:CL-nearby-LOC exist '(a person) is beside the table'
  - b. *Bopu-le:-ta* da-qa mountain-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-go 'go over the mountain'
- (3.201) a. *the-xs-ta* that-side-LOC 'on that side' b. *the:-xs-ta* that-side-LOC 'on that side' 'on that side (farther away)'

The locative postposition /-ʁɑ/ generally has an inessive, illative or elative meaning, i.e. it marks containment in some sort of vessel or container or movement in or out of one. This postposition can also be used together with the ablative postposition /-wu/ to make the elative sense more explicit (see ex. (3.206a)).

(3.202) a. *pankoŋşә-ва zi* office-LOC exist '(a person) is in the office'

- b. *pankoŋsə-ва ә-qa* office-LOC DIR-go 'enter the office'
- c. the: ləyz su-ва tshimpe-wa.
  3sg book study-LOC smart-very
  'She is very good at her studies.'
  (lit.: 'She is smart in her studies.')

The ablative postposition is the same form as the agentive and instrumental postposition, /-wu/. It can be used alone, or with one of the other locative postpositions introduced above.

- (3.203) a. *tcisua-le:-piena-wu lu* house-DEF:CL-nearby-ABL come 'come from nearby the house'
  - b. *petcin-wu* Beijing-ABL 'from Beijing'
- (3.204) a. *məq-ta-wu la* above-LOC-ABL fly 'fly from above'
  - b. *tse-xse-wu da-qa* this-side-ABL DIR-go 'go this way'
- (3.205) a. *the-xse-wu zə-la* that-side-ABL DIR-come 'came from that direction'
  - b. *sqəl-la-wu lu* below-LOC-ABL come 'coming from below'

- (3.206) a. *pankoŋsə-ĸa-wu ha-la* office-LOC-ABL DIR-come 'came out of the office'
  - b. *tse-xşe-wu da-qa* this-side-ABL DIR-go 'cross over (go over from here)'

The postposition /-wu/ can also be used with a perlative meaning, 'along':

(3.207) *tsə-le:-piena-wu* kə water-DEF:CL-nearby-ABL go 'going along the river'

# 3.2.21. Temporal phrases

A noun phrase representing a temporal referent in some cases can be unmarked, but if it takes a postposition, it takes one of the same postpositions as are used for the locative meanings, except for /-la/, or it takes the adverbial marker /-n,i/. The form /-ta/ is used for some large time periods, such as seasons. The locative postposition /- $\mu$ a/ is used for the meaning 'within/at a time period', but not for large time periods, where /-ta/ is used. The ablative postposition /- $\mu$ a/ is used for temporal 'from'. The adverbial marker /-n,i/ (see §4.4) can be used for some adverbial time phrases. For shorter periods, /- $\mu$ a/ and /-n,i/ are both possible, but not /-ta/. To express the meaning 'only then', the exception construction is used (see §3.2.19).

- (3.208) qa a-i pe-n,i lu-a:. 1sg one-time become-ADV come-PRS:1sg 'I'll come in a minute.'
- (3.209) qa a-p za:. (< zi) 1sg one-year exist:PRS:1sg 'I'm going to stay one year.' (not there yet)

(3.210)	a.	a-s-məqa	b.	a-p-məqa	c.	nə-s
		one-day-each		one-year-each		last-day
		'each day'		'each year'		'yesterday'

- (3.211) a. *cintchiji*<sup>54</sup>-ва Monday-LOC 'on Monday'
- (3.212) а. *јә-с-ва* two-month-LOC 'in February'
- (3.213) a. *ctci-tian-ва* seven-o'clock-LOC 'at seven'
- (3.214) а. јіtсәиwирал.ian-ва 1958-LOC 'in 1958'
- (3.215) a. tsaq-ni b. dza:-tçiku-n,i spring/summer-ADV 'in spring/summer' 'in the morning'
- (3.216) a. *jə-p* pe-ji two-years become-CSM 'two years ago (two years have passed)'
  - b. *jə-s* pe-nike two-days become-after 'after two days'
- (3.217) *eini-n.ike* tsa (< z i) qa z a:. next.year-after here exist:PRS:1sg 1sg 'After next year I am going to be here.'

- b. tha-s-ва that:one-day-LOC '(on) that day'
- b. *jә-сә-tс-ju-tсu-ка* two-month-GEN-two-first-LOC 'on the second of February'
- b. *z me-dze-кa* Qiang-festival-LOC 'at the Qiang Festival'
- b. *suəq-ta* autumn/winter-LOC 'in autumn/winter'
- lunch-before-ADV

As mentioned in the discussion of the marking of source arguments (\$3.2.11), the postpositions /- $\varkappa\alpha$ / and /- $\imath\alpha$ / can be optionally used with /-wu/ after a temporal expression to mean 'starting from that time':

- (3.218) *tsaq-(ta)-wu suəq i-pə-k.* spring/summer-LOC-ABL autumn/winter DIR-arrive-go 'from spring/summer to autumn/winter.'
- (3.219) *cintchiji-wu* Monday-ABL 'starting Monday'

Temporal adverbials also often take the topic marker /ŋuəŋ,i/. This is true even if the actor or some other constituent in the clause is also marked by /ŋuəŋ,i/.

- (3.220) *a-s-ka-ŋuəŋ,i mi-kua-tş i-pə-l.* one-day-LOC-TOP person-five-CL DIR-arrive-come 'In one day five people came.'
- (3.221) *ma:-le:-wu* a-s-məqa-ŋuən i ก,iu-กุนอก,i Mom-DEF:CL-AGT one-day-each-TOP wool-TOP pan-tçin-wu pan-tçin tə-tshə-n i . . . a-s half-kilo-INST half-catty DIR-weigh-ADV one-day Each day Mom (takes) half a catty of wool and weighs it (to make yarn balls). (T5:10-12)

Whether the temporal expression is adverbial or predicative, it often takes the adverbial marker  $/-\eta_i i/$ , though when the temporal phrase directly modifies a noun, it often takes the genitive marker.

(3.222)	z me-dze	e-ŋuəŋ i	suəq-n_i		ŋuə.
	Qiang-fe	estival-TOP	autumn/winte	er-ADV	COP
	'The Qia	ang festival is in	ı autumn.'		
(3.223)	tse:	nəp-tç-pautşə		<i>ຐ</i> uə.	

5.225)	isc.	nəp-us-puuişə	ijuə.
	this:CL	last.year-GEN-newspaper	COP
	'This is	last year's newspaper.'	

(3.224) *tse: tep-n,i-bəl-s ŋuə.* this:CL tomorrow-ADV-make-NOM COP 'This is tomorrow's work.'

In (3.224), the genitive cannot be used, as the temporal phrase is modifying the verb of the nominalized clause (/bəl/ 'make, do'), not a noun phrase.

Some of the locational nouns are also used in a temporal sense, such as /steke/ 'behind', which is used for the meaning 'after (that time)', and /qə:<sup>1</sup>/ 'before', which is used for the meaning 'before (that time)'. The latter is often used at the beginning of stories with the meaning 'long long ago . . .' (see ex. (3.45), above).

(3.225)	steke-ta	mi	pe <sup>1</sup> zə-s	пиә-хиа-п	<i>i</i> ,
	after-LOC	person	raise-NOM	COP-becau	se-ADV
	'Later, in order	to propaga	te descendants	,'	(T1:4-5)

(3.226)	q aaa	jautsan	dzemi	
	before	man.eating.devil	(proper name)	
	pe-m-le:			(T6:192-193)
	become-NC			
	'the one wh	no had before becom	me the man-eating	g devil Dzemi'

The ablative postposition /-wu/ is also used with the distal demonstrative to mean 'aside from that', 'from that' or 'after that' (T6:284 and T6:242 respectively):

(3.227)	tçile-tç	jautchiu tciu-şə,	n iuxuan-nuən i	a-tç,
	1pl-GEN	demand just-is <sup>55</sup>	bezoar-TOP	one-catty
	the-wu,	mudzu-ŋuən i a-w	phə	tche-wa.
	that-ABL	charcoal-TOP one-	pile burn(blow)	want-DTV
	'Our deman	d is that we want c	one catty of bezo	ar (a kind of
	medicine), a	and after that a pile o	of charcoal should	be burned.'

(3.228)	tşi	pe-tu,	ctcə-p	le-n i	ləyz
	boy	become-LNK	seven-year	exist-ADV	book
	ta:-s	u-wa,	the-wu	hatşi-p	le-n_i
	DIR:	INDTV-study-DTV	/ that-ABL	eleven-yea	ar exist-ADV

qa ta:-me<sup>1</sup>z-wa.

1sg DIR:INDTV-look for-DTV

'If it is a boy, (when the boy) is seven years old, have him study, after that, (when) he is eleven years old, have him come look for me.'

## 3.2.22. Form-function summary of relational marking

In the previous sections we looked at how various functions are coded in Qiang. In this section we will illustrate the functions that the different types of postpositions have. Following are the postpositions and the types of roles they mark. Two numbers are given after each function name: the first refers to an example of this type of usage given below (the relevant marker is given in bold in the examples); the second is the section of this chapter where that usage is discussed in detail.

ŋuən i	Topic (3.229), §3.2.1
wu	Agentive (3.230a), §3.2.3; Instrumental (3.230b),
	§3.2.12; Ablative (3.230c), §3.2.20; Perlative (3.230d)
	§3.2.20
tç(ə)	Genitive (3.231a), §3.2.15; Benefactive/Recipient
	(3.231b), §3.2.6, §3.2.10
la	Locative (3.232a), §3.2.20; Allative (3.232b) §3.2.20
ta	Locative (3.233a) (see also (3.235)), §3.2.20; Allative
	(3.233b), §3.2.20; Temporal (3.233c), §3.2.21; Goal
	(3.233d) §3.2.6
ка	Inessive/Illative/Elative (3.234a), §3.2.20; Temporal
	(3.234b) (see also (3.232)) §3.2.21
tçi ~ ji	Exception (3.235), §3.2.19
ŋа	Conjunction (3.236a) (see also (3.229)), Comitative,
	(3.236b) §3.2.13
S	Comparative (positive) (3.237a), §3.2.7
n iki	Comparative (negative) (3.237b), §3.2.7
ŋј	Adverbial (3.238), §3.2.21, §4.4
χua-(ŋ,i)	Benefactive (3.239), §3.2.10

(3.229) mə na ylu jə-ts-**ŋuən\_i**, older.brother two-CL-TOP COM younger.sister zuamə-фu o-z gu-ta *i*-*pi*-χua-η<sub>i</sub>, DIR-hide-because-ADV cypress-tree one-CL-LOC ho-mu-xtcu-wei. (T1:2-4) DIR-NEG-burn-INF:HS 'The brother and sister, because (they) hid in a cypress tree, they didn't burn (up).'

(3.230) a. "*skup-te:-wu maha qa dzə la:*" orangutan-DEF:CL-AGT night 1sg eat come-PRS jə-şə,... (T3:13-14) say-LNK "The orangutan is going to come and eat me", he said,....

- b. *mə-le: tə-khueq, duaʁl-le:-wu* older.brother-DEF:CL DIR-angry scythe-DEF:CL-INST *səxte-n,i*... (T1:13-14) chop-LNK 'The brother got angry and chopped (it) with a scythe ...'
  - c. *Bu-q-ta-wu fio-ylu*, (T1:7) mountain-peak(head)-LOC-ABL DIR-roll '(They) rolled it down from the mountain top.'
  - d. *tsə-le:-piena-wu* kə water-DEF:CL-nearby-ABL go 'going along the river'
- (3.231) a. "qa-tc-tşi, n iyi pənsə u-su-n-a?" jə-kui, 1sg-GEN-son what ability DIR-learn-2sg-Q say-INF:HS "My son, what ability did you learn?", she said.' (T5:47)
  - b. *ma:-le:-tc-ŋuən,i ci-ŋuən,i ... pantcin* mom-DEF:CL-GEN-TOP wine-TOP half.catty *lie-kəpə-kui-wa.* (T5:19-20) carry-HABIT-INF:HS-EMPH 'For his mom (he) would bring back half a catty of liquor.'

- (3.232) a. *qe<sup>-1</sup>lotşu-ısa*, *mutu-la mujuqu z guə-zi we-i*. the.past-LOC heaven-LOC sun nine-CL exist-HS 'In the past there were nine suns in the sky.' (T1:1)
  - b. *mutu-la tce-tse-su.* (T2:12) heaven-LOC NEG.IMP-look-DTV 'Do not look towards the heavens.'
- (3.233) a. *buzd-le:-ku-ta fia-nə-kui-tçu*. (T3:115-16) plank.stairs-DEF:CL-foot-LOC DIR-sleep-INF:HS-PART '(The stone mortar) slept at the foot of the stairs.'
  - b. *themle* zəpəq-**ta** *i-pə-l-ŋ.ike*,... (T2:22) 3pl world-LOC DIR-arrive-come-after 'After they returned to the world,...'
  - c. steke-ta mi  $pe^{J}z = s$   $\eta u = \chi u = \eta i$ , ... later-LOC people raise(child)-NOM COP-because-ADV 'Later, in order to propagate descendants, ...' (T1:4-5)
  - d. tshuatsə-le: sə-ta tə-χua:-n-a?
    table-DEF:CL who-LOC DIR-sell:PRS-2sg-Q
    'To whom are you going to sell the table?'
- (3.234) a. *upu-bəs-te: qha¹sue-law-sca* uncle-snake-DEF:CL stone.pile-DEF:one:CL-LOC *i-pə-k.* (T4:18) DIR-arrive-go 'Uncle Snake went into a stone pile'
  - b. *xsə-s-ı***ka** *i-me-tçi-pə-l.* (T6:327-328) three-day-LOC DIR-NEG-CON-arrive-come 'On the third day (they) had not yet come.'
- (3.235) qa tçəu-la ou-**tçi** me-za-wa. (< zi) 1sg home-LOC one:CL-EXC NEG-exist:1sg-EMPH 'I am the only one at home' (lit.: 'Except for me there is no one at home.')

- (3.236) a. mə **na** ylu lə-zi i-dz i-tci. older.brother COM younger.sister DEF-CL DIR-discuss-3pl 'The brother and sister talked (it) over.' (T1:5-6)
  - b. *?ile-ep-te: lə tsoqpi* **n***a* 2pl-father-DEF:CL also this.family COM *quəqua-s-ta-ŋuən,i die-şe-jə-ka:-ji.* (T6:336-338) fight-NOM-LOC-TOP DIR-die-REP-INF:PRS-CSM 'When your father also fought with this person he perhaps died.'
- (3.237) a. the: qa-**s** a-zə ti-wi. 3sg 1sg-COMP one-CL DIR-tall 'S/he is a bit taller than I am.' (from Huang 1998:62)
  - b. qa 2ũ-**n,iki** ma-wa. (< ba) 1sg 2sg-COMP NEG-big:1sg 'I am not as big as you are.'
- (3.238) maha-**n**,*i* fio-lu-kəpə-wa. (T3:24) night-ADV DIR-come-HABIT-EMPH '(He) comes at night.'
- (3.239) *the:* qa-**xua-n,i** sə gue-k. 3sg 1sg-BEN-ADV firewood chop-go 'He went to chop wood for me.'

# Chapter 4 The verb complex

For the purposes of this discussion, the verb complex is defined as the predicating part of the clause, not including the sentence final mood particles. The end of the verb complex is marked by the person marking; the last element of the verb complex takes the person marking suffix, and anything after that is considered to be outside the verb complex. This is done because the person marking is enclitic, and immediately follows the verb if there is no causative or aspect marking, but appears after the causative suffix if there is one, or after the aspect if there is any, but not after other particles that follow the verb complex. The beginning of the verb complex is the adverbials which modify the verb. No nominal arguments (all of which were discussed above) are included in the verb complex. Nominal predicates were discussed in §3.2.9. In this section we will focus on verbal predicates. In Section 4.1 we will discuss the structure of the verb complex, in Section 4.2 we will discuss the different types of verbs and derivational morphology, in Section 4.3 we will discuss the relational and other non-derivational morphology in the verb complex, and in Section 4.4 we will discuss adverbial modification.

# 4.1. Structure

The verb complex in its most expanded form has an adverbial (including manner adverbials, certain adverbs covered in §4.4, and the verbal action classifiers discussed in §3.1.6), a directional prefix, a negative prefix (either unmarked negative or prohibitive negative), a continuative aspect ('yet, still') prefix, the verb, causative marking, prospective aspect marking, change of state aspect marking, and person marking. There are three other particles that can follow the verb inside the verb complex. One ([jə], glossed 'REP') has the meaning 'again'. The meaning of this particle prevents it from occurring together with both

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the negative and continuative aspect prefixes, as the meaning would be 'not yet again V'. The second particle marks a first person indirect directive, and does not appear with prospective aspect marking. The third particle marks inferentially derived information (see §4.3.7), and also generally does not appear with prospective aspect marking. The full list of possible elements of a single-verb verb complex can be represented as in Figure 3 (not all of these affixes can occur together):

	1. intensifying adverb
prefixes	2. direction/orientation prefix or 3rd person indirect directive
	marking prefix (or the two combined as one syllable)
	3. simple negation /mə-/ or prohibitive /tcə-/ prefix
	4. continuative aspect marking prefix /tci-/
	VERB ROOT
	5. causative marking suffix /-z/
	6. prospective aspect marking suffix /-a:/
	7. auxiliary directional verb /kə/ 'go' or /lə/ 'come'
	8. repetition marking suffix /-jə/
suffixes	9. change of state aspect marking suffix /-ji/
	10. 1st person indirect directive marking suffix /-1-/
	11. inferential evidential and mirative marking suffix /-k/
	12. visual evidential marking suffix /-u/
	13. non-actor person marking (1sg /-sa/, 2sg /-san/, 1pl /-sə <sup>1</sup> /, 2pl /-sai/,
	3sg/pl [-wu/∼-u])
	14. actor person marking (1sg /-a/, 2sg /-n/, 1pl /-ə <sup>1</sup> /, 2pl /-i/, 3pl /-t¢i/)
	15. hearsay evidential marking suffix /-i/

Figure 3. The structure of the Qiang verb complex

A minimal verb complex would be just the verb and third person singular (zero) person marking. In some cases the prospective aspect marking will appear on the person marking suffix, e.g. [sum the: xe-wa:] [teacher 3sg scold-PRS:3sgU] 'The teacher will scold him', where  $(\alpha:/ + /w \partial / > [w\alpha:]$ . There is also a 3rd person indirect directive prefix (/ca:-/) that can appear in the same slot as the directional prefixes, either instead of a directional prefix or merged with it (see §4.3.5.2 for examples). If there is an auxiliary verb in the clause, then it follows the (semantically) main verb. In the case of 'come' / 'go' and 'like', when they follow another verb (e.g. /koi-k $\partial$ / [call-go] 'go call', [n\_iyi dz $\partial$  topu-

n- $\alpha$ ] [what eat like-2sg-Q] 'what do/would you like to eat'), generally nothing comes between the two verbs. Person marking always appears on the last element of the verb complex, regardless of whether it is a main verb, an auxiliary, or an aspect marker. Prospective aspect marking may appear on the main verb even if there is an auxiliary verb. In the case of intransitive stative verbs, there are also some adverbs that follow the verb. Examples of the different combinations possible can be found in the discussions of the individual items that go into the verb complex in Sections 4.2 and 4.3.

#### 4.2. Verb types

The verb in Qiang can be defined as an element that can take the directional prefixes, the negative prefix, and the causative suffix. Below we discuss the different types of verbs, both derived and underived, that can appear in the verb complex.

## 4.2.1. Intransitive, transitive, reciprocal

Intransitive verbs take only one direct argument, and any other participants added to the clause must take some sort of semantic case marking (see §3.2.22 for a summary and examples). With transitive verbs there are two unmarked arguments. While most verbs in Qiang fall into these two classes, a number of verbs are ambitransitive, that is, they can be used either intransitively or transitively, such as /ylu/ 'roll' and /dzə/ 'eat'. As there is no applicative construction that has the function of adding an undergoer or benefactive argument, for most of the verbs where the single argument of the intransitive use corresponds to the actor of the transitive use, such as 'eat' (e.g. 'I eat' vs. 'I eat something'), the transitive and intransitive uses differ only in terms of whether an undergoer argument appears in the clause or context. That is, the single argument of the intransitive use corresponds to the actor of the transitive use. Where the single argument of the intransitive is semantically an undergoer, the transitive is generally formed using the causative suffix (see below), but for a few verbs the transitive can be formed by simply adding an actor, such as with /ylu/ 'roll', as in (4.1a-

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b). With these verbs use of the causative is also a possibility, as in (4.1c), but the meaning is slightly different: in (4.1b) the actor must be involved in the rolling, whereas in (4.1c) the actor may have just done something that caused the stone to roll.

(4.1)	a.	zawa	ho-ylu.		b.	qa	zawa	ho-ylu-a.
		stone	DIR-roll			1sg	stone	DIR-roll-1sg
		'The sto	one rolled	down.'		'I ro	olled the	stone down.'
	c.	1sg	stone	<i>fio-ylu-z-c</i> DIR-roll-C e to roll dov	AUS	U		

It is not possible to form an intransitive from a transitive simply by dropping the noun phrase representing the actor (at least in the case of first and second person actors) because of the person marking on the verb reflecting the person and number of the actor. In general there is no formal difference between telic and non-telic verbs other than use of a directional prefix to mark the fact that the logical conclusion of the telic situation has been reached.

In general there is no special citation form for verbs other than the unmodified root, but there are a few verbs that seem to have a final syllable /te/ or /tu/ (depending on harmony with the preceding vowel) in citation form that generally does not appear when the verbs are used in context. Following is a complete list of those we have found:

$(4.2)$ $\chi sutu$ 'jump' cete '	'smell (v.)'
qhutu 'spread, sprinkle' phəte '	'spit'
zgutu 'throw' tshuete '	'peck'
nete 'lick' zete '	pound, knock'
dzete 'hit' lete '	ʻspin (yarn)'
tshuate 'stamp the feet' phete '	wag, shake, pat'
<i>yliete</i> 'rub between the hands' $kh \partial^{3} te$ '	'hit (people)'
tshuate 'chop (e.g. meat)' suəte '	'throw'
wəte 'stir'	

It is possible to derive verbs from nouns by putting the verb /pa/ 'to do' after the noun. We saw examples of this in the discussion of

Chinese loan words in §3.1.1. Other than this there is no way to derive verbs from nouns.

With some verbs intransitives can be formed by reduplicating the verb to make a reciprocal, as in the following examples:

(4.3)	a.	ви	'curse'	>	<i>unna sunna</i>	'curse each other'
	b.	zdə	'connect'	>	zdəzdə	'mutually connect'
	c.	виа	'help'	>	киэкиа	'help each other'

The verb in this construction can either take one plural argument (which is possibly comprised of two conjoined noun phrases) or two arguments, one of which is marked as an oblique argument by the comitative/conjunction marker /-n,a/. In the first of these two situations, the verb would take plural person marking, in the second, the verb would take singular person marking.

In the case of certain verbs that involve some other referent than the two human referents that are mutually involved, or have only one human referent, the verb remains transitive with reduplication, and the meaning of reduplication can be iteration, such as with the verbs in (4.4).and (4.5).

(4.4)	a.	та	'plaster (a wall	)'	>	тәта	'be plastering'	
	b.	stue	'pull (weeds)'		>	stuistue	'be pulling (weeds)'	
	c.	di	'climb'		>	didi	'be climbing (a tree)'	
(4.5)	<i>the:</i> 3sg 'He		<i>sə</i> firewood opping firewoo		-		(< qh	ni)

Some verbs have a reduplicated form as their base form. In these cases, no further reduplication is necessary to express the reciprocal (e.g. /squesque/ 'pull', /ləle/ 'insert'). Reciprocal verbs can be nominalized, e.g. /ləlɑ-s/ ('exchange' + nominalizer > 'that which is exchanged'); the nominalized form expresses the goal of the action. Reciprocal meaning can also be emphasized by use of the adverbial expression /e:-wu e:-tɑ/ (one:CL-AGT one:CL-DAT) 'each other'. Following are some examples of the use of reciprocals.

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- (4.6) a. *khumtsi-na-xumtşi quəqua-tçi.* (< qua) Khumtsi-COM-Xumtşi fight:RECIP-3pl 'Khumtsi and Xumtşi are fighting.'
  - b. *thizzi* e:-wu e:-ta fa phi<sup>4</sup>phi<sup>4</sup>-tçi. 3dl one:CL-AGT one:CL-DAT clothing tear:RECIP-3pl 'The two of them tore each other's clothes.'

In the negative, verbs do not require reduplication to be reciprocal, such as  $/s_{9}/$  'to know (a person)' in (4.7). In the positive this would be  $[s_{9}s_{9}:]$ .

(4.7) *tcile ma-sə:*<sup>1</sup>. 1pl NEG-know:1pl 'We don't know each other.' (or 'We don't know it/him/her')

While there is marking of the reciprocal on the verb, and there are some verbs with an inherently reciprocal meaning, there is no marking of reflexives on the verb, and there are no verbs with an inherently reflexive sense. Instead, reflexive pronouns are used to express a reflexive meaning (see  $\S3.1.2$ ). There are also no middle voice<sup>56</sup> or passive constructions.

Transitive verbs can be formed from intransitives using the causative construction (see §4.2.2, below). It is also possible to add an oblique argument to a transitive or ditransitive verb by using the benefactive postposition / $\chi$ ua-ni/ (see §3.2.10).

## 4.2.2. Causatives

There are three types of causative marking in Qiang, though only one of these is productive. This is the causative suffix  $/-z_{(9)}/$ , which increases the valency of intransitive, transitive, and ditransitive verbs. There is no difference in the causative marking of these three types of verbs. Causatives derived using this suffix can be permissive or causative, and either direct or indirect causatives. The actor person marking on the verb (§4.3.2, Table 8) reflects the person and number of the causer only, and the marking is added to (follows) the causative suffix, using the

same forms as for non-causativized verbs. Non-actor person marking (§4.3.2, Table 9), if there is any, marks the person and number of the causee, not the undergoer (only animates are marked). Prospective aspect marking, if there is any, also appears after the causative suffix.

In terms of the marking of the noun phrases representing the causer, there is no formal difference which depends on the agentivity and/or intentionality of the causer, but there is a difference which depends on the animacy of the causer; the noun phrase representing the causer of a derived monotransitive clause generally does not take the agentive marker /-wu/ unless it is inanimate, e.g. 'wind' in the following example:

(4.8)	тови-мп	qa	da-tuə-z.
	wind-AGT	1sg	DIR-fall.over-CAUS
	'The wind kn	locked me	e down.'

This clause is a causative of an intransitive, so the resulting form is a monotransitive clause, in this case with an inanimate actor/causer and animate undergoer/causee.

The noun phrase representing the causee can take agentive marking, though, if the basic clause from which it is formed is transitive, as in (4.9).<sup>57</sup> The use of the agentive marker is not related to the willingness of the causee to perform the action; s/he may be willing or not.

(4.9)	qa	the:-wu	pəitsə-e-ze	zə-p-za.	(< ट्रु)
	1sg	3sg-AGT	cup-one-CL	DIR-buy-CAUS:1sg	
	'I ma	de him/her bi	iy a cup.'		

The noun phrase representing the causer can often be omitted, as the person marking on the verb reflects the person and number of the causer, but the noun phrase representing the causee cannot be omitted.

Following are some examples of causatives formed from different base types:

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Unmarked intransitive:

(4.10) tsə tu-χsu-ji.
water DIR-boil-CSM
'The water has come to a boil.'

Causativized intransitive:

(4.11)	a.	qa	tsə	tu-χsu-z-ja.	(< ji + a)
		1sg	water	DIR-boil-CAUS-CSM:1sg	
		'I broug	the wa	ter to a boil.'	

b. qa the: zdzyta: ləyz su-ku-za:. (< zə)</li>
1sg 3sg Chengdu:LOC book study-go-CAUS:PRS
'I am going to make him/her go to Chengdu to study (attend school).'

Causativized transitive:

(4.12) a.	xsə-han	thuntşə	tu-p-zə.	(T5:297)			
	three-kind	notify	DIR-do-CAUS				
	'(These) three things you must proclaim (to the people).'						
	(lit.: cause someone to notify them')						

- b. qa the:-wu ləyz a-fəŋ fie-zi-za. (< zə) 1sg 3sg-AGT book one-CL DIR-write-CAUS:1sg 'I made him write a letter.'
- c.  $\chi umt si$  qa-wu  $?\tilde{u}$   $z \rightarrow dz \rightarrow z$ .<sup>58</sup> (<  $z \rightarrow$ ) Xumt si 1sg-AGT 2sg DIR-hit-CAUS 'Xumt si made me hit you.'

Causativized ditransitive:

(4.13)	qa	χumtşi-wu	ləyz-te-pen	khumtsi-ta
	1sg	Xumtşi-AGT	book-DEF-CL	Khumtsi-LOC

tə-xua-za:. (< zə) DIR-buy-CAUS:PRS:1sg 'I'm going to make Xumtşi buy the book for Khumtsi.'

The copula can also take the causative suffix, as in translative constructions:

- (4.14) a. *khuə-le: punu ha-ŋuə-z.* dog-DEF:CL cat DIR-COP-CAUS 'Make the dog replace/become the cat.' (Treat the dog as a cat.°
  - b. *tçile the: fia-staqə-n,i linthau ŋuə-z,a:.* (< z,ə) 1pl 3sg DIR-choose-ADV leader COP-CAUS:PRS 'We chose him to be leader.'

In (4.14b), the verb /staqə/ 'choose' appears in a manner adverbial phrase modifying the main verb of the clause, the causativized copula, to express how the causee became the leader.<sup>59</sup>

Causatives can also be used with reciprocals:

(4.15)	qa	thizzi	ləla-za:.	(< ट्रु)
	1sg	3dl	exchange-CAUS:PRS:1sg	
	'I had the	em exchange with each other.'		

(4.16) qa thizzi quəqua-za:. (< zə) 1sg 3dl hit:REFL-CAUS:PRS:1sg 'I had the two of them hit each other.'

Of the two types of non-productive causative marking, one derives from the Proto-Sino-Tibetan \*s- prefix (LaPolla 2003a:22 and references therein). Only one example of this has been found to date: /ctcə/ 'feed (vt.)', from /tche/ 'eat (rice)/drink' (with assimilation of the prefix to point of articulation of the initial). While this is the only such example found in Qiang, it matches well with forms found in closely related languages and dialects; the lack of examples may simply be due to lack of data or the obscuring of the prefix by assimilatory processes.

The second type of non-productive causative marking is a voicedvoiceless (aspirated) contrast in simplex-causative or intrasitivetransitive pairs (also a feature of Proto-Sino-Tibeto—LaPolla 2003a:23). There is also a concomitant difference in the directional prefix used with each type (see §4.3.3 for more on this difference).

(4.17)		simplex	causative	
	a.	de-pe	fie-phe	'tear (of clothes)'
	b.	da-se	ha-qhe	'break (of bowls, etc.)'
	c.	da-sli	fia-xłi	'break (in two) (of tree limbs, etc.)'

These are the only three forms we have found so far in the Ronghong subdialect, but there are quite a few more in the Mawo dialect (see Sun 1981a:192-3). This type has more of a sense of direct causation, and not permission, than the productive causative. These causative forms cannot take a further productive causative suffix.

## 4.2.3. Intransitive state predicate verbs (adjectives)

In this section we will be discussing the nature of intransitive state predicate verbs, i.e. stative verbs with only one argument. (See also Huang Chenglong 1994, LaPolla & Huang 2002.)

Intransitive state predicate verbs form a separate sub-class of verb distinct from other transitive and intransitive verbs, and since they are words for dimension, age, value, color, quality, and shape, we can use the term 'adjectives' for this sub-class of verbs (they are morphosyntactically unlike English adjectives, though). They can be predicates without the use of the copula, as can verbs, and take the same person marking (agreement) forms, orientation/directional marking, causative marking, evidential marking, and most aspect and negation marking as non-stative intransitive verbs, but unlike non-stative verbs, they can be nominalized using the definite and indefinite markers (see §3.1.4—existential verbs can also be nominalized in this way), many can act as adverbials (taking the adverbial marker /-n,i/), and many can take the postpositive adverb /-wa/ 'very'.<sup>60</sup> Non-stative verbs can only modify a noun in the form of a pre-head relative clause construction, while adjectives can modify a noun directly in post-head position (as

well as appear in relative clause constructions), as in [mi na] (person good) '(a) good person'. The meaning of reduplication for most verbs is reciprocity (see §4.2.1), while the meaning of reduplication for adjectives is intensification or plurality.<sup>61</sup> There is no morphology for deriving adjectives from non-adjectival verbs, although adjectives can take causative marking and become transitive verbs. There is no noun-adjective overlap, and no way to derive an adjective from a noun except by use of the auxiliaries /-tha/ and /-pə/ mentioned in §3.1.1 in the discussion of loan words above. This is done only with borrowed words, not with native words.

The class of adjectives is an open class with many members, although the majority of new members are loan-words from Chinese (see §3.1.1 on loan words). The class includes items related to dimension, age, value, color, physical property, human propensity, speed, difficulty, qualification, and quantification. Some meanings that are expressed by adjectives in other languages are not expressed by adjectives in Qiang. For example, words expressing the semantic field of position are (locational) nouns (/steke/ 'behind', /məq/ 'top, above', /zeků/ 'between, center', /sqəl/ 'below', /piena/ 'near, (be)side', and /qə:<sup>1</sup>/ 'before'), numbers form a separate word class (they must appear with a classifier when used as modifier or predicate), and there are no words for similarity. Within some of the semantic types that are generally expressed by adjectives in Qiang there are some words that are not adjectives. For example, within the quantification type, the meanings 'all' and 'only' are represented by adverbs, and the meaning 'some, a few' is represented by the numeral for 'one' plus the plural marker ([a-ha]), or 'one' + 'two' plus a classifier (e.g. [ə-jə-u]). Some concepts are not represented by basic words, but by negation of basic words, e.g. in qualification, 'correct' is a basic word, /pe/, but there is no basic native word for 'incorrect', only the negation of 'correct', /me-pe/.

Adjectives and certain other verbs which represent gradient concepts can appear as the predicate in a comparative construction (see §3.2.7 for examples), but adjectives can be comparative even without overt marking of comparison ((4.18a)). Addition of an adverbial meaning 'very' can clarify that a non-comparative sense is intended ((4.18b)). To specify a comparative sense, an adverbial such as [a-za] ('one'-CL) 'a little' can be added before the adjective ((4.18c)).

(4.18)	a.	the: ti-wi.	b.	the:	ti-wi-wa.
		3sg DIR-tall		3sg	DIR-tall-very
		'He is tall/taller.'		'He is	s very tall.'

c. *the: a-za ti-wi.* 3sg one-CL DIR-tall 'He is a bit taller.'

There are only three types of reduplication of adjectives: AA, Au:A, AAu: (/u:/ is a syllable added to the reduplicated form—this type is only possible with adjectives); there is no ABB, ABAB, or AABB reduplication. Reduplicated forms are nominalized even without the (in)definite marking. The meaning of AA reduplication is plurality; the meaning of Au:A reduplication is intensification; the meaning of AAu: reduplication is plurality plus intensification. With AAu: and Au:A reduplication, the phonetic stress is on /u:/ (the stress is marked with an acute accent in the examples in (4.19)). Following are examples:

(4.19)	a.	AA	patspats	'some round things'
	b.	Au:A	patşú:patş	'very round things'
	c.	AAu:	patşpatşú:	'some very round things'

Reduplicated adjectives can appear together with a common noun, and are generally followed by the indefinite marker /-ke/. They are then noun phrases in their own right in apposition to the common noun, clarifying the nature of the referent of the common noun. In this structure the nominalized adjective can precede or follow the common noun. (See §3.1 on the modifiers of the noun phrase.) Following are examples:

- (4.20) a. *qhal* patspats-ke: steamed.bun round.round-INDEF:CL 'round steamed buns' (lit.: 'steamed buns, round ones')
  - b. fa n\_iqn\_iqu:-ke:
    clothing black.black-INDEF:CL
    'very black clothing' (lit.: 'clothing, black ones')

c.	patşu:patş	pana	la-ha	tça-la	şə?		
	round.round	thing	DEF:one-pl	where-LOC	exist		
	'Where are the very round things?'						

In most cases reduplicated forms do not modify a noun, but instead are simply nominalized by /-ke/ and used with the copula (e.g. [qhal patspats-ke: ŋuə] 'qhal (steamed buns) are round things').

Adjectives are generally only nominalized by the definite and indefinite markers or reduplication, although, as mentioned in Section 3.1, in certain situations they can also be nominalized by /-m/ and /-tc/ (see §5.2 on these nominalizers). In the case of /-m/ nominalization, the referent is generally a person, as in the following examples:

(4.21)	a.	mi	ba-m	b.	mi	ti-wi-m
		person	big-NOM		person	DIR-tall-NOM
		'(a) big	person'		(a) tall	person'

In these particular examples, there are two noun phrases in apposition to each other, something like 'a person, a big one'. This contrasts with the usual form of the adjective without nominalization, e.g. *mi ba* [person big] 'big person'. In the case of nominalization by /-m/ or /-tc/, the form would generally be followed by the indefinite or definite marker, as in the following example:

(4.22)	fa	cupu-tc-ke:	şə.
	clothing	red-GEN-INDEF:CL	exist
	'There is a		

Although this form looks similar to a single noun phrase which has both a post-head adjective and indefinite marking (i.e. [fa-cupu-ke:] (clothing-red-INDEF:CL)), it is clearly two noun phrases, as the order of the two noun phrases could be reversed. This structure is used for emphasizing the quality of the referent in question, such as in a contrastive context.

Some adjectives are formed from noun + verb combinations with metaphorical meanings. Following are some examples using the noun /ctci:(mi)/ 'heart':

(4.23)	a.	ctci:mi-zdzi	'sad'	<	'heart' + 'painful'
	b.	¢t¢i:mi-ba	'brave'	<	'heart' + ¢t¢i-kųş-na
	c.	ctçi-kyş-na	'happy'	<	'heart' + 'base' + 'good'

If a prepositional adverb modifies the verb, it appears after the noun and before the verb, e.g. [ctci-kuə kən nɑ] 'very happy'.

With adjectives, the expression of change of state requires a directional prefix (see §4.3.3), e.g. /ba/ 'big', /təwa/ 'become big' (here with change of initial, see §1.3.1).

Following are some examples of the use of adjectives in modifying nouns, as deverbal noun phrases, and as predicates, with prospective aspect marking and with person marking:

Modifying a noun:

(4.24)	qa	fa-xsə	tupu-a.
	1sg	clothes-new	like-1sg
	'I like	new clothes.'	

Nominalized:

(4.25)	qa	phiş-le:	gua:.	(< guə)
	1sg	white-DEF:CL	wear:PRS:1sg	
	'I want	to wear the white	e one.'	

With prospective aspect marking:<sup>62</sup>

(4.26)	mə	tça-xqa:.	(< <b>x</b> qa)
	sky	CON-clear:PRS	
	'The sl	ky is still going to be clear.'	

With person marking:

(4.27)	a.	qa	ti-wia.	b.	tçile	ti-wiə <sup>ı</sup> .	(< tiwi)
		1sg	DIR-tall:1sg		1pl	DIR-tall:1pl	
		'I am tall/taller.'			'We a	re tall/taller.'	

c.	2 <b>ũ</b>	ti-wi-n	d.	?ile	ti-wi-i.
	2sg	DIR-tall-2sg		2pl	DIR-tall-2pl
	'You are tall/taller.'			'You(p	l) are tall/taller. '

Some adjectives can appear in a serial verb structure where they modify another verb, e.g. /tse-na/ ('look' + 'good') 'good looking', /dzuə na/ ('sit' + 'good') 'good to sit, there is room to sit' (see also examples (4.269)-(4.272) in §4.4.3 below). In this structure, while the adverb semantically seems to function as an adverbial, it is syntactically the main verb, and so if the clause is negated or is in the continuative aspect, the negative and/or continuative aspect prefix is affixed to the adjective, not the verb, e.g. /tse-ma-na/ ('look' + NEG + 'good') 'not good looking', /tse-tca-na/ ('look' + CON + 'good') 'still good looking'. The adjective can also take the adverb /-wa/, e.g. /tse-na-wa/ ('look' + 'good' + 'very') 'very good looking'.

## 4.2.4. Existential/locative verbs

There are five existential/locative verbs, the use of which depends on the semantics of the referent being located or shown to exist, or on the nature of its location:  $|s_{9}|$  and |xu| for inanimate referents that are not in containers or immovable or inalienably connected to some larger entity, |le| for a referent located in a containment of some type,  $|z_{i}|$  for animate referents, and |we| for immovable referents, referents inalienably connected to a larger entity, and happenings. This last form is also used to express the possession of qualities. (See also Section 3.2.14 on possession.) Following are examples of the various types:

(4.28)	tşuats-məq-ta	ləyz-e-pen	ફરૂ.	(inanimate)
	table-top-LOC	book-one-CL	exist	
	'There is a book			
(4.20)	<b>1</b>	· •		<i>(</i> <b>·</b> · · · · )

(4.29)	ku-ta	p1-a-la	XU.	(inaminate)
	floor-LOC	pen-one-CL	exist	
'There is a pen on the floor.'				

(4.30)	Z <b>Э-</b> Ra	jajəŋy	le. <sup>63</sup>	(inside vessel)
	ground-LOC	potato	exist	
	'There are potatoes	s in the grou	nd.'	

- (4.31) səf-tho-zgu-ta wətshi-o-u zi. (animate) tree-that:one-CL-LOC sparrow-one-CL exist 'There is a sparrow in that tree.'
- (4.32) a. səf-o-z gu (immovable, connected qəl-la we. below-LOC tree-one-CL to major entity) exist 'There is a tree below.' b. *qa* dzoqu-ji-tua wa.  $(\langle we + a \rangle)$ leg-two-CL exist:1sg (immovable, connected 1sg 'I have two legs.' to major entity)
  - c. *the: tşhexuo de-w(e).* (happening) 3sg car.accident DIR-exist 'He had a car accident.'

Use of a particular verb in some cases can be a matter of perspective. For example, compare the following two clauses, the first of which presents the situation from the point of view of the fish being in the containment of the water, the second from the point of view of the fish as animate beings.

(4.33) a	ι.	tsə-ва	RZƏ	le.	(inside vessel)
		water-LOC	fish	exist	
		'There are fish in	the wate	r.'	
b	).	tsə-ка	RZÐ	zi.	(animate)
		water-LOC	fish	water	
		'There are fish in	r.'		

The existential verbs  $/s_{\theta}/$  and  $/x_{u}/$  are often used together with  $/t_{u}/$  'if' after nominalized verbs. Here the possible existence of a referent is being predicated, but the whole meaning of the construction is more like 'if there is such a situation'. Following are some examples:

(4.34) dz = s s = tu qa = tc a = z = z = le. eat-NOM exist-LNK 1sg-DAT one-CL DIR-take 'If there is something to eat, bring me a little.'

> *bələ-s* xu-tu the: ta:-bəl-kə. do-NOM exist-LNK 3sg DIR:INDTV-do-go 'If there is something to be done, have him/her go do it.'

Because the nominalized verb refers to an inanimate referent or situation, only the /-s/ nominalizer can be used; the /-m/ and /-tc/ nominalizers cannot be used in the /xu tu/ construction (see §§5.2-5.3).

An existential verb can also be used in an imperative with an adverb, to tell someone, for example, to be quiet, as in (4.36).

(4.35)	(a-zə)	hama	he-z <i>i</i> -(n).	(animate)
	one-little	quiet	DIR-exist-2sg	
	'(Please) be a	quiet.'		

The existential/locative verbs have many of the definitional properties of adjectives (see §4. 2.3 and LaPolla & Huang, in press, on adjectives), in that they are intranstive stative verbs that can be nominalized by the (in)definite markers, as in example (3.45), above, and can take the intensifying adverbs [gən ~ kən], /wa/, and /qusu/, and in the negative can take the adverb /tsan/ 'too', as in examples (4.36a-b), but differ from adjectives in that they cannot directly modify a noun and the meaning of reduplication is different. With adjectives, reduplication has the sense of intensification, but with existential verbs, reduplication can transitivize the verb, at least in some cases, as in (4.36c-d).

- (4.36) a. *tsa mi zi-wa.* here person exist-very 'There are many people here.'
  - b. *tsa mi tsan me-z i.* here person too NEG-exist 'There are not too many people here.'
  - c. *le* 'exist (inside)' > *ləle* 'put inside'

d. sə 'exist (inanimate)' > səsə 'put (someplace)'

Unlike in some other Tibeto-Burman languages (e.g. Tibetan), the existential/locative verbs have not grammaticalized into any sort of construction marking tense, aspect, or evidentials.

## 4.2.5. 'Come' and 'go'

'Come' and 'go' are somewhat irregular verbs. 'Go' has the following third person forms: /-qa/ prefixed perfective (e.g. /haqa/ 'went down'), /kə/ unprefixed,<sup>64</sup> /-sə/ prefixed imperfective or prospective (e.g. /das/ 'go out'). 'Come' has the following forms: /lu/ imperfective, /-la/ prefixed perfective, /lu-a:/ prospective aspect. (See §4.3.3 for discussion of the directional prefixes.) Both these verbs function as main verbs, and as directional auxiliary verbs, following other verbs. When used as auxiliary verbs, they form a single nucleus with the preceding verb, and so do not take prefixes separately. For example, in [studha ca:-tc kə] (food/rice INDTV:3sg-eat go) 'Let (him/her) go eat!', the indirect directive prefix appears on the verb meaning 'eat', not on 'go'. With certain verbs 'come' and 'go' appear very regularly as auxiliaries, and this has led to the situation where the vowel of 'come' and 'go' has been lost, and the initial has fused with the preceding verb, forming a new verb, e.g. /pəl/ 'come back' < /pə/ 'arrive' + /lu/ 'come'; /pək/ 'go back' <  $/p_{\theta}/arrive' + /k_{\theta}/go'$ . In the case of these compound verbs and some others like this, they have lexicalized to the point that they are no longer seen as including the verbs 'come' and 'go' by the Qiang speakers.

## 4.2.6. Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs follow the (semantically) main verb, often in a complement-matrix structure (see §5.3 for the structure), generally with no nominalizing, adverbial or other marking between the two verbs. If there is person marking, the marking appears on the auxiliary or final particle of the verb complex, though aspect marking may appear on the embedded (main) verb. If there is negation of the auxiliary, the negative prefix appears on the auxiliary verb. There is no requirement that the

two verbs agree in transitivity (such as is found, for example, in Rawang [LaPolla 2000a]).

The potential to perform an action is expressed by use of the auxiliary verbs  $/\sqrt[3]{z}$  for learned ability,  $/dz_{2}$  or /qe for natural (physical) ability, and /gu for ability to fit into something else. See Section 4.3.6.4 for examples of their use.

Willingness to perform an action or to allow others to perform an action is expressed by using the auxiliary verb / $\mu$ u/. This verb can also be used for possibility, either directly following a verb or in a construction with a nominalized verb.

- (4.37) a. the: tha-zi kə ĸu. 3sg there-exist thus willing/allow 'S/he might be there.'
  - b. *pəs mə ma-ҳqa, tshəi tə-ŋ,iҳ ʁu.* today weather NEG-clear prickly.ash.peel DIR-black will 'Today the weather is not good, the prickly ash peel will become black.'

The auxiliary verb /xsu/ is used to express the idea 'to dare' to do an action.

(4.38) *the: e-ze stu nə mo-xşu.* 3sg one-CL alone sleep NEG-dare 'S/he doesn't dare sleep alone.'

In some expressions, /xsu/ can be used alone:

(4.39) *khuə-ta mo-xşu, pie-ta xşu.* dog-DAT NEG-dare pig-DAT dare 'Bully the weak and fear the strong.' (lit.: 'Doesn't dare X to a dog, but will to a pig.')

The auxiliary verb /sze/ 'ought to' can be used in some contexts to express obligation (physical or moral) to perform an action. There is no person marking when using this auxiliary verb, so even if a first or second person pronoun were added to, for example, (4.40a) or (4.40b),

specifying who must or must not go, there would be no change in the verb.

- (4.40) a. kə sze-ji! go must-CSM 'It's time to go!' ('I/we/you must go!')
  - b. kə ma-tçi-sze!<sup>65</sup>
    go NEG-CON-must
    '(You/we) needn't / shouldn't go yet!'
- (4.41) a. *stuaha tchə uze-ji.* rice/food eat must-CSM 'It's time to eat!' ('I/you/we must eat!')
  - b. *stuaha tchə ma-tci-ʁze.* rice/food eat NEG-CON-must 'I/we/you shouldn't eat!'

The auxiliary verb /se/ is used to express permission or lack of it:

(4.42)	сосаи-ва	z me-z	dze	he-se.
	school-LOC	Qiang-language	speak	DIR-allow
	'Speaking Qiang	ool.'		

See also Section 4.3.6.1 for examples of the auxiliary verbs /ctcaq-lu/ 'think of, want', and /zulu/ 'wait', used in optative constructions, and Section 4.3.4.4 on the auxiliary verb /dze/, which is used to mark the experiential aspect.

# 4.2.7. The copula

There is only one copula, /ŋuə/, which is used in identificational, attributive, and cleft constructions, and after nominalized verbs (see for example 4.3.6.3, 5.2). The copula can take person marking in some contexts, but often does not take aspect marking, unless it is causativized or appears with the particle /-§/ (see 4.4).

In some  $\langle NP NP \rangle$  type equational clauses, most noticeably statements of the date or of the age of a person, the copula is optional, as in the following example:

(4.43) pəs xsə-cə-tc-u. today three-month-GEN-five-beginning 'Today is March fifth.'

Following are examples of the copula with first and second person marking (see §5.3 on the structure of these examples):

(4.44)	a.	qa-wu	the:	zə-dzi	ŋua.	(< ŋuə)	
		1sg-AGT	3sg	DIR-hit	COP:1sg		
	'I hit him (emphatic) / I am the one who hit him.'						
	b.	?ũ-wu	the:	zə-dzi	ŋuə-n.		
		2sg-AGT	3sg	DIR-hit	COP-2sg		
		'You hit him (emphatic) / You are the one who hit him.'					

# 4.3. Verbal morphology

This section presents the most complex aspect of Qiang grammar, the verbal morphology. It begins with a look at how a speaker can take different perspectives in profiling an event or situation using differences of word order (§4.3.1), then covers the different morphological systems for marking person (§4.3.2), the direction or orientation of the action (§4.3.3), aspect (§4.3.4), illocutionary force (§4.3.5), mood (§4.3.6), and evidentials (§4.3.7).

# 4.3.1. Perspective

There is no voice opposition in the verb, though the perspective taken in expressing an action can differ due to changes in word order because of topicalization or the use of a cleft construction. The noun phrase representing the undergoer can be simply fronted to make it the topic, though the noun phrase representing the recipient generally must appear

in a cleft construction to be a topic. See also the section on transitive actors ( $\S3.2.3$ ).

Compare the following three examples:

(4.45) a. *qa* khuə-e-zi zə-pa. (< pə) 1sg DIR-buy:1sg dog-one-CL 'I bought a dog.' b. *khuə-le:* lu. qa-wu pa: dog-DEF:CL 1sg-AGT buy:1sg:PRS will 'I will buy the dog.' ('The dog I will buy.') c. *khuə-le:* qa-(wu) zə-p-ji nuə. dog-DEF:CL 1sg-AGT DIR-buy-CSM COP 'It was I who bought the dog.' ('The dog was bought by me.')

The clause in (4.45a) is an unmarked clause structure; most often the actor is the topic, and so the word order is Actor-Undergoer-Verb, but the word order does not determine grammatical or semantic relations and is not determined by grammatical or semantic relations. The clause in (4.45b) has the noun phrase representing the undergoer in topic position, while the one in (4.45c) has the undergoer as topic of a cleft construction. Because this last example has a third person referent as the first argument of the copula, there is no first person marking on the copula.

Of the following two examples, (4.46a) has the undergoer in topic position, and the reference to the non-specific actor is optional. In (4.46b) there is more emphasis on the non-specific actor, as the noun phrase used to refer to it is in topic position.

(4.46)	a.	qa	(mi-wu)	zə-dzi.
		1sg	person-AGT	DIR-hit
		'I was	s hit.' (lit.: 'So	meone hit me.')
	b.	mi-w	u qa	zə-dzi.

person-AGT 1sg DIR-hit 'Someone hit me.' It is also possible in many cases to omit reference to a referential actor, as in the following example. The identity of the referent is often still recoverable from the person marking on the verb, but omitting such reference puts more emphasis on the undergoer.

(4.47) panə-le: fia-χ-kə-n.
thing-DEF:CL DIR-bad-INF-2sg
'It seems the thing was broken (by you).'
(lit.: 'It seems you broke the thing.')

Following is an example of the noun phrase representing the undergoer of a ditransitive clause in topic position (in a cleft construction):

(4.48) *tşhetsə-le: qa the: de-l-ji ŋuə.* car-DEF:CL 1sg 3sg DIR-give-CSM COP 'The car was given to him by me.'

The non-actor person marking on the verb has the sense in some contexts of an adversative passive. See the next section (§4.3.2) for examples.

# 4.3.2. Person marking

In general, the verb in a non-nominalized Qiang clause has marking which reflects the person and number of the actor of a transitive clause and the single direct argument of an intransitive clause. The marking takes the form of suffixes, which are added to the last element in the verb complex. The forms are given in Table 8.

Tuble 8. The Quang person marking suffixes for intransitive veros					
	1	2	3		
singular	<b>-</b> <i>a</i>	- <i>n</i>	-Ø		
plural		-i	-tçi		

Table 8. The Qiang person marking suffixes for intransitive verbs

All verbs can take person marking, including adjectives (intransitive stative predicate verbs; see §4.2.3 for examples of person marking on

adjectives), but only animate arguments are reflected in the person marking. In some contexts, such as nominalizations, no person marking is used, while in other contexts, such as with some third-person plural actors, the person marking is optional. The use of the person marking also has meaning within the system of evidentials (see §4.3.7).

The suffix for first-person actor is /-a/ (possibly < Proto-Qiangic \*- $\eta a$ ), but if the final vowel of the verb complex is /e/ or in some cases /i/, the first-person actor marking combines with the final vowel of the root to become [a] (e.g. /tse/ 'look at' > [tsa] 'I look at'; /zi/ 'locative/existential verb for animates' > [za] 'I am [at some location]'), or, if the vowel is /y/ or in some cases /i/, the first-person actor marking becomes [a] and is added after the final vowel (e.g. /jy/ 'postverbal aspect particle' > [jya]; /tiwi/ 'tall' > [tiwia] 'I'm tall(er)'). If the final vowel of the verb complex is a schwa, then this vowel drops completely when /-a/ is added (e.g. /pə/ 'buy' > [pa] 'I am buying'); otherwise the suffix is added after the final vowel (e.g. /zulu/ 'wait' > [zulua] 'I am waiting'). When combined with prospective aspect marking, the vowel is lengthened (e.g. /pə/ 'buy', [pa] 'I am buying', [pa:] 'I'm going to buy').

The second person singular form possibly derives from a Proto-Qiangic \*-na, which itself (as well as the Proto-Qiangic first person singular form) would have been a grammaticalization of the free pronoun into person marking on the verb (cf. the discussion of the Tangut forms in LaPolla 1992b, 1994). The origin of the plural first and second person forms is unknown. The third person plural form seems, from comparative evidence, to derive from number rather than person marking: in the Mawo dialect (Sun 1981a; Liu 1999), the form /-tci/ is used for both second and third person plural forms, and is distinct from the person marking (/-n/ and /-ji/ respectively). In the Mawo dialect the prospective aspect marker (/- $\alpha$ :/) can appear between the number and person marking, e.g. [dzutca:n] (</dzu + tci +  $\alpha$ : + n/) 'you(pl) will sit' (cf. Liu 1998b), which shows they were originally two distinct grammatical categories, but in the Ronghong dialect this distinction has been lost.

Following are full examples of the three singular markings:

- (4.49) *qa BOSU-pi-WU fa-a-qəi Zə-pa*. 1sg fifty-CL-INST clothes-one-CL DIR-buy:1sg 'I bought one item of clothing for fifty dollars.'
- (4.50) 2ũ κοsu-pi-wu fa-a-qəi zə-pə-n.
   2sg fifty-CL-INST clothing-one-CL DIR-buy-2sg
   'You bought an item of clothing for fifty dollars.'
- (4.51) *the: BOSU-pi-WU fa-a-qəi Zə-pə.* 3sg fifty-CL-INST clothing-one-CL DIR-buy 'S/he bought an item of clothing for fifty dollars.'

There is another set of suffixes which can be used to mark the undergoer of a transitive verb, the goal/recipient of a ditransitive verb (the undergoer of a ditransitive verb is not reflected in the person marking), or even a genitive or benefactive argument.<sup>66</sup> These forms are given in Table 9:

Table 9. The Qiang non-actor person marking suffixes

	1	2	3	
sg	-80	-san	$-w\partial \sim -u$	
pl	-§a'	-sai	$-w\partial \sim -u$	

The first and second person forms clearly incorporate the first and second person actor forms  $/-\alpha/$ ,  $/-^{1}/$  and /-n/, /-i/ respectively, but the origins of the initial of the first person forms and  $/s\alpha/$  of the second person forms are unclear.<sup>67</sup>

As mentioned above, the non-actor person marking also helps to show perspective, as it is generally used only when the topic is a nonactor human referent. Contrast (4.52a), which has a 1st person actor/topic and (4.52b), which has a third person non-actor/topic.

(4.52) a.	qa-(wu)	the:	ləyz	e-pen	de-l-a.
	1sg-AGT	3sg	book	one-CL	DIR-give-1sg
	'I gave him a book.'				

b. the: qa-wu layz e-pen de-l-wa. (< wa + a) 3sg 1sg-AGT book one-CL DIR-give-3sg:1sg 'Him I gave a book to.'

The non-actor marking is optional in most contexts, and when used it sometimes has the feeling of an adversative passive, as in (4.53a-b):

- (4.53) a. eini 2ũ mo-lu-n-tu the: mi-ta next.year 2sg NEG-come-2sg-LNK 3sg other.person-LOC yza:-san. marry:PRS-2sgU
  'If you don't come back next year, she will marry someone else.'
  - b. 2*ũ* tsa tça-lau-tha, tatə tə-khua:-san. 2sg here NEG.IMP-be.noisy-AUX father DIR-angry:PRS-2sgU 'Don't be noisy here or your father will be angry (at you).'

Here the use of the non-actor marking is not marking an argument of the verb, but a referent who will be affected by the action (in a negative way). The forms for first and second person non-actor are generally used only when there is a third person actor. The entire set of possible suffixes for the transitive verb are given in Table 10.

				Non-Actor			
		1sg	1pl	2sg	2pl	3sg	3pl
А	1sg			<b>-</b> a	<b>-</b> a	-Wa	-wa
c	1pl					$-W\partial^{J}$	$-W\partial^{J}$
t	2sg	- <i>n</i>	<i>-n</i>			-wən	-wən
0	2pl	-i	-i			-wəi	-wəi
r	3sg	-şa	-§a1	-san	-sai	-WƏ	-wə-tçi
	3pl	-t¢i-şa	-tçi-şa	-tçi-san	-tçi-sai	-wə-tçi	-wə-tçi

Table 10. The Qiang person marking suffixes for transitive verbs

Following are examples of the non-actor person marking that would be used in imperfective, prospective and perfective situations. The first person forms are generally not used in situations were the clause refers to some future event, and so the examples in (4.57a-b) do not have this marking, and instead have the marking usually used for first person actors. This is quite exceptional in the overall system, which is generally clearly based on an actor/non-actor contrast.

Imperfective:

(4.54)	a.	teacher		<i>xe-şa.</i> scold-1sgU lding me.'
	b.	teacher		<i>xe-şa<sup>1</sup>.</i> scold-1plU lding us.'
(4.55)	a.	teacher		<i>xe-san.</i> scold-2sgU lding you(sg).'
	b.	teacher	-	<i>xe-sai.</i> scold-2plU lding you(pl).'
(4.56)	a.	teacher	-	xe-w. scold-3U lding him/her.'
	b.	teacher		<i>xe-w-tçi.</i> scold-3U-3pl colding them.'
Prospe	ctiv	e aspect:		

(4.57) a. *lausə qa xa:.* teacher 1sg scold:PRS:1sg 'The teacher will scold me.'

> b. *lausə tçile xa:<sup>1</sup>.* teacher 1pl scold:PRS:1pl 'The teacher will scold us.'

- (4.58) a. *lausə* 2ũ xa:-san. teacher 2sg scold:PRS-2sgU 'The teacher will scold you(sg).'
  - b. *lausə ?ile xa:-sai.* teacher 2pl scold:PRS-2plU 'The teacher will scold you(pl).'
- (4.59) a. *lausə the: xe-wa:.* teacher 3sg scold-PRS:3U 'The teacher will scold him/her.'
  - b. *lausə themle xe-wa:-tçi.* teacher 3pl scold-PRS:3U-3pl 'The teacher will scold them.'

# Perfective:

- (4.60) a. *the:* nə-xe-w. 3sg DIR-scold-3U '(The teacher) scolded him/her.'
  - b. *themle nə-xe-w-tçi.* 3sg DIR-scold-3U-3pl '(The teachers) scolded them.'
- (4.61) a. qa nə-xe-şa. 1sg DIR-scold-1sgU 'The teacher scolded me.'
  - b. *tçile nə-xe-şa'*. 1pl DIR-scold-1plU 'The teacher scolded us.'
- (4.62) a.  $2\tilde{u}$  ne-xe-san. 2sg DIR-scold-2sgU 'The teacher scolded you(sg).'

b. *?ile* ne-xe-sai. 2pl DIR-scold-2plU 'The teacher scolded you(pl).'

Following is an example with third plural actor marking and first singular non-actor marking:

(4.63)	themle	qa	xe-tçi-şa.	
	3pl	1sg	scold-3pl-1plU	
	'They are scolding me.'			

In the next two examples there is a first or second person actor and a third person undergoer, and so the verb exhibits first or second person actor marking and third person non-actor marking. In the case of ditransitives, such as these examples, the non-actor person marking reflects the person of the goal or recipient, not the undergoer.

(4.64)	dz ə-ŋuən i	qa	the:-ta	kə-ji-wa.	(< wa + a)
	thing-TOP	1sg	3sg-LOC	thus-say-3sgU:1sg	
	'I told him/h	er abou	t something	g concerning him/her.'	

(4.65)	dz ə-ŋuən i	2ũ	the:-ta	kə-ji-wə-n.
	thing-TOP	2sg	3sg-LOC	thus-say-3sgU-2sg
	'You told hi	m/her	something	concerning him/her.'

The following two examples show one situation in which plural marking is not necessary, that where two referents are conjoined into a single plural argument by the conjunction  $/n_a/$ :

(4.66)	<i>qa-n,a-the:</i> 1sg-COM-3sg 'S/he and I will g	<i>itçi</i> together together.'	<i>ka:.</i> go:PRS	
(4.67)	<i>xse-n.a-tshe</i> cow-COM-sheep 'The cow and she		χaf grass n the field.	<i>dzə.</i> eat

The following three examples show person marking reflecting a possessor, a benefactive marked with  $/\chi u\alpha$ -n<sub>s</sub>i/ and a benefactive marked with /-t<sub>c</sub>/, respectively:

(4.68)	0 0	<i>i-ha</i> DEF:one-pl gs are here.		<i>şə-san.</i> exist-2sgU	
(4.69)	2ũ-χua-(n, 2sg-BEN-A səpe medicine 'For your s	ADV <i>phip</i> dig-H	<i>qupu</i> 3sg <i>hi-kəpə-sa</i> IABIT-2sg ften goes t		ha-в-ŋ,i DIR-go-ADV 2.'
(4.70)	3sg	<i>qa-tç</i> 1sg-GEN ght it for me		sa. ouy-1sgU	

Following are the full paradigms for intransitive and transitive verbs with different types of finals, in their imperfective, prospective aspect and prefixed (perfective) forms:  $^{68}$ 

nə 'to sleep'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg sleep 2sg sleep 3sg sleep 1pl sleep 2pl sleep 3pl sleep	na: na:n na: na: <sup>1</sup> na:i na:t¢i	na nən nə nə <sup>ı</sup> nəi nətçi	hana hanən han hanə <sup>1</sup> hanəi hantçi
zei 'to cry'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg cry 2sg cry 3sg cry 1pl cry 2pl cry	zeia: zeia:n zeia: zeia:	zeia zein zei zeiə <sup>ı</sup>	fiezeia fiezein fiezei fiezeiə <sup>1</sup>

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3pl cry	zeia:t¢i	zeitci	hezeitçi
phu 'to flee'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg flee	phua:	phua	duφua
2sg flee	phua:n	phun	duφun
3sg flee	phua:	phu	duφu
1pl flee	phua:"	phu <sup>1</sup>	duφu <sup>1</sup>
2pl flee	phua:i	phui	duφui
3pl flee	phua:t¢i	phutçi	duφutçi
sue 'to shine'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg shine	şua:	şua	işua
2sg shine	sua:n	şuen	işuen
3sg shine	şua:	şue	ișue
1pl shine	sua:1	sue <sup>1</sup>	ișue <sup>1</sup>
2pl shine	şua:i	şuei	ișuei
3pl shine	şua:tçi	şuetçi	ișuetci
χsa 'understand'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
<b>xsa 'understand'</b>  1sg understand	Prospective χsa:	Imperfective 	Prefixed <i>təxsa</i>
	-		
1sg understand	χsa:	χsa	təxsa
1sg understand 2sg understand	χsa: χsa:n	χsa χsan	təxsa təxsan
1sg understand 2sg understand 3sg understand	χsa: χsa:n χsa:	χsa χsan χsa	təxsa təxsan təxsa
1sg understand 2sg understand 3sg understand 1pl understand	χsa: χsa:n χsa: χsa: χsa: <sup>1</sup>	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup>	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa
1sg understand 2sg understand 3sg understand 1pl understand 2pl understand	χsa: χsa:n χsa: χsa:' χsa:i χsa:tçi	χsa χsan χsa χsa¹ χsai	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand	χsa: χsa:n χsa: χsa:' χsa:i χsa:tçi	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatçi Imperfective xa	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand <b>xe 'to scold/curse'</b>	χsa: χsa:n χsa: χsa:' χsa:i χsa:tci Prospective	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatçi Imperfective	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi Prefixed
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand 3 pl understand <b>xe 'to scold/curse'</b> 1 sg scold 2 sg	χsa: χsa:n χsa: χsa:' χsa:i χsa:tci Prospective xa:	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatçi Imperfective xa	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi Prefixed nəxa
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand 3 pl understand <b>xe 'to scold/curse'</b> 1 sg scold 2 sg 1 sg scold 3 sg	χsa:χsa:χsa:χsa:χsa:iχsa:tciProspectivexa:xa:xa: (xewa:)	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatçi Imperfective xa xa (xewa) <sup>69</sup>	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi Prefixed nəxa nəxewa
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand <b>xe 'to scold/curse'</b> 1 sg scold 2 sg 1 sg scold 3 sg 1 sg scold 2 pl	χsa: χsa: χsa: χsa: χsa: χsa:tci Prospective xa: xa: xa: (xewa:) xa:	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatçi Imperfective xa xa (xewa) <sup>69</sup> xa	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi Prefixed nəxa nəxewa nəxa
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand xe 'to scold/curse' 1 sg scold 2 sg 1 sg scold 2 sg 1 sg scold 2 pl 1 sg scold 3 pl	χsa:         χsa:n         χsa:'         χsa:i         χsa:tci         Prospective         xa:         xa: (xewa:)         xa:         xa:         xa:         xa:         xa:         xa:         xa:         xa:	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatçi Imperfective xa xa (xewa) <sup>69</sup> xa xa	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi Prefixed nəxa nəxewa nəxa nəxa nəxa
1 sg understand 2 sg understand 3 sg understand 1 pl understand 2 pl understand 3 pl understand 3 pl understand xe 'to scold/curse' 1 sg scold 2 sg 1 sg scold 2 sg 1 sg scold 3 sg 1 sg scold 3 pl 2 sg scold 1 sg	χsa:χsa:χsa:χsa:χsa:iχsa:tciProspectivexa:xa: (xewa:)xa:xa:xa:xa:xa:xa:xa:xa:	χsa χsan χsa χsa <sup>1</sup> χsai χsatci Imperfective xa xa (xewa) <sup>69</sup> xa xa xa xen	təxsa təxsan təxsa təxsa <sup>1</sup> təxsai təxsatçi Prefixed nəxa nəxewa nəxa nəxa nəxa nəxen

Jac coold 2ml	WANDAR	WAWAR	n av av an
2sg scold 3pl	xewa:n	xewen	nəxewen
3sg scold 1sg	xa:	xe	nəxe
3sg scold 2sg	xa:san	xesan	nəxesan
3sg scold 3sg	xewa:	Xew	nəxew
3sg scold 1pl	xa:	xe	nəxe
3sg scold 2pl	xa:sai	xesai	nəxesai
3sg scold 3pl	xewa:	Xew	nəxw
1pl scold 2sg	xa:"	Xe <sup>1</sup>	nəxe <sup>1</sup>
1pl scold 3sg	xa:"	xe <sup>1</sup>	nəxe <sup>1</sup>
1pl scold 2pl	xa:"	xe <sup>1</sup>	nəxe <sup>1</sup>
1pl scold 3pl	xa:"	xe <sup>1</sup>	nəxe <sup>1</sup>
2pl scold 1sg	xa:i	xei	nəxei
2pl scold 3sg	xewa:i	xewei	nəxewei
2pl scold 1pl	xa:i	xei	nəxei
2pl scold 3pl	xewa:i	xewei	nəxewei
3pl scold 1sg	xewa:tci	xetçi	nəxetçi
3pl scold 2sg	xa:san	xesan	nəxesan
3pl scold 3sg	xewa:tçi	xewtçi	nəxewtçi
3pl scold 1pl	xa:tçi	xetçi	nəxetçi
3pl scold 2pl	xa:sai	xesai	nəxesai
	, <b>.</b>		
3pl scold 3pl	xewa:t¢i	xewtçi	nəxewtçı
3pl scold 3pl	xewa:t¢1	xewtçı	nəxewtçi
3pl scold 3pl bie 'carry (on back)'		<i>xewtci</i> Imperfective	nəxewtcı Prefixed
bie 'carry (on back)'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg	Prospective <i>bia:</i>	Imperfective <i>bia</i>	Prefixed fieibia
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg	Prospective bia: bia:	Imperfective bia bia	Prefixed fieibia fieibia
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl	Prospective bia: bia: bia:	Imperfective bia bia bia	Prefixed fieibia fieibia fieibia
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia	Prefixed fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibia
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia bia	Prefixed <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i>
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 3sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n bia:n biewa:n	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia bien biewən	Prefixed fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibien(bin) fieibiwən
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 3sg 2sg carry 1pl	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n biewa:n bia:n	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia bien biewən biem	Prefixed <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibien(bin)</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibim</i>
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 3sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n bia:n bia:n biewa:n	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bien bien biewən bien biewən	Prefixed <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibien(bin)</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiin</i> <i>fieibiiwən</i>
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1pl 2sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 1sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n biewa:n biewa:n biewa:n biewa:n	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bien biewən bien biewən biewən bie	Prefixed fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibien(bin) fieibiwən fieibiiwən fieibiiwən fieibiiwən fieibiiwən fieibiiwən
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1pl 2sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 1sg 3sg carry 2sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n biewa:n bia:n biewa:n bia:san	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bien biewən bien biewən bie biesan	Prefixed <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibien(bin)</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiiwən</i> <i>fieibiiwən</i> <i>fieibiiwən</i> <i>fieibiisan</i>
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1pl 2sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 2sg 3sg carry 2sg 3sg carry 3sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n biewa:n biewa:n biewa:n biewa:n	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bien biewən bien biewən biewən bie	Prefixed <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibien(bin)</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibisan</i> <i>fieibisan</i> <i>fieibiw</i>
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 3sg 2sg carry 3sg 2sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 1sg 3sg carry 2sg 3sg carry 3sg 3sg carry 3sg 3sg carry 1pl	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n biewa:n bia:n biewa:n bia: bia:san biewa: bia:san biewa: bia:si	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia bien biewən bien biewən bie biesan biew biesan biew	Prefixed fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibien(bin) fieibiwən fieibiwən fieibiwən fieibisan fieibisan fieibisan fieibiw fieibisan
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1sg 2sg carry 1pl 2sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 2sg 3sg carry 2sg 3sg carry 3sg	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n bia:n biewa:n bia:san bia:san biewa:	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia bien biewən bien biewən bie biesan biew biesan biew	Prefixed <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibia</i> <i>fieibien(bin)</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibiwən</i> <i>fieibisan</i> <i>fieibisan</i> <i>fieibisai</i>
bie 'carry (on back)' 1sg carry 2sg 1sg carry 3sg 1sg carry 2pl 1sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 3pl 2sg carry 3sg 2sg carry 3sg 2sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 3pl 3sg carry 1sg 3sg carry 2sg 3sg carry 3sg 3sg carry 3sg 3sg carry 1pl	Prospective bia: bia: bia: bia: bia:n biewa:n biewa:n bia:n biewa:n bia: bia:san biewa: bia:san biewa: bia:si	Imperfective bia bia bia bia bia bien biewən bien biewən bie biesan biew biesan biew	Prefixed fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibia fieibien(bin) fieibiwən fieibiwən fieibiwən fieibisan fieibisan fieibisan fieibiw fieibisan

1pl carry 2sg	bia:"	bie <sup>1</sup>	fieibie <sup>1</sup>
1pl carry 3sg	bia:"	bie <sup>1</sup>	fieibie <sup>1</sup>
1pl carry 2pl	bia:"	bie <sup>1</sup>	fieibie <sup>1</sup>
1pl carry 3pl	bia:"	bie <sup>1</sup>	<i>fieibie</i> <sup>1</sup>
2pl carry 1sg	bia:i	biei	ĥeibii
2pl carry 3sg	biewa:i	biewei	ĥeibiwei
2pl carry 1pl	bia:i	biei	ĥeibii
2pl carry 3pl	biewa:i	biewei	ĥeibiwei
3pl carry 1sg	bia:itçi	bietçi	ĥeibitci
3pl carry 2sg	bia:san	biesan	heibisan
3pl carry 3sg	biewa:itci	biewtçi	ĥeibiwtci
3pl carry 1pl	bia:itçi	bietçi	ĥeibitçi
3pl carry 2pl	bia:sai	biesai	ĥeibisai
3pl carry 3pl	biewa:tci	biewtci	ĥeibiwtci
me <sup>1</sup> z 'search for'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
·		1	
1sg search for 2sg	me <sup>1</sup> za:	<i>me<sup>1</sup>za</i>	<i>təme¹</i> za
1sg search for 3sg	me <sup>1</sup> za:	me <sup>1</sup> za	<i>təme¹</i> za
1sg search for 2pl	me <sup>1</sup> za:	me <sup>1</sup> za	<i>təme¹</i> za
1sg search for 3pl	me <sup>1</sup> za:	me <sup>1</sup> za	<i>təme¹</i> za
2sg search for 1sg	me <sup>1</sup> za:n	me <sup>1</sup> z ən	təme¹z ən
2sg search for 3sg	me <sup>1</sup> z wa:n	me <sup>1</sup> z wən	təme¹z wən
2sg search for 1pl	me <sup>1</sup> za:n	me <sup>1</sup> z ən	təme¹z ən
2sg search for 3pl	me <sup>1</sup> z wa:n	me <sup>1</sup> z wən	təme¹z wən
3sg search for 1sg	me¹za:i	me <sup>1</sup> z	təme¹z
3sg search for 2sg	me <sup>1</sup> za:san	me <sup>1</sup> z san	təme¹z san
3sg search for 3sg	me¹z wa:	me <sup>1</sup> z w	təme¹z wə
3sg search for 1pl	me¹za:i	me <sup>1</sup> z	təme¹z
3sg search for 2pl	me¹za:sai	me¹z sai	təme¹z sai
3sg search for 3pl	me <sup>1</sup> z wa:	me <sup>1</sup> z wə	təme¹z wə
1pl search for 2sg	me <sup>1</sup> za:	$me^{z}z \partial^{z}$	təme <sup>1</sup> z ə <sup>1</sup>
1pl search for 3sg	me <sup>1</sup> za:	$me^{I}z \partial^{I}$	təme <sup>1</sup> z ə <sup>1</sup>
1pl search for 2pl	me <sup>1</sup> za:	$me^{I}z \partial^{I}$	təme <sup>1</sup> z ə <sup>1</sup>
1pl search for 3pl	me <sup>1</sup> za:	$me^{J}z \partial^{J}$	$t  arrow me^{I} z a^{I}$
2pl search for 1sg	me¹za:i	me¹z əi	təme¹z əi
2pl search for 3sg	me¹z wa:i	me <sup>1</sup> z wei	təme <sup>1</sup> z wei
2pl search for 1pl	me¹za:i	me¹z əi	təme¹z əi

2pl search for 3pl 3pl search for 1sg 3pl search for 2sg 3pl search for 3sg 3sg search for 1pl 3sg search for 2pl 3sg search for 3pl	me <sup>1</sup> z wa:i me <sup>1</sup> z a:itçi me <sup>1</sup> z a:san me <sup>1</sup> z wa: me <sup>1</sup> z a:itçi me <sup>1</sup> z a:sai me <sup>1</sup> z wa:tçi	me <sup>1</sup> z wei me <sup>1</sup> z tçi me <sup>1</sup> z san me <sup>1</sup> z wə me <sup>1</sup> z tçi me <sup>1</sup> z sai me <sup>1</sup> z wətçi	təme <sup>1</sup> z wei təme <sup>1</sup> z tçi təme <sup>1</sup> z san təme <sup>1</sup> z wə təme <sup>1</sup> z tçi təme <sup>1</sup> z sai təme <sup>1</sup> z wətçi
zulu 'to wait for'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg wait for 2sg 1sg wait for 3sg	zulua: zulua:	zulua zulua	uzulua uzulua
1sg wait for 2pl	zulua:	zulua	uzulua
1sg wait for 3pl	zulua:	zulua	uzulua
2sg wait for 1sg 2sg wait for 3sg	zulua:n zuluwa:n	zuluən zuluwən	uzuluən uzuluwən
2sg wait for 1pl	zulua:n	zuluən	uzuluən
2sg wait for 3pl	zulųwa:n	zulywən	uzulywən
3sg wait for 1sg	zulua:i	zulų	uzulu
3sg wait for 2sg	zulua:san	zulusan	uzulusan
3sg wait for 3sg	zulųwa:	zulųwə	uzulųwə
3sg wait for 1pl	zulua:i	zulų	uzulu
3sg wait for 2pl	zulua:sai	zulųsai	uzulusai
3sg wait for 3pl	zulųwa:	zulųwə	uzulųwə
1pl wait for 2sg	zulua:	zuluə	uzuluə
1pl wait for 3sg	zulua:	zuluə	uzuluə <sup>1</sup>
1pl wait for 2pl	zulua:	zuluə <sup>1</sup>	uzuluə <sup>1</sup>
1pl wait for 3pl	zulua:¹ zulua:i	zuluə <sup>1</sup> zului	uzuluə <sup>1</sup>
2pl wait for 1sg 2pl wait for 3sg			uzului
2pl wait for 1pl	zulųwa:i zulua:i	zuluwei zului	uzuluwei uzului
2pl wait for 3pl	zuluwa:i	zuluwei	uzuluwei
3pl wait for 1sg	zulua:itçi	zulųtci	uzulųtci
3pl wait for 2sg	zulua:san	zulusan	uzulusan
3pl wait for 3sg	zuluwa:	zulųwə	uzulywə
3pl wait for 1pl	zulua:itçi	zulutçi	uzulųtçi
3pl wait for 2pl	zulua:sai	zulusai	uzulusai
3pl wait for 3pl	zulųwa:tci	zulųwətci	uzulųwətci

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dzete 'to hit'	Prospective	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg hit 2sg	dzeta:	dzeta	zədzita
1sg hit 3sg	dzeta:	dzeta	zədzita
1sg hit 2pl	dzeta:	dzeta	zədzita
1sg hit 3pl	dzeta:	dzeta	zədzita
2sg hit 1sg	dzeta:n	dzeten	zədziten
2sg hit 3sg	dzetewa:n	dzetewən	zedzitewən
2sg hit 1pl	dzeta:n	dzeten	zədziten
2sg hit 3pl	dzetenwa:n	dzetewən	zədzitewən
3sg hit 1sg	dzeta:i	dzete	zədzite
3sg hit 2sg	dzeta:san	dzetesan	zədzitesan
3sg hit 3sg	dzetewa:	dzetew	zədzitew
3sg hit 1pl	dzeta:i	dzete	zədzite
3sg hit 2pl	dzeta:sai	dzetesai	zədzitesai
3sg hit 3pl	dzetewa:	dzetew	zədzitew
1pl hit 2sg	dzeta:"	dzete <sup>1</sup>	zədzite <sup>1</sup>
1pl hit 3sg	dzeta:"	dzete <sup>1</sup>	zədzite <sup>1</sup>
1pl hit 2pl	dzeta:"	dzete <sup>1</sup>	zədzite <sup>1</sup>
1pl hit 3pl	dzeta:"	dzete <sup>1</sup>	zədzite <sup>1</sup>
2pl hit 1sg	dzeta:i	dzetei	zədzitei
2pl hit 3sg	dzetewa:i	dzetewei	zədzitewei
2pl hit 1pl	dzeta:i	dzetei	zədzitei
2pl hit 3pl	dzetewa:i	dzetewei	zədzitewei
3pl hit 1sg	dzeta:itci	dzetetçi	zədzitetçi
3pl hit 2sg	dzeta:san	dzetesan	zədzitesan
3pl hit 3sg	dzetewa:	dzetew	zədzitew
3pl hit 1pl	dzeta:itci	dzetetçi	zədzitetçi
3pl hit 2pl	dzeta:sai	dzetesai	zədzitesai
3pl hit 3pl	dzetewa:tçi	dzetewtci	zədzetewtçi
del 'to give'	Prospective <sup>70</sup>	Imperfective	Prefixed
1sg give 2sg	dela:	dela	dela
1sg give 3sg	dela:	dela	dela
1sg give 2pl	dela:	dela	dela
1sg give 3pl	dela:	dela	dela
2sg give 1sg	dela:n	delən	delən

2sg give 3sg	delwa:n	delwən	delwən
2sg give 1pl	dela:n	delən	delən
2sg give 3pl	delwa:n	delwən	delwən
3sg give 1sg	dela:	del	del
3sg give 2sg	dela:san	delsan	delsan
3sg give 3sg	delwa:	delwə	delwə
3sg give 1pl	dela:	del	del
3sg give 2pl	dela:sai	delsai	delsai
3sg give 3pl	delwa:	delwə	delwə
1pl give 2sg	dela:"	delə <sup>1</sup>	delə <sup>1</sup>
1pl give 3sg	dela: <sup>1</sup>	delə <sup>1</sup>	delə <sup>1</sup>
1pl give 2pl	dela:"	delə <sup>1</sup>	delə <sup>1</sup>
1pl give 3pl	dela:"	delə <sup>1</sup>	delə <sup>1</sup>
2pl give 1sg	dela:i	deləi	deləi
2pl give 3sg	delwa:i	delwei	delwei
2pl give 1pl	dela:i	deləi	deləi
2pl give 3pl	delwa:i	delwei	delwei
3pl give 1sg	dela:tçi	deltci	deltçi
3pl give 2sg	dela:san	delsan	delsan
3pl give 3sg	delwa:itci	delwətçi	delwətçi
3pl give 1pl	dela:tçi	deltçi	deltçi
3pl give 2pl	dela:sai	delsai	delsai
3pl give 3pl	delwa:tçi	delwətçi	delwətçi

## *4.3.3. Direction marking*

There is a set of verbal prefixes in Qiang which mark the direction of the action. There are eight different prefixes, but not all verbs can take all eight prefixes; some, such as /tse/ 'look at' can only take one prefix. This restriction seems to be in some cases lexical rather than semantic (in some cases it is clearly semantic), as there is another verb, /lə/ 'look at' which has roughly the same semantics as /tse/, but can take all eight of the directional prefixes (see below). Out of a study of 400 verbs, Huang (1997:71) found that 104 of them (26%) took only one of the prefixes, 116 (29%) took two prefixes, 88 (22%) took all eight prefixes, and the rest took between three and seven of the prefixes. Of the prefixes that the verbs could take, the two marking 'up' and 'down' (see

below) were the most common, being used on 243 and 234 verbs respectively, while the rest were used on 123 to 199 verbs of the set. Huang explains this as being related to the fact that the Qiang people live on steep mountain sides. Another factor could be the many metaphorical uses of 'up' and 'down' (see the list of metaphorical pairs below).

While the systems of direction marking prefixes are generally similar among Qiang dialects (and is found in other Qiangic languages), the Ronghong dialect system differs from the Mawo dialect system discussed in Sun 1981a and Sun 1981b, in that it does not include the two forms referring to action towards or away from a stream in a mountain valley, and it also does not have a form for backward motion. Instead it has two other prefixes that mark the direction of action into some container or out of some container (distinct from the two prefixes marking direction towards the center and outward from the center). This system is then more similar to that in the southern Qiang dialect of Taoping, also discussed in Sun 1981a.<sup>71</sup>

The form of the prefix follows the rules of vowel harmony: with a stressed root vowel, the prefix harmonizes with it (see  $\S2.4.3$ ); with an unstressed root vowel, the vowel of the prefix is usually [-ə], [-a], or [-a]. In a few cases, the vowel can become a diphthong: [fiei-bi] < /bie/ 'carry on back'; [de-se ~ die-se] < /se/ 'die'; [da-qəthi ~ dia-qəthi ~ dieqəthi] 'take (clothes, backpack) off from one's back'; [de-mi ~ die-mi] 'go out'. Following are examples of the use of the prefixes with different verbs.

lu	'come	,
----	-------	---

	Rusic			
<i>tulu</i> 'come vertically up'	təsų	'throw vertica		
fiolu 'come vertically down'	ĥакџ	'throw vertica		
nulu 'come upstream'	nərů	'throw upstrea		
sulu 'come downstream'	sərü	'throw downs		
<i>zulu</i> 'come towards the center'	ZƏRÂ	'throw toward		
(no form)	dasų	'throw out fro		
<i>ulu</i> 'come in'	ərů	'throw in'		
<i>holu</i> 'come out'	harų	'throw out'		

# kupte 'throw'

təsų	'throw vertically up'
hasy	'throw vertically down'
nərů	'throw upstream'
sərů	'throw downstream'
zərů	'throw towards center'
dasy	'throw out from center'
ərů	'throw in'
hasu	'throw out'

lə 'look'		tşhu 'stretch'		
təl	'look upward'	tutşhu	'stretch upward'	
ĥal	'look downward'	hotşhu	'stretch downward'	
nəl	'look upstream'	nutşhu	'stretch upstream'	
səl	'look downstream'	sutşhu	'stretch downstream'	
zəl	'look toward center'	zutşhu	'stretch toward center'	
dal	'look outward from center'	dotşhu	'stretch out from center'	
əl	'look in'	utşhu	'stretch in'	
hal	'look out'	hotşhu	'stretch out'	

Which prefix is used of course reflects where the person performing the action is relative to the goal. For example, in (4.71), we can guess that the addressee (not necessarily the speaker) is or will be in the Chibusu District, as the prefix marking movement down-river is used with the verb, and the Mao County county seat is down-river from Chibusu District:

(4.71)	2ũ	şqun i	sə-кa:-n-a?
	2sg	Mao.County	DIR-go:PRS-2sg-Q
	'Are yo	u going (down-rive	er) to the county seat?'

Repeating a verb with different prefixes can express a certain kind of repetition of an action by one or more people. (The /z = / prefix marks movement towards the center, while /d = / marks movement away from the center; the vocalic prefix marks movement in, while the /h = / prefix marks movement out.)

(4.72)	a.	ləla	'change'	zə-la da-la	'change back and forth'
	b.	виви	'curse'	zu-su qo-su	'curse back and forth'
	c.	pi	'hide'	i-pi he-pi	'hide in and out'
	d.	ŋuasi	'borrow'	zi-ŋuasi de-ŋuasi	'borrow back and forth'
	e.	ke'l	'ask'	zi-ke¹l de-ke¹l	'ask back and forth'
	f.	коі	'treat'	zu-roi do-roi	'treat each other (to a meal)'

Aside from marking the actual direction of the action, the directional prefixes also are used to mark a change in the *Aktionsart* (inherent verbal aspect) of the verb, from state or activity to achievement or

accomplishment, or from an absolute state to a contingent (temporary/abnormal) state. Let us first introduce some of the concepts to be employed here. If we look at the types of verbs found in the world's languages, we find the following semantic types (From Van Valin & LaPolla 1997, Ch 3, based on Vendler 1967):

- a. States: be sick, be tall, be dead, love, know, believe, have
- b. Achievements: pop, explode, collapse, shatter (all intransitive)
- c. Accomplishments: *melt, freeze, dry* (the intransitive versions); *recover from illness, learn*
- d. Activities: march, walk, roll (the intransitive versions); swim, think, rain, read, eat

These four types can be distinguished using the three characteristics  $[\pm dynamic], [\pm telic], and [\pm punctual], as in the following chart:<sup>72</sup>$ 

a. State:	[– dynamic], [– telic], [– punctual]
b. Activity:	[+ dynamic], [– telic], [– punctual]
c. Accomplishment:	[+ dynamic], [+ telic], [– punctual]
d. Achievement:	[+ dynamic], [+ telic], [+ punctual]

Each of these four types also has a causative form:

a. State:	The boy is afraid.
a'. Causative state:	The dog frightens/scares the boy.
b. Achievement:	The balloon popped.
b'. Causative achievement:	The cat popped the balloon.
c. Accomplishment:	The ice melted.
c'. Causative accomplishment:	The hot water melted the ice.
d. Activity:	The ball rolled around the room.
d'. Causative activity:	The girl rolled the ball around the
	room.

Using a form of lexical decomposition, we can represent these verbs types using the following form of notation:

Verb Class	Logical Structure
STATE	<b>predicate</b> ' (x) or (x,y)
ACTIVITY	<b>do'</b> $(x, [predicate' (x) or (x, y)])$
ACHIEVEMENT	INGR <b>predicate</b> (x) or (x,y), or
	INGR do' $(x, [predicate' (x) or (x, y)])$
ACCOMPLISHMENT	BECOME <b>predicate</b> ' (x) or (x,y), or
	BECOME do' $(x, [predicate' (x) or (x, y)])$
CAUSATIVE	$\alpha$ CAUSE $\beta,$ where $\alpha,\beta$ are LSs of any type

Following is an example of this type of representation for the English sentence *Max broke the window*.

(4.73) [do' (Max, Ø)] CAUSE [BECOME broken' (window)]

In Qiang, the form of most verbs directly reflects the elements of the lexical decomposition, as the basic form of the verb is usually a state or activity, which becomes an achievement or accomplishment with the addition of the directional prefix, and becomes a causative with the addition of the causative suffix (see §4.2.2).<sup>73</sup> Following are some examples of this phenomenon:

(4.74)	b.	təwa	<b>big´</b> (x) BECOME <b>big´</b> (x)	1
	c.	təwaz	$[\mathbf{do'}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\emptyset})]$ CAUSE [BECO	0
			Causat	tive Accomplishment
				<b>C</b>
(4.75)	a.	χtşa	small' (x)	State
	b.	ĥaχtşa	BECOME small' $(x)$	Accomplishment
	c.	ĥaχtşaz	$[\mathbf{do}'(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\emptyset})]$ CAUSE [BECO	ME small'(x)]
			Causat	ive Accomplishment
(4.76)	a.	tçhə	<b>do'</b> $(x, [eat'(x) or (x, y)])$	Activity
. ,	b.	sətç	BECOME do' (x, [eat' (x) o	r(x, y)])
				Accomplishment
	c.	sətçəz		-
		[ <b>do</b> <sup>2</sup> (x,	Ø)] CAUSE [BECOME do' (	x,[eat'(x)  or  (x, y)])]
				ive Accomplishment

(4.77)	a.	ylu	<b>do</b> ' (x, [ <b>roll</b> ' (x) or (x, y)])	Activity
	b.	doylu	INGR <b>do'</b> $(x, [roll'(x) \text{ or } (x, y)])$	Achievement
	c.	doyluz		
		[ <b>do</b> ´ (x,	Ø)] CAUSE [INGR do' (x, [roll' (x	(x) or $(x, y)$ ])]
			Causativ	e Achievement

This change is often used to affect something like a perfective sense (analyzed as past tense in Sun 1981a and Huang 1993). For this usage usually only one of the eight prefixes is regularly used, but which prefix is used differs between verbs, as can be seen from the examples just given. Because of this, the directional prefixes in some cases help to differentiate different verbs, as roots with the same form may take different prefixes. For example, /su/ can be 'learn' or 'dizzy', but 'learn' only takes the vocalic prefix ([usu]), while 'dizzy' only takes the prefix /fiə-/ ([fiosu]). In the case of 'become big' and 'become small' there is a semantic basis for the choice of prefix, as /tə-/ is for upward direction, and /fiə-/ is for downward direction. This is also true for 'become fat' vs. 'become thin'. These two prefixes are the most commonly used with adjectives. Following are examples of prefixed forms of some adjectives where addition of one of these two prefixes gives the sense of an accomplishment verb:

(4.78)	təwa	'become big'	ĥaχtşa	'become small'
	təpha	'become fat'	fiasəi	'become thin'
	təphi( <i>фi</i> )	'become white'	tən iq	'become black'
	tuçupu	'become red'	<i>fiaxtşəp</i>	'become dark'
	tuxkuçtçu	'become hard'	hamətşa	'become soft'
	təşue	'become light'	fiat <b>şh</b> a	'become deep'
	təna	'become good'	hasəi	'become bad'
	təpha	'become swollen'	ĥeșe	'become less swollen'
	tujůku	'become dry'	ən i	'become wet'
	təsi	'become hot'	zəmpa	'become cold'
	tətshimpe	'become smart'	(no corres	sponding antonym)

We can see from these examples that metaphorically becoming good or light is movement upwards, while becoming dark or bad is movement downwards (except in the case of 'become black'—colors all take the 'upwards' prefix; with 'become soft' either prefix is acceptable). The

antonyms of 'become dry' and 'become hot' are given in the lower right of this set of forms for the sake of completeness. These forms do not take the 'up' or 'down' prefixes; the form for 'become wet' takes the 'in' prefix, /ə-/, presumably because the water seeps into something to make it wet, and the form for 'become cold (feel cold)' takes the 'towards the center' prefix /zə-/ (though [təmpa] is also possible), possibly like in English when we say *the cold gets into your bones*. Some of these metaphoric associations are found in English as well, such as *smarten up* vs. *dumb down*. Also *heat up*, *lighten up*, *soften up*, and *dry up*.

Use of a different directional prefix can also affect the agentivity of the argument of some intransitive verbs, or can be part of the causativization (see Section 4.2.2 on causatives) or transitivization of some verbs. Following are some examples of this difference in agentivity (cf. Huang 1997:73):<sup>75</sup>

(4.79)	da-ła	ʻslip'	fia-ła	'slide'
	do-tshu	'fall (e.g. of fruit	fio-tshu	'pick (fruit from
		from a tree)'		a tree)'
	de-phe	'break open (of bundle)'	fie-phe	'break open (a
				bundle)'
	da-qhua	'collapse (of house)'	fia-qhua	'knock down
				(a house)'
	da-ва	'smash (bowl; vi.)'	fia-qhe	'smash (bowl; vt.)
	da-sli	'break (tree branch; vi.)'	fia-xli	'break (tree
				branch; vt.)'

In these examples, the prefixes involved are /də/, which marks movement away from the center, and /fiə/ which marks movement downward. In the first set, 'slip' is non-agentive, while 'slide' is the same action, but purposely carried out, i.e. agentive slipping. In the second set, the difference is whether the fruit falls out of the tree of its own accord, or is picked out of the tree.

There are some instances where use of different prefixes reflects different meanings or facets of the actions involved:

(4.80)	ha-quətsu	'lift the head'	ha-quətsu	'lower the head'
	a-qua	'turn off (a light)'	ha-qua	'close (a door)'
	tu-qu	'be victorious (in battle)'	ho-qu	'lose (in battle)'

In some of these cases (e.g. /qu/) the root form is never used alone, and so it is difficult to give it a distinct gloss.

When the habitual-marking verb suffix /-kəpə/ appears after a prefixed adjective, it has the meaning 'has the ability/tendency to become the state represented by the adjective' e.g. [tə-wa-kəpə] 'will become big'. This meaning is not possible without the prefix.

The directional prefixes are also the main means of marking an imperative (see Section 4.3.5.2).

# 4.3.4. Aspect

Qiang does not have grammaticalized tense marking, but it has several types of aspect marking, including prospective aspect marking, the use of the directional prefixes to mark perfective aspect,<sup>76</sup> change of state marking, experiential aspect marking, marking of repetition of an action, continuative aspect marking, habitual aspect marking, marking of a resultant state, and simultaneous action marking.

# 4.3.4.1. Prospective aspect

Prospective aspect is the sense of English going to, as in *It is going to rain.* In Qiang it patterns most of the time very much like a future tense, and has been analyzed as such in the past (e.g. Sun 1981a, Huang Bufan 1991), but can be used in certain constructions involving past situations (see (4.83) below). It is marked by adding the suffix /-a:/ to the verb, before the person marking, in some cases replacing the root vowel of the verb, when that vowel is /a/ or /ə/, as in (4.81a), where /məpa/ becomes [məpa:] in the second clause, and (4.81b), where /pə/ becomes [pa:].

(4.81) a. pəs məpa wa, təp-ni tsə-s today cold very tomorrow-ADV this-COMP tça-məpa: lu. CON-cold:PRS will 'Today is very cold; tomorrow is going to be even colder than this.'

b.	qa	fa	çupu-a-thau	ра:.	(< pə)
	1sg	clothes	red-one-CL	buy:PRS:1sg	
	'I ar	n going	to buy a suit of	red clothes.'	

In cases where the root vowel (or the last part of a diphthong) is a front vowel, the prospective aspect suffix merges with that vowel, forming [a:].

(4.82)	a.		<i>ça:.</i> fall:PRS bing to rain.'		(< ¢e)
	b.	3sg		<i>phia:.</i> till:PRS to till the land.'	(< phie)

The key examples for the determination of this marking as aspect rather than tense are those given in (4.83), where the marking appears in a clause representing an action that was 'going to' be carried out at some time in the past, which in some cases turned out not to have been done.

- (4.83) a. *qa tha-s-ва the: me<sup>1</sup>za:-n,i the: lu-ji.* 1sg that:one-day-LOC 3sg look.for:PRS-ADV 3sg come-CSM 'Just when I was going to (go) look for him, he came.'
  - b. qupu nəmaha ləyz tsa:-lai, (< tse)</li>
    3sg last.night book read:PRS-DEF:one:time muwu die-mi.
    lamp DIR-go.out
    'Just when he was going to read last night, the lamp went out.'
    - c. *itçi khumtsi çi χqu-a:-ŋ,i tçhoχu ma-şə-ji,* aunt khumtsi liquor boil-PRS-LNK yeast NEG-exist-CSM

*ho-mu-χqu.* DIR-NEG-boil 'Aunt Khumtsi was going to boil liquor, but there was no distiller's yeast, (so she) didn't boil (any).'

Prospective aspect marking is generally not used in the negative clauses of polarity verb-not-verb question forms (i.e. where the question is formed by coordinating a positive and negative form of the verb), as in (4.84a) below, and often is not used with negatives in other types of constructions, such as the conditional phrase in the (4.84b) below, but there are some situations where the prospective aspect marking and the negative prefix can appear on the same verb, as in (4.84c).

(4.84)	a.	2sg	<i>stuaha</i> food ou going t	<i>tçha:-n-a</i> eat-PRS-2sg-Q o eat?'	ma-tchə-n-a? NEG-eat-2sg-Q
	b.	<i>yza:-sc</i> marry:1	ear 2sg an. PRS-2sgU	U	<i>the: mi-ta</i> 3sg other.person-LOC s going to marry someone

c. the: təp-n,i ma-ka:-ji, pəs ka:-ji.
3sg tomorrow-ADV NEG-go:PRS-HS today go:PRS-HS
'(I heard) he is not going to go tomorrow (but) will go today.'

In (4.84a), the verb in the first part of the question (a polarity verb-notverb question; see \$4.3.5.3) is in the prospective aspect, asking the intention of the addressee, while the verb in the second clause is not in the prospective aspect, as it has the negative prefix. In (4.84c) the use of the prospective aspect marking is made necessary by the fact that the word for 'tomorrow' appears in the clause. The relevant factor in (4.84a) and (4.84c) seems to be intention. That is, in (4.84a) the speaker is asking about the addressee's intention to eat (not his or her intention to

not eat), whereas in (4.84c) the speaker is talking about the person's intention to not go on a certain day.

### 43.4.2. Perfective and imperfective aspect

Aside from marking pure direction, the directional prefixes also mark perfective action, while the unprefixed form of the verb is used for imperfective actions. Compare the two clauses in (4.85):

(4.85) nəs qa ə-qa-lai the: stuaha tchə. yesterday 1sg DIR-go:1sg-DEF:one:time 3sg food/rice eat 'Yesterday when I entered the room, s/he was eating.'

The first clause expresses a completed action, while the second clause expresses an action that was ongoing at the time referred to in the first clause.

Now compare the two clauses of the following example:

(4.86)	the:	sə-tç-ŋ ike,	<i>suat</i> şə	χuəla-k.
	3sg	DIR-eat-after	bowl	wash-go
	'S/he f	finished eating and	went to wash	the bowl.'

In the first clause the action is expressed as completed, and so there is a directional prefix on the verb, while the action of washing the dishes expressed in the second clause had not been completed (or it was not relevant to mark it as completed), and so the verb does not have the directional prefix. If neither clause has a completed action, as in certain types of habitual action or simultaneous action, then neither verb has the directional prefix, as in the following examples:

(4.87)	a.	the:	kə-lai	z botçu.
		3sg	go-DEF:one:time	think
		'S/he th	<u>.</u> '	

b. qa stuaha tchə-lai, the: jan tşhe. 1sg food/rice eat-DEF:one:time 3sg cigarette smoke 'When I am eating, s/he is smoking.' 43.43. Change of state aspect

The most common aspect marking is /-ji/, which marks a recent change of state or situation.

- (4.88) a. *me:*<sup>*i*</sup> *ci-ji*. rain fall-CSM 'It's started raining.'
  - b. me:<sup>1</sup> de-ci-ji.
    rain DIR-fall-CSM
    'It has already rained (and stopped).'
- (4.89) a. *the: zə phie-ji.* 3sg land till-CSM 'S/he has begun to till the land.'
  - b. *the: zə i-fi-ji.* (< phie) 3sg land DIR-till-CSM 'S/he has already tilled the land.'

As /-ji/ expresses a recent change of state, it can have the sense of an inchoative aspect marker (see also §4.3.3 on the use of the directional prefixes in marking an inchoative aspect).

(4.90) *the: dzə-ji.* 3sg eat-CSM 'S/he has just begun to eat.'

Compare the following two sentences in terms of the interaction of the directional prefix and the aspect marking:

(4.91) nəp, qa tçəu-la kə-s-ta, the: ləyz su-ji. last.year 1sg home-LOC go-NOM-LOC 3sg book study-CSM 'Last year when I came home, s/he was already studying.'

(4.92)	nəs	qa	qupu-tcəu-la	kə-s-ta,	the:
	yesterday	1sg	3sg-home-LOC	go-NOM-LOC	3sg

*zdzyta: fia-qə-ji.* Chengdu DIR-go-CSM 'Yesterday when I got to her/his home, s/he had gone to Chengdu.'

In (4.91), the action of studying had begun, so is marked with the change of state marker /-ji/, but there is no directional prefix on the verb, as the action was still in progress at the time expressed by the first clause. In the second example the action was already completed at the time referred to in the first clause, and so the verb has both the directional prefix (which here has double duty, showing actual direction plus completion) and the change of state marker.

The change of state suffix can also be used together with prospective aspect marking to express the idea 'about to V', giving it a more immediate sense.

(4.93)	me: <sup>1</sup>	ca:-ji.	(< ¢e)
	rain	fall:PRS-CSM	
	'It's at	pout to rain.'	

The change of state marker can be used after the auxiliary verb  $/d\alpha$ -s/ 'finish' to express the completion of an action.

(4.94)	the:	pie	çtçə	da-s-ji.
	3sg	pig	feed	DIR-finish-CSM
	'S/he	finished	feeding the	pig.'

(4.95) *the: dzə da-s-a:-ji.* 3sg eat DIR-finish-PRS-CSM 'S/he is going to finish eating soon.'

In many cases the change of state marker has the form /-jy/, and is often translated as meaning the action had 'already' begun or been carried out. It may be that this form is a combination of the usual form of the change of state marker /-ji/ plus the visual evidential /-u/ or the third person non-actor marker [-u ~ wə]. For this reason it is glossed as ASP instead of CSM. Following are some examples:

 $(\langle jy + a \rangle)$ 

- (4.96) *qa* a-tian u-zulu-jya. one-hour DIR-wait-ASP:1sg 1sg 'I have already waited for one hour.'
- (4.97) me:<sup>1</sup> de-ci-jy. DIR-fall-ASP rain 'It's already raining.' (Just begun and still raining)
- (4.98) *the:* stuaha sə-tç-jy. food/rice DIR-eat-ASP 3sg 'S/he has already eaten.'
- (4.99) *the:* (< phie) i-fi-jy. ΖƏ 3sg land DIR-till-ASP 'S/he has already tilled the land.' (just completed)

This form also can be (and often is) used with the auxiliary verb /das/ 'finish':

(4.100) *the:* dzə da-s-jy. 3sg eat DIR-finish-ASP 'S/he has already finished eating.'

# 4.3.4.4. Experiential aspect

Use of the auxiliary verb /-dze/ after the main verb marks the action represented by the verb as having been experienced by the actor of the clause:

(4.101)	qa 1sg	<i>zdzyta:</i> Chengdu:LOC	ĥa-qә-dza. DIR-go-EXP:1sg	(< dze)
	0	been to Chengdu.	DIK-go-EAL.18g	
		0		
(4.102)	qa	ləyz-tse-pen	i-tsi-dza.	(< dze)
	1sg	book-this-CL	DIR-read-EXP:1sg	
	'I have	e read this book.'		

(4.103) (panə)-tsa-han themle zə-pə-dze-tçi. thing-this:one-kind 3pl DIR-buy-EXP-3pl 'They have bought this kind of thing. '

If the assertion is of having not yet experienced an action, the negative and continuative aspect prefixes are prefixed to the auxiliary verb:

(4.104) *qa ləyz-tse-pen i-tsi-me-tçi-dza.* (< dze) 1sg book-this-CL DIR-read-NEG-CON-EXP:1sg 'I have not yet read this book.'

# 4.3.4.5. Repetition

Repetition of an action (though not iterative in the sense of, e.g. tapping one's fingers on the table; by repetition here is meant doing an action 'again') is expressed by the suffix /-jə/, which precedes the other aspect suffixes and person marking.<sup>77</sup> It can also be used with prospective aspect marking and the change of state marker.

(4.105)	a.	me: <sup>1</sup>	de-çi-jə-ji.	
		rain	DIR-fall/release-REP-CSM	
		'It's raining again.'		

- b. *the: dzə-jə-ji.* 3sg eat-REP-CSM 'He is eating again.'
- (4.106) tə-wa-jə-ji-ji jə. DIR-big-REP-CSM-2pl say 'He said you(pl) have gotten big again.'

This suffix is often used together in the same clause as a free morpheme /xsa/ 'again' (actually the word for 'new'), as in the following example:

(4.107) xsə me<sup>1</sup>zə-lə-m i-pə-l-jə-kui. (T6:95-96) again look.for-come-NOM DIR-arrive-come-REP-INF:HS 'Again someone came looking (for him).' (lit.: 'one who was looking for him came again.')

#### 4.3.4.6. Continuative aspect

The prefix [tce- ~ tci- ~ tco-] 'still, yet' is used to express continued actions or states, much like 'still' and 'yet' in English. In some cases this prefix has the same form as the prohibitive (negative imperative) prefix (see \$4.3.5.2), but as the two prefixes appear in different types of contexts (and the negative imperative is not used with prospective aspect marking) there usually is no problem of ambiguity.<sup>78</sup>

(4.108)	a.	rain	CON-fa		been rain	ing all alon	g).'	
	b.	1sg yes	terday	here	DIR-come-I	DEF:one:time it was still 1	rain	CON-fall
(4.109)	3sg	g land	CON-t	ill			<b>1</b>	(< phie)

'S/he's still ploughing (has been ploughing all along).'

This prefix can also be used with the prospective aspect to mean 'still wants to/is going to V' (that is, actions that have stopped but there is intention to continue or possibility that something will continue) ((4.110)-(4.112)), or with the negative prefix to mean 'not yet' ((4.113)-(4.114)).

(4.110) (qa) tca-na:. (< nə) 1sg CON-sleep:PRS 'I'm still going to sleep.' ('I want to sleep some more')

(4.111)	me: <sup>1</sup> tce-ca:.	(< ¢e)
	rain CON-fall:PRS	
	'It's still going to rain.'	

- (4.112) *the:* zə tçe-fia:. (< phie) 3sg land CON-till:PRS 'S/he is still going to till the land.'
- (4.113) *fia-mə-tçi-qa* (< kə) DIR-NEG-CON-go:1sg 'I haven't gone yet.'
- (4.114) nəs qa kə kantchi-lai, the: yesterday 1sg go want-DEF:one:time 3sg *i-mə-tci-pə-l.*DIR-NEG-CON-arrive-come 'Yesterday when I wanted to go, s/he hadn't returned yet.'

It can also be used with a prefixed verb to mean 'V a little longer' or 'continue to V', as in the following example:

(4.115)	?ile	a-za	a-tçi-tçə-i.
	2pl	one-CL	DIR-CON-wait-2pl
	'Don't g	go now!'	(lit.: 'Wait a while longer.')

This prefix sometimes also has the meaning of 'again (yet one more time)' or 'also', as in the following examples:

- (4.116) tse-tsi xsusu-ŋ,a-z guə-xau-ŋ,a-pan, ?ũ a-ş this-pair thirty-COM-nine-size-COM-half 2sg one-time *i-tçi-tsi-n*. DIR-CON-see-2sg (trying on shoes) 'This pair (is a) size 39 1/2, you try once again' (lit.: 'see yet one (more) time')

4.3.4.8. Habitual aspect

The habitual aspect is expressed by adding the suffix /-kəpə/ or /-pə/ after a verb.<sup>79</sup> If the verb is a prefixed adjective (intransitive stative verb), then /-kəpə/ has the meaning that the subject 'has the ability/tendency to become' the state represented by the adjective, e.g. /tə-wa-kəpə/ (directional prefix + 'big (< /ba/)' + /-kəpə/) 'will/can become big'. This meaning is not possible without the directional prefix.

- (4.118) (qaqəi)-tcəu-la i-pə-k-əs qə:<sup>-1</sup>, qa 1sgREFL-home-LOC DIR-arrive-go-NOM before 1sg *ictcimaqa* ə-jə-sa *koi-kəpa*. (< kəpə) often one-two-sentences call-HABIT:1sg 'Before returning to my own home, I often call out a few sentences.'
- (4.119) qə:<sup>1</sup>-ta, qa ictcimaqa pies dzə-pa. (< pə) before-LOC 1sg often meat eat-HABIT:1sg 'In the past I often ate meat.'

Habitual actions can also sometimes be expressed using simple unprefixed forms, as mentioned in the discussion of (4.87a-b), above. See also (4.174), below.

4.3.4.9. Resulting state

An on-going state resulting from a change of state or action can be expressed using the prefixed (achievement or accomplishment) form of the verb, the change of state marker, plus the copula. In this case the copula is the main verb, so if there is any person marking, then the person marking appears on the copula.

(4.120) *dzy-le: de-zgə-ji ŋuə.* door-DEF:CL DIR-open-CSM COP 'The door is open.' ('The door remains open.')

# 4.3.4.10. Simultaneous actions

For two actions occurring simultaneously, the adverbial marker  $/\eta_{\rm e}i/$ , sometimes combined with /ictci/ 'together', is used after the expression of the first action:

(4.121)	a.	3sg	food/rice	<i>tchə-n.ictci</i> eat-ADV:together watching television	television	<i>tse.</i> watch
	b.	ĥe-ze	i-n i	da-aə-iə-kəi.		(T3:30

b. *fie-zei-n,i* da-qə-jə-kəi. (T3:30) DIR-cry-ADV DIR-go-REP-INF:HS '(He) went along again crying (as he went).'

# 4.3.5. Illocutionary force

Illocutionary force is the type of speech act, such as question, statement, order, warning, etc. performed by an expression. Here we are interested in the formal expressions most commonly used for performing these speech acts, such as the declarative (§4.3.5.1), the imperative and prohibitive (§4.3.5.2), and interrogative constructions (§4.3.5.3).<sup>80</sup> The forms discussed here involve marking both within and outside the verb complex, but as they are functionally similar, they are being discussed together. We will discuss each type in turn. 4351. Declarative

The declarative is the unmarked form of the verb, used mainly for making statements. Almost all of the examples up to this point have been declarative clauses. In declarative clauses, it is possible to add the particle /-ja/ (said with falling intonation) to the end of the clause to make a stronger statement. Following is an example:

(4.122)	2ũ	lu-s	ŋuə-ja!		
	2sg	come-NOM	COP-PART		
	'You o	You definitely must come!'			

#### 4.3.5.2. Imperative and prohibitive

The marking of an imperative clause involves the same prefixes used for direction marking, so in many cases has the same form as a normal declarative clause, and it is only the intonation and context that mark it as an imperative. In imperatives the prefix, which may be any one of the directionals, is stressed, unlike non-imperative directional prefixes.<sup>81</sup> A secondary characteristic of the imperative is that person marking is optional, though the imperative sense is stronger if person marking is used. In order to make an imperative more polite, it is possible to add the polite imperative particle /-na/, which appears outside the verb complex, i.e. after the person marking.<sup>82</sup> There are various other particles that can be used with the imperative form (see examples further below). Following are examples showing the different prefixes used with different verbs, and their different forms with and without person marking, and with second person singular and plural person marking (the dual takes the same person marking as plural, so dual forms are not listed separately):

- (4.123) a. *ə-z-(na)!* DIR-eat-IMP 'Eat!'
- DIR-eat-2sg-IMP 'You(sg) eat!'

b. *ə-zə-n-(na)*!

- c. *ə-zə-i-(na)!* DIR-eat-2pl-IMP 'You(pl) eat!'
- (4.124) a. fia-qutə-(na)!b. fia-qutə-n-(na)!DIR-kneel-IMPDIR-kneel-2sg-IMP'Kneel down!'You(sg) kneel down!'
  - c. *fia-qutə-i-(na)!* DIR-kneel-2pl-IMP 'You(pl) kneel down!'
- (4.125) a. tu-ju-(na)!b. tu-ju-n-(na)!DIR-stand-IMP<br/>'Stand up!'DIR-stand-2sg-IMP<br/>'You(sg) stand up!'

- c. *tu-ju-i-(na)!* DIR-stand-2pl-IMP 'You(pl) stand up!'
- (4.126) a. *ha-fų!* DIR-spit 'Spit it out!'

b. *ha-fu-n-(na)!* DIR-spit-2sg-IMP 'You(sg) spit it out!'

c. *ha-fu-i-(na)!* DIR-spit-2pl-IMP 'You(pl) spit it out!'

In some cases of verb concatenation, the prefix and person marking are split between different verbs, as the person marking is added to the last element of the verb complex:

(4.127) 2*ũ* tsə-e-pei ə-tc-kə-n. 2sg water-one-CL DIR-drink-go-2sg 'Go drink a glass of water.'

It is also possible in imperatives to have free pronouns representing the actor appear before the verb. A noun phrase representing an undergoer, goal, or recipient may also appear in the clause. Following are some examples:

(4.128)	a.	?ũ ə-zuə! 2sg DIR-sit 'You sit!'	b.	2ũ 2sg 'You co	<i>fio-lu-n!</i> DIR-come-2sg ome down here!'
(4.129)	a.	<i>qa de-l!</i> 1sg DIR-give 'Give me (it)!'	b.	door-DI	<i>de-zge-(n)!</i> EF:CL DIR-open-2sg he door!'
(4.130)	a.	<i>виаtşa-la-ha</i> bowl-DEF:one-pl 'Gather the bowls	DIR-gather-		

b. *the:* zə-l-(ən)! 3sg DIR-move-2sg 'Bring it (here)!'

The prohibitive (negative imperative) is expressed by the prefix [tca-~ tcə- ~ tco- ~ tce-] (from Proto-Tibeto-Burman \*ta-), which appears in the same position as the normal negative prefix, just before the verb, after the directional prefix, if there is one (the directional prefix is not obligatory in negative imperatives).

(4.131)	a.	<i>tco-lu-n-(na)!</i> NEG.IMP-come-2sg-IMP 'Don't come!'	b.	<i>tça-kə-n!</i> NEG.IMP-go-2sg 'Don't leave!'
(4.132)	a.	ha-tcə-в! DIR-NEG.IMP-go 'Don't go out!'	b.	ha-tcə-кц! DIR-NEG.IMP-throw 'Don't throw it down!'
(4.133)	?ũ	tsa t¢a-lau-tha,		tatə tə-khua:-san.

(4.155) *Tu* isa iga-hdu-hd, *tato ib-khdu.-sah.* 2sg here NEG.IMP-be.noisy-AUX father DIR-angry:PRS-2sgU 'Don't be noisy here or your father will be angry (at you).'

A more polite prohibitive is expressed by adding the phrase /ma-qe/ 'can't' or /me-tchi/ 'not want' after the main verb. It is also possible to use the hortative particles (discussed below) with the prohibitive construction.

(4.134) *me:*<sup>*i*</sup> *de-ci-wa*, *tcile kə-ma-qe-şa<sup><i>i*</sup>! rain DIR-fall-RCA 1pl go-NEG-able-HORT:1pl 'It's raining, so let's not go!'

There is a set of clause-final hortative particles for expressing the idea that the speaker is directing or requesting the addressee to perform an action. These particles can be used with either prefixed (i.e. imperative) or unprefixed verbs. In the case of first person plural, the form is /sa/ if there is only the speaker and one or two other people. If there are a large number of people involved, then the form takes the plural marking, becoming  $[sa^{-1}]$ , as in the example just given above.

- (4.135) stuaha tchə-şa! food/rice drink/eat-HORT:1sg 'Let's eat!'
- (4.136) *tçizzi itçi dzə-şa!* 1dl together eat-HORT:1sg 'Let's eat together!'
- (4.137) *tcile the: виа sa<sup>1</sup>*. 1pl 3sg help HORT:1pl 'Let's help him/her!'
- (4.138) *tçile tsai tianjin tse-k-şa<sup>1</sup>*. 1pl now movie watch-go-HORT:1pl 'Let's go watch a movie now!'

There is also a particle /wu/ which can be added after the first person hortative /ga/ or the indirect directive form /la/ (see below for /la/) to make the expression much more polite, and more of a request. Though the form /wu/ is the same form as the agentive/ablative/ instrumental postposition, which is also used on clauses in correlative comparative constructions (see §4.4.3) and to show the cause of some state of affairs (see §5.5), this form seems to be a separate morpheme.

- (4.139) ma:, kə-şa-wu? mom go-HORT:1sg-REQU 'Mom, Let's go, O.K.?'
- (4.140) *tçile bəl-şa<sup>1</sup>-wu?* 1pl do-HORT:1pl-REQU 'Let's do it, O.K.?'
- (4.141) qa tə-виа la-wu. lsg DIR-help INDTV:1sg-REQU 'Let me help you, O.K.?'

(4.142) *xoitshu a-zə a-кų la-wu*. hot.pepper one-CL DIR-put INDTV:1sg-REQU 'Let me put in a little hot pepper.'

For second person directives, the forms  $[pa \sim ba \sim wa]$  or /su/ are used. The latter form has a somewhat stronger directive meaning. These forms contrast with the imperative marker /na/, as  $[pa \sim ba \sim wa]$  is more polite than the imperative marker, and /su/ has a stronger directive sense than the imperative marker.

- (4.143) *ə-tchə-n-ba!* DIR-drink/eat-2sg-DTV 'Please eat!'
- (4.144) *na-ji u-su-n-ba!* good-ADV DIR-teach/study-2sg-DTV 'Study hard!'
- (4.145) 2*ũ zme-z na-ji u-su-n-su.* (emphatic) 2sg Qiang-language good-ADV DIR-teach/study-2sg-DTV 'Learn Qiang well!'

The form /pu/ can also be used for requesting the addressee to do a certain action. This is the most polite of the particles discussed.

- (4.146) 2ũ tchə-da-s-n,i ə-kə-(n)-na! (order) 2sg drink/eat-DIR-finish-ADV DIR-go-2sg-IMP 'Finish eating before you go!'
- (4.147) 2ũ tchə-da-s-ni ə-kə-(n)-pu! (request) 2sg drink/eat-DIR-finish-ADV DIR-go-2sg-DTV 'Why don't you finish eating before you go!'
- (4.148) 2*ũ* zo:kum-le: a-ş de-zge-n-pu. (request) 2sg window-DEF:CL one-time DIR-open-2sg-DTV 'Could you open the window a bit?'

There is also a kind of indirect directive marking, the form of which differs with the person of the referent being directed or allowed to perform an action. For first person referents, the form is the verb-phrase-final particle /la/, which when added to a clause has the meaning 'let me . . .'. This form can also take plural marking, becoming /la<sup>1</sup>/,<sup>83</sup> and, as mentioned above, can be followed by the polite request particle /-wu/ (this latter particle is outside the verb complex, as defined here, because it follows the person marking).

(4.150)	qa	dzə	la!
	1sg	eat	INDTV:1sg
	'Let r	ne eat!'	

- (4.151) qa 2ũ tşauku tu-pu la.<sup>84</sup> 1sg 2sg look.after DIR-do INDTV:1sg 'Let me look after you.'
- (4.152) qa tə-sua la-wu. 1sg DIR-help INDTV:1sg-REQU 'Let me help!'
- (4.153) *tçile tә-виа lә<sup>-</sup>wu.* 1pl DIR-help INDTV:1pl-REQU 'Let us help!'
- (4.154) qa dzy de-zge la-wu. 1sg door DIR-open INDTV:1sg-REQU 'Let me open the door!'

There is no second person form of indirect directive marking. For third person referents, the form is the prefix /ca:-/. There is no negative form of this; the phrase /me-tchi/ 'not want' is used after the verb instead.

(4.155) *stuaha ca:-tc-kə.* food/rice INDTV-eat-go 'Let (him/her) go eat!'

If the verb taking the third person form also could take one of the directional prefixes (see 4.3.3) in a particular context, it is possible to either replace the prefix with /ca:-/, or simply change the vowel of the prefix to /a:/, as in the following examples:

(4.156)	a.	рә	'buy'	>	za:-pə ~ ça:-pə	'allow 3sg to buy'
	b.	tçhə	'drink'	>	$sa:-tc \sim ca:-tc$	'allow 3sg to drink'
	c.	tşə	'kill'	>	fia:-tş ~ ça:-tş	'allow 3sg to kill'
	d.	lu	'come'	>	ta:-lu ∼ ¢a:-lu	'allow 3sg to come'
	e.	tse	'look'	>	a:-tse ~ ca:-tse	'allow 3sg to look'
	f.	phe '	dig (horiz	zont	ally)' > $fia:-\phi e \sim \phi$	ca:-

The form with /ca:/ is more emphatic than the form where the initial of the prefix is retained. For plural referents the plural marker /-tci/ is added after the verb.

# 4.3.5.3. Interrogatives

Yes-no questions are marked by rising intonation and by the addition of the clause-final syllable /-na/ for second person singular actors/topics, or /-ŋua/ (often pronounced [wa]) for all actors/topics of all other persons and numbers. The question particle that is part of these forms is outside the verb complex, and so follows aspect and person/number marking, but is discussed here with the other illocutionary force markings. The form /-na/ is comprised of the second person singular person marking /-n/ plus the question particle /-a/, though the nonsecond person singular question particle /-ŋua/ does not seem to derive from the copula /ŋuə/ plus /-a/, as /ŋua/ often follows the copula. It also does not seem to be a form of the third person non-actor marking (as is the case with the debitive construction; see 4.3.6.3) plus /-a/, as the aspect and person marking suffixes appear on the element preceding /ŋua/.

- (4.157) ?ũ zme ŋuə-n-a? 2sg Qiang COP-2sg-Q 'Are you(sg) Qiang (a Qiang person)?'
- (4.158) the: zme ŋuə-ŋua? 3sg Qiang COP-Q 'Is s/he Qiang?'
- (4.159) ?*ile z me ŋuə-i-ŋua*? 2pl Qiang COP-2pl-Q 'Are you(pl) Qiang?'
- (4.160) themle zme ŋuə-tçi-ŋua? 3pl Qiang COP-3pl-Q 'Are they Qiang?'
- (4.161) 2*ũ zdzyta:* fia-qə-n-a? 2sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-2sg-Q 'Did you go to Chengdu?'
- (4.162) *the: zdzyta: fia-q-ŋua?* 3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-Q 'Did s/he go to Chengdu?'

Rhetorical questions are marked by /-ja/ (the same form as for statements, but with different intonation) or /-tca/ or /-ŋui/. The form /ŋui/ is only for first person imperfective actions (often used together with prospective aspect marking), and can be used after regular polarity verb-not-verb type question formations.

- (4.163) *tçile wu z me ŋuə<sup>1</sup>-ja?* 1pl all Qiang COP:1pl-Q 'Are we all Qiang?'
- (4.164) qa zme ma-ŋua-ja? 1sg Qiang NEG-COP:1sg-Q 'Am I not Qiang?' ('Aren't I Qiang?')

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(4.165) qa n,iyi bəla:-nui? 1sg what do:PRS:1sg-Q 'What am I going to do?'

(4.166) qa təp-n,i ka:-ŋua ma-ka:-ŋui? 1sg tomorrow-ADV go:PRS-Q NEG-go:PRS:1sg-Q 'Am I going tomorrow or not?'

Guesses, either positive or negative, involving a request for confirmation, can be marked by the clause final particle /-luʁuɑ/.

(4.167)	a.	3sg	Qiang	<i>ŋuә-luкua?</i> COP-(guess) isn't s/he?'
	b.	3sg	Qiang	<i>ma-ŋuৢ-luʁua?</i> NEG-COP-(guess) ang, is s/he?'

c. *the: ə-qa-luxua?* 3sg DIR-go-(guess) 'S/he went in, didn't s/he?'

The form [luɛua], when used alone, marks a type of tag question, but when used with the inferential evidential marker /-k/, as in (4.168), or the [tan/lahan] 'possibility' construction in (4.169) (see 4.3.7.4 for this construction), it simply marks the clause as less certain.

(4.168)	the:	tshinpi-wa-	k	Іивиа.		
	3sg	intelligent-	very-INF	Q		
	'She	is intelligent	' (guessir	lg)		
(4.169)	the:	tshinpi	wa-m-ta	n	пиә	Іивиа.
	3sg	intelligent	very-NO	M-appearance	COP	Q
	She p	ossibly is in	telligent.			

The form /lugual seems to involve two morphemes, /lu/ 'come', which can be used alone to express possibility and is used in the

compound /ctcaq-lu/ 'think of, want', and a second morpheme /ĸua/, though the meaning of this second morpheme is not clear. Following is an example of /lu/ used alone:

(4.170) pəs məpa wa, təp-n,i tsə-s today cold very tomorrow-ADV this-COMP tça-məpa: lu. CON-cold:PRS will
'Today is very cold, tomorrow is going to be even colder than this.'

A post-nominal or post-clausal adverb, /luo/, can also be used to express possibility:

(4.171) 2ũ ha-ĸ-ŋi a-ş i-tsi-kə, zə-ĸa
2sg DIR-go-ADV one-time DIR-look-go field-LOC wətshi poquş-luo zi κu.
bird livestock-perhaps exist allow
'You go out and take a look, perhaps there are livestock or birds in the field.'

The form /-wa/ (distinct from the alternate form of /ŋua/) can be used as a reaffirmation question particle (e.g., 'Do you really want to go?').

(4.172)	2 <b>ũ</b>	zdzyta:	ka:-wa?
	2sg	Chengdu:LOC	go:PRS-Q
	'Are	you really going to	• Chengdu?'

Polarity ('yes-no') questions can be formed by repeating the entire verb complex, with the first token in the positive and the second token in the negative (sometimes called 'A-not-A' or 'verb-not-verb' questions), and the question particle on both tokens, as in (4.166) and the following examples:

(4.173) a. 2*ũ zdzyta:* fia-qə-n-a fia-mə-qa-n-a? 2sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-2sg-Q DIR-NEG-go-2sg-Q 'Did you go to Chengdu?'

b.	the:	zdzyta:	ĥa-qә-ŋua	ha-mə-qa-ŋua?	
	3sg	Chengdu:LOC	DIR-go-Q	DIR-NEG-go-Q	
'Did he go to Chengdu?'					

There is sometimes a difference in meaning between a polarity question with prospective aspect marking in the first clause and one without prospective aspect marking in the first clause. Compare the following two examples:

(4.174)	U	<i>jan</i> cigarette ou smoke?'	<i>tşhe-n-a</i> smoke-2sg-Q	<i>me-tşhe-n-a?</i> NEG-smoke-2sg-Q
(4.175)	2sg	<i>jan</i> cigarette you smoke?	•	<i>me-tşhe-n-a?</i> NEG-smoke-2sg-Q

The first example does not have prospective aspect marking on the verb of the first clause, and so expresses the question of whether or not the addressee smokes as a habit; the second example has prospective aspect making on the verb in the first clause, and so is asking if the addressee intends or wants to smoke now.

Question particles are used even if interrogative pronouns are used in the clause. Interrogative pronouns can appear in initial position, second position, or immediately preverbal position, depending on the overall context (e.g. the difference between (4.176) and (4.177) is whether the table is topical (4.176) or not (4.177)), and can take the same case markers as lexical nouns and other pronouns (see §3.1.2).

(4.176)	<i>tşuatsə-le:</i> table-DEF:CL 'Who bough		<i>zə-p-wa?</i> DIR-buy-Q
(4.177)	<i>sə-wu</i> who-AGT 'Who bough'	<i>tşuatsə-le:</i> table-DEF:CL t the table?'	-

(4.178)	a.	pi:-tsa-la	sə-wu	2ũ-(t¢)	de-l-ŋua?
		pen-this:one-CL	who-AGT	2sg-GEN	DIR-give-Q
		'Who gave you the	his pen?'		

b.  $2\tilde{u}$ -tc pi:-tsa-la sə-wu de-l-ŋua? 2sg-GEN pen-this:one-CL who-AGT DIR-give-Q 'Who was it that gave you this pen?'

Just about any type of argument can be questioned using interrogative pronouns. Examples (4.176)-(4.178) are examples of interrogative pronouns representing actor arguments; following are examples of interrogative pronouns representing benefactive (4.179), recipient (4.180), genitive (4.181), and adverbial (4.182) arguments:

- (4.179) *tşhuatsə-le: sə-tç zə-pa:-n-a?* table-DEF:CL who-GEN DIR-buy:PRS-2sg-Q 'For whom are you going to buy the table?'
- (4.180) tşhuatsə-le: sə-ta tə-χua:-n-a?
   table-DEF:CL who-LOC DIR-sell:PRS-2sg-Q
   'To whom are you going to sell the table?'
- (4.181) sə-tc-tşhetsə-le: fia-χ-ŋua?
   who-GEN-car-DEF:CL DIR-bad/broken-Q
   'Whose car has broken down?'
- (4.182) *tşhetsə-le: n,i-ke: tə-bələ-n-a?* car-DEF:CL WH-INDEF:CL DIR-do-2sg-Q 'What did you do to the car?'

The order of words in the question is generally reflected in the answer, e.g. if the interrogative pronoun is in initial position, then the answer also appears in initial position. The answer to a question involving an interrogative pronoun can be a whole clause, or may simply be the noun phrase representing the information completing the open proposition (i.e. the question), with or without case marking. Compare the three different responses given below to the following question:

(4.183)	Question: <i>pi:-tsa-la sə-wu ?ũ de-l-ŋua?</i> pen-this:one-CL who-AGT 2sg DIR-give-Q 'Who gave you this pen?'						
	Answer: a. <i>khumtsi-wu de-l.</i> khumtsi-AGT DIR-give 'Khumtsi gaye it (to me).'						
	<ul> <li>'Khumtsi gave it (to me).'</li> <li>b. <i>khumtsi-wu</i>. khumtsi-AGT</li> <li>'Khumtsi (did)'</li> <li>c. <i>khumtsi</i>. 'Khumtsi (did).'</li> </ul>						

Echo questions take the same form as regular questions, though it is possible to use /-ja/ at the end of yes-no echo questions. More than one element of the clause can be subject to echo-questioning.

Leading questions can be asked using either the form /-ja/ or /-nd/. Following are two sets of question and answer (both positive and negative answers; no person marking appears in the confirmatory questions, and it is optional in the answers):

```
(4.184) Question:
         2ĩ
               kə
                     ctcaq-mo-lu-ja?
        2sg
               go
                     heart-NEG-come-Q
        'Don't you want to go?'
        Answers:
        a. ŋuə, (qa)
                         kə
                               ctcaq-mo-lu.
            COP (1sg) go
                               heart-NEG-come
            'No, I don't want to go'. (lit.: 'Yes, I don't want to go.')
        b. 2õhõ,85
                      (qa)
                             kə
                                   ctcaq-lu.
            NEG
                                   heart-come
                      1sg
                             go
            'Yes, I want to go.' (lit.: 'No, I want to go.')
```

(4.185) Question: 2ũ stuaha sə-tç-jy-na? 2sg food/rice DIR-eat-ASP-Q 'Have you already eaten?' Answers: a. 2õ, (sə-tçya). Yes, (DIR-eat:ASP:1sg)

'Yes, I have.'

- b. ?õhõ, (sə-mə-tçi-tçha).
  NEG, (DIR-NEG-CON-eat:1sg)
  'No, I haven't eaten yet. '
- c. *sə-tçya / sə-mə-tçi-tçha* DIR-eat:ASP:1sg / DIR-NEG-CON-eat:1sg 'I have eaten' / 'I have not yet eaten'

There are no tag-question constructions in Qiang except for guesses marked by /luʁuɑ/ (see above); the unmarked question form is used instead:

(4.186)	?ũ-t¢	çi	a-zə	ĥo-jy-la-ŋua?
	2sg-GEN	wine	one-CL	DIR-pour-INDTV:1sg-Q
	'Will you	let me p	oour you a	a little wine?'

*4.3.6. Mood* 4.3.6.1. Optative

The desire to do an action is expressed by the addition of the auxiliary verbs /ctcaq-lu/ 'think of,want' ('heart' + 'desire' (< 'come') (/lu/ can also be used alone), /kantchi/ 'think/want', or /zulu/ 'wait' after the main verb, which is not overtly nominalized. First, second, and third person actors can all appear in this construction. First person marking on /ctcaq-lu/ is optional, but /zulu/ inflects normally: [zulua, zulun, zulu]. The person marking reflects the actor of the matrix clause, i.e. the actor of /ctcaq-lu/ or /zulu/, not of the subordinate clause. There is no person

marking of the subordinate (inner) verb, as only one verb in a sentence can take person marking (see §4.3.2), and that is the last (the matrix [outer]) verb, though aspect can be marked on the subordinate (inner) verb in these constructions. The construction with /zulu/ often has the verb before /zulu/ marked with prospective aspect.

- (4.188) *the: tcəu kə ctcaq-lu.* 3sg home go heart-come 'S/he wants to go home.'
- (4.189) a. qa tcəu kə ctcaq-lu-a. 1sg home go heart-come-1sg 'I want to go home.'
  - b. 2ũ tcəu kə ctcaq-lu-n. 2sg home go heart-come-2sg 'You want to go home.'
- (4.190) *khuə-le: qa-wu pa: lu.* dog-DEF:CL 1sg-AGT buy:PRS will 'I am going to buy the dog.' ('The dog will be bought by me.')

(4.191)	a.	qa 1sg 'I hope	$\mathcal{O}$	<i>i-pə-la:</i> DIR-arrive-come:PRS oing to return.'	<i>zulu-a.</i> wait-1sg
	b.	2sg	U	<i>i-pə-la:</i> DIR-arrive-come:PRS is going to return.'	<i>zulu-n.</i> wait-2sg
	c.	3sg	U	<i>i-pə-la:</i> DIR-arrive-come:PRS b is going to return.'	<i>zulų.</i> wait

Another method for expressing the optative mood is to nominalize the verb with the instrumental nominalizer /-s/ and add / $\eta$ uə-n<sub>i</sub>/ (copula + ADV), or /ma- $\eta$ uə-t<sub>c</sub>i/ ('not' + copula + ADV). The form / $\eta$ uə-n<sub>i</sub>/ is used for positive clauses, and either /ma- $\eta$ uə-n<sub>i</sub>/ or /ma- $\eta$ uə-t<sub>c</sub>i/ is used

for negatives. No aspect or person contrasts are marked in sentences with /ma- $\eta$ uə-tci/ or / $\eta$ uə- $\eta$ i/.<sup>86</sup>

- (4.192) təp-n,i me: ce-s ma-ŋuə-tci. tomorrow-ADV rain release-NOM NEG-COP- ADV 'I hope it won't rain tomorrow.'
- (4.193) a. qa tşhetsə-le: fia-χ-əs ma-ŋuə-tçi.
   1sg car-DEF:CL DIR-bad/broken-NOM NEG-COP- ADV
   'I hope my car hasn't broken down.'
  - b. *the: tshetsə-le: fia-x-əs ŋuə-n.i*. 3sg car-DEF:CL DIR-bad/broken-NOM COP-ADV 'I hope his/her car has broken down.'
- (4.194) a. *təp-n,i tianjin ce-s ŋuə-n,i*. tomorrow-ADV movie release-NOM COP-ADV 'I hope a movie is showing tomorrow.'
  - b. *təp-n,i tianjin ce-s ma-ŋuə-tci.* tomorrow-ADV movie release-NOM NEG-COP-PART 'I hope no movie is showing tomorrow.'

In some cases the second person directive particle /-su/ can be used as a strong expression of desire for the addressee to perform a particular action.

- (4.195) a.  $2\tilde{u}$  tco-lu-n-şu. 2sg NEG.IMP-come-2sg-DTV 'I hope you won't come.'
  - b. 2ũ t¢a-kə-n-şu. 2sg NEG.IMP-go-2sg-DTV 'I hope you won't leave.'
- (4.196) *təp-n,i xtşu-tian-ва i-pə-l-ən-şu.* tomorrow-ADV six-o'clock-LOC DIR-arrive-come-2sg-DTV 'I hope you will come tomorrow at six o'clock.'

### 4.3.6.2. Intentional

To express the intention to carry out a particular action, the prospective aspect form of the verb can be used alone, or a nominalized verb form followed by / $\eta$ uə- $\eta$ i/ can be used. The construction with nominalized verb plus / $\eta$ uə- $\eta$ i/ was introduced above as a way of expressing the optative mood, and it has this use, but its main meaning is one of obligation (cf. English *I must have that piece of cake!*). It can also be used in some contexts to express intention. Between these two forms, the use of the prospective aspect marking has a stronger sense of intention than the use of / $\eta$ uə- $\eta$ i/.

(4.197)	qa	fa	çupu-a-thau	ра:.	(< pə)
	1sg	clothes	red-one-CL	buy:PRS:1sg	
	'I an	n going to	buy a set of red	d clothes.'	

- (4.198) a. qa zme-z na-ji su-a:. 1sg Qiang-language well-ADV learn-PRS:1sg 'I am going to learn Qiang well.'
  - b. *the: z me-z na-ji su-a:-i.* 3sg Qiang-language well-ADV learn-PRS-HS 'I heard s/he is going to learn Qiang well.'
- (4.199) a. qa su-q-ta ha-sa:. 1sg mountain-peak(head)-LOC DIR-go:PRS:1sg 'I am going to go up to the mountain top.'
  - b. *qa &u-q-ta ha-wə-s ŋuə-n.i*. 1sg mountain-peak(head)-LOC DIR-go-NOM COP-ADV 'I am going to go up to the mountain top.'

The construction involving /ctcaq-lu/ 'think of, want', also introduced as a way of expressing optatives, can be used to express intention as well.<sup>87</sup>

(4.200)	qa	tçisua-le:	xłie	ctcaq-lu.
	1sg	house-DEF:CL	build	heart-come
	'I want (plan) to build the house.'			

### 4.3.6.3. Debitive (Obligation)

The construction used to express obligation to perform an action involves a nominalized verb followed by the copula / $\eta_{u}$ ,<sup>88</sup> and this is followed optionally by / $g\alpha$ / in the first person, / $g\alpha$ / in the second person, or / $\eta_{u}$ , in the third person. These forms are the non-actor person marking suffixes (see §4.3.2). (The form / $\eta_{u}$ , is an alternate form of the third person non-actor marker / $w_{\theta}$ /, which by assimilation to / $\eta_{u}$ , becomes / $\eta_{u}$ ,) 'Must' and 'ought to' use the same construction. No formal distinction is made between moral and physical obligation. No distinction of degrees of obligation is marked. Epistemic and root modality are expressed using the same structures. Person marking on the verb is optional in this construction, but if it appears it is the nonactor marking that is used.

(4.201)	•	g ł	<i>çəu-la</i> nome-LOC 1st come hor			ŋuə-ŋųş. COP-3sgU	(< wə)
(4.202)	a. b. c.	1sg ?ũ 2sg the: 3sg	<i>z me-z</i> Qiang-lang <i>z me-z</i>	guage	well-AD' na-ji well-AD' na-ji well-AD'	V learn-NOM <i>su-s</i> V learn-NOM	COP-1sgU ŋuə-san. COP-2sgU ŋuə-ŋyə.
(4.203)	a.	qa 1sg	<i>stuaha</i> food/rice	bə. ma	<i>lə-s</i> ake-NOM	ŋuə-ji-(şa) COP-CSM	).

')	а.	$q^{\alpha}$	stuana	0010 3	ijuo ji (gu).
		1sg	food/rice	make-NOM	COP-CSM
	b.	2ũ	stuaha	bələ-s	ŋuə-ji-san.
		2sg	food/rice	make-NOM	COP-CSM-2sgU

c.	the:	stuaha	bələ-s	ŋuə-ji-ŋuş.
	3sg	food/rice	make-NOM	COP-CSM-3sgU
	'I / yo	u / s/he mus	t make the meal	.' (prepare to begin)

The construction with nominalized verb plus /ŋuə-ŋ,i/, discussed above as having a sense of intention similar to the use of the prospective aspect marking, is also a way of expressing a kind of obligation or necessity. Contrast the following two examples, where the prospective aspect marking or nominalized verb plus /ŋuə-ŋ,i/ can be used in the same context, but the latter has more of a sense of necessity.

(4.204)	a.	1sg		<i>ka:.</i> go:PRS to the bat	U	(intention)
	b.	1sg	toilet	<i>kə-s</i> go-NOM he bathro	COP-ADV	(necessity)

An interesting feature of this construction is that if there is only one human referent referred to in the clause, as in the examples above, then the person marking on the verb reflects the person and number of that referent, but if there are two human referents referred to in the clause, then the person marking reflects the non-actor argument. The initial noun phrase of this construction is the topic of an identificational structure, and so normally we would expect argreement with that argument, particularly as the other referent mentioned is mentioned within a nominalized clause, but instead we get agreement with the embedded argument. This is a clear example of how use of the nonactor person marking is not limited to specific semantic or grammatical roles. Following are examples where two human referents are referred to:

(4.205)	a.	the:	2 <b>ũ-(t</b> a)	sua-s	ŋuə-san.
		3sg	2sg-DAT	help-NOM	COP-2sgU
		'S/he should help you.'			

- b. *tcile the: виа-s ŋuә-ŋuә.* 1pl 3sg help-NOM COP-3sg 'We ought to help him/her.'
- c. *tçile tçy:mi-le:-xua-n,i z,botçu-s ŋuə-(ŋuə).* 1pl child-DEF:CL-BEN-ADV consider-NOM COP-3sg 'We must consider the interests of the child.'

In two of the traditional stories that were recorded, the nominalization part of this structure appears in a non-final clause without the copula, but the sense of obligation or determination is the same. In (4.206), from "The Creation of the World", the structure appears twice, in the first line with the copula, followed by / $\chi$ ua-n,i/ 'because', and in line four, as simply a nominalization, but with the sense '(they) should (become a family)'. In (4.207), from "The Story of a Lazy Man" three nominalized clauses are subordinated to one copula.

(4.206)	steke-ta mi <b>pe'z ə-</b> s	s ŋuə-χ	<b>ua-ŋ,i,</b>
	after-LOC people raise(c	hild)-NOM COP-b	ecause-ADV
2	nutçuku dzuarl e-xş	e ĥei-bi-ŋ,i,	
	each stone.mill one-	CL DIR-carry.on.b	back-ADV
3	ки-q-ta-wu	ho-ylu, dzuarl	jə-xşe
	mountain-head-LOC-ABL	DIR-roll stone.n	nill two-CL
4	e-tşetup-tu, n <sub>s</sub> izzi oq	pi <b>pə-s,</b>	
	DIR-bump-LNK 3dl on	e.family become-	NOM
5	dzuaul jə-xşe ho-	ylu-s-ta,	
	stone.mill two-CL DIR	-roll-NOM-LOC	
6	qhuat e-tşetup-wei,	ha-tsəi-n_ik	ке,
	as.it.happens DIR-bump.into	-INF:HS INT-this.ma	anner-after
7	mə n <sub>v</sub> a ylu	lə-zi	oqpi
	older.brother COM young	er.sister DEF-CL	one.family
8	ĥo-pə-i.		(T1:4-11)
	DIR-become-HS		
	'Later, in order to propagat	e descendants, (the	e brother and

'Later, in order to propagate descendants, (the brother and sister decided that) each would carry a stone mill on his or her back and roll it down from the mountain peak. If the two stone mills joined together, the two should get married. As it happened, when the two stone mills rolled down (to the river bank) they joined together, and so the brother and sister married (became a family).'

z mətşi-le:-tç	tsi-le:-ŋuəŋ i	
emperor-DEF:CL-GEN	daughter-DEF:CL-TOP	)
χuan-tchianme¹-ta <b>γ</b>	<i>zə−s</i> ,	
Huang-Qianmen-DAT m	arry-NOM	
χuan-t¢hianme¹-ŋuən,i	z mətşi <b>dzu-s,</b>	
Huang-Qianmen-TOP	emperor sit-NOM	
z mətşi-le: tsi-le:-r	juən i ha-tha	
emperor-DEF:CL daughte	er-DEF:CL-TOP INT-the	re
de-l-əs, ha-kə	<b>ŋuə</b> -ku-tu,	(T5:308-314)
DIR-give-NOM INT-thus	COP-INF:HS-LNK	
'(Because the emperor h	ad said he would mar	ry his daughter
to whoever found the pa	arrot,) the emperor ha	d to marry his
daughter to Huang Qianr	nen, and Huang Qiann	nen became the
emperor, (he had to) give	e (him) the daughter.'	
	emperor-DEF:CL-GEN $\chi uan-tchianme^{s}-ta$ $\gamma the second state is the second state i$	emperor-DEF:CL-GENdaughter-DEF:CL-TOF $\chi uan-tchianme^{-t}-ta$ $yz \rightarrow s$ ,Huang-Qianmen-DATmarry-NOM $\chi uan-tchianme^{-t}-\eta u = \eta i$ $\chi m = tsi$ $dzu-s$ ,Huang-Qianmen-TOPemperorsit-NOM $\chi m = tsi - le:$ $tsi - le:$ $m = tsi - le:$ $tsi - le:$ $m = tsi - le:$ $tsi - tbi -$

In the following example from the story "An Orphan", the sense of the nominalization construction is of obligation in terms of the best thing to do in that situation. We can see in the fourth line of this example that even the copula can be nominalized and subordinated to the copula.

(4.208)	the-maha-ŋuən,i (tçiu) şəşe:'wu n,iantçi					
	that-night-TOP †(INT) exist:REDUP:all together					
2	ganphai-tu-pų-kəi-stu, χa-le:-ŋuəŋ,i tca-lə					
	arrange-DIR-do-INF:HS-PART needle-DEF:CL-TOP where-LOC					
3	je-s ŋuə, tça-lə tça-lə nə-s					
	live/stay-NOM COP where-LOC where-LOC sleep-NOM					
4	ŋuə, tça-lə tça-lə n_iyi ŋuə-s ŋuə,					
	COP where-LOC where-LOC what COP-NOM COP					
5	ha-tsəi ganphai-tu-pu-kəi-tçu. (T3:101-106)					
	INT-this:manner arrange-DIR-do-INF:HS-PART					
	'That night everybody made a plan together, where the needle					
	should stay, where (each of them) should sleep and what not					
	and it was all settled.'					

Another form of this construction is where the continuative aspect prefix appears on the copula, i.e.  $[tca-\eta u a]$  (CON + COP). The combination  $[tca-\eta u a]$  can also take the negative prefix. (Without the continuative aspect prefix, the form would express an action that had been agreed upon or set beforehand.)

(4.209)	a.	İsg	<i>kə-s</i> go-NOM l) must go.	CON-COP	
	b.	1sg		<i>ma-tçә-ŋuә.</i> NEG-CON-COP 't go.'	
(4.210)	a.	3sg	<i>ləyz</i> book 1) must stu	read/study-NOM	tça-ŋuə. CON-COP
	b.	3sg		<i>zdə-s</i> read/study-NOM ed to study.'	<i>ma-t¢ә-ŋuә.</i> NEG-CON-COP

Obligation can also be expressed using the auxiliary verb / $\kappa$ ze/ 'ought to'. If this auxiliary verb is negated ('must not') and/or takes the continuative aspect prefix [tci ~ tca ~ tce ~ tco], the negative or other prefix appears between the main verb and the auxiliary (i.e. is prefixed to the auxiliary verb).

(4.211)	a.	food/rice	<i>tçhə-вze-ji.</i> eat-must-CSM ne) ought to eat!' (i.e., 'Time to eat!')		
	b.	<i>stuaha</i> food/rice	<i>tchə-ma-tci-ʁze.</i> eat-NEG-CON-must		

'(We/You/One) ought not to eat yet!'

4.3.6.4. Potential

The potential to perform an action is expressed by the use of auxiliary verbs, with the choice of auxiliary verb depending on the type of potentiality. Person marking is added to the auxiliary verb. Following are examples of each type:

 $/\chi z_{,}$  of learned ability:

(4.212)	a.	3sg	<i>the: z me-z</i> 3sg Qiang-language S/he can speak Qiang.' 2 <i>ũ z me-z</i> 2sg Qiang-language You can speak Qiang.'		<i>dze үz ә.</i> speak can		
	b.	2sg			<i>dze</i> speak	-	
	c.	<i>qa</i> 1sg 'I can sp	Qiang	-language	<i>dze</i> speak		(< ४ूट् २)
/dzə/ or /qe/ for natural (physical) ability:89							
(4.213)	a.	a. <i>mi la ma-l</i> , <i>wə la dz ə</i> . (< mə + dz person fly NEG-able bird fly able 'People cannot fly, but birds can.'					mə + dzə)
	b.	misaq-wu qa quaha tə- $n_i\chi$ - $\chi$ dzə. sun-AGT 1sg face DIR-black-CAUS able 'The sun can make my face become black.'					
	c.	qa u- 1sg Di		<i>ma-la.</i> NEG-able:	1sg	(< mə	+ dzə + a)

(4.214) *the: zawa-le: tə-tsi qe-ŋua?* (dzə also possible here) 3sg rock-DEF:CL DIR-lift able-Q 'Can s/he lift the rock?'

'I can't see.'

Comparing (4.215) and (4.216), below, we can see that while the forms  $/\gamma z \vartheta$  and  $/dz \vartheta$  are phonetically similar, the meanings are somewhat different and  $/\gamma z \vartheta$  does not undergo phonetic reduction when it is prefixed.

- (4.215) *tsici sei ma-yz ə.* infant walk NEG-can 'An infant cannot walk.' (not yet learned)
- (4.216) *the:-dzoqu-le: dak-wu, pitc sei ma-l-jy.* (< dzə) 3sg-foot-DEF:CL break-INST now walk NEG-able-ASP 'His/her foot is broken so he/she cannot walk now.'

/gu/ for ability to fit into something else:

(4.217) *tşuəwa-le-tsi sə-le gu-ŋua*? shoe-DEF-CL DIR-pack able.to-Q 'Can this pair of shoes fit in?'

/su/ or /se/ for the sense of 'willing' or '(be) allowed':

- (4.218) a. *сосаи-ва zme-z dze-z ви.* school-LOC Qiang-language speak-CAUS allow 'Speaking Qiang is allowed in the school.'
  - b. *cocau-ва zme-z dze-z fie-se.* school-LOC Qiang-language speak-CAUS DIR-allow 'Speaking Qiang is allowed in school.'

/je/ 'good to eat' (an adjective) for the sense of 'possible':

(4.219) *tsa ze-s me-je.* here write-NOM NEG-possible '(You) can't write here.'

A construction involving the exclusion particle on the main verb and the expression /me-tchi/ 'not want' following the main verb can also be used to express the ability (either physical or learned) or permission to do something.

- (4.220) a. *cocau-вa zme-z dze-ji me-tchi*. school-LOC Qiang-language speak-EXC NEG-want 'It is all right to speak Qiang in school.'
  - b. tsə tu-xsu-ji-wa, tçile quaha xuəla-jə water DIR-boil-CSM-RCA 1pl face wash-EXC *me-tçhi-ji*.
    NEG-want-CSM 'The water's boiled, so we can wash our faces.'

# 4.3.7. Evidentials, degree of certainty/authority

The evidential system in Qiang basically has three terms, visual (§4.3.7.1), inferred/mirative (§4.3.7.2), and reported marking (§4.3.7.3) (this is the B1 type of system discussed in Aikhenvald 2003), but it does not necessarily involve marking of the evidential category on all clauses, and there are complications related to verb types and combinations of forms. The inferential can appear together with the hearsay or visual marker, therefore it may be seen as two systems rather than three paradigmatically related items in one system. The actor person marking, when used without the inferential/mirative marker, also is involved in expressing an evidential meaning, in that it implies direct observation, and cannot be used with the hearsay marker.

In general, an unmarked clause is assumed to represent knowledge that the speaker is sure of, most probably, but not necessarily, from having seen the situation or event first-hand, and so, for witnessed events, there is no obligatory marking of the events as witnessed. If the speaker wants to emphasize that he or she saw the event or that the statement represents incontrovertible common knowledge, then it is possible to use an overt marker,  $[-u \sim -wu]$ , as in (4.221a) below. This marker is actually rarely used, and difficult to elicit from linguistically naive speakers. It is generally only used when the actor(s) of the clause is animate, and it is necessary to emphasize that the speaker actually saw the other person(s) carry out the action. This form is used together

with the actor person marking suffixes, but use of the person marking suffixes alone can also imply visual observation, as in (4.221b).

(4.221) a. the: zdzyta: fia-qə-(w)u.
3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-VIS
'He went to Chengdu.' (used in a situation where the speaker saw the person leave and that person has not yet returned)

b. 2ũ tcexun tu-pu-ji-n. 2sg marry DIR-do-ASP-2sg 'You got married.' (I saw you get married)

If the speaker is not completely sure of the information being presented in the utterance, which generally means s/he did not witness it, then it is necessary to use one of two non-visual markers. In reporting second-hand or third-hand knowledge of some situation or event the speaker is unsure of, the hearsay marking suffix /-i/ is used after the verb. Only one token of the hearsay marker is used in a clause; it cannot be repeated to show the number of sources between the speaker and the event, as in Tsafiki (Dickinson 2000:408).

Statements that represent "just discovered" information (mirative) or information based on inference derived from some physical or other non-visual evidence take the suffix /-k/ after the change of state marker, if there is one, but before the prospective aspect and person marking (if there is any—3sg animate and inanimates are unmarked), a different position in the verb complex from the narrative evidential marking. This marker in some contexts, and particularly in combination with the hearsay marker, can be used to mark simple uncertainty (not necessarily inference).

## 4.3.7.1. Direct evidential

The unmarked verb form can be used for visual evidence, and for generally known facts and for observations that lead to a strong conclusion, such as if you say 'He is a strong man' when you see him do something that makes that obvious. In this latter case, use of the inferential marker would be optional, and would imply less certainty.

The visual evidential marker can be used for past events (as in exx. (4.221a-b)) or ongoing events, but not future events. When it is used, the visual marker is used together with the actor person marking. In most cases the person marking reflects the person and number of the actor of the clause, the usual situation with the person marking, as in (4.222a), but in the case of a 3sg actor, which would normally have zero person marking, it is possible to add 1sg person marking in order to particularly emphasize that the speaker saw the person do the action, as in (4.222b) (the resulting form, [wa], is to be distinguished from the clause-final emphatic particle /wa/, which appears in (4.222a)).

(4.222)	a.	themle	jimi	de-se-ji-wu-tçi-wa.	
		3pl	fertilizer	DIR-spread-CSM-VIS-3pl-EMPH	
		'They spread the fertilizer.' (I saw them do it.)			

b.	the:	jimi	de-se-ji-w-a.
	3sg	fertilizer	DIR-spread-CSM-VIS-1sg
	'She spr	ead the fertiliz	er.' (I saw her spread it.)

This same form is also used when the actor is 1sg, but then the meaning is one of unintentional action, as in (4.223).

(4.223) qa the:-ta de-we-z-u-a. 1sg 3sg-LOC DIR-hit-CAUS-VIS-1sg 'I hit him (accidentally).' (The context for this was the speaker having hit the person while leaning back and stretching his arms back without looking behind him.)

The visual marker  $[-u \sim -wu]$  is only used for visual sensory information, not other types of sensory information. If you hear some noise, such as the sound of drums in the next room, and you want to say 'Someone is playing drums next door', you would use the inferential marker, as in (4.224). Even if you feel something in your hand but cannot see it, the inferential marker, not the visual marker, would be used.

(4.224) mi zbə zete-k! person drum beat-INF
'Someone is playing drums.' (It seems to me from hearing a noise that sounds like drums.)

## 4.3.7.2. Inferential/mirative marking

The suffix /-k/ has both an inferential sense and a mirative sense. The inferential sense is primary when the action involved is an activity, as in (4.224) and (4.225a). The inference may be based on evidence obtained visually or by some other sense. If what is reported is a state or the resulting state of some action, as in (4.225b-c), then the meaning is mirativity ('just discovered').<sup>90</sup>

- (4.225) a. the: zdzyta: fia-qə-k.
  3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-INF
  'He went to Chengdu.' (Used in a situation where the speaker knew the person was supposed to go to Chengdu, but wasn't sure when, and then saw the person's luggage gone, so assumed he had left for Chengdu. /-k/ could not be used if the speaker saw the person leave.)
  - b. the: ctcimi zdzi-k!
    3sg heart sick-INF
    'He's unhappy!' (just discovered; relatively sure, not guess)
  - c. dzy de-zge-ji-k! door DIR-open-CSM-INF
    'The door is open!' (just discovered; see that the door was opened, but don't know who opened it)

If the speaker needs to express an inferential sense in talking about a state or perfective situation, then the speaker would use the adverbial phrase / $\chi$ su-n,i/ 'seems' or the construction with [-tan] or [-lahan] for marking possibility (both discussed in §4.3.7.4 below), not the inferential marker. For example, if the speaker feels wind on her back and makes the assumption that the door is open, she could say (4.226).

(4.226) dzy  $z_ge-m-tan$   $\eta u \partial$ . door open-NOM-appearance COP 'It appears the door is open.'/ 'Apparently the door is open.'

Generally the inference marker is used for single instances of an event, such as if someone was supposed to quit smoking, but then the speaker sees cigarette butts in an ashtray, the speaker could use the inference marker to comment that (it seems) the person had smoked. If it was discussed as a habitual action, then again generally the construction with [tan] or [lahan] would be used.

(4.227)	a.	the: jan	tşhe-m-tan	пиә.
		3sg cigarettes	smoke-NOM-appearance	COP
		'S/he might smok	te (It seems s/he smokes).'	
		(lit.: 'S/he is s sm	oker's appearance.')	
	b.	the: jan	tşhe-m-la-han	ŋuə.
		3sg cigarettes	smoke-NOM-DEF:one-kind	COP
		'S/he might smok	te (might be a smoker).'	
		(lit.: 'S/he is a sm	oking kind of person.)	

The inferential/mirative marker is also used together with the person marking, with the person marking always reflecting the person and number of the actor, as in (4.228a-b), but with first person actors the interpretation is not only that the action was just discovered, but also that it was unintentional or originally unknown, as in (4.228c-d)

(4.228) a. panə-le: fia-χ-k-ən. thing-DEF:CL DIR-broken-INF-2sg
'You broke the thing.' (inference from seeing the broken pieces in the person's hands)

b.	themle	stuaha	sə-tçhə-ji-k-tçi.
	3pl	food/rice	DIR-eat-CSM-INF-3pl
	'They have	already eaten.'	(inference from seeing used
	dishes)		

- c. qa dzigų tçy-k-a-n,i!
  1sg money bring-INF-1sg-ADV
  'I have money!' (Used when the speaker originally thought she didn't have money, but then opened her wallet and found she did have money.)
- d. (qa) dzy fia-mə-sua-k-a!
  1sg door DIR-NEG-lock-INF-1sg
  'I didn't lock the door!' (Used in a situation where the speaker had thought he had locked the door.)

The suffix /-k/ can appear alone with a mirative sense (e.g. (4.225bc)), but often in these cases the particle /-n<sub>i</sub>/ or /-wa/ is added at the end of the clause, as in (4.228c). The particle /-n<sub>i</sub>/ is an adverbial marker used also to mark surprise and/or disbelief; /-wa/ is an emphatic marker. It's use with /-k/ gives the construction a stronger mirative sense. Examples (4.229a-b) show the use of the suffix /-k/ together with /-wa/ and /-n<sub>i</sub>/ respectively.

- (4.229) a. *me:*<sup>*i*</sup> *de-ci-k-wa!* rain DIR-release-INF-EMPH 'It's raining!' (just discovered; this clause could also mean 'it has rained', with the statement based on inference from having seen the ground wet)
  - b. *the: zdzyta: fia-qə-k-n,i!* 3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-INF-ADV 'He went to Chengdu!' (just discovered)

The suffix /-k/ is used with 1st, 2nd, or 3rd person actors, though with first and second person actors, /wa/ is not used to emphasize the sense of 'just discovered'; instead /-n,i/, /-\$/ or /n,iau/ is used for first person actors (of these three, the latter is stronger) and /-n,i/ is used for second person actors (/-n,i/ can be used for other persons, but if the clause has a second person actor, then /-n,i/ must be used). The combination [-k-wa] is stronger (more certain) than /-k/ alone, but weaker than [-k-n,i], which can have the sense that you can't believe your own inference, that it is totally unexpected. The auxiliary verb / $\varkappa$ u/ 'willing, allow' can also be added after /-k/ to weaken (make less certain) the force of the statement. Following are examples of first and second person actors ((4.230a-b) respectively).

- (4.230) a. qa da-m-k-a-s! (if plural, then  $[k-a^{-}s]$ ) 1sg DIR-forget-INF-1sg-EMPH 'I (just realized I) forgot!'
  - b.  $2\tilde{u}$  sə *i-tchi-k-ən-n,i*! (if plural, then [k-əi-n,i]) 2sg wood DIR-bring.in-INF-2sg-ADV

'(I see) you brought the wood in!' (just discovered)

The inferential marker, the visual marker, and the person marking can all be used together for ongoing or past events. This would be possible given a situation such as the following: after having guessed someone was playing drums next door the speaker went next door and saw the person standing there holding a drum or drumsticks. When commenting that 'He WAS playing drums', adding (/-k/ + /-u/ > [ku]) after the verb (see ex. (4.231a)) adds the sense of 'as I had guessed and now pretty-well confirm'. This interpretation holds when the clause has a 2nd person actor ([k-u-ən] 2sg, as in (4.231b), [k-u-i] 2pl) or 3rd person plural actor ([k-u-ətci]).

If upon opening the door in that situation the person was still playing drums, the speaker could say (4.231c). Adding the 1sg person marking where the actor is 3sg marks the clause as representing information obtained by direct visual observation. The forms with [-k-] and the visual and person marking contrast with forms without [-k-] in that with the latter do not imply a previous supposition.

(4.231) a. *oh*, *the:* z b = z ete-k-u!oh 3 sg drum beat-INF-VIS 'Oh, he WAS playing drums!'

> b. ?ũ zdzyta: fia-qə-k-u-ən. 2sg Chengdu DIR-go-INF-VIS-2sg 'You went to Chengdu.'

c.	oh,	the:	z bə	zete-k-u-a!
	oh	3sg	drum	beat-INF-VIS-1sg
	'Oh,	he IS p	laying a	drum!'

If the actor is 1st person, use of the inferential, visual and person marking together involves an implication not only that the action was done unintentionally and just discovered, as with use of the inferential and person marking alone, but also that the action was a mistake of some kind, as in (4.232) (if the actor was 1pl, then the suffixes would be  $[k-u-a^{-1}]$ ).

(4.232) qa apə-tcə-iantu-le: tsa tcy-k-u-a. 1sg grandfather-GEN-pipe-DEF:CL here bring-INF-VIS-1sg 'I mistakenly brought Grandfather's pipe here.'

Usually no marking of evidentials is necessary in retelling dreams, as long as the speaker remembers the dream clearly, but if not, then the speaker would use the adverbial phrase / $\chi$ su-n<sub>i</sub>/ 'seems' or the construction with [-tan] or [-lahan] for marking possibility (both discussed below), not the inferential or hearsay markers. When retelling some event witnessed on TV the unmarked form can also be used, but often the hearsay marker would be used (the visual marker cannot be used), as when retelling something heard on the radio. There is no special marking for information that is not to be taken literally, such as metaphors or sarcasm.

4.3.7.3. Hearsay marking

The hearsay marking suffix /-i/, derived from the verb [j = ~ji] 'to say', is used to mark hearsay of future or presently ongoing events (e.g. 'I heard he's leaving') or relatively recent past events, as in (4.233) (could be up to 40-50 years, but generally not ancient history, though there are exceptions).

(4.233) *the: zdzyta: fia-qə-i.* 3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go-HS 'He went to Chengdu.' (I heard) The hearsay marker is used only for hearsay, and not for simple uncertainty, when it is used alone. It can also appear in narratives recounting distant past events (e.g., ex. (4.234a), the first line in the traditional creation story (T1:1)), but generally in distant past narratives (story-telling) it is used together with the inferential marker, to show a greater degree of uncertainty, as in ex. (4.234b), the first line of another traditional story.<sup>91</sup> The hearsay marking is not used together with second person marking (e.g. (4.234c)). Unlike in Jarawara (Dixon 2003), the hearsay particle is not used in clauses with a 2nd person actor to remind the person of what they said.

- (4.234) a. qe:<sup>-I</sup>otşu-ĸa, mutu-la mujuqu zguə-zi we-i. before-LOC heaven-LOC sun nine-CL exist-HS '(It is said) in the past there were nine suns in the sky.'
  - b. qe:'-qe:'-tu fiala kapətş kou before-before-LNK INT orphan INDEF:one:CL  $\eta u \partial - k \partial i - t c u$ . (T3:1) COP-INF:HS-PART '(It is said) in the past there was an orphan.'
  - c. ?ũ tcexun tu-pu-ji-i-ŋ,i! 2sg marry DIR-do-ASP-HS-ADV '(I heard) you got married!'

Generally there is no difference between second-hand and third-hand reported information, but if the hearsay marker is used in a clause with 1sg marking on the verb, as in (4.235), the utterance must be interpreted as similar to a direct quote (even though the representation of the speaker quoted is 3rd person), with the assumption being that, for example in (4.235), that the referent mentioned in (4.235) himself told the speaker of (4.235) that he (the referent mentioned in (4.235)) is unhappy.<sup>92</sup> If instead the verb root is the third person form plus the hearsay marker (i.e. would be [zdzi-i] in (4.235)), then the implication is that someone else told the speaker the other person was unhappy.

(4.235)	the:	çtçimi	zdza-i.	(< zdzi-a-i)
	3sg	heart	sick:1sg-HS	
	'He's	unhappy.	' (he told me)	

#### 4.3.7.4. Evidential strategies

Two other types of marking might be considered evidential strategies rather than evidential marking. The adverbial particle / $\chi$ su- $\eta$ i/ can be added to the end of the clause, after the verb complex (and so does not take person marking), to show uncertainty about some information. This adverbial functions something like English 'seem', taking the whole clause in its scope. The (semantically) main clause may or may not take the hearsay evidential marker /-i/ (compare (4.236a) and (4.236b)).

(4.236)	a.	the:	zdzyta:	fia-qə-i	χsu-n_i.
		3sg	Chengdu:LOC	DIR-go-HS	seem-ADV
		'It seen	ns s/he went to C	Chengdu.' (gues	sing, unsure if true)
	b.	zdzyta	: le	χsu-n.i.	

Chengdu:LOC exist seem-ADV 'It seems (s/he) lives in Chengdu.'

For expressing contingent ('it is possible that', 'perhaps') situations, often a construction involving a clause nominalized by /-m/, plus [la-han ~ la-hən] (definite marker + 'one' + 'kind'), [ka-han ~ ka-hən] (indefinite marker + 'one' + 'kind'), or /tan/ ('appearance'), and the copula is used. This is structurally similar to the Japanese *yoo-da* and *soo-da* constructions (see Aoki 1986). Following are examples of a direct evidential ((4.237a)) and a construction using the nominalizer /-m/ plus /tan/ ((4.237b)).

(4.237)	a.			•	
		3sg	there	exist	
		'S/he	is there	e.'	
	b.	the:	tha-z	i-m-tan	று.
		3sg	there-	exist-NOM-appearance	COP
		'S/he	might	be there.'	
		(lit.: '	S/he is	the appearance of one w	who is there.')

An expression with [-m-tan] is more of a certainty than one with [ $\chi$ su-(n,i)] 'seems'. The former can also be used for non-past events.

To make a strong statement of certainty, or of information that was not recently discovered, but known for some time, then a clause nominalized by /-s/ and followed by the copula is used without /tan/ or /la-hən/ (this construction was also discussed in §4.3.6). This form cannot be used for past/perfective actions.

- (4.238) a. *pəs zmu tsu-s ŋuə.* today meeting hold-NOM COP 'There is a meeting today.' (set and known about beforehand)
  - b. *the: tha-zi-s ŋuə.* 3sg there-exist-NOM COP 'S/he is definitely there.'

## 4.3.7.5. Correlations with other grammatical categories

Use of evidential marking in a question is not obligatory, as long as no assumptions about the source of the addressee's information are made, but if it is used, in the case of the visual or hearsay marking it would imply the assumption that the hearer saw (visual, as in (4.239a)), or heard about (hearsay, as in (4.239b)), the action being questioned. It is the action that is questioned, not the source of the information.

(4.239)	a.	the:	ha <b>−qə−u</b>	пиа?
		3sg	DIR-go-VIS	Q
		'Did h	e go?'	
	b.	the:	fia-qə-i	<i>ŋua?</i>
		3sg	DIR-go-HS	Q
		'Did h	e go?'	

If the speaker of a question assumes the addressee of the question also does not have visual evidence of information about the situation being asked about (though knows more about the situation than the speaker), the inferential particle can be used in the question, as in (4.240):

(4.240) *the:* ha-qə-k ŋua? 3sg DIR-go-INF Q 'Did he go?'

The form used by the one responding to the question would then depend on the source of that person's information, visual, inference or hearsay.

If the speaker is asking the addressee about his or her own actions, then the inferential marker can still be used, but in this case would not represent a presupposition that the addressee is also not clear about the situation. Instead it would represent a guess about some aspect of the question, for example in (4.241), the guess that Chengdu is the place that the person went to. (The question marker used in this example also differs from the usual second person question marker /- $\alpha$ /, in that it represents more of a guess about the situation.)

(4.241)	2ũ	zdzyta:	ha-qə-k-ən	dza?
	2sg	Chengdu:LOC	DIR-go-INF-2sg	Q
	'Did you go down to Chengdu?'			

Other examples of the use of the inferential marker in questions are given in (4.242a-b). (Ex. (4.242b) is actually a rhetorical question, from a traditional story, "The Old Man of the Chen Family".)

(4.242)	a.	the:	zdzy	rta:	1	ha-qə-k	ja?	
		3sg	Che	ngdu:L0	OC I	DIR-go-INF	Q	
		'Did h	e go dov	vn to C	hengdu	?'		
	b.	?ũ 2sg '(Coul	COM	U		<i>we-k</i> - orm exist- are the same	INF-PRS:1p	-

The evidential markers can be used with causatives, just as with simplex clauses (see (4.223) and (4.243)).

(4.243) *the: fia-qə-z-i.* 3sg DIR-go-CAUS-HS 'He was made to go.' (I heard) It is possible to use the evidential markers in some embedded clauses, with the acceptability of the marker depending somewhat on the matrix verb (contrast (4.244a) and (4.244b)).

- (4.244) a. *the: pieye tu-pu-ji-(u) qa dz uku la.* 3sg graduate DIR-do-CSM-VIS 1sg knowledge exist:1sg 'I know he graduated.'
  - b. *the: pieye tu-pu-ji-i qa ə-ma.* 3sg graduate DIR-do-CSM-HS 1sg DIR-hear:1sg 'I heard he graduated.'

With direct quotes, as in (4.245), different evidential marking can appear on the matrix and quoted clauses, e.g. in (4.245) the inferential marker appears in the quote, and the narrative marker appears on the verb of saying (from a traditional narrative).

(4.245) "ta, qa ?ile ep ŋuə-k-a," ikə jə-kui.
INT 1sg 2pl father COP-INF-1sg thus say-INF:HS
'He said, "Then, I am your father." (based on inference from what they had just said; T6:254-255))

In other types of complex sentences, evidential marking can appear either on only the final clause, when the initial clause has a hypotactic relation to the second clause, or on both clauses:

- (4.246) a. the: zdzyta: fia-qa me-tchi, peitcin-la 3sg Chengdu:LOC DIR-go NEG-want Beijing-LOC da-tcə-qa-kəi.
  DIR-CON-go-INF:HS 'It seems he not only went to Chengdu, he also went to Beijing.' (I heard, not too sure)
  - b. *the: wu-q-ta* ha-qə-kəi-tu, 3sg mountain-top-LOC DIR-go-INF:HS-LNK

tçi-ke:tu-tsu-kəi.bear-INDEF:CLDIR-meet-INF:HS'When he went up on the mountain, he ran into a bear.' (Iheard but I'm not too sure).

c. the: dzoqu-le: da-g-k-(əi), pitc sei
3sg leg-DEF:CL DIR-break-INF-HS now walk
ma-l-jy-k-(əi).
NEG-able-ASP-INF-HS
'It seems he broke his leg and now can't walk.' (I heard but I'm not too sure.)

There is no marking of evidentials in relative clauses (4.247a), or conditional clauses (4.247b), or imperatives (4.248a), though the verb of saying can be added to an imperative to show that someone told the speaker to order the person to do something, as in a direct quote (4.248b).

(4.247)	a.	qa-wu-panə-de-le-mmi.1sg-AGT-thing-DIR-give-NOMperson'the person to whom I gave something'				
	b.	the: mo-lu-tu, $qa-q = i ka$ :. (< k $= +a$ : + a) 3sg NEG-come-LNK 1sg-self go:PRS:1sg 'If s/he doesn't come, I'm going to go myself.'				
(4.248)	a.	<ul> <li>?ũ ə-zuə-n.</li> <li>2sg DIR-sit-2sg</li> <li>'You sit!'</li> </ul>				
	b.	<ul> <li>?ũ ə-zuə-n ji.</li> <li>2sg DIR-sit-2sg say</li> <li>'You sit!' (someone else told me to say that)</li> </ul>				

If the visual evidential marker is used in the negative, such as to say 'He didn't come', or 'It didn't rain', there is a presupposition that the speaker has visual evidence of the person not coming, that is, the speaker was in the place all day, and so would have seen the person if he had come, or the speaker was outside all day, and so would have seen it had it rained. When the inferential or hearsay markers are used with a negative clause (e.g. [ma-tci-kə-k] [NEG-CON-go-INF] '(He) didn't go yet' [inferred from seeing his baggage still in the hallway]), the implication is that the negative proposition is an inference or hearsay, the same as with positive propositions. Unlike in Akha (Hansson 2003), the evidential particles cannot be negated to express the idea that the speaker doesn't know the reason for what is happening.

Generally actions performed by oneself do not need to be overtly marked with evidentials, but the visual evidential can be used with inadvertent actions, as mentioned above. In the case of one's mental or physical states, if one is not sure about some particular state, for example, whether one has caught a cold or not, usually the construction with [-tan] or [lahan] 'seems' would be used, e.g. 'It seems like I caught a cold', as in (4.249).

(4.249) qa tə-lian-tha-m-la-han ŋuə.
1sg DIR-catch.cold-AUX-NOM-DEF:one-kind COP
'I might have caught a cold.' (cf. English 'It's kind of like I caught a cold')

## 4.4. Adverbials

The adverbials to be discussed here are the elements that modify adjectives (intransitive state predicate verbs) and verbs, not the clause as a whole. We saw examples of locative and temporal adverbs which modify the whole clause in Sections 3.2.20 and 3.2.21, and examples of another type of adverb that takes the clause in its scope in Section 4.3.7.

## 4.4.1. Degree marking adverbs

There is some difference between the adverbs that adjectives and other verbs can take. Most adjectives, when they act as predicates, can take the postverbal adverb /-wa/ 'very' (e.g. /nɑ-wa/ (good + very) 'very good'), whereas verbs, except for /topu/ 'like', cannot take this adverb. Some adjectives also cannot take this adverb, but there does not seem to

be a semantic reason for this, as the adjectives that can take /-wa/ and those that cannot are often in the same semantic field, e.g. /phi-wa/ 'very white', but not \*/n,iq-wa/ 'very black'. For the adjectives that cannot take /-wa/, the preverbal adverb [ken ~ kən] 'very' (possibly a loan of Chinese  $g\bar{e}ng$ ) can be used. Following are some other examples of these two adverbs:

(4.250)	a.	<i>basta-wa</i> slow/late-very 'very slow/late'	b.	<i>ba-wa</i> big-very 'very big'
	c.	<i>kən niq</i> very black 'very black'	d.	kən sta very wide 'very wide'

Some adjectives can only take /-wa/, while some can only take /kən/, though some other adjectives can take either of the two adverbs, e.g. /cupu-wa/ ~ /kən cupu/ 'very red'. Some loan words can also take /-wa/, even when the loan word is followed by the auxiliary loan word particle (see \$3.1.1). In this case /-wa/ follows the auxiliary particle, e.g. /khuai-tho/ ('fast' < Chinese *kuài* + auxiliary loan word particle) > [khuai-tho-wa] 'very fast'.

The adverb /-wa/ can be used with the negative prefix, though the negative prefix appears before the adjective, with /-wa/ modifying the whole negative plus adjective combination, e.g. [ma-na-wa] (negative + 'good' + 'very') 'very not good' (this cannot have the meaning 'not very good'). The adverb /ken/ can be used with some verbs, e.g. /ken topu/ ('very' + 'like') 'like very much'. An adjective modified by /ken/ can directly modify a noun (e.g. /fa-ken-n,iq/ ('clothing' + 'very' + 'black') 'very black clothing'), but this is not possible with /-wa/. The adverb /-wa/ can also be followed by a nominalizer, as in the following relative clause:

(4.251) *sku-wa-m-le-ze* 

lovely-very-NOM-DEF-CL 'the very lovely person' (lit.: 'the person who is very lovely') There is another postverbal adverb, /quəla/ 'very', used to modify adjectives and at least one auxiliary verb, e.g. /nɑ quəla/ 'very good', /cupu quəla/ 'very red', /dz ə quəla/ ('able' + 'very') 'very capable'. Adjectives can also be reduplicated for expressing greater intensity (see §4.2.3).

For expressing the meaning 'too much, excessively', either a preverbal adverb, /tsan/, or a postverbal adverb, /-s/, can be used with most adjectives. The former is used only before the negative or prohibitive prefix.

(4.252)	a.	<i>η.iq-əş</i> black-too 'too black'	b.	<i>basta-ş</i> slow/late-too 'too slow/late'
	c.	<i>ba-ş</i> big-too 'too big'	d.	mo- <i>po-ş</i> NEG-thick-too 'not too thick'
(4.253)	a.	<i>tsan-ma-nə</i> too-NEG-good 'not too good'	b.	<i>tsan-ma-n_iq</i> too-NEG-black 'not too black'
	c.	<i>tsan-me-sue</i> too-NEG-bright 'not too bright'	d.	<i>tsan-me-tsue</i> too-NEG-sour 'not too sour'
(1 254)	<i>a_</i>	zo vtea-ka	9-1/11	tsan_tca_vza_z

(4.254) *a-zə ҳtşa-ka: a-вų, tsan-tca-yzə-z.* (< вие) one-CL small-INDEF:CL DIR-put too-NEG.IMP-spicy-CAUS 'Put a little (hot pepper), don't make it too spicy.'

The continuative aspect marker /tca/ ([tca ~ tci ~ tca ~ tco]) is used generally to mean 'still, yet' (see §4.3.4), but when used in the comparative construction (see §3.2.7), it has the effect of a relative degree marking adverb with the sense of 'relatively *adjective'* or 'even more *adjective'*. When this adverb appears with the negative and a directional prefix, the word order is [prefix-negative-/tca/-verb], as in (4.256b).

(4.255)	a.	<i>tca-wa</i> (< ba) CON-big 'relatively big'	b.	<i>tca-n_iq</i> CON-black 'relatively black'
	c.	<i>tça-basta</i> CON-slow/late 'relatively slow/late'	d.	<i>tco-po</i> CON-thick 'relatively thick'
(4.256)	a.	<i>ma-tca-χtşa</i> NEG-CON-small 'not so small'	b.	ĥa-mә-tca-ҳtsa DIR-NEG-CON-small 'not so reduced'

The superlative of adjectives and some stative verbs is marked by the prefix /tci/:

(4.257)	a.	<i>tçi-wa-la-lə</i> most-big-DEF:one-CL 'the biggest (stick-like object)	b.	<i>tçi-topu</i> most-like 'like (something) most'
	c.	<i>tçi-fi</i> most-white 'whitest'	d.	<i>tçi-χtşa</i> most-small 'smallest'

The form of the superlative is similar to one of the harmony forms of the preverbal adverb for marking a relative degree, but the superlative does not undergo vowel harmony.

# 4.4.2. Negation

The negative adverbial prefix /mə/ ([ma ~ me ~ mi ~ mə ~ mo]) and the prohibitive prefix /tcə/ ([tca ~ tce ~ tcə ~ tco]) (the forms of both are affected by vowel harmony and stress) appear in the same position in the verb complex, following the directional prefix, so cannot be used together in the same verb complex, e.g., /ha-tcə- $\varkappa$ / (directional prefix + prohibitive + 'go') 'don't go out!'<sup>93</sup> vs. /ha-ma-qa/ (directional prefix + negative + 'go') 'didn't go out' (see §4.2.5 on changes in the root form of 'go'). It is possible to have double negation in a single clause if there

is an auxiliary verb. The resulting meaning is a positive one, e.g., /ma-q fie-mə-se/ ('not' + 'go' + directional prefix + 'not' + 'allow') 'to not go would not be allowed' = '(He) must go'. The same negative adverbial prefix is used for all types of negation except the prohibitive.

(4.258)	a.	ma-na	'not good'	
	b.	ma-ş	'not have'	
	c.	V-ma-l	'need not V' or 'cannot V'	
	d.	mə-tçi-V	'not yet V'	
	e.	V-me-tchi	'need not V'	
(4.259)		,	<i>ma-la.</i> NEG-able:1sg	(< dz् २)

Other examples of the use of the negative and prohibitive adverbial prefixes can be found throughout Chapter 4. See especially §4.3.5.2 on the prohibitive prefix.

# 4.4.3. Adverbial phrases

Adverbial expressions that modify non-adjective verbs as manner adverbs generally precede the verbs, and can sometimes be marked by  $/-n_ii/$  or  $/-ji \sim t_ci/$ . Generally manner adverbs take  $/-n_ii/$ , though if reduplicated, then  $/-n_ii/$  is not used:

(4.260)	a.	<i>akha-kha</i> slow 'eat slowly	DIR-eat	b.	<i>akha-n,i ə-tç</i> (< t¢hə) slow-ADV DIR-eat 'eat slowly'		
	c.	<i>hama-n,i</i> stealthy-A 'eat stealth	<i>dzə</i> DV eat nily (on the sly)'	d.	<i>ata-n_i</i> fast-ADV 'eat quickl		

The words most frequently used in adverbial expressions are similar to adjectives, but differ slightly from adjectives. They mainly appear in adverbial phrases, but can also modify nouns (in the form of

appositional structures), and can act as head of a noun phrase themselves when nominalized by the definite or indefinite markers. Semantically they seem like adjectives, but they are unlike adjectives and verbs in that they cannot act as predicates and cannot take negation, and they are also unlike other adverbs in the language, in that they can modify nouns and take the (in)definite markers, as in (4.261a-b).

- (4.261) a. *the: hama-le: ŋuə.* 3sg stealthy-DEF:CL COP 'He is the evasive one.'
  - b. *mi* hama-le: person stealthy-DEF:CL 'the evasive person'

This class of forms can generally take the intensifying adverbs /kən/ and /-wa/, and the superlative /tci-/, but not the adverbs /tsan/ and /- $\S$ /. They can appear before the noun as a modifier of the noun (e.g. hamale: mi] 'the evasive person'), but this is rather rare.

More than one manner adverb can appear in a clause, with no change in marking, and no marking of coordination, and each conjunct may or may not have adverbial marking:

(4.262)	the:	hama-ŋ i	akhakha	<b>ə-q</b> a.
	3sg	stealthy-ADV	slowly	DIR-go
	'S/he	slowly and qu	ietly goes/v	went in.'

Some adjectives can act as manner adverbs in adverbial expressions, usually followed by the adverbial marker  $[-ji \sim tci]$  or  $/-n_i/$ :

(4.263)	a.	the:	na-ji	mo-su.
		3sg	good-ADV	NEG-study
		'S/he	doesn't study	well.'

b. 2*ũ* təp-n,*i* dalə-n,*i* tu-ju. 2sg tomorrow-ADV early-ADV DIR-rise 'Get up early tomorrow.' In some cases the manner adverb is a whole clause or verb complex:

- (4.264) *qa* kuiphatsə-le: fie-tçi-n<sub>i</sub>i sei-ja. (< ji) 1sg walking.stick-DEF:CL DIR-poke-ADV walk/run-CSM:1sg 'I (now) walk leaning on the walking stick.'
- (4.265) teile the: fia-staq $\Rightarrow$ - $\eta$ i linthau  $\eta$ u $\Rightarrow$ -za:. (< z $\Rightarrow$ ) 1pl 3sg DIR-choose-ADV leader COP-CAUS:PRS 'We choose him/her to be leader.'
- (4.266) qa zawə-le:-wu ʁduas ha-ŋuə-zə-ŋi lsg rock-DEF:CL-INST hammer DIR-COP-CAUS-ADV tintsə zeta. (< zete) nail(n.) nail(v.):1sg 'I hammer nails using the rock as a hammer.'

Ideophonic manner adverbs follow the usual phonotactics of the language. They are used for natural sounds, and not abstract concepts.

- (4.267) *qhua: tsə χua χua-ke: sa.* river.velley water huahua-INDEF:CL make.sound 'The river water makes a "huahua" sound.'
- (4.268) *mosu bu bu (wu wu)-ke: su.* wind wu wu-INDEF:CL blow 'The wind blows "wu wu".'

Adverbial expressions that are comparative in nature, rather than being simple manner adverbials, often follow the verb being modified. Following are examples of adverbial expressions of equality, and comparative and superlative adverbs.

(4.269)	thizzi	a-qəs	sei	dz ə.	(equality)
	3dl	one-form	walk/run	able	
	'The two				

- (4.270) the: qa-s sei tca-lə. (comparative; < dz = 3) 3sg 1sg-COMP walk/run CON-able 'S/he runs faster than I do.'
- (4.271) *the: stuaha tchə khuai-tha-wa.* (comparative) 3sg food/rice eat fast-AUX-very 'S/he eats very quickly.'
- (4.272) the: sei tci  $dz \partial$ . (superlative) 3sg walk/run most able 'S/he can run the fastest.'

The correlative comparative is marked by [a-za] (one-CL) 'a little' or [lewu] 'the more'; the clause linker /-wu/ (= the agentive and instrumental marker) appears at the end of the first clause.

- (4.273) *the: a-zə sə-dzi-wu*, *a-zə tsha ha-la*. 3sg one-CL DIR-eat-LNK one-CL meat DIR-come 'The more s/he eats, the fatter s/he gets.'
- (4.274) *the: a-zə tə-wa-wu, mi zəwa mo-xşuctc.* 3sg one-CL DIR-big-LNK person talk NEG-listen 'The bigger s/he gets, the more s/he doesn't listen/behave.'
- (4.275) *zəp lewu xtşa-wu, mi lewu wu qəs we.*<sup>94</sup> place more small-LNK person more many form exist 'The smaller the place, the more people it seems like there are.'

It is also possible to use the comparative construction (see §3.2.7) to express the sense of a correlative comparative.

(4.276) mi-wu kə-jə-wu-tu, (the:) tsə-s person-AGT thus-say-LNK-LNK (3sg) this-COMP tə-ke-kəpə.
DIR-spirited-HABIT 'The more other people scold him/her, the more spirited (mischievous) he/she gets.' The sense of 'almost', as in 'almost have something happen', can be expressed using / $\alpha$ -zə tca-ŋuə-sə/ ('one-CL' CON-COP-LNK) '(except for) a little still is . . .' as a single clause, with the event that almost happened expressed in the following clause, as in the following example:

(4.277) *a-zə tça-ŋua:-şə, qa i-pə-l* one-CL CON-COP:PRS-LNK 1sg DIR-arrive-come *ma-lə-jya.* (< jy) NEG-able-ASP:1sg 'I almost couldn't return.'

To express the sense of 'almost', as in 'almost everyone came', the same clause-final particle  $/-s_{\Theta}/$  is used at the end of the first clause, which is subordinated to the copula by the adverbial particle  $/-t_{G}/$ , as in the following example:

(4.278) eyle wu i-pə-la:-sə-tci ŋuə. whole all DIR-arrive-come:PRS-LNK-ADV COP 'Almost all the people have come.'

The same clause-final particle  $/-s_0/$  can be used in a similar structure to express the idea of 'a little . . .', e.g. in the following example, meaning 'a little bit alike':

(4.279)thizzia-qəswa:-səkəzziŋuə.3dlone-formexist:PRS-LNKINDEF:two:CLCOP'The two of them are a little alike.'

There is another use of this same clause-final particle /sp/ to mark the first clause of a two-clause structure as expressing a hypothetical or counter-factual situation, which if realized would bring about or would have brought about the situation expressed in the second clause.<sup>95</sup> This is clear in the examples below. (For other examples see Huang Chenglong 2000:16.)

(4.280)	a.	qa	jə-s	kə	<i>пиа:-</i> §ə	the:
		1sg	say-NOM	thus	COP:PRS-LNK	3sg

*de-me-tshi-wu.* DIR-NEG-wrong-3sgU 'If you ask me, he was not wrong.'

b. *qa* nəs spəχs sə-qa:-şə, 1sg yesterday Chibusu DIR-go:1sg:PRS-LNK qa fa-a-qai zə-pə-jya. 1sg clothing-one-CL DIR-buy-ASP:1sg 'If I had gone to Chibusu yesterday, I would have bought a piece of clothing.'

c. qa dziguə qəqa:-sə, qa ləyz su-kə-jya. 1sg money have:PRS:1sg-LNK 1sg book study-go-ASP:1sg 'If I had money, I would go to school.'

This seems to be the sense underlying the other uses of  $/-s_{2}/$  discussed above as well. That is, the sense of 'almost' in the example above is from 'had it remained that way a bit more, then . . .'; the sense of 'almost all' in (4.278) is from 'as if all . . .'; and the sense of 'a little alike' in (4.279) is from 'as if they are the same'.

# Chapter 5 The clause and complex structures

In Chapters 3-4 we discussed the various elements within the clause, and have seen many clause types in the examples given. Here we will discuss the various combinations of elements possible in a clause (\$5.1), nominalizations and their use in relative clauses (\$5.2), complement clause structures (\$5.3), coordination and disjunction (\$5.4), complex structures made up of multiple clauses (\$5.5) and the structure of narratives (\$5.6).

# 5.1. Structure

The structure of the clause is to some extent affected by pragmatic factors, but this only applies to the order of noun phrases in the clause. The utterance-initial position is the unmarked topic position (though secondary topics can follow the primary topic), while the position immediately before the verb is the unmarked focus position, and so the focused element will generally appear there (see also §4.3.1). The verb always appears in final position; there is no possibility for the actor of a clause to appear in postverbal position, even if it is focal. The only exception to this is the occasional afterthought clarification of a noun phrase that was omitted or expressed as a pronoun in the clause (see T4:20-22 for an example). The clause may include a temporal phrase (TEMP); a locative phrase (LOC); the NPs representing the actor, the goal or recipient, and/or the undergoer (UG); an adverbial phrase (ADV); the verb complex (VC); and possibly a clause-final particle (PART). The most unmarked word order in the clause is given in Figure 4:

(TEMP) (LOC) (ACTOR) (GOAL/RECIPIENT) (ADV) (UG) VC (PART) Figure 4. The structure of the Qiang clause

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The verb complex is the only necessary element for an utterance to be considered a clause, and the verb complex may be simply a predicate noun. As discussed in §4.2, the verb complex may also include an adverbial.

While there are quite a few loan words in Qiang, and Qiang speakers will often code-mix, adding Chinese phrases when speaking Qiang, there does not seem to have been a lot of influence from Chinese on the grammar of Qiang. When Chinese phrases are treated as loans into Qiang, the order of elements is changed to fit the normal Qiang order. We saw examples of the this in forms such as /phitchi fa-pə/ (temper release-do) 'get angry', from Chinese  $f\bar{a} piqi$  (release temper) 'get angry'. When Chinese is used in a code-mixing sense rather than a loan sense, the expressions follow Chinese word order. Code mixing is frequent, particularly among the younger people. During the recording of the stories given in the Texts the speakers tried not to use Chinese at all, but at least one speaker used several code-mixed expressions and often interspersed Qiang text with the Chinese filler háishì 'still is' (see in particular Text 5 for examples). Examples of code mixing can be seen in the following two segments:

- (5.1) a. pəs-ŋuən,i z mətşi-sətsim-le: tçiutçin şə today-TOP emperor-wife-DEF:CL †(after.all be) mi-le: ŋuə-ŋua? (T6:305-306) person-DEF:CL COP-Q 'Today, is the emperor's wife a human?'
  - b. tse-kə-z ən-la mi-tse-ze-nuən i, "hai! †(this-CL-person-TOP) person-this-CL-TOP INT pefutsə, tse-kə pefutsə mə' ke guo zuo †white.beard †(this-CL white.beard cat give 1sg do χau sə." jə-i-stu. (T5:182-183) good thing) say-HS-PART 'This person, this person said, "Hey, White Beard, this white beard cat did something good for me"."

In (5.1a) the words /tciutcin/ and /sə/ are code-mixed Chinese, and the order of that phrase ('emperor's wife after all is human') is verb-medial, even though /mi-le/ 'human' is a Qiang word, and the larger, containing

structure is in the normal Qiang verb-final order and includes the Qiang copula. In (5.1b) there are two code-mixed segments, one of which is quite long. The speaker starts with a Chinese phrase meaning 'this person', but then repeats the same meaning in Qiang. The order within the two phrases is different: in the Chinese phrase the demonstrative and classifier precede the noun, while in the Qiang phrase they follow it. In the long segment beginning in the second line, the word order is completely that of the standard Mandarin Chinese equivalent, with the recipient in post-verbal position: *zhè-ge báihúzi mão gěi wǒ zùo hǎo shì* [this-CL white.beard cat give 1sg do good thing]. The speaker then finishes off the segment with the usual Qiang form for ending a quote.

# 5.2. Nominalization and relativization

As mentioned in earlier sections (§§3.1.1, 3.1.4, 4.2.3), nominalization in Qiang is achieved either by the use of one of three nominalizing clitics, /-s/, /-m/ or /-tc/, or by the use of a definite (/le/, /te/) or indefinite (/ke/) marker. The latter is generally possible only with adjectives and existential verbs. The nominalized forms created using the clitics reflect what were originally relative clause constructions where the relative clause (or simply a verb) modified a very general head noun.<sup>96</sup> The form /-m/ is derived from the word /mi/ 'man', and /s/ may be derived from a word meaning 'earth' or location (cf. Tibetan /sa/ 'ground, place', also used as a nominalizer<sup>97</sup>), while /-tc/ is a palatalization of an original velar initial form (cf. Mawo dialect Qiang /-k/) that may be related to the Tibetan genitive (/kyi/). Unlike in some other Tibeto-Burman languages (e.g. Chantyal, Noonan 1997; Lahu, Matisoff 1973), nominalized forms are not used as citation forms of verbs.

The creation of lexicalized deverbal nouns by adding the nominalizing suffixes /-s/ and /-m/ (e.g.  $[n \Rightarrow s]$  'bed' and [ kuam ] 'servant') and the nominalization of adjectives by the use of a definite or indefinite marker (e.g. [n,iq-le] 'the black one') were discussed in §3.1.1. Aside from the lexicalized deverbal nouns formed with the clitic nominalizers, nonce collocations can also be formed as needed from clauses to refer to particular objects or individuals, such as in the

examples in (5.2). Here the original function as a relative clause is most clear.

(5.2)	a.	tawə-ta-m le-ze hat-wear-NOM DEF-CL 'the person wearing a hat'
	b.	gantsə $\chi ua$ -m tha $z_i$ . (T6:197) saddle sell-NOM there exist 'There is (a) saddle seller there.'
	c.	$qa$ $soi-ka-m$ $kan$ $he-ca-n_ii, \ldots$ $1sg$ call-go-NOMvery(many)DIR-send: $1sg$ -LNK'I have sent many to call you, $\ldots$ ' (sent many who go to call you)(T4:46-47)
	d.	wutcupudie-se-m(T6:89)husbandDIR-die-NOM'one whose husband had died'

It is possible in this structure to have a pronoun that is coreferential with the head noun (now a nominalizer) retained when needed for clarity, as in (5.3), where the pronoun is needed to be able to add the genitive marker to explicitly mark the benefactive relationship:

(5.3)	qa	the:-tc	ləyz	de-le-m	le:	
	1sg	3sg-gen	book	DIR-give-NOM	DEF:CL	
	'the person to whom I gave a book'					

If the referent the nominalized clause represents is a location, or in some cases the time of an event, then the clause is nominalized by /-s/ and can be followed by the locative marker /-ta/, as in (5.4).<sup>98</sup>

(5.4) *qa-lu-s-ta* 1sg-come-NOM-LOC 'the place that I came from' Clauses involving existential verbs can be nominalized by simply adding one of the definite markers or the indefinite marker after the verb:

- (5.5) a. ep lə me-zi ew lə father also NEG-exist mother also me-zi-ke: ŋuə-kəi-tcu. (T3:2-3) NEG-exist-INDEF:CL COP-INF:HS-PART
  '(He was an orphan), one who didn't have a father or mother.'
  - b. *the: tha-zi-k BU.* 3sg there-exist-INF willing 'S/he might be there.' (lit.: 'She might be one who is there.')

The nominalized constructions involving the nominalizers /-s/ and /-m/, and also another type formed with the genitive marker /-tc/, can be used to modify another noun or noun phrase, forming a NP + N(P) structure where the first NP modifies the second. That is, what was historically a relative clause plus head noun structure (at least in the case of /-s/ and /-m/) has been reanalyzed as simply a nominalized clause and is now used to modify another noun. This is now the main form of relative clause structure used in Qiang. It is also used for noun complement structures (such as in ex. (4.118) above (repeated below as (5.74)) and the /-ton/ structure discussed in §4.3.7.4).

There are no relative pronouns in Qiang. Definite marking may follow the head noun, as in (5.9). The type of nominalizer such a modifier (relative clause) takes depends on the semantics and animacy of the head noun. If the head noun is an undergoer or other non-instrument, including an inanimate actor, then the genitive marker /-tc/ is used:

- (5.6) *pətsa-n,i-tə-bəl-jy-tç tşuats* just.now-ADV-DIR-make-ASP-GEN table 'the table just made'
- (5.7) *pətsa-ŋ,i-zə-p-jy-tç* fa just.now-ADV-DIR-buy-ASP-GEN clothes 'the clothes just bought'

(5.8) qa-dzoqu-de-we-tc zawa 1sg-foot-DIR-exist-GEN rock 'the rock which crushed (lit.: came to be on) my foot'

If the head noun is an instrument (even if animate, as in (5.9)), then the nominalizer /-s/ is used:

- (5.9) *do-qu-zə-s khuə-le:* DIR-afraid-CAUS-NOM dog-DEF:CL 'the dog used to frighten people'
- (5.10) *stuaha-tchə-s tşuats* food/rice-eat-NOM table 'the table used for eating food'
- (5.11) *tcexuen-pa:-ва-guə-s* fa marry-do:PRS-LOC-wear-NOM clothes 'clothes worn when one is going to get married'
- (5.12) *laupin-tshopu-s* səpe tuberculosis-treat-NOM medicine 'medicine used to treat tuberculosis'

If the head noun has an animate referent, then the nominalizer /-m/ is used. As mentioned above, this form derives from the word /mi/ 'person', but it has fully grammaticalized into a nominalizer, to the point that it can be used together with /mi/ as the head noun, as in (5.14)and (5.15) (though it can be omitted, as in (5.16)). Notice also how the use of the agentive marking within the relative clause in (5.15) changes the interpretation of the semantic role of the head noun phrase relative to that in (5.14). Here the agentive marking is performing a disambiguating function, particularly necessary here because of the lack of person marking in nominalizations.

(5.13) *qa-fia-ʁdz e-m khuə* 1sg-DIR-bite-NOM dog 'the dog which bit me'

- (5.14) *qa-panə-dele-m mi* 1sg-thing-give-NOM person 'the person who gave me something'
- (5.15) *qa-wu-panə-dele-m mi* 1sg-AGT-thing-give-NOM person 'the person to whom I gave something'
- (5.16) qupu n<sub>i</sub>yi-bələ-m nuə-nua? 3sg what-do-NOM COP-Q 'What kind of work does he do?' (lit.: 'He is a person who does what?')
- (5.17) *mutu-la-fie-m* wə sky-LOC-fly-NOM bird 'a bird flying in the sky'
- (5.18) *pitc phu-ва zə-m phu-xşu pe-wei.* nowadays forest-LOC exist-NOM wild.animals become-HS '(They) became the wild animals who now live in the forests.' (T2:21-22)

Relative clauses can be quite complex, involving a modifier with several clauses, as in (5.19), or a head noun that is a nominalized expression itself, as in (5.20):

- (5.19) [soqhu-sə-χlaκu-ŋ,i, tawə-fia-tə-ŋ,i z,i-m] gun-DIR-carry.on.back-ADV hat-DIR-wear-ADV exist-NOM mi person
   'the person carrying a rifle on his back and wearing a hat'
- (5.20) *tawə-ta-m şku-wa-m-le-ze* hat-wear-NOM lovely-very-NOM-DEF-CL 'the lovely person wearing a hat'

It is possible to have a pronoun as the head noun of a relative clause:

(5.21)	nə-dz ə-m	the:	tça-n.
	sleep-able-NOM	3sg	CON-sleep
	'S/he who likes to	sleep la	ate is still sleeping. <sup>3</sup>

A second type of relative clause in Qiang is a post-head restrictive relative clause, which is used only in some cases when the head noun is the name of a person. The relative clause is nominalized in the same way as the prehead relative. This is in fact a case of apposition rather than being a true relative, but it has the function of a restrictive relative. Following are two examples:

- (5.22) *upu ci-tchə-topu-m-le: tcəu-la zi.* uncle wine-drink-like/love-NOM-DEF:CL home-LOC exist 'The uncle who likes drinking liquor is at home.'
- (5.23) *tsəi lampa-şa-yz ə-m-le: pəs* older.sister flower-embroider-able-NOM-DEF:CL today *tşuəwa-lampə-e-tse ə-şa.* shoe-flower-one-CL DIR-embroider 'The older sister who embroiders flowers well embroidered a pair of flowery shoes today.'

Another type of apposition structure that functions like a restrictive relative clause is when a locative phrase follows the head noun:

(5.24) *mi zekų-te-zi* person middle-DEF-CL 'the person in the middle'

This structure is similar to the normal [head noun-adjective-definite marker] structure, but as the post-head element is a noun and not an adjective, I am assuming it is an appositional structure (generally if one noun modifiers another, it precedes it), while the following is a simple noun phrase structure:

(5.25) *mi-tci-wa-le-zi* person-most-big-DEF-CL 'the biggest person' See also Section 3.1 for more examples of relative clauses.

# **5.3.** Complementation

There are two basic complement types in Qiang, one that has no overt nominalization and one that has a clitic nominalizer. Both of these are of the 'sentence-like complement' type discussed in Noonan 1985. The nominalized form is not like what Noonan calls a 'nominalized complement', where the internal structure of the clause is that of a noun phrase (e.g. English gerunds). The nominalized type can be distinguished into three types based on the particular nominalizer used. Qiang does not exhibit the type of complex, massive verb concatenation found, for example, in Jinghpaw and Lahu (see Matisoff 1969, 1973, 1974); there are only a few auxiliary verbs that form a single nucleus with the main verb (see for example §4.2.5). In other cases either what would be expressed in two verbs in some languages would be expressed with a single verb plus a directional prefix, or the secondary verb would appear in an adverbial phrase marked by /-ni/.

One complex structure where the complement does not require overt nominalization is where there is a topic-comment structure with a complement clause as the topic, such as with the use of the verbs / $\kappa$ u/ or /se/ for the sense of '(be) allowed' (discussed above in §4.2.6 and §4.3.6.4). These are what Dixon (1991, 1995) calls Secondary verbs, verbs which only take clausal complements as arguments. There is no person marking on the matrix verb in this type of clause, as the topic is the clause, not the human referent mentioned in the complement clause (it would be possible to have the topic marker / $\eta$ uə $\eta$ i/ at the end of the topic clause). There is no overt marking on the complement clause to distinguish it from an independent clause. In (5.26a) brackets have been put around the complement clause to mark it off.

(5.26) a.	[ <i>?</i> ũ	pəs	ma-k]	he-mə-se.
	2sg	today	NEG-go	DIR-NEG-allow
	'You n	nust go	today.'/ 'Yo	ur not going today is not allowed.'

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- b. *cocau-ua zme-z dze-z uu*. school-LOC Qiang-language speak-CAUS allow 'Speaking Qiang is allowed in school.'
- с. *cocau-ва zme-z dze-z fie-se.* school-LOC Qiang-language speak-CAUS DIR-allow 'Speaking Qiang is allowed in school.'

It is also possible that there is an understood impersonal third person actor, but it is not expressed overtly, and the complement clause can take the topic marker. The verb / $\kappa$ ze/ 'ought to', which expresses physical or moral obligation to perform an action (see §4.2.6), seems to pattern this way, as there is no first-person or second-person marking on the verb, even when the expression refers to a first or second person actor.

(5.27) a.	kə sze-ji!	b.	kə ma-tçi-sze!
	go must-CSM		go NEG-CON-must
	'(I/we/you) must go.'		'(You/we) needn't/
	('It's time to go!')		shouldn't go yet!'

In the case of the construction involving the expression /me-tchi/ 'not want' to express the ability or permission to do something (discussed in §4.3.6.4), the non-nominalized complement clause takes the exclusion particle (treating it as a noun phrase), and there is no agreement with the actor of the complement clause.

- (5.28) a. *cocau-wa zme-z dze-ji me-tchi*. school-LOC Qiang-language speak-EXC NEG-want 'It is all right to speak Qiang in school.'
  - b. tsə tu-χsu-ji-(wa), tcile quaha χuəla-jə water DIR-boil-CSM-RCA 1pl face wash-EXC me-tchi-ji.
    NEG-want-CSM 'The water's boiled, so we can wash our faces.'

Without the exclusion particle, the complement plus /me-tchi/ 'not want' can be used in a complex structure to express the idea 'not only X, but Y':

(5.29) qa zdzyta: kə me-tchi, peitcin-la tca-ka:. (<kə)</li>
1sg Chengdu:LOC go NEG-want Beijing-LOC CON-go:PRS:1sg
'Not only am I going to Chengdu, but I am also going to Beijing.'

With another group of verbs, including what Dixon (1991, 1995) calls Primary B verbs, those that can take either a noun argument or a clause complement, such as 'like' and 'know', and Secondary verbs, the complement clause is either a complete clause or, when the actor of both clauses is the same, a reduced clause. The person marking on the Primary B or Secondary verb reflects the person of the actor of the matrix clause. For example, the verbs /ctcaq-lu/ 'think of, want' ('heart' + 'come'); /lu/ can also be used alone), /kontchi/ 'think/want', or /zulu/ 'wait', can be used to express the desire to do an action or the hope for some situation to happen. In (5.30a) the actor of the matrix and the complement clause are the same, while in (5.30b) the actors of the matrix and the complement clause are the same are different. In (5.30b) the person marking is of the actor of 'wait', not 'arrive'.

(5.30)	a.	3sg	<i>tçəu</i> home e wants t	go	<i>ctcaq-lu.</i> heart-come me.'	
	b.	-	<i>the:</i> 3sg	1	: rive-come:PRS	<i>zulu-a.</i> wait-1sg

'I hope s/he is going to return.'

For many verbs, such as /xsu/ 'to dare', /dze/ (experiential aspect), / $\chi z_{, 2}$ / (potential for a learned ability), /dz  $_{,2}$ / and /qe/ (potential for a natural (physical) ability), only the pattern in (5.30a), with the actors of both verbs being the same, is found, probably because of the semantics of these particular verbs. Following are some examples:

(5.31)	<i>the: e-ze</i> 3sg one-CL 'S/he doesn't dare	alone sleep	<i>mo-xşu.</i> NEG-dare	
(5.32)		: ĥa-qə du:LOC DIR-go to Chengdu.'		(< dze)
	1sg book-tl	<i>e-pen i-tsi</i> his-CL DIR-read ad this book.'		(< dze)
(5.33)		dze yz guage speak ca ng.'		(< ४ूट् २)
(5.34)		<i>ma-l, wə</i> NEG-able bird y, but birds can.'	•	
(5.35)	•	tə-tsi qe-r		

(5.55) the 2 dwd-le to-tsi qe-tjud? 3sg rock-DEF:CL DIR-lift able-Q 'Can s/he lift up this rock?'

Speech act verbs also take non-nominalized complements. In quoting another's speech, the quoted speech generally follows the noun phrases representing the speaker and addressee, and is followed by the verb  $/j_{0}/([j_{0} \sim j_{1}])$  'to say'. Both direct and indirect quotation are possible. The structure for both types is the same; they differ only in the pronoun used. Compare the following three examples:

(5.36)	a.	qa	qupu-ta	"(?ũ)	lu-me-tchi"	ji-wa.
		1sg	3sg-dat	2sg	come-NEG-want	speak-3sgU:1sg
		'I told	him/her, "	Don't co	ome."'	
	b.	qa	qupu <sub>i</sub> -ta	qupu <sub>i</sub>	lu-me-tchi	ji-wa.
		1sg	3sg-dat	3sg	come-NEG-want	speak-3sgU:1sg
		'I told	him/her no	ot to cor	ne.'	

c. qa qupu<sub>i</sub>-ta the: j lu-me-tchi ji-wa. 1sg 3sg-DAT 3sg come-NEG-want speak-3sgU:1sg 'I told him/her that he/she (a different person) shouldn't come.' / 'I told him/her, "S/he shouldn't come".'

In example (5.36a), the second person pronoun marks the embedded clause as a direct quote. The person marking is of a first person referent acting on a third person referent. In (5.36b) the two tokens of /qupu/ refer to the same referent, and so it is an indirect quote. Example (5.36c) is ambiguous out of context, as the pronoun /the:/ must refer to someone other than the referent of /qupu/, and so it could be either a direct or indirect quote.

If there is a more specific verb of asking or replying, then this verb may precede the quoted speech, though the verb /jə/ 'to say' still follows the quote, as in the two tokens of this structure in the following section of the story "An Orphan" involving 'ask' and 'answer':

(5.37)	χsutsqha-le:-wu	tə-ke <sup>4</sup> l-kui,	"ha!	2ũ
	stomach-DEF:CL-A	GT DIR-ask-INF	:HS EXCL	2sg
	n i-xua-n i	kə-zei-n-a"	jə-kui,	"η ίχυαη ί
	WH-because-ADV	DIR-cry-2sg-Q	say-INF:HS	why
	kə-zei-n-a"	jə-kui -tu,	kapətş-to	ou and a second s
	DIR-cry-2sg-Q	say-INF:HS-LNK	orphan-D	EF:one:CL
	he-z gue-kəi,	"qa-ŋuəŋ i	ер 1	ə
	DIR-answer-INF:HS	S 1sg-TOP	father a	llso
	me-z ə-i	<b>Ə</b> W	lə me-zə-	i,
	NEG-exist-CSM	mother	also NEG-ex	ist-CSM
	gəs-n i ha-xtş	səp-n_iaufu	skup-le:	qa
	night-ADV DIR-da	ark-LNK(as.soon.a	as) oranguta	n-DEF:CL 1sg
	dzə-la:"	jə-kəpə-şə,		(T3:56-62)
	eat-come:PRS	say-HABIT-LN	ΙK	
	'The stomach aske	ed him, "Why are	you crying?	', he said, "Why
	are you crying?"	The orphan answ	wered, "I hav	ve neither father
	nor mother. As so	oon as it gets dat	rk, the orang	utan is going to
		_	-	-

come eat me.""

Aside from these verbs which normally take non-nominalized complements, the copula can also take a non-nominalized complement.

This has an emphatic sense, somewhat similar to a cleft construction, as in (5.38).

(5.38) *panə-tse: qa-wu zə-p-ji ŋuə.* thing-this:CL 1sg-AGT DIR-buy-CSM COP 'This thing was bought by me.'

This form is often used for achieving the affect of clefting for highlighting adverbials:

(5.39)	the:	hama-n <sub>e</sub> i	kue-jy	ŋuə.
	3sg	secretly-ADV	transport-ASP	COP
	'S/he v	was transported secretly.'		

This construction differs from another construction with almost the same structure, but with a nominalized complement clause, used for making strong assertions. This is in fact pragmatically also like a cleft, in that a particular noun phrase is the focus constituent.

(5.40)	the:-(ŋuəŋ,i)	tçile	topu-s	ŊUƏ.
	3sg-TOP	1pl	like-NOM	COP
	'The ones s/he	likes ar	e us.' ('We a	re the ones s/he likes.')

The position of the focused element is variable: the focus noun phrase can precede or follow the nominalized verb. Compare the following two examples:

(5.41)	a.	tçile-(ŋuəŋ,i)	pə-s	pies	ŋuə.	
		1pl-TOP	buy-NOM	meat	COP	
		'What we need	(to buy) is	meat.'		
	b.	<i>tçile-(ŋuəŋ,i)</i> 1p-TOP	<i>pies</i> meat	<i>pə-s</i> buy-NOM	<i>ŋuә.</i> СОР	
	'What we need (to buy) is meat.'					

A variant of this construction has something of an epistemic sense. As we saw in the discussion of evidentials in §4.3.7, to make a strong statement of certainty, or of information that was not recently discovered, but known for some time, then a complement clause nominalized by /-s/ is used, as in (5.42).

(5.42) *pos zmu tsu-s ŋuo.* today meeting hold-NOM COP 'There is a meeting today.' (set beforehand)

Another use of this structure is expressing the optative mood (\$4.3.6.1). In this structure the complement is nominalized by /-s/ and the copula takes the particle /-n<sub>i</sub>/ in the positive or /-t<sub>ci</sub>/ in the negative (both particles normally mark adverbial phrases). No aspect or person contrasts are marked in clauses with /ma-ŋuə-t<sub>ci</sub>/ or /ŋuə-n<sub>i</sub>/.

(5.43)	a.	təp-n_i	me: <sup>1</sup>	çe-s	ma-ŋuə-tçi.		
		tomorrow-ADV	rain	fall-NOM	NEG-COP-PART		
		'I hope it won't rain tomorrow.'					

b. *the: tshetsə-le: fia-xə-s ŋuə-n.i.* 3sg car-DEF:CL DIR-bad/broken-NOM COP-ADV 'I hope his/her car has broken down.'

This same structure, but with the copula followed optionally by /sa/ in the first person, /san/ in the second person, or  $[\eta u_{\overline{y}} \sim w_{\overline{y}}]$  in the third person, is used to express obligation to perform an action (debitive; see §4.3.6.3 for more examples).

(5.44)	the:	tçəu-la	lu-s	<i>ຐ</i> ຏຉ-ຐູມູຈູ.
	3sg	home-LOC	come-NOM	COP-3sgU
	'S/he	must come ho	me!'	

We saw in §4.3.7 that there is a copula construction with a nominalized complement, or in some cases a complement that is a relative clause with [la-han ~ la-hən] (definite marker + 'kind'), [ka-han ~ ka-hən] (indefinite marker + 'kind'), or /tan/ ('appearance') as the head noun, used to express contingent situations, as in (5.45) and (5.46). (5.45) the: tha-zi-m-tan  $\eta u \partial$ .

3sg there-exist-NOM-appearance COP 'S/he might be there.' (5.46) *me:<sup>1</sup> ci-m-la-hən* ŋuə. rain fall-NOM-DEF:one-kind COP 'It might rain.'

This then brings us to what might be considered a pseudo-cleft construction, where the sort of relative clause plus noun construction discussed above is used as a complement of a copula clause. The topic marker can optionally be used after this complement, as it is the topic of the construction, while the noun phrase in immediate preverbal (focus) position identifies the referent represented by the head of the relative clause, as in (5.47)-(5.49).

- (5.47) *qa-zə-pə-tç-panə tse: ŋuə.* 1sg-DIR-buy-GEN-thing this:CL COP 'The thing that I bought is this'
- (5.48) panə-tse:-zə-pə-m qa-(wu) ŋua. thing-this:CL-DIR-buy-NOM 1sg-AGT COP:1sg 'I am the one who bought this thing.'
- (5.49) *ke<sup>-1</sup>lə-m* lə ni: ηuə-kəi, 3sgREFL COP-INF:HS ask-NOM also *he-z gue-m* lə ni: ŋuə-kəi, **DIR-answer-NOM** also 3sgREFL COP-INF:HS 'The one who asked was himself, the one who answered was himself.'

Another verb that takes nominalized complements is the existential verb /xu/, discussed in Section 4.2.4. Here is another example of its use:

(5.50) *tsə-s* a-z-nuən i ci-la: ataz -n i this-COMP one-CL-TOP small-DEF:CL fast-ADV n.a<sup>99</sup> u-z mu *u*-*tcu*-*s*-*le*: ə-mə-s COM DIR-see-NOM-DEF:CL DIR-hear-NOM DIR-dream *xu-tu*... exist-LNK 'If you can dream of it a little faster, see or hear it, ....'

Section 5.5 discusses other uses of nominalized clauses, but first we will discuss coordination and disjunction.

#### 5.4. Coordination and disjunction

In coordinating nouns in Qiang, the following structures are possible, where X, Y, and Z are three different nouns, and /n,a/ is the comitative/conjunction marker discussed in §3.2.13: XY, X-n,a-Y, XY-n,a, XYZ, X-n,a-YZ, X-n,a-Y-n,a-Z, XY-n,a-Z, XYZ-n,a. Example (5.51) is of the X-n,a-Y-n,a-Z type, and (5.52) and (5.53), with only two nouns, are of the X-n,a-Y type:

- (5.51) qa-na-?ũ-na-the: 1sg-COM-2sg-COM-3sg 'I and you and s/he'
- (5.52) *utsuqu yzə-pi-na-ctci-tco* all.together four-CL-COM-seven-CL(1/10 of a dollar) 'All together four dollars and seventy cents.'
- (5.53) qa qəpatş-na-şuə wu ha-xuəla. 1sg head-COM-teeth all DIR-wash 'I washed my hair and (brushed) my teeth, too.'

See the discussion in Section 3.2.13 on the differences in meaning between the X-na-Y and XY-na types.

It is also possible to coordinate adverbial nouns, either with the conjunction marker (e.g. [pəs-ŋ,a-təp-ŋ,i] 'today and tomorrow') or without it (e.g. [pəs-təp-ŋ,i] 'today and tomorrow'). Nominalized verbs can also be coordinated:

(5.54) *tchə-s-na-dzə-s-na-guə-s* drink-NOM-and-eat-NOM-and-wear-NOM 'drink, food, and clothing'

In this case it would also be possible to just use a pause between the items instead of using the conjunction marker.

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In coordinating clauses, they can be simply juxtaposed, with only the particle /lə/ 'also' appearing before each verb to show the relationship between the two clauses, as in (5.55a), or the clause-final linking particle /wu/ (= the ablative/instrumental postposition) can be used at the end of the first clause, as in (5.55b).

(5.55)	a.	qa	χo:ts	lə	fie-qhua,	quaha	le	
		1sg	beard	also	DIR-shave:1sg	face	also	
		fia-χ	uəla-ja.					(ji + a)
		DIR-wash-CSM:1sg						
		'I washed my face and also shaved.'						

b. 2ũ mo-lu-n-wu, tianχua lə də-mu-воi-n. 2sg NEG-come-2sg-LNK telephone also DIR-NEG-call-2sg 'You didn't come and didn't call either. '

Where two clauses have the same verb and only the referent(s) affected changes, verb ellipsis is not possible in the second clause, even if the verb form is the same.

(5.56) *peimtşi zdzyta: fia-qə, khe<sup>4</sup>tşi lə fia-qa.*<sup>100</sup> Peimtşi Chengdu:LOC DIR-go Kertşi also DIR-go 'Peimtşi went to Chengdu and Khertşi did also.'

That is, it is not possible to say the equivalent of 'John left, and Mary (did) too.' The verb must be repeated.

The coordination of adjectives can be done with the adverbial marker  $/n_{\rm s}i/((5.57))$  or with some of the other particles used for conjoining verbs, such as /me-tchi/ 'not only', as in (5.58).

black		good-ADV	NEG-expensive
and black'		'good and i	nexpensive'
ć	and black'	and black'	and black' 'good and i

(5.58) *ba-me-tchi n\_iq-ke: tca-ŋuə.* old-NEG-only black-INDEF:CL CON-COP '(It) is not only old but black as well.' To express an 'either-or' (disjunction) relation, the expression /ŋuɑŋ,i/ 'or' (distinct from the topic marker) is used, as in (5.59), below, 101 or, if it is a question, then the polarity verb-not-verb interrogative construction can be used, either with /ŋuɑŋ,i/, as in (5.60), or without it, as in (5.61) and (5.62) (see also Section 4.3.5.3 on verb-not-verb interrogatives). In a two-clause structure, such as in (5.60), the particle either appears in its own intonation unit or in the intonation unit of the second clause.

- (5.59) 2*ũ* ŋuan,*i* the: e-ze spəxs-(ta) sə-ʁə-i. 2sg or 3sg one-CL Chibusu-LOC DIR-go-2pl 'You or she (one of you) go to Chibusu (district).'
- (5.60)  $2\tilde{u}$  qhə<sup>*i*</sup> tcha:-n-a, ŋuan,*i* cpies tcha:-n-a? 2sg rice eat:PRS-2sg-Q or noodles eat:PRS-2sg-Q 'Will you eat rice or noodles?'
- (5.61) *n\_iq-ke: nuə-nua, cupu-ke: nuə-nua?* black-INDEF:CL COP-Q red-INDEF:CL COP-Q 'Is it a red one or a black one?'
- (5.62) ?ũ dza:-tçikų ka:-n-a, dza:-khui ka:-n-a? 2sg lunch-before go:PRS-2sg-Q lunch-after go:PRS-2sg-Q 'Are you going in the morning or the afternoon?'

#### 5.5. Other complex structures

Aside from the embedding of complements discussed above, clauses, either nominalized or not, also appear in non-embedded hypotactic structures. In some cases there is no obvious nominalization by /-s/, /-m/ or /-tc/, but the clause takes one of the postpositions used for marking the relationship between a verb and its arguments (aside from the genitive; use of semantic role-marking postpositions for marking clause relations is a common strategy in Tibeto-Burman; see Genetti 1986, 1991). For example, the use of the ablative/instrumental marker /-wu/ after a clause marks a cause-effect relation with the following clause.

- (5.63) *the:-dzoqu-le: da-g-wu*, *pitc sei ma-l-jy*. (< dzə) 3sg-foot-DEF:CL DIR-break-INST now walk NEG-able-ASP 'Because his foot is broken he cannot walk now. '
- (5.64) *o-zų-wu dzoqu-pa tə-yzə-şa.*<sup>102</sup> DIR-sit-INST foot-palm DIR-numb-1sgU 'Because of sitting, my feet were numb.'
- (5.65) *ha-n-wu qəpatş ho-su-z ə-şa.* DIR-sleep-INST head DIR-dizzy-CAUS-1sgU 'I felt dizzy from sleeping.'

A cause-effect relation can also be marked by adding the manner adverbial marker  $/n_i/$  to the first clause:

(5.66)	the:	dziq	fia-qə-ŋ i	die-şe.
	3sg	cliff	DIR-go-ADV	DIR-die
	'S/he d	ied (from	) falling off the	cliff.'

To mark the purpose of an action, the postposition  $/\chi ua-(n_{e}i)/(discussed in §3.2.10 as a benefactive postposition), can be used, either after a noun, a clause, or a nominalized clause:$ 

- (5.67) the: stuaha tchə-(s ŋuə)-χua-ŋ,i, (qupu) dzigų 3sg food/rice eat-NOM COP-because-ADV 3sg money me<sup>1</sup>ζ.
  look.for(earn)
  'In order to live, s/he seeks to earn more money.'
- (5.68) *the: dzigų-xua-n<sub>i</sub> ha-qə-n<sub>i</sub> koŋtsuo-pə-k.* 3sg money-because-ADV DIR-go-ADV work-do-go 'For the sake of money, s/he goes out to (go to) work.'
- (5.69) *za lu-z-xua-n,i, zә-ва the: jimi se.* crops come-CAUS-because-ADV field-LOC 3sg fertilizer spread 'S/he spreads fertilizer in the field in order to make the crops grow well.'

The cause of an action or situation can also be marked by /xua-n,i/:

(5.70) the: zə-mə-la-χua-η,i, qaqəi ka:. (< kə)</li>
3sg DIR-NEG-come-because-ADV 1sgREFL go:PRS:1sg
'Because s/he hasn't come, I'm going to go myself.'

The particle /-le/ can be used instead used instead of  $\chi_{u\alpha}$ -n<sub>i</sub>/ or /-s<sub>2</sub>/ to mark a condition or cause:

(5.71) ... quaha-χupi lə u-mu-tçu-le, tçile qəti face-appearance also DIR-NEG-see-because 1pl kill *he-me-se.* (T6:271-272) DIR-NEG-allow
'Because we haven't even seen (her) face, you can't kill us.'

Many hypotactic clauses are nominalized using /-s/ or /-tc/. For example, if the action expressed by the second clause is said to precede the action expressed by the first clause, then the structure /ma-tci-Verb/ (NEG-CON-Verb) 'had not yet Verb; before Verb' is used in the first clause and it is nominalized by /-tc/.

- (5.72) nəs, qa ma-tçi-kə-tç, the: qa səimi de-l. yesterday 1sg NEG-CON-go-GEN 3sg 1sg fruit DIR-give 'Yesterday before I left, s/he gave me (a package of) fruit.'
- (5.73)təp-n,ifia-mə-tci-xtşapə-tc,tomorrow-ADVDIR-NEG-CON-black-GEN?ũtsai-pə-lə-n-pa.2sghereDIR-arrive-come-2sg-DTV'Come here tomorrow before it gets dark.'
- (5.74) qa stuaha ma-tçi-tçhə-tç, japə xuəla. 1sg rice/food NEG-CON-eat-GEN hand wash 'Before I eat, I wash my hands.'

The initial clause may instead be nominalized by /-s/ and followed by /qe:<sup>1</sup>/ 'before', i.e. the structure becomes that of a noun complement clause.

(5.75) (qaqəi)-tcəu-la i-pə-k-əs qe:<sup>1</sup>, qa
1sgREFL-home-LOC DIR-arrive-go-NOM before 1sg *ictcimaqa* ə-jə-sa *voi-kəpa*.
often one-two-sentences call-HABIT:1sg
'Before returning to my own home, I often call out a few sentences.'

The form given above in (5.4) (a clause nominalized by /-s/ and followed by the locative marker /-ta/) is also used in some cases to express a temporal adverbial phrase, as in (5.75a-b).

(5.76)	a.	nəp,	qa	tçəu-la	kə-s-ta,	the:	ləyz
		last.year	1sg	home-LOC	go-NOM-LOC	3sg	book
		su-ji.			-	-	
		study-CSM					
		•		т (1	/1 1	1 .	1 • •
		'Last year	when	I went hom	e, s/he was alrea	dy stu	dying.'
	b.	tshaq-ta	k	uantsa z	z i-s-ta		
		market-LO	C re	estaurant e	xist-NOM-LOC		
				Studiant (			
		a-ma-wa.				(	T5:58-59)
		DIR-hear:1	sg-El	MPH			
			-				Jane 1
		T neard (It	) whe	en i was in t	he restaurant at tl	ne mai	Kel.

For other types of clausal relation, there are different particles that can be used to show the particular relation between the clauses. If the action expressed by the second clause is said to follow the action of the first clause (whether or not the first action was completed), then the particle /n\_ike/ or /n\_iontci/ 'following' can be used at the end of the first clause:

(5.77)	qa	stuaha	sə-tç-ŋ ike,	ફ	şuə	χuəla.
	1sg	food/rice	DIR-eat-afte	r t	eeth	wash
	'After I	eat a meal,	I brush my te	eth.'		
(5.78)	<i>təp-ŋ,i</i> tomorro	ow-ADV	<i>ĥa-xtʂəp-ŋ</i> ,ı DIR-black-a		?ũ 2sg	<i>tsa</i> here

*i-pə-l-ən-pa.* DIR-arrive-come-2sg-DTV 'Come here tomorrow after dark. '

(5.79) qa tu-ju-n.ike, ctces sə-tc-n.i, 1sg DIR-get.up-after breakfast DIR-eat-ADV sanpan-pə-k ha-qa. work-do-go DIR-go:1sg 'After I get up and eat breakfast, I go out to go to work.'

- (5.80) the: qa u-tcu-n,ike, de-xtse. 3sg 1sg DIR-see-after DIR-go.away 'After s/he saw me, s/he went away.'
- (5.81) *the: pie ctcə da-s-n.ike, wə dz udz y.* 3sg pig feed DIR-finish-after horse feed 'S/he finished feeding the pig and then went to feed the horse.'
- (5.82) tə- $\chi$ quats n iantci, məq-ta tuŋtuŋ z o:pua-la DIR-steal after above-LOC cave cave-LOC ha-zdzy-n\_i i-ci-kui. (T5:73-76) . . . DIR-tether-ADV DIR-put-INF:HS 'After stealing (the yaks) he tethered them in a cave.'

To make explicit the idea that an action immediately followed another, the particle /niaufu/ is used instead of /nike/ or /niantci/:

(5.83) *э-qa-n,iaufu kapətş-tou nəş-ta:-ва* DIR-go-LNK(as.soon.as) orphan-DEF:one:CL bed-DEF:CL-LOC *mo-tha-jə-kui.* (T3:126-127) grope-AUX-REP-INF:HS 'As soon as (the orangutan) went in, he groped again for the orphan in the bed.'

To express the conditional ('if'), then the particle /tu/ or /ta/ is added to the end of the first clause. No difference has been found in the degree of hypotheticality in conditional clauses.<sup>103</sup>

- (5.84) *me:*<sup>*I*</sup> *me-ci-tu, tcile kə-ji me-tchi.* rain NEG-fall-if 1pl go-EXC NEG-want 'If it doesn't rain, we can go.'
- (5.85) the: mo-lu-tu, qaqəi ka:. (<kə) 3sg NEG-come-if 1sgREFL go:PRS:1sg 'If s/he doesn't come, I'm going to go myself.'
- (5.86) the: ma-k-tu, qa kə-s pa:-ji. (< pe) 3sg NEG-go-if 1sg go-NOM become:PRS:1sg-PART 'If s/he doesn't go, then I have to go.'

In (5.86) the particle /-ji/ expresses a lack of willingness to go, that is, that the speaker is going only because he or she has to.

The form /tu/ is also often used with a negative copula to express the meaning 'only if'. In these cases the main verb appears as an adverbial element marked by  $/n_{\rm ull}$ .

- (5.87) ?ile dzə-i-n,i ma-ŋuə-tu, (nai) dzə-m me-z i.
  2pl eat-2pl-ADV NEG-COP-LNK other eat-NOM NEG-exist
  'Only if you eat will other people eat'
  (lit.: If you(pl) don't eat, then there is no one (else) who will eat.)
- (5.88) the: lu-n,i ma-n,u,-tu, qa ma-ka. (<kə) 3sg come-ADV NEG-COP-LNK 1sg NEG-go:1sg 'Only if s/he comes, will I go.' / 'I won't go unless she comes.'
- (5.89) zdzyta: kə-ŋ.i ma-ŋu-tu, pə-s ma-şə. Chengdu:LOC go-ADV NEG-COP-LNK buy-NOM NEG-exist 'You cannot buy it unless you go to Chengdu.' / 'Only if you go to Chengdu can you buy it.'

There are also two examples in the Texts where the particles /-wu/ and /-ʁɑ/ (which are used after noun phrases as postpositions) are used with the sense of a conditional. In the case of /-wu/, this use occurs only after nominalized verb complexes, as in (5.90a) and (5.90b), both from the story "Uncle Snake".

- (5.90) a. "?ũ tsi-la-han qa e: 2sg daugher-DEF:one-kind 1sg one:CL de-mə-l-s-te:-wu, qa-wu ?ũ japə-le: DIR-NEG-give-NOM-DEF:CL-if 1sg-AGT 2sg hand-DEF:CL da-g-za-wa" (T4:3-4) DIR-broken-CAUS:1sg-EMPH '(Uncle Snake said,) "If you don't give one of your daughters to me, I will chop off your hand"'
  - b. "tə-mə-ҳsa-n-ва, qa phusuluq-te: DIR-NEG-understand-2sg-if 1sg clothing-DEF:CL *fie-ge-n-ba*, . . . (T4:51) DIR-hold-2sg-DTV '(The old mother-in-law said,) "If you didn't understand, hold on to my clothes, . . ."'

To express a concessive ('although X, Y'), the phrase  $/ha-\eta u_{2}-lu/$  (DIR-COP-'come') is added to the end of the first clause:

- (5.91) a. qa quaha fia-χuəla-haŋuəlu, χo:ts fie-me-qhua.
  1sg face DIR-wash-although beard DIR-NEG-shave:1sg
  'Although I washed my face, I didn't shave.'
  - b. fa-tsa-qəi ba-haŋuşlu, ə-lə tca-na-wa.
    clothes-this:one-CL old-although DIR-look CON-good-very
    'Although this piece of clothing is old, it still looks very good.'

In terms of cross-clause coreference, there do not seem to be either accusative or ergative syntactic restrictions on control of the zero anaphor of the second clause. Compare the following two examples:

(5.92) a.	khuə-le:	ha-qə-ŋ.ike	mi-the:-(wu)
	dog-DEF:CL	DIR-go-after	person-that:CL-AGT
	u-t¢u-wų.		
	DIR-see-3U		
	erson saw (it).'		

b.	mi-the:	ĥa-qә-ŋ ike	khuə-le:	u-tçu.
	person-that:CL	DIR-go-after	dog-DEF:CL	DIR-see
	'When that per	son went down, (s/h	e) saw the do	og.'

In the first example, the noun phrase representing the single direct argument of the first clause is coreferential with the zero pronoun representing the undergoer of the second clause. This would not be possible in a language with an accusative syntactic pivot for this construction unless the second verb was passivized. In the second example, the noun phrase representing the single direct argument of the first clause is coreferential with the zero pronoun representing the actor of the second clause. This would not be possible in a language with an ergative syntactic pivot for this construction unless the second verb was anti-passivized. (See LaPolla 1993, Van Valin & LaPolla 1997, Ch. 6 for the concepts used here and for evidence of a parallel situation in Chinese.)

#### 5.6. The structure of narratives

In the stories recorded there is a clear pattern found where certain particles, such as /-tcu/ and /-stun/ regularly appear at the end of a segment of text, and then a marker of summary, result, or change of scene, such as /tu/ starts a new segment, as in the following, from the story "An Orphan", where two verticle bars mark the new segment:

(5.93)	"ha	qu	me-tchi	-wa,	maha-n_i-ŋuən_i g	Ja
	EXCL	afraid	NEG-wa	ant-DTV	night-ADV-TOP 1	sg
	?ũ gi	ıl	zu-l	u-a:-wa,"		
	2sg co	mpani	on DIR-	come-1sg:	PRS-EMPH	
	jə-kui-tç	u.				
	say-INF:	HS-PAR	ХT			
11	tu	fiala .	fie-zei,	fie-zei-ŋ,i	da-qə-kəi,	
	RESULT	INT 1	DIR-cry	DIR-cry-A	DV DIR-go-INF:HS	

*da-qə-kəi-tu.* (T3:16-19) DIR-go-INF:HS-LNK "'Ha, don't be afraid, at night I will come be your companion", (he) said. | | Then/later/after that (the boy) went on his way, crying, crying.'

The particle /tu/ or /fia-tu/ is very frequent in the texts other than in this construction as well, marking a sort of transition. It is glossed as RESULT because the action described in the clause that follows it is often the result of the action or situation described in the clause that precedes it (and it was translated as 'result' in Chinese), but it can mark other types of transition as well. For example, in the following text segment, from "The Orphan", it is marking a transition similar to a change of paragraph:

(5.94)	kapətş	tou-ŋuəŋ i	ha-tsəi				
	orphan	DEF:one:CL-TOP	INT-this	.manner			
	mo-qu-k	e: zi-l	kəi.				
	NEG-afra	aid-INDEF:CL exis	st-NAR				
11	tu	the-maha-ŋuəŋ,i	tçiu	şəşe: <sup>1</sup> wu	n iantçi		
	RESULT	that-night-TOP	†(then)	exist:REDUP:all	together		
	ganphai-tu-pů-kəi-stu. (T3:99-102)						
	arrange-	DIR-do-NAR-PART					
	'In this way the orphan was not afraid (lit.: 'There was the						
	orphan v	vho was not afraid	). That n	ight they all got to	gether and		
	arranged	what to do.'					

Another pattern, the "tail-head" construction commonly found in Tibeto-Burman languages, is for a verb to end a segment, either with the evidential marking or with the evidential marking followed by one of the segment-final particles mentioned above, and then be repeated at the beginning of the next segment, followed by the linker /-tu/ (not the same function as the independent segment-initial particle /tu/), as in (5.94), from the story "Uncle Snake".

(5.95)	"qa	the:	sətsim	ha-ŋyə-la,"
	1sg	3sg	wife	DIR-COP-INDTV:1sg

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jə-kui-tçu. say-INF:HS-PART || fia-kə jə-kəi-tu, hala qhal INT-thus say-INF:HS-LNK INT momo(a.kind.of.bread) (T4:8-11) a-guə u-lu-kui, . . . one-basketful DIR-give.as.gift-INF:HS "I will become his wife", she said. || Having said that, she was given a basketful of momo, and . . .'

We also find markers of discourse deixis in the Texts, using the demonstrative pronouns, as in the following two segments:

(5.96)	tşi	pe-	tu	çtçə-	p	le-n_i	
	male/	son bec	ome-LNK	seve	n-year	exist-ADV	
	ləyz	a:-su-w	va.		the-wu	hatşi-p	
	book	DIR:INI	DTV-study	-DTV	that-AB	L eleven-y	ear
	le-n_i		qa	ta:-m	e¹z-wa.		(T6:241-243)
	exist-	ADV	1sg	DIR:II	NDTV-see	k-DVT	
	'If it	is a son	, send hin	n to scl	hool whe	en he is sev	ven years old.
	After	that, wh	en he is el	leven, h	ave him	come look	for me.'

(5.97) tə-χsa ma-yz ə-kəi-şə, fiala tce-zei-kəi-stũ.
DIR-understand NEG-able-NAR-LNK there CON-cry-NAR-PART fia-tu, **tsu-ŋuəŋ.i**, pie-le: ha-lə-jə-kui-stũ. (T4:36-8) INT-RESULT here-TOP pig-DEF:CL DIR-come-REP-NAR-PART '(She) was not able to understand, and so continued to cry. Therefore, here (= at this point in the story) the pig came out.'

In (5.96) the distal demonstrative pronoun is used without a classifier, the only time this can be done, and is followed by the ablative marker, marking a temporal relation between two parts of the story, where the demonstrative is referring to the previous action, parallel to English *after that.* In (5.97) the locative proximal deictic pronoun is used to mark a point in the story, much like the use of English *here*, as in *Here I would like to mention* ...

Much more work needs to be done on discourse structure and other aspects of the grammar; these few comments are only a first step.

#### Text 1 The Creation of the World

zəp-le: n.i-ke: pe-ji earth-DEF:CL WH-INDEF:CL become-CSM

- 1 qe<sup>1</sup>lotşu-ва, mutu-la mujuqů zguə-zi we-i, in.the.past-LOC heaven-LOC sun nine-CL exist-HS
- 2 zəp-le: ə-t¢həqha-z-əi. mə n,a ylu earth-DEF:CL DIR-burn-CAUS-HS older.brother COM younger.sister
- 3 jə-tş-ŋuən, zuamə-фu o-zgu-ta i-pi-xua-n, two-CL-TOP cypress-tree one-CL-LOC DIR-hide-because-ADV
- 4 fio-mu-xtcu-wei. steke-ta mi pe<sup>1</sup>zə-s DIR-NEG-burn-HS later-LOC people raise(child)-NOM
- 5 ŋuə-xua-n,i, mə n,a ylu lə-zi COP-because-ADV older.brother COM younger.sister DEF-CL
- 6 i-dzi-tçi, nutçuku dzuaıl e-xşe fiei-bi-ni, DIR-discuss-3pl each stone.mill one-CL DIR-carry.on.back-ADV
- 7 ки-q-ta-wu fio-ylu, dzuaкl jə-xşe mountain-head-LOC-ABL DIR-roll stone.mill two-CL
- 8 e-tşetup-tu, n.izzi oqpi pə-s, dzuaß DIR-bump.into-LNK 3dl one:family do-NOM stone.mill
- 9 jə-xşe ho-ylu-s-ta, qhuat two-CL DIR-roll-NOM-LOC as.it.happens
- 10 e-tşetup-wei, fia-tsəi-n,ike, mə n,a DIR-bump.into-HS INT-this.manner-after older.brother COM
- 11 γlu lə-zi oqpi fio-pə-i. younger.sister DEF-CL one:family DIR-do-HS
- 12 ə-jə-p pe-n,i, ylu-le: mi qes one-two-year become-ADV younger.sister-DEF:CL people form

13	ma-ŋụə ke: NEG-COP INDEF:CL	i-çi. DIR-release	mə-le: older.broth	tə-khueq, er-DEF:CL DIR-angry
14		sə-xte-n i DIR-chop-LNK	tçetçi-la everywhere	da-ьů. -LOC DIR-throw(away)
15	steke la-s-ва, later DEF:one-day-L0	tçetçi-la-w OC everywher		mufů tə-la-ji, smoke DIR-come-CSM
16	fia-tsəi-n ike, INT-this.manner-after	mi people	lu-ji. come-CS	SM

Narrator: Huang Chenglong 黃成龍 Born 1968 Recorded 1994

#### The Creation of the World

Long, long ago, there were nine suns in the heaven which burned the earth. Because a brother and younger sister hid in a great cypress (that honored the gods), they were not burned to death. Later, in order to propagate descendants, the brother and sister talked it over and decided that each would carry a stone mill on his or her back and roll it down from the mountain peak. If the two stone mills joined together, the two could get married. As it happened, when the two stone mills rolled down (to the river bank) they joined together, and so the brother and sister married. After a few years, the younger sister gave birth to a monster not of human form. The older brother was so angry he used a curved knife/scythe to chop it into pieces and scattered them wildly everywhere. The next day when they got up, they saw the smoke of cooking fires everywhere. And henceforth there was humankind.

## Text 2 The Legend of the Origin of All Things Mutsitşu n<sub>s</sub>a Tugantşu

1	mutsitşu na tugantşu zəpəq-ta fio-lu-a:-ji. Mutsitşu COM Tugantşu earth-LOC DIR-come-PRS-CSM
2	apə mupitha-ŋuən i, thəzzi-ta kə-ji, "?izzi zəpəq-ta father(god) Mupitha-TOP 3dl-LOC thus-say 2dl earth-LOC
3	ha-ва-i-ta ha-вә-i." thizzi kә вza-ва, apә-хsә-ŋuәn.i DIR-go-2pl-if DIR-go-2pl 3dl go time-LOC father-god-TOP
4	themle lu-zu xsə-quat de-l-wei, fia-ʁə-ŋ.i 3pl China.fir-seed three-bushel DIR-give-HS DIR-go-ADV
5	кори ĥe-gi-s-ta i-phi-kəi, nai mountain DIR-low(short)-NOM-LOC DIR-plant-NAR other
6	tshəma we-tç səφ-zu xsə-quat de-tçi-le-wei, thorn exist-GEN tree-seed three-bushel DIR-CON-give-HS
7	вори ti-wi-s-ta i-phi-kəi, nai poquş mountain DIR-high-NOM-LOC DIR-plant-NAR other livestock
8	e-khe- $\chi$ an de-tci-le, thizzi tə-waß, one-hundred-kind DIR-CON-give 3dl DIR-drive.ahead
9	a-stu-xan phuxşu-ŋuən,i themle-steke one-thousand-kind wild.creatures-TOP 3pl-behind
10	a-dza-z-n.i. qala-ва, DIR-follow-CAUS-ADV separate/divide/leave-LOC
11	thizzi-ta kə-ji-wei, "?ile gue: <sup>1</sup> -ta-ŋuən,i ha-l-n,i 3dl-LOC thus-say-HS 2pl road-LOC-TOP DIR-look-ADV
12	mutu-la tçe-tse-şu." heaven-LOC NEG.IMP-look-DTV
13	mutsitşu na tugantşu-ŋuən i ctci-ků Mutsitşu COM Tugantşu-TOP heart/mind-inside

14	tə-na-wei, gue: <sup>1</sup> -ta kə вzа-ва zəm fia-tshuə-n,i, DIR-good-HS road-LOC go time-LOC song DIR-sing-ADV
15	zəm tu-xsu-n.i lu-ji. song DIR-jump/dance-LNK come-CSM
16	thizzi-ŋuən i qe: <sup>1</sup> -ta apə mupitha thizzi oqpi 3dl-TOP before-LOC god Mupitha 3dl one:family
17	рә-д mo-ви-диа-ni, ha-l-ni mutu-la do-CAUS NEG-willing-because-ADV DIR-look-ADV heaven-LOC
18	tə-lə-n i tse-i, thəpakta, n ile-steke DIR-look-LNK see-HS as.a.result 3plREFL-behind
19	a-stu-xan phuxsu doqu-z-ək one-thousand-kind wild.animals frighten-CAUS-INF
20	tçetçi-la du-fu-wei, everywhere-LOC DIR-flee-HS
21	fia-tsəi-n,i, pitç phu-ка zi-m INT-this.manner-ADV now forest-LOC exist-NOM
22	phuxsu pe-wei. themle zəpəq-ta i-pə-l-n,ike, wild.animals become-HS 3pl earth-LOC DIR-arrive-come-after
23	e-tşequa de-tshe-n,i lu-zu-la-ha вори DIR-remember DIR-wrong-ADV China.fir-seed-DEF:one-pl mountain
24	ti-wi-s-ta de-se-ku, tshəma we-tç DIR-high-NOM-LOC DIR-sow-NAR thorn exist-GEN
25	səф-zu-la-ha-ŋuəŋ.i кори fie-gi-s-ta tree-seed-DEF:one-pl-TOP mountain DIR-short-NOM-LOC
26	de-se-ku, fia-tsəi ŋuə-xua-n,i, DIR-sow-NAR INT-this.manner COP-because-ADV
27	fie-gi-s-ta-ŋuən i tshəma tə-ş-jy ŋuə. DIR-short-NOM-LOC-TOP thorn DIR-grow-ASP COP

28	thizzi	za-ĸə	bəl-dzə-	wa-χuα-η.i	,	lu
	3dl	earth-LOC	do-able-	very-becau	ise-ADV	China.fir
29	te-x-n <sub>i</sub> i <sup>104</sup>	tçisua	tə-łi,	tshəma	ha-xte-ŋ	i
	DIR-cut-ADV	V house	DIR-build	thorn	DIR-cut.	down-ADV
30	zə tə-zge land DIR-op		tche-tc ind want-GE	zguə N grain	i-фi-ji. DIR-plar	nt-CSM

Narrator: Huang Chenglong 黃成龍 Born 1968 Recorded 1994

#### The Legend of the Origin of All Things Mutsitsu and Tugantsu

(The goddess) Mutsitsu and (the mortal man) Tugantsu wanted to come down to the earth. The god Mupitha said to them, "If you want to go down to the earth, then go." Just before Mutsitsu and Tugantsu left, Mupitha gave them three bushels of China fir seeds and instructed them to plant them on low mountains. He also gave them three bushels of seeds for thorned bushes, and instructed them to plant them on high mountains. He also gave them a hundred kinds of livestock, which they drove before them, and a thousand kinds of birds and beasts, which followed behind them. When they parted, Mupitha said to them, "When you are on the road, do not look back at heaven."

Mutsitsu and Tugantsu were extremely happy. The whole way they sang and danced as they walked. Because the god Mupitha had opposed them becoming one family before, they deliberately looked back at heaven, and the result was that they frightened the thousand kinds of birds and beasts following them, causing them to flee everywhere. In this way these animals became the wild animals now dwelling in the forests. After Mutsitsu and Tugantsu arrived on the earth, they misremembered (what Mupitha had told them to do) and sowed the China fir seeds on high mountains and the thorny bushes on low mountains. As a result, the low areas grew full of brambles and thorns. (However,) because they were very able, they cut down the China firs and built houses, and they hacked through the brambles and thorns, opening up wilderness land, and planted the grain needed by humankind.

### Text 3 An Orphan kapətş kou orphan INDEF:one:CL

	olphan inder one ce
1	qe: <sup>1</sup> -qe: <sup>1</sup> -tu fiala kapətş kou ŋuə-kei-tçu, before-before-LNK INT orphan INDEF:one:CL COP-NAR-PART
2	ep lə me-zi ew lə me-zi ke: father also NEG-exist mother also NEG-exist INDEF:CL
3	ŋuə-kəi-tçu,tufialaşkup-le:-ŋuəŋ,iCOP-NAR-PARTRESULTINTorangutan-DEF:CL-TOP
4	fia-tsukapətştoudzəkantchi-kui-tcu,INT-hereorphanDEF:one:CLeatthink/want-NAR-PART
5	kapətş lou dzə kantci:-tu, fiala, kapətş orphan DEF:one:CL eat think/want-LNK INT orphan
6	tou gəs-ta fia-xtşə-pa:-jə-tu DEF:one:CL night-LOC DIR-get.dark-become:PRS-REP-LNK
7	qu-kəpə-kəi-ş, tçəu-la kə вzа-ва, zei he-afraid-HABIT-NAR-LNK home-LOC go when-LOC cry
8	fie-zei-n,i kə-kəpə-kəi-tçu, tu fiala da-qa DIR-cry-ADV go-HABIT-NAR-PART RESULT INT DIR-go
9	da-qa-tu gue: <sup>1</sup> -ta fia-qa, DIR-go-LNK road-LOC DIR-go
10	χa-le:-ŋ.ae-tşepe-kəi-tçu.χa-le:-wuneedle-DEF:CL-COMDIR-encounter-NAR-PARTneedle-DEF:CL-AGT
11	tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l-kui-tçu, "ha, n.i:-pe-wa, <sup>105</sup> n.i:-pe-wa," DIR-ask-NAR-PART EXCL WH-become-Q WH-become-Q
12	jə-tu. fia kapətş tou ha-sə-kəi-şə, say-LNK INT orphan DEF:one:CL DIR-make.sound-NAR-LNK
13	"hi!şkup-te:-wumahaqadzəla:,"EXCLorangutan-DEF:CL-AGTnight1sgeatcome:PRS

14	jə-şə, "qa tcəu-la o-zů-n,i qa ou-stu say-LNK 1sg home-LOC DIR-sit-ADV 1sg one:CL-alone
15	je qu-a-wa," jə-kui-tçu. tu live/stay afraid-1sg-EMPH say-NAR-PART RESULT
16	χa-le:-ŋuən,i,"haqume-tchi-wa,maha-n,i-ŋuən,ineedle-DEF:CL-TOPEXCL afraidNEG-want-DTVnight-ADV-TOP
17	qa?ũ-gulzu-lu-a:-wa,"jə-kui-tçu.1sg2sg-companionDIR-come-1sg:PRS-EMPHsay-NAR-PART
18	tu ĥala ĥe-zei, ĥe-zei-ŋ.i da-qə-kəi, RESULT INT DIR-cry DIR-cry-ADV DIR-go-NAR
19	da-qə-kəi-tu, fiala qusap-te:-ŋ.a DIR-go-NAR-LNK INT scissors-DEF:CL-COM
20	e-tşepe-kəi-tçu, qusap-te:-wu DIR-encounter-NAR-PART scissors-DEF:CL-AGT
21	"a ?ũ nivi-pe-wa? ni-xua-ni kə-zei-n-a?" EXCL 2sg what-become-Q WH-because-ADV thus-cry-2sg-Q
22	jə-kui-tçu. fia "qa tçəu-la ou-tçi say-NAR-PART INT 1sg home-LOC one:CL-EXC
23	me-z a-wa, şkup-te: qa dza:," NEG-exist:1sg-EMPH orangutan-DEF:CL 1sg eat:PRS
24	jə-kəpə-şə, "maha-n i ho-lu-kəpə-wa," say-HABIT -LNK night-ADV DIR-come-HABIT-EMPH
25	jə-kui-tçu. "a: ke:-jə say-NAR-PART EXCL INDEF:CL-EXC
26	ma-ŋuə-ta zə me-w, maha qa ?ũ NEG-COP-if matter NEG-exist night 1sg 2sg
27	gul zu-lu-a:-wa," jə-kui-tçu, "?ũ-gul companion DIR-come-1sg:PRS-EMPH say-NAR-PART 2sg-friend
28	zu-lu-a:-wa,'' jə-kui-tu. DIR-come-1sg:PRS-EMPH say-NAR-LNK

29	hα-the-wu χaişə he-zei he-zei-ŋ.i INT-that-ABL †(still.is) DIR-cry DIR-cry-ADV
30	da-qə-jə he-zei he-zei-n i da-qə-jə-kəi-tu, DIR-go-REP DIR-cry DIR-cry-ADV DIR-go-REP-NAR-LNK
31	xaişə xsə ctcictciaq tou-na †(still.is) new(again) magpie DEF:one:CL-COM
32	e-tşepe-kə-jə-kei-tçu, ctçictçaq DIR-encounter-go-REP-NAR-PART magpie
33	tou-nae-tşepe-kəi-tu,DEF:one:CL-COMDIR-encounter-NAR-LNK
34	"a: ?ũ n,i-χuα-n,i kə-zei-n-a?" jə-kui. EXCL 2sg WH-because-ADV thus-cry-2sg-Q say-NAR
35	"qa-ŋuən.i tçəu-la ou-jə me-z.a-wa, 1sg-TOP home-LOC one:CL-EXC NEG-exist:1sg-EMPH
36	tatə lə me-zi, ma lə me-zi, father also NEG-exist mother also NEG-exist
37	ep-ew me-zi fia-kou ŋua-şə, father-mother NEG-exist INT-INDEF:one:CL COP:1sg-LNK
38	tçəu-la ha-xtşəp-n,ike, şkup-le:-wu qa dza:," home-LOC DIR-get.dark-after orangutan-DEF:CL-AGT 1sg eat:PRS
39	jə-kəpə-şə, "qa tçəu-la je qu-a-wa," say-HABIT-LNK 1sg home-LOC live/stay afraid-1sg-EMPH
40	jə-kui-tçu. "hi! qu me-tçhi-wa, maha-n,i say-NAR-PART EXCL afraid NEG-want-EMPH night-ADV
41	qa?ũ-gulzu-lu-a:-wa,"jə-kui-tçu.1sg2sg-companionDIR-come-1sg:PRS-EMPHsay-NAR-PART
42	xsə da-qə da-qə-jə-kəi, da-qa new(again) DIR-go DIR-go-REP-NAR DIR-go
43	da-qə-jə-kəi-tu, fiala noʁu-le:-n,a DIR-go-REP-NAR-LNK INT crow-DEF:CL-COM

44	e-tşepe-kəi-t¢u, DIR-encounter-NAR-PART	noкu-le:-n.a crow-DEF:CL-COM
45	e-tşepe-kəi-tu, DIR-encounter-NAR-LNK	"ha! ?ũ n.i-χuα-n.i EXCL 2sg WH-because-ADV
46	kə-zei-n-a?" jə-kui. thus-cry-2sg-Q say-NAR	tu χaişə "qa hala RESULT †(still.is) 1sg INT
47	ep lə me-zi father also NEG-exist	əw lə me-z,i, mother also NEG-exist
48	kapətş kou-jə orphan DEF:one:CL-EXC	ma-ŋua-şə, tu NEG-COP:1sg-LNK RESULT
49	hala gəs-ta-ŋuən i INT night-LOC-TOF	
50	je qu-a-wa, şku live/stay afraid-1sg-EMPH ora	ap-le:-ŋuən,i qa dza:-wa," angutan-DEF:CL-TOP 1sg eat:PRS-EMPH
51	jə-kui-tçu. "ha, ta k say-NAR-PART EXCL if I	te: ŋuə-ta, ҳə me-w, NDEF:CL COP-if matter NEG-exist
52	qa-ŋuən.i maha zu-lů-n.i, 1sg-TOP night DIR-come-	?ũ-gul -ADV 2sg-companion
53	i-jə-la-wa," DIR-live-INDTV:1sg-EMPH	jə-kui-tçu. say-NAR-PART
54	xsə da-qa new(again) DIR-g	da-qə-jə-kəi, fia 30 DIR-go-REP-NAR INT
55	da-qə-kəi-tu, χsutsqha-l DIR-go-NAR-LNK stomach-D	le:-na e-tşepe-kəi, DEF:CL-COM DIR-encounter-NAR
56	xsutsqha-le:-na e-tsepe-l stomach-DEF:CL-COM DIR-enco	kəi-tu, χsutsqhα-le:-wu bunter-NAR-LNK stomach-DEF:CL-AGT
57		ni-xua-ni kə-zei-n-a?" WH-because-ADV thus-cry-2sg-Q
58	jə-kui, "ni-xua-ni k say-NAR WH-because-ADV tl	ə-zei-n-a?" jə-kui-tu. hus-cry-2sg-Q say-NAR-LNK

59	kapətş tou he-zgue-kəi, "qa-ŋuən,i orphan DEF:one:CL DIR-answer-NAR 1sg-TOP
60	ep lə me-zə-i əw lə father also NEG-exist-CSM mother also
61	me-zə-i, gəs-n i fia-xtşəp-n iaufu NEG-exist-CSM night-ADV DIR-get.dark-LNK(as.soon.as)
62	şkup-le: qa dzə-la:," jə-kəpə-şə, "qa orangutan-DEF:CL 1sg eat-come:PRS say-HABIT-LNK 1sg
63	qu-a-wa," jə-kui. "ha! ke:-ji afraid-1sg-EMPH say-NAR EXCL INDEF:CL-EXC
64	ma-ŋuə-ta, zə me-w-wa, NEG-COP-if matter NEG-exist-EMPH
65	qa-ŋuən.i ?ũ-gul ha-ŋu̥ə-la-wa, 1sg-TOP 2sg-companion DIR-COP-INDTV:1sg-EMPH
66	maha-ŋuən,i qa ?ũ-gul zu-lu-a:-wa," jə-kui. night-TOP 1sg 2sg-companion DIR-come-1sg:PRS-EMPH say-NAR
67	ƙa-tsa-tau ŋuə-tu, ƙala ƙe-zei ƙe-zei-ni INT-this:one-time COP-LNK INT DIR-cry DIR-cry-ADV
68	da-qə-jə-kəi, da-qa da-qa-tu fiala DIR-go-REP-NAR DIR-go DIR-go-LNK INT
69	thəl-le:-na e-tşepe-kəi-stu, stone.pestle-DEF:CL-COM DIR-encounter-NAR-PART
70	thəl-le:-na e-tşepe-kəi-tu, stone.pestle-DEF:CL-COM DIR-encounter-NAR-LNK
71	"ha! ?ũ ni-χua-ni kə-zei-n-a?" jə-kui, EXCL 2sg WH-because-ADV thus-cry-2sg-Q say-NAR
72	tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l-kui. "fia, qa-ŋuən i ep lə me-zə-i DIR-ask-NAR EXCL 1sg-TOP father also NEG-exist-CSM
73	wləme-zə-i,fia-xtşəpa:motheralsoNEG-exist-CSMDIR-get.dark:PRS

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74	ququ, pəs lə fia-xtşəp-ja, şkup-le:-ŋuəŋ.i afraid today also DIR-get.dark-REP orangutan-DEF:CL-TOP
75	maha qa dzə-la:," jə-kəpə-wa, jə-kui. night 1sg eat-come:PRS say-HABIT-EMPH say-NAR
76	նa-tu-ŋuən i, "ke:-ji ma-ŋuə-ta, zə me-w, INT-RESULT-TOP INDEF:CL-EXC NEG-COP-if matter NEG-exist
77	qa-ŋuən,i ?ũ-gul zu-lu-a:, maha-n,i qa 1sg-TOP 2sg-companion DIR-come-1sg:PRS night-ADV 1sg
78	?ũ-gulzu-lů-la-wa,"jə-kui-tçu.2sg-companionDIR-come-INDTV:1sg-EMPHsay-NAR-PART
79	fia tsa-tau-tu-ŋuən,i, kapətş tou-ŋuən,i INT this:one-time-LNK-TOP orphan DEF:one:CL-TOP
80	hα-tsα-χsa <sup>3</sup> wu gul he-se-kei-stu. INT-this:one-few:all companion DIR-make-NAR-PART
81	gul fie-se-kəi-tu, companion DIR-make(friends)-NAR-LNK
82	maha pe-k-kui, tsa-xui-tu fia-xtşəp-ji maha night become-go-NAR this:one-time-LNK DIR-get.dark-CSM night
83	i-pə-l-kui, qusap lə i-pə-l-kui, DIR-arrive-come-NAR scissors also DIR-arrive-come-NAR
84	сtсәсtсаq tou lә i-pә-l-kui, пови magpie DEF:one:CL also DIR-arrive-come-NAR crow
85	lə i-pə-l-kui, fia xsutsqha, also DIR-arrive-come-NAR INT stomach
86	thəl, jankhui şəşə: <sup>1</sup> wu i-pə-l-kui-tçu. stone.pestle stone.mortar exist:REDUP:all DIR-arrive-come-NAR-PART
87	tsa-xui-tu, zmə a-la fio-tsu-kəi, this:one-time-LNK meeting one-CL DIR-hold-NAR
88	kapətş tou-ŋuən,i çtçi:-ků kən fia-nə-kui, orphan DEF:one:CL-TOP heart-inside very DIR-good-NAR

89	"fia, pəmaha-ŋuən i qa gul la-ha EXCL tonight-TOP 1sg companion DEF:one-pl
90	i-pə-l-jy, pəmaha-ŋuən,i şkup-te: DIR-arrive-come-ASP tonight-TOP orangutan-DEF:CL
91	mo-qu-a-wa, fia-kə NEG-afraid-1sg-EMPH INT-thus
92	mo-qu-ja-wa ike zi-kəi." tha-χsa NEG-afraid-CSM:1sg-EMPH thus exist-NAR that:one-few
93	i-pə-l-ku-tu, "maha tço-qu-n-pa, DIR-arrive-come-NAR-LNK night NEG.IMP-be.afraid-2sg-DTV
94	do-tçu-qu-n-pa, tçile tsa-χsə <sup>1</sup> wu DIR-NEG.IMP-be.afraid-2sg-DTV 1pl this:one-few:all
95	gul-pa-ş, şkup-le: i-me-pə-l-n,i companion-do-LNK orangutan-DEF:CL DIR-NEG-arrive-come-ADV
96	ma-ŋuə-tçi. i-pə-l-tu, NEG-COP-EXC DIR-arrive-come-LNK
97	tçile pəmaha tse: qəta:-wa," jə-kui-tçu. 2pl tonight this:CL beat.to.death:PRS-EMPH say-NAR-PART
98	tu skup-le: lə mo-qu-ke: RESULT orangutan-DEF:CL also NEG-afraid-INDEF:CL
99	fia-lə-kəi, kapətş tou-ŋuən i fia-tsəi DIR-come-NAR orphan DEF:one:CL-TOP INT-this.manner
100	mo-qu-ke: zi-kəi. NEG-afraid-INDEF:CL exist-NAR
101	tu the-maha-ŋuən i tçiu şəşe: <sup>1</sup> wu niantçi RESULT that-night-TOP †(then) exist:REDUP:all together
102	gαnphai-tu-pů-kəi-stu, χa-le:-ŋuən,i t¢α-lə arrange-DIR-do-NAR-PART needle-DEF:CL-TOP where-LOC
103	je-s ŋuə, tça-lə tça-lə live/stay-NOM COP where-LOC where-LOC

104	nə-s ŋuə sleep-NOM COP		tça-lə where-LOC	tça-lə where-LOC	
105	n iyi ŋuə-s what COP-NOM	ŋuə, COP	ha-tsəi INT-this:manr	er	
106	ganphai-tu-pů-kəi-tçu. arrange-DIR-do-NAR-PART		χa-le:-ŋuən,i ĥala needle-DEF:CL-TOP INT		
107	dzy-le:-ва door-DEF:CL-LOC		ə-tşə-n <sub>-</sub> i hala DIR-stab-ADV INT		
108	dzy-le:-ĸa door-DEF:CL-LOC			u-ŋuəŋ.i DEF:one:CL-TOP	
109		ou-piena-la DEF:one:CL-	beside-LOC	nəş-te:-piena bed-DEF:CL-beside	
110	tha ha-nə-k there DIR-sle	təi, ep-NAR	ctcictcaq-tou-ŋuən i fa magpie-DEF:one:CL-TOP IN		
111	mə-law-zaxua fia-nə-kui-tçu, fire-DEF:one:pile-inside DIR-sleep-NAR-PART				
112	пови-le:-ŋuəŋ,i fiala şuətşhua zaҳua fia-nə-kui, crow-DEF:CL-TOP INT water.jar inside DIR-sleep-NAR				
113	ha tsəi-ŋuən,i, χsutsqha-le:-ŋuən,i INT this.manner-TOP stomach-DEF:CL-TOP				
114	buzd-te:-qəpatşa: ha-nə-kui-tçu, plank.stairs-DEF:CL-head:LOC DIR-sleep-NAR-PART				
115	jankhui-le:-ŋuəŋ,i buzd-le:-ku-ta stone.mortar-DEF:CL-TOP plank.stairs-DEF:CL-base-LOC				
116	ha-nə-kui-tçu, DIR-sleep-NAR-PAI	ha RT INT	thəl-le:-ŋuən, stone.pestle-I		
117	buzd-le:-qəpatşa: plank.stairs-DEF:CL-head:LOC DIR-live/stay-NAR-PART				
118			cup-te: rangutan-DEF:C	zə-la-jə-kui, L DIR-come-REP-NAR	

119	tsou this:one:CL	tçymi-lou- child-DEF	-ta :one:CL-DAT	zə-la-kui DIR-come	-tu, e-NAR-LNK
120	dzy-la:-ва door-DEF:CL	-LOC	qe <sup>1</sup> before	spaspa like/as	
121	dzy-le:-ta door-DEF:CL		dzeke (onomatopoeia)		i-kəi-tçu, push-NAR-PART
122	dzy-le: door-DEF:CL	i-¢t¢i, DIR-push	χa-lα-hα needle-DEF:one	tha -pl there	z i-kui-niau, exist-NAR-PART
123	χa-lα-hα needle-DEF:c		ə-le:-ta nd-DEF:CL-LOC		
124			ə-şə-kui-tçu, DIR-put-NAR-PA		
125	tçəu-la home-LOC	ә-вә DIR-go	çtçaq heart	tço-lu-kui CON-com	-şə, e-NAR-LNK
126	ə-qa-jə-kui, DIR-go-REP-	NAR	ə-qa-n iaufu DIR-go-LNK(as.	soon.as)	
127	kapətş-tou orphan-DEF:		nəş-ta:-ка bed-DEF:CL-LOC		-jə-kui, or-AUX-REP-NAR
128		tça-lə where-LOC	nə me <sup>1</sup> z-l sleep seek-N	kəi, kapə AR orpha	tş tou an DEF:one:CL
129	nəş-ta:-ва-ŋuən,i, kapətş-tou me <sup>1</sup> z kantchi bed-DEF:CL-LOC-TOP orphan-DEF:one:CL seek think/want				
130	qusap-te:-wu scissors-DEF		apə-le:-xşe and-DEF:CL-CL		
131		ap-ke: ck-INDEF:C	ŋuə-kui-ŋ.iau L COP-NAR-PA		p-te:-wu ors-DEF:CL-AGT
132	jɑpə-le: hand-DEF:CL		sa tuetue-ke: blood driping-IN		da-qa-jant¢i, DV DIR-go-after
133	mə-law fire-DEF:one	qhə <sup>1</sup> c pile open:	ıhə¹-kəi, mə-law -NAR fire-DE	F:one:pile	i-sue-n i DIR-set.fire-ADV

Text 3: An Orphan 265

134	n iyi-la-ha kə-zi, a-ş tse kantchi-kəi, what-DEF:one-pl thus-exist one-time see think/want-NAR			
135	mə-law da-qhe <sup>1</sup> kantchi me-pe-n,iaufu, fire-DEF:one.pile DIR-open think/want NEG-correct-LNK(as.soon.as)			
136	xsə ctçictçaq-la-ha new(again) magpie-DEF:one-pl			
137	da-şp-jə-kui-stu, tşhəqtşhaqtşhəqtşhaq-la-ha DIR-explode-REP-NAR-PART (onomatopoeia)-DEF:one-pl			
138	da-sp-n.iaufu mi: da-qə-kui, mi: DIR-explode-LNK(as.soon.as) eyes DIR-go-NAR eyes			
139	da-qə-kui, fia tsa-xui-tu, DIR-go-NAR INT this:one-time-LNK			
140	mi: da-qa, mi: da-qə-tu, şuətşhua-la:-ʁa eyes DIR-go eyes DIR-go-LNK water.jar-DEF:CL-LOC			
141	sə-l-n.iontçi, tsə-lo-qu ŋuə-n.iantçi, quaha-lo-qu DIR-see-after water-DEF:one-CL COP-after face-DEF:one-CL			
142	χuəlakantçhi-kəi-wa,quahaχuəlakantçhiwashthink/want-NAR-EMPHfacewashthink/want			
143	şuətşhua-la:-ва su-tşhu, noвu-le-tçi water.jar-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-reach.out crow-DEF-CL			
144	tha zi-jə-kui-stu, noʁu-le-tɕi-wu there exist-REP-NAR-PART crow-DEF-CL-AGT			
145	tshuaq tshuaq da-sə-z, miausdzue-la:-ва peck peck DIR-make.sound-CAUS eye-DEF:CL-LOC			
146	i-tshuete-kui-stu. fia-tsa- $\chi$ ui-tu, miau $x$ d $z$ ue DIR-peck-NAR-PART INT-this:one-time-LNK eye			
147	lə me-le-jy, japə e-xşe lə me-wê-jy. also NEG-exist-ASP hand one-CL also NEG-exist-ASP			
148	fiala saq tuetue-ke:-tçi du-qu-n <sub>s</sub> i INT blood driping-INDEF:CL-ADV DIR-run.away-ADV			

149	ha-B kantchi-kəi, du-фu-n.i buzd-qə-ta DIR-go think/want-NAR DIR-run.away-ADV plank.stairs-head-LOC			
150	ha-в kantchi-kei-tu, sə-qa, sə-qa-n,iaufu, DIR-go think/want-NAR-LNK DIR-go DIR-go-LNK(as.soon.as)			
151	χsutsqha-la:-κaĥe-tṣḥue,χsutsqha-la:-κastomach-DEF:CL-LOCDIR-step.onstomach-DEF:CL-LOC			
152	he-tşhue, da-ła buzd-le:-ta dziq ha-qə-i-stu. DIR-step.on DIR-slip plank.stairs-DEF:CL-LOC floor DIR-go-HS-PART			
153	dziq ha-qə-n.iaufu tşhə-la buzd-kuə-ta floor DIR-go-LNK(as.soon.as) ground.floor-LOC plank.stair-foot-LOC			
154	jankhui-le:-zaxua ĥa-qa, xsə thəl-le: stone.mortar-DEF:CL-inside DIR-go new(again) stone.pestle-DEF:CI			
155	qəpatşa: şə, ha-la, thəl-le:-wu head:LOC exist DIR-come stone.pestle-DEF:CL-AGT			
156	he-tçite he-tçite, he-tçite-n.iaufu, ha-tsu DIR-pound DIR-pound DIR-pound-LNK(as.soon.as) INT-here			
157	skup-te:-ŋuən i n.i-qəti-n.i orangutan-DEF:CL-TOP DIR-beat.to.death-ADV			
158	da-вu-kui-wa. DIR-throw-NAR-EMPH			

Narrator: Wang Lin 王林 Born 1966 Recorded 1996

#### An Orphan

Long ago, there was an orphan; he was one who had no father and no mother. There was an orangutan who wanted to eat this orphan. The orphan was always afraid when it got dark at night, and on his way home, he was crying and crying as he walked. He walked a while and met with a needle. The needle asked him, "What's the matter?" The orphan answered, "Aye! The orangutan is going to come eat me at night. I'm afraid to be at home by myself." The needle said, "Hah! Don't be afraid. At night I'll come be your companion."

Later, again he was crying, crying as he walked. He walked a while and met some scissors. The scissors asked him, "Ah, what's the matter with you? Why are you crying like this?" The orphan said, "At my home, there's only me alone. The orangutan is going to come down to eat me. He comes at night." The scissors said, "Ah, if that is all it is, no problem, at night I'll come be your companion."

After that, the orphan still was crying and crying as he walked. He walked a while and met a magpie. The magpie asked him, "Why are you crying like this?" The orphan answered, "At home, there's only me alone. I have neither father nor mother. I am one without parents. When it gets dark, the orangutan is going to eat me. I'm afraid to be at home alone." The magpie said, "Aye! You need not be afraid. At night I'll come be your companion."

Again he went on, and after walking a while he met a crow, and the crow said, "Hah! Why are you crying?" The orphan said, "I have neither father nor mother. I'm only an orphan. At night I am afraid (to be at home alone); the orangutan is going to eat me." The crow said, "Hah! If that's the case, there's no problem, at night I'll come be your companion."

Again, the orphan went on crying as he walked. He walked a while and came across a stomach, and the stomach asked him, "Hah! Why are you crying like this?" The orphan answered, "I have neither father nor mother. At night, as soon as it gets dark, the orangutan is going to come eat me. I'm afraid." The stomach said, "Hah! If that's all it is, there's no problem, let me come be your companion at night. I'll come be your companion."

The orphan still was crying, crying as he walked. He walked a while and also came across a stone mortar, the stone mortar asked, "Hah! Why are you crying like this?" The orphan said, "Ah, I have neither father nor mother. I'm afraid of when it will get dark. When it gets dark again today, the orangutan is going to come eat me." The stone mortar said, "If that's all it is, no problem, I'll come be your companion. Let me come be your companion."

At this time the orphan had made friends with these (things) mentioned. When night came, they all came. The needle came, and the scissors came, and the magpie came, and the crow came, and the stomach, the stone mortar and a stone pestle all came. After they came, they held a meeting. The orphan was extremely happy. "Tonight my companions have come. Tonight I'm not afraid of the orangutan." After these [things] had all come, they told him, "Don't be afraid tonight. If the orangutan comes, we will beat him to death."

The orangutan wasn't afraid, and still came. The orphan was not afraid.

That night everybody made a plan together, where the needle should stay, where (each of them) should sleep and what-not and it was all settled. The needle was above the door to stab (the orangutan) in the doorway, the scissors slept beside the orphan on the bed, the magpie slept in the fire pile, the crow slept in the water jar, the stomach slept at the head of the stairs, the stone mortar was at the foot of the stairs, and the stone pestle was at the head of the stairs.

When it got dark, the orangutan came towards the orphan, the same as before. When he pushed the door with a creak, the needle was there, and as soon as the needle pricked his hand, his hand was all covered with blood, but he still wanted to go in the room. Once he was in the room and going to look for the orphan in the bed, the scissors cut off his hand. It was dark and the scissors had cut off his hand, and blood was dripping down. Then he went over to the fire pile, thinking to light it, to see what thing it was! As soon as the orangutan wanted to touch the fire pile, the magpie inside the fire pile burst out with a lot of noise and (the ashes) got into the orangutan's eyes. The orangutan went to the water jar, wanting to get some water to wash his face. He looked around and saw the water jar and after a mouthful of water wanted to wash his face, but the crow was there and the crow came out and pecked his eyes. This time the orangutan had no eyes and no hand and was covered with blood. He wanted to escape covered with blood. As soon as he got to the head of the stairs he stepped on the stomach and slipped and rolled down the staircase and into the stone mortar at the foot of the stairs. Then the stone pestle pounded and pounded and pounded down on him, and in this way pounded the orangutan to death and then (they) threw him away.

# Text 4 Uncle Snake

upu bəs uncle snake

1	i-tse, pəs-ŋuən,i коки lampə lie-tu, lie, DIR-look today-TOP ram's.horn flower carry-LNK bring			
2	lie-tu, lie-n.i, a:, upu-bəs-ŋuən.i, carry-LNK carry-LNK INT uncle-snake-TOP			
3	"?ũ tsi-la-han qa e: de-mə-l-əs-te:-wu, 2sg daugher-DEF:one-kind 1sg one:CL DIR-NEG-give-NOM-DEF:CL-LNK			
4	qa-wu ?ũ-japə-le: da-g-za-wa," 1sg-AGT 2sg-hand-DEF:CL DIR-broken-CAUS:1sg-EMPH			
5	ikə jə-kui-tçu. ha-kə jə-kui-tu, thus say-NAR-PART INT-thus say-NAR-LNK			
6	tsi tçi-χtşα-le:-ŋuən,i, "ha, tatə ke: daugher most-small-DEF:CL-TOP EXCL father INDEF:CL			
7	ŋuə-k-ta, qa n.i: ŋuə lə ça:-ŋuə, ?ũ-jɑpə-le: COP-INF-if 1sg what COP also INDTV-COP 2sg-hand-DEF:CL			
8	da-g-z, ə-qəsta, qa the:-sətsim DIR-break-CAUS-not.as.good.as 1sg 3sg-wife			
9	ha-ŋu̥ə-la," jə-kui-tçu. DIR-COP-INDTV:1sg say-NAR-PART			
10	ha-kə jə-kəi-tu, hala qhal INT-thus say-NAR-LNK INT momo(steamed.bread)			
11	a-guə u-lu-kui, "fia, upu-bəs-te:-steke one-basketful DIR-give.as.gift-NAR EXCL uncle-snake-DEF:CL-behind			
12	da-вə-n-ba," jə-kui-tçu. qhal DIR-go-2sg-DTV say-NAR-PART momo(steamed.bread)			

13	a-guə one-basketful	fiei-bi-n.i, DIR-carry.on.back-LNK		upu-bəs-te: uncle-snake-DEF:CL	
14	tçiqə: <sup>1</sup> before				
15	sei-k-kui, walk-go-NAR	n.i:-ŋuən.i 3sgREFL-TOP	fia INT	steke behind	steke behind
16	he-zei he-z DIR-cry DIR-	cei fie-zei-ke: -cry DIR-cry-IN		tse:-s this:C	teke CL-behind
17	da-qə-kəi-stũ. DIR-go-NAR-PAI	da-qa, RT DIR-go	da-c DIR-		da-qa-tu, DIR-go-LNK
18	upu-bəs-te: fia qha <sup>1</sup> sue-law-sa i-pə-k- uncle-snake-DEF:CL INT stone.pile-DEF:one:CL-LOC DIR-arrive-go-				
19	tu, u-tçu LNK DIR-see	ma-lə-jy-tu, NEG-able-ASP-LNK	qha¹su stone.p	e-law bile-DEF:on	χαηχα: e:CL crevice
20	ha-qə-tu, ha-thu tsi-lou-ŋuən,i ha DIR-go-LNK INT-there girl-DEF:one:CL-TOP INT				
21	виаха-la courtyard-LOC	he-zei DIR-cry	fie-zei- DIR-cry		tha there
22	zi-kəi-stũ, qha <sup>3</sup> sue-law-piena-la. exist-NAR-PART stone.pile-DEF:one:CL-beside-LOC				
23	ĥa-tha-χui-tu, t¢iqua-la ha-lə-ŋ,i INT-that:one-time-LNK inside-LOC DIR-come-ADV				
24	hala t¢iqu INT insid	a-la коi-kə-m e-LOC call-go-N		he-çi-ku DIR-sene	ii-tçu. d-NAR-PART
25	upu-bəs-te: uncle-snake-DEl	xsə ŋuə-kui- F:CL god COP-NA	-n,i, n R-ADV p		qua-la-ŋuən i side-LOC-TOP
26	tçy-le:-ŋuəŋ,i воi-kə-m he-çi-kui-stũ. chicken-DEF:CL-TOP call-go-NOM DIR-send-NAR-PART				

27	"entçi qutaq. entçi qutaq. uncle's.wife (sound.of.chicken) uncle's.wife (sound.of.chicken)
28	entçi qutaq," jə-tu, uncle's.wife (sound.of.chicken) say-LNK
29	xsə sa jə-kui-tçu. xsə sa jə-kui-tu, three sound say-NAR-PART three sound say-NAR-LNK
30	thou tə-χsa ma-ɣz ə-kəi-şə, that:one:CL DIR-understand NEG-able-NAR-LNK
31	fia: tce-zei-kəi-stũ. INT CON-cry-NAR-PART
32	tu, tçy-le: ə-qa-jə-kui, xsə RESULT chicken-DEF:CL DIR-go-REP-NAR new(again)
33	khuə-le: ha-lə-jə-kui-stũ. khuə-le: dog-DEF:CL DIR-come-REP-NAR-PART dog-DEF:CL
34	ha-lə-jə-kui-tu, hala "haŋů haŋů DIR-come-REP-LNK INT woof woof
35	entçi qutaq, haŋů haŋů entçi qutaq," uncle's.wife cluck woof woof uncle's.wife cluck
36	jə-jə-kui-stū. tə-ჯsa ma-yzə-kəi-şə, say-REP-NAR-PART DIR-understand NEG-able-NAR-LNK
37	fiala tçe-zei-kəi-stũ. there CON-cry-NAR-PART
38	fia-tu, tsu-ŋuən,i, pie-le: ha-lə-jə-kui-stũ. INT-RESULT here-TOP pig-DEF:CL DIR-come-REP-NAR-PART
39	pie-le: ha-lə-n,i "hə̃'hə̃' entçi qutaq, hə̃'hə̃' pig-DEF:CL DIR-come-LNK oink.oink uncle's.wife cluck oink.oink
40	entçi qutaq, fiə <sup>1</sup> fiə <sup>1</sup> entçi lantçi lu-a:-ji." uncle's.wife cluck oink.oink uncle's wife flower come-PRS-CSM
41	tu ĥala tə-mə-ҳsa-kəi-şə, ə-mə-qa-kəi-stũ. RESULT INT DIR-NEG-understand-NAR-LNK DIR-NEG-go-NAR-PART

42	ha-tha-χui-tu, ha, t¢iqua-la qodu-le: INT-that:one-time-LNK INT inside-LOC old.woman-DEF:CL
43	ha-lə-kui-stũ. ma:-le: ha-lə-kui-stũ. DIR-come-NAR-PART mama-DEF:CL DIR-come-NAR-PART
44	fiala, bəs dzel-pə-tç-ma:-le: ha-lə-kui-stũ. INT snake feast <sup>106</sup> -do-GEN-mama-DEF:CL DIR-come-NAR-PART
45	ma:-le: ha-lə-tu, fia:, "qa-tsi mama-DEF:CL DIR-come-LNK INT 1sg-girl
46	n.i:-le: zei-n-a? zei me-tche, qa what-DEF:CL cry-2sg-Q cry NEG-want 1sg
47	koi-kə-mkənhe-ça-n,i,?ũcall-go-NOMvery(many)DIR-send:1sg-LNK2sg
48	ə-mə-la-n-şə, qa ha-la-wa," DIR-NEG-come-2sg-LNK 1sg DIR-come-EMPH
49	jə-kui-stũ. tu, fia tsi-lou-ŋuən,i, "qa say-NAR-PART RESULT INT girl-DEF:one:CL-TOP 1sg
50	tə-mə-xsa-wa," jə-kui-stũ. ĥa-tu, DIR-NEG-understand-EMPH say-NAR-PART INT-RESULT
51	"tə-mə-ҳsa-n-ва, qa-phusuluq-te: ĥe-ge-n-ba, DIR-NEG-understand-2sg-if lsg-clothing-DEF:CL DIR-hold-2sg-DTV
52	qa-phusuluq-te: tə-tsəqa-n,i mi: fia-tşə-n-ba, 1sg-clothing-DEF:CL DIR-grab-ADV eye DIR-close-2sg-DTV
53	qa-steke ha-zə-n-ba,'' jə-kui-stũ. ha 1sg-behind DIR-follow-2sg-DTV say-NAR-PART INT
54	tsa-tau-ŋuən,i จ-ห-หza:-หฉ-ŋuən,i şkupu-a-tau this:one-time-TOP DIR-go-time-LOC-TOP a.kind.of.thing-one-CL
55	de-le-kui-stũ. tu, DIR-give-NAR-PART RESULT

Text 4: Uncle Snake 273

56	fiala INT	tçiqua ə-qa- inside DIR-g		χaişə †(still.is)	tsəusə-bəl marry-do	n,i-ke: WH-INDEF:CL
57	ŋuə-k COP-N	ui-şə, JAR-LNK	tçiqua-la inside-LOC	upu-bəs-la- uncle-snak	ha-ŋuən i e-DEF:one-pl	-TOP
58	çi wine	tşhe <sup>107</sup> -kəi-s suck-NAR-PA		ha -DEF:one-pl	fia-tsəi-ŋuəŋ INT-this.mar	
59		1-ŋuəŋ.i EF:one:CL-TOF	upu-bəs-le: uncle-snake		вие (sitsəm) lpmate (wife	
60	pe-ku becon	i-wa. ne-NAR-EMPH				
	NT	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				

Narrator: Wang Lin 王林 Born 1966 Recorded 1996

# **Uncle Snake**

Look, today the Snake (Uncle) is bringing ram's horn flowers.<sup>108</sup> He says (to the father), "If you don't give one of your daughters to me, I will chop off your hand." After Snake (Uncle) said this, the youngest daughter said (to her father), "Papa, it's better I do what I have to do and go become his (Snake's) wife, than for your hand to be cut off."

(The girl's family) gave her a basketful of momo (a kind of bread) (and said to her), "You go with Uncle Snake then." Uncle Snake went in front of the girl. The girl carried the momo and was crying and crying as she followed behind Uncle Snake. They kept going until they came to a pile of rocks, and then Uncle Snake disappeared. He had gone into the pile through a crevice in the rocks. The girl continued to cry in the courtyard beside the pile of rocks.

In fact, Uncle Snake was a god and he sent a chicken to call the girl. The chicken called, "Aunt-in-law" three times, but the girl didn't understand and still cried there.

Later, the chicken went in and a dog was sent out to call the girl to come inside. The dog also barked two times, but the girl still didn't understand, and still cried there.

In like manner a pig was sent to call her, and the girl still didn't understand and so didn't enter.

Finally, an old woman came out to call her (Snake's mother came out to call her), and said to the girl, "Child, what are you crying about? Don't cry. I've sent many to call you, but you haven't come in, so I came out myself." The girl said, "I didn't understand." The old motherin-law said, "If you didn't understand, close your eyes and hold on to my clothes, and come with me." When they went in, she gave the girl something (skupu), and she went back inside. Inside it was as if a wedding was being held, and Uncle Snake and others were drinking wine. In this way, the girl became Uncle Snake's wife.

	Text 5The Story of a Lazy Manlan-thə-mke:mə¹şlazy-AUX-NOMINDEF:CLstory
1	qe:1-qe:1 ŋuə-tu, tsisatşů jə-zi before-before COP-LNK sisters two-CL
2	ŋuə-kəi-wa, tsisatşů jə-zi ŋuə-kəi-tu, COP-NAR-EMPH sisters two-CL COP-NAR-LNK
3	sawu-le:-tc-te:-ŋuən,i tciuşə, older.sister-DEF:CL-GEN-DEF:CL-TOP †(that.is)
4	sawu-le: wutcupu-ŋuən,i zmətşi. older.sister-DEF:CL husband-TOP emperor
5	(qe: <sup>1</sup> ŋuə-tu, "juanʁuai" spə-k-tçi-wa, pitçi-ŋuən,i before COP-LNK emperor call-INF-3pl-EMPH now-TOP
6	"zmətşi" şpə <sup>1</sup> , qe: <sup>1</sup> ŋuə-tu, juanьuai. <sup>109</sup> ) fia-tu emperor call:1pl before COP-LNK emperor INT-RESULT
7	satşů-te:-tç-tşi-le:-ŋuən i tşi ou younger.sister-DEF:CL-GEN-man-DEF:CL-TOP son one:CL
8	zi-kui, ĥa-tu kən lan-tha-le: ŋuə-kəi-wa, exist-NAR INT-RESULT very lazy-AUX-DEF:CL COP-NAR-EMPH
9	lan-thə-le: ŋuə-kəi-tu, hala lazy-AUX-DEF:CL COP-NAR-LNK INT
10	ma:-le:-wu a-s-məqa-ŋuəŋ,i Mama-DEF:CL-AGT one-day-each-TOP
11	fiatha niu-ŋuəni a-s pantçin-wu pantçin INT sheep.wool-TOP one-day half.catty-INST half.catty
12	tə-tşhə-n,i fia-tsəi de-lde-n,i <sup>110</sup> n,iu DIR-weigh-ADV INT-this.manner DIR-spin-ADV sheep.wool
13	pats de-lde-n.i ĥala, n.iu pats ball DIR-spin-ADV INT sheep.wool ball

14		χaişə †(still.is)	fiala-ŋuəŋ i INT-TOP	
15	fiala tşi-le: lan- INT son-DEF:CL lazy	-thə-le:-ŋuəŋ i, y-AUX-DEF:CL-TOP	hala tşha INT marl	q-ta ket-LOC
16	sə-ʁ-ŋ.i çi top DIR-go-ADV wine lik	pu-wa-le: ŋu e-very-DEF:CL CO	ə-kəi, çi PP-NAR wine	topu-le: like-DEF:CL
17	ŋuə-kəi-tu, χa COP-NAR-LNK †(s		o-r-ni IR-go-ADV	çi wine
18	sə-tç-n i nu-lu DIR-drink-ADV DIR-d	ı-kəpə-kəi, come-HABIT-NAR	ha-tu INT-RES	ULT
19	ma:-le:-t¢-ŋuən i mama-DEF:CL-BEN-TOF			
20		antçin lie-kəp alf.catty carry-		MPH
21		wu-le: lder.sister-DEF:CL	tçiu a! †(then) EXC	fiala L INT
22	satşů-le:-ta younger.sister-DEF:CL-l			
23	zə-la-kəi-tu, DIR-come-NAR-LNK	χαişə, a! †(still.is) EXCL		ster-DEF:CL-LOC
24	zə-la-kəi-tu, DIR-come-NAR-LNK	ka-han INDEF:one-kind	ŋuə-tu. COP-LNK	
25	ĥa-tu a-s-ва INT-RESULT one-day-l	ŋuə-tu, saw LOC COP-LNK olde		ha-tha L-TOP INT-there
26	pethau-pə-kui-wa, ha chat-do-NAR-EMPH IN	a-tu satşu-l NT-RESULT young	e: er.sister-DEF:0	tçiu CL †(then)
27	"qa-tç-tşi-le: 1sg-GEN-son-DEF:CL	fia-kə lan-tha INT-thus lazy-AU		le: X-DEF:CL
28	ŋuə-ş," jə-n.i COP-LNK say-ADV		ethiau-pu-kui. 1at-do-NAR	ha-tu INT-RESULT

29	a-s-ва-tu, tse: satşů tşi-le:-ŋuən,i one-day-LOC-LNK this:CL younger.sister son-DEF:CL-TOP
30	fiala tçiu-la, a-s-ка-tu, tşhaq-ta INT home-LOC one-day-LOC-LNK market-LOC
31	sə-вə şpaqta-n.i fia-ke dzy-le: wəsta DIR-go pretend-ADV INT-thus door-DEF:CL behind
32	he-zi-kui-wa. fia-tu sawu-le: DIR-exist-NAR-EMPH INT-RESULT older.sister-DEF:CL
33	na satşů-le: fiala ə-dzə-ni COM younger.sister-DEF:CL INT DIR-face.to.face-ADV
34	pethiau-pə-kəi, fiala pethiau-pə-kəi-tu, pethiau-pə-kəi-tu fiala chat-do-NAR INT chat-do-NAR-LNK chat-do-NAR-LNK INT
35	me <sup>1</sup> x, fiala pethiau-pə-kəi-tu, tşi-le:-ŋuən,i, pitiful INT chat-do-NAR-LNK son-DEF:CL-TOP
36	satşů-le: tşi-le:-ŋuən,i hala dzy-le: wəsta younger.sister-DEF:CL son-DEF:CL-TOP INT door-DEF:CL behind
37	u-xşuçtçu-kui. u-xşuçtçu-kui-tu, fiala tşi-le: DIR-listen-NAR DIR-listen-NAR-LNK INT son-DEF:CL
38	dze-kəi, tşi-le: dze-kəi-tu, fia-tu discuss-NAR son-DEF:CL say-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT
39	tşi-le:-ŋuən,i tşhaq-ta sə-mə-qa-tçi son-DEF:CL-TOP market-LOC DIR-NEG-go-NAR
40	nuən i dzy-le: wəsta xşuctçu-kui. "qa INT door-DEF:CL behind listen-NAR 1sg
41	tşi-le: lan-tha'' jə-n.i, fia-tha-ŋuən.i son-DEF:CL laxy-AUX say-ADV INT-there-TOP
42	fia-tha-han dze-kui. INT-that:one-kind say-NAR
43	նa-tu tṣi-le:-ŋuəŋ.i, ɓa-tu "pəs-ŋuəŋ.i, a! INT-RESULT son-DEF:CL-TOP INT-RESULT today-TOP EXCL

44	ma:-ŋuən.i qa pəs-ŋuən.i i-pə-l-jy, qa-ŋuən.i mama-TOP lsg today-TOP DIR-arrive-come-ASP lsg-TOP
45	pəs-ŋuən,i pənsə a-xən u-su-a-wa," jə-kui. today-TOP ability one-kind DIR-learn-1sg-EMPH say-NAR
46	"ha! pənsə α-χən u-su-α-wa," jə-kui. EXCL ability one-kind DIR-learn-1sg-EMPH say-NAR
47	"ha! qα-t¢-t§i niɣi pənsə u-su-n-α?" jə-kui. EXCL 1sg-GEN-son what ability DIR-learn-2sg-Q say-NAR
48	"ha! ?ile pəs tçəu-la n <sub>i</sub> iyi dze-jə-wa?" jə-kui, EXCL 2pl today home-LOC what say-CSM-Q say-NAR
49	"qa ĥala tshə-zeků-ta kuantsə ĥa-ka:-ва, 1sg INT market-center-LOC restaurant INT-INDEF:one:CL-LOC
50	zi-s-ta-ŋuən,i qa ə-ma-ş, fia-tu ?ile-ŋuən,i exist-NOM-LOC-TOP 1sg DIR-hear:1sg-LNK INT-RESULT 2pl-TOP
51	fia-ka-han dze-ji, fia-kə dze-ji-tu, fiata qa INT-INDEF:one-kind say-CSM INT-thus say-CSM-LNK INT 1sg
52	ə-ma-ş, qa ha-ka-han-ŋuən,i pənsə ha-ka-han DIR-hear:1sg-LNK 1sg INT-one-kind-TOP ability INT-one-kind
53	u-su-a-wa, fia-kə ə-m, fia-kə ?ile-wu DIR-learn-1sg-EMPH INT-thus DIR-hear INT-thus 2pl-AGT
54	fie-dze la-han-ne <sup>1</sup> wu ə-m yz ə-tç, DIR-say DEF:one-kind-all DIR-hear able-NOM
55	fia-ka-han u-su-a-wa," jə-kui-tçu. fia-kə INT-INDEF:one-kind DIR-learn-1sg-EMPH say-NAR-PART INT-thus
56	jə-kui-tu, ha-tu "niyi niyi he-dze:"" jə-kui, say-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT what what DIR-say:1pl say-NAR
57	sawu-le: n.a satşů-le:, fiata "fia-kə dze older.siser-DEF:CL COM younger.sister-DEF:CL INT INT-thus say
58	fia-kə dze qa a-ma-wa, tşhaq-ta kuantsa INT-thus say 1sg DIR-hear:1sg-EMPH market-LOC restaurant

59	zi-s-ta a-ma-wa," ĥa-kə jə-kui-tu. exist-NOM-LOC DIR-hear:1sg-EMPH INT-thus say-NAR-LNK
60	"a! ваt ŋuə-k-ŋ.i, qa-tç-tşi," jə-kui. EXCL truly COP-INF-ADV 1sg-GEN-son say-NAR
61	fia-tu sawu-le:-tç, sawu-le: wutçupu-ŋuən,i INT-RESULT oldr.sistr-DEF:CL-GEN oldr.sistr-DEF:CL husband-TOP
62	juanʁuai-ŋuən.i ha-ke ŋuə-kəi. ha-tu pitç-ŋuən.i z.mətşi, emperor-TOP INT-thus COP-NAR INT-RESULT now-TOP emperor
63	qe: <sup>1</sup> ŋuə-tu, zmətşi laχ "juanʁuai" şpə-x-ş, before COP-LNK emperor DEF:one:kind emperor call-INF-LNK
64	ha-ke ŋuə, ha-tu "a! ʁatɕhi qa-tɕ-tʂi-le: INT-thus COP INT-RESULT EXCL truly 1sg-GEN-son-DEF:CL
65	pənsə a-xən u-su-k-n,i, ke: ŋuə-tu, zə ability one-kind DIR-learn-INF-ADV INDEF:CL COP-if thing
66	ha-sa," jə-kəi. fia-tu kə-jə-kəi-tu, fiala DIR-make.sound say-NAR INT-RESULT thus-say-NAR-LNK INT
67	hα-tsα-χui, sawu-le:, sawu-le: wutcupu-ŋuən,i INT-this:one-time older.sister-DEF:CL older.sister-DEF:CL husband-TOP
68	sənzə bələ-s pe-kui-wa, sənzə bələ-s ka-han birthday do-NOM become-NAR-EMPH birthday do-NOM INDEF:one-kind
69	ŋuə-kui-tu, zbə-ŋuən ixsə-zi zə-p-n i tcasa-la COP-NAR-LNK yak-TOP three-CL DIR-buy-ADV cowpen-LOC
70	fia-zdzy-n i zi-zə-kui-tçu. fia-tu tçaʁa-la DIR-tether-ADV exist-CAUS-NAR-PART INT-RESULT cowpen-LOC
71	fia-zdzy-n.i z.i-z.ə-kui-tu, tha-han, fiala-ŋuən.i DIR-tether-ADV exist-CAUS-NAR-LNK that:one-kind INT-TOP
72	fio-tu satşů-le:-tşi-le:-wu "pənsə INT-RESULT younger-sister-DEF:CL-son-DEF:CL-AGT ability
73	u-su-a-sə" jə-m-le:-wu, <sup>111</sup> gəs da-qa-ŋ.i DIR-learn-1sg-LNK say-NOM-DEF:CL-AGT night DIR-go-ADV

74	tə-ҳquatş-n,iantçi, məq-ta tuŋtuŋ ҳo:pua-la ви DIR-steal-after above-LOC cave cave-LOC mountain
75	da-xla-jə-s-ta fia-zdzy-ŋ,i DIR-cross-CSM-NOM-LOC DIR-tether-ADV
76	i-çi-kui-wa. ви da-ҳla-jә-s-ta DIR-put-NAR-EMPH mountain DIR-cross-CSM-NOM-LOC
77	fia-zdzy-n i i-çi-kui-tu. fiala "sənzə bələ-ŋuən i DIR-tether-LNK DIR-put-NAR-LNK INT birthday do-TOP
78	fie-me-se" jə-kui. fie-me-se ka-han DIR-NEG-allow say-NAR DIR-NEG-allow INDEF:one-kind
79	ŋuə-kui-tu, sawu-le:-ŋuən,i COP-NAR-LNK older.sister-DEF:CL-TOP
80	fialawutcupu-le:-ta-ŋuən,ipethiau-fio-pů-kə-kui,INThusband-DEF:CL-LOC-TOPchat-DIR-do-go-NAR
81	"qa-satşů-te:-tşi-ŋuəŋ,i ĥa-kə he-the, 1sg-younger.sister-DEF:CL-son-TOP INT-thus DIR-able
82	u-zmu-n i i-tşi-z dzə, u-xşuçtçu DIR-dream-ADV DIR-represent-CAUS able DIR-listen
83	ə-m dzə, fia-kə, fia-kə yzə-wa," DIR-hear able INT-thus INT-thus able-EMPH
84	ikə jə-kui-stũ. thus say-NAR-PART
85	ĥa-tu tse: juanʁuai-le:-ŋuən,i gue <sup>ı</sup> INT-RESULT this:CL emperor-DEF:CL-TOP soldier
86	zi-zə-kəi-şə, gue <sup>1</sup> he-çi-n,i exist-CAUS-NAR-LNK soldier DIR-send-ADV
87	fia-tsəi-ŋuən i "me <sup>1</sup> zə-k tche," jə-tu. DIR-this.manner-TOP seek-go want say-LNK
88	tə-me <sup>1</sup> z-n i da-tç-kə-kui, da-tç-kə ka-han nuə-tu, DIR-seek-ADV DIR-find-go-NAR DIR-find-go INDEF:one-kind COP-LNK

89	χaişə, da-tç-kə-ku-tu, ĥa-tse:-ŋuən,i, χaişə †(still.is) DIR-find-go-NAR-LNK INT-this:CL-TOP †(still.is)
90	n.i:-wu ĥala ĥa-zdzy-n.i tə-χquatṣ-n.i 3sgREFL-AGT INT DIR-tether-ADV DIR-steal-ADV
91	halaha-zdzy-nituntunzo:puai-ciINTDIR-tether-ADVcliff.cavecaveDIR-put
92	ŋuə-ku-tu. χaişə thα-χui ŋuə-tu, n.i: lə COP-NAR-LNK †(still.is) that:one-time COP-LNK 3sgREFL also
93	dzuků-le:-kə-ş, tanta-ke: knowledge-exist-INF-LNK bold/daring-INDEF:CL
94	zi-kəi-wa, tanta-ke: exist-NAR-EMPH †bold/daring-INDEF:CL
95	zi-kəi-tu.fia-thu-ŋuən,i"qhua:exist-NAR-LNKDIR-there-TOPriver.valley
96	da-вə-ja, fia-thu-ŋuən,i çi-la: ataz-şa, a. DIR-go-REP:1sg INT-there-TOP little-DEF:one:CL fast-HORT INT
97	qe: <sup>1</sup> a-s jə-s-ŋuən,i. ka-zə da-tç he-si-ŋua before one-day two-day-TOP INDEF:one-CL DIR-find DIR-allow-Q
98	he-me-si?" jə-n i ha-kə DIR-NEG-allow say-ADV INT-thus
99	ŋuə-kui-wa. fia-tu, sputhuş lou COP-NAR-EMPH INT-RESULT bamboo.tube DEF:one:CL
100	tçy-kəi-tu, şputhuş lou-ва carry-NAR-LNK bamboo.tube DEF:one:CL-LOC
101	ha-sə-m lə n.i: DIR-make.sound-NOM also 3sgREFL
102	ŋuə-kəi-wa, ke <sup>1</sup> l-əm lə n.i: ŋuə-kəi, COP-NAR-EMPH ask-NOM also 3sgREFL COP-NAR
103	he-zgue-m lə n.i: ŋuə-kəi, ha-tu DIR-answer-NOM also 3sgREFL COP-NAR INT-RESULT

104	n i: 3sgREFL	ha-sə-n i DIR-make.soun	n.i: d-ADV 3sgl	REFL	
105	he-z gue DIR-answer	ĥa-ke: INT-INDEF:CL	z i-kəpə-kəi. exist-HABIT	-NAR	ha-tu, INT-RESULT
106	а-s-ка one-day-LOC	ŋuə-tu, ĥa- COP-LNK INT	tu, p -RESULT o	hawu-le: lder.sister-E	DEF:CL
107	wutcupu-le:-ŋu husband-DEF:C	ən,i, qe: <sup>1</sup> ŋu L-TOP before CC	ə-tu, "juanı )P-LNK empe	suai", pitc- eror now	ŋuə-tu -COP-LNK
108	"zmətşi" şpe emperor cal	::¹-ş. ĥa-tu l:1pl-LNK INT-R	, "a, ESULT, EXC	çi-la: CL little-D	DEF:one:CL
109	ataz t¢he, fia- fast want INT	tu a:-khuc Y-RESULT INDTV-	ıi-tha-ş fast-AUX-LNK	we-tu," exist-LNK	jə-n iantçi, say-after
110	ha-kə jə-ku INT-thus say-	ı-tu, "otsůc NAR-LNK morr	qua-ŋuən i iing-TOP I	da-s d DIR-go a	lz ə-m, ıble-NOM
111	ułu dzə-mə fast able-NC	:'wu me'z- M:all seek-g	kə tçhe," 30 want	ha-kə INT-thus	
112	jə-kui-wa. say-NAR-EMPH	ĥɑ-tə, zə INT-RESULT da	t a-s te one-day	ə-ş-kəi, DIR-put-N	zət AR date
113	ə-ş-kəi-ŋ i DIR-put-NAR-A	χaişə, DV †(still.is)	fiala tçete INT even	çi-le: rywhere-DE	wu F:CL all
114	phə ha-¢ message DIR-	pə-s-ta-jantçi, blow-NOM-LOC-a	ha-tə-ŋ after INT-RE	uən i SULT-TOP	"da-кə DIR-go
115	dzə-m xşu able-NOM hea	ictcu dzə-m ir able-NOM	fia-la-han 1 INT-DEF:c	-ne¹wu one-kind-all	tsa here
116	zu-lů, to DIR-come 1		nu tsu-ceting hold	n:,  -PRS	
117			cui-wa. -NAR-EMPH	fia-tu INT-RESUI	tse: LT this:CL
118	mi-tse:-ŋuən i person-this:CL-		tshetsə-qu-ta cart-top-LOC	sə-l-ŋ.i DIR-look-	ADV

119	sputhus tou-ва-ŋuən,i ke <sup>4</sup> l-jy, tə-ke <sup>4</sup> l-jant¢i, bamboo.tube DEF:one:CL-LOC-TOP ask-ASP DIR-ask-after
120	ha-tu tə-ke'l-n,i, tə-ke'l-jantçi, hala INT-RESULT DIR-ask-ADV DIR-ask-after INT
121	sputhus tou-ва-ŋuən.i mi fiala zmətşi-le: bamboo.tube DEF:one:CL-LOC-TOP person INT emperor-DEF:CL
122	zmu-tsu la-s-ка-ŋuəŋ,i ĥa-tha tshetsə-qu-ta meeeting-hold DEF:one-day-LOC-TOP INT-there cart-top-LOC
123	sə-l-ŋ,i ĥa-ke ke <sup>ı</sup> l-kə-kui. ĥa-tu, DIR-look-ADV INT-thus ask-go-NAR INT-RESULT
124	"poquş-ŋuən,i do-γzu-n-tu, t¢a-la zi? halə zi livestock-TOP DIR-lose-2sg-LNK where-LOC exist there exist
125	halə zi-wa, şku-wu tə-xquatş-ni hala there exist-EMPH thief-AGT DIR-steal-ADV there
126	tuŋtuŋ zo:pa ĥa-zdzy-ŋ.i zi-z. ви cliff.cave cave DIR-tether-ADV exist-CAUS mountain
127	χła-ji-wa," jə-ni fia-kə dze-ku. fia-kə cross-CSM-EMPH say-ADV INT-thus say-NAR INT-thus
128	spəthuş-ta:-ва-ŋuən,i nin,i ha-sə fia-kə bamboo.tube-DEF:one:CL-LOC-TOP 3sgREFL DIR-make.sound INT-thus
129	ke <sup>1</sup> l-kə-ku, fia-kə ke <sup>1</sup> l ka-han ŋuə-ku-tu, ask-go-NAR INT-thus ask INDEF:one-kind COP-NAR-LNK
130	"۵-۶ tse-n-n۵-۶, ĥ۵-the-wu, a, ۶ku-wu one-time look-2sg-IMP-LNK INT-that-ABL INT thief-AGT
131	tə-xquatş-kə, ha-tha da-xła: jəsai-wa, hala-ŋuən,i tha DIR-steal-go INT-there DIR-cross:PRS fast-EMPH INT-TOP there
132	zi-wa," jə-ku. fia-tu tsoqpi phawu-le: exist-EMPH say-NAR INT-RESULT this:family older.sister-DEF:CL
133	tçymi-le:, thoqpi-ŋuən,i ha-qə-n,i n,i:-tç child-DEF:CL that:family-TOP DIR-go-ADV 3sgREFL-GEN

134	fiala gue <sup>1</sup> -na tha-han he-ci-n i tə-me <sup>1</sup> z-s-ta, INT army-COM that:one-kind DIR-put-ADV DIR-seek-NOM-LOC
135	ваtchi tha zi-ku, ĥa-tsa-χui, truly there exist-NAR INT-this:one-time
136	tse:-ŋuən,i, a, satşů-le: tşi-le:-ŋuən,i this: CL-TOP INT younger.sister-DEF:CL son-DEF:CL-TOP
137	minjy-tçiəu-kaula. fia-tu phawu-le: wutçupu-na †(reputation-then-higher) INT-RESULT older.sister-DEF:CL husband-COM
138	niyi dzə-ni niyi tchə-tc fia-tsəi what eat-ADV what drink-GEN INT-this.manner
139	ə-ş-jy ŋuə-n.i fia-tsəi pə¹zə-kui-wa. DIR-put-ASP COP-ADV INT-this.manner provide.for-NAR-EMPH
140	fia-tsa-χui-tu, tse:-tç-ва <sup>112</sup> tçiu tçaitçyela. DIR-this:one-time-LNK this:CL-GEN-LOC †(then solved)
141	 fia-tu steke-la-χui-ва-tu, tçiuşə INT-RESULT later-DEF:one-time-LOC-LNK †(that.is)
142	zmətşi-le:-ŋuən,i ha-tha emperor-DEF:CL-TOP INT-there
143	nai-e-fən-ва-tç-zmətşi-ke: dzin-le: other-one-place-LOC-GEN-emperor-INDEF:CL monk's.robe <sup>113</sup> -DEF:CL
144	do-γzu-kəi-ha, zmətşi jən-le:, DIR-lose-NAR-PART emperor monk's.robe-DEF:CL
145	zmətşi jən-le: do-yzu emperor monk's.robe-DEF:CL DIR-lose
146	ka-han yuə-kui-tu, ha-tse:-wu ha-tha, INDEF:one-kind COP-NAR-LNK INT-this:CL-AGT INT-there
147	fia-la-han ŋuə-kua-ji, a-lə-wu a-lə <sup>114</sup> INT-DEF:one-kind COP-NAR-HS one-CL-AGT one-CL

148	pethiau-fio-pu-n,i dzuků le ka-han chat-DIR-do-ADV knowledge exist INDEF:one-kind
149	ŋuə-kua-ji, dzuků le-ku-tu, ĥa-tu COP-NAR-HS knowledge exist-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT
150	dzuků de-l ka-han ŋuə-ku. fia-tse:-ŋuən,i knowledge DIR-exist INDEF:one-kind COP-NAR INT-this:CL-TOP
151	"me <sup>1</sup> z-kə tche, me <sup>1</sup> z-kə tche," jə-ku. fia-tu seek-go want seek-go want say-NAR INT-RESULT
152	"tə-me <sup>1</sup> z-n i fia-tse:-ŋuən i ə-z mu n i: DIR-seek-ADV INT-this:CL-TOP DIR-dream 3sgREFL
153	sə-tşi he-dzi-n ə-m dz ə-m ha-ka-han DIR-represent DIR-say-ADV DIR-hear able-NOM INT-INDEF:one-kind
154	ŋuə-şə, fia-tse:-ŋuən,i fia-kə he-the-le: zi-wa," COP-LNK INT-this:CL-TOP INT-thus DIR-able-DEF:CL exist-EMPH
155	jə-tu. fia-tsoqpi-wu phə he-kue-n.i, say-LNK INT-this:family-AGT message DIR-take-ADV
156	phə he-kue-n,i fia-ka-han tə-bələ-ku-wa. message DIR-take-ADV INT-INDEF:one-kind DIR-do-NAR-EMPH
157	fia-tsa-xui-tu, tsoqpi zmətşi jən-le: INT-this:one-time-LNK this:family emperor monk's.robe-DEF:CL
158	do-yzu-m tsoqpi-ŋuən,i, tse:-ŋuən,i, fia-tse:-ŋuən,i DIR-lose-NOM this:family-TOP this:CL-TOP INT-this:CL-TOP
159	tsautaulada-tc-ku-kui,fia-tsə-tse:†(found)DIR-find-go-NARINT-here-this:CL
160	da-tç-kə. da-tç-kə ka-han ŋuə-tu, xaişə DIR-find-go DIR-find-go INDEF:one-kind COP-LNK †(still.is)
161	ə-pə <sup>1</sup> z-kui-wa, şətçian ə-tin-tha-kəi, DIR-provide.for-NAR-EMPH †time DIR-set-AUX-NAR
162	ə-tin-tha-jantçi hala çtçə-s ə-ş-kəi, DIR-set-AUX-after INT seven-day DIR-put-NAR

163	"ctcə-s-ва-ŋuən,i tse: zmətşi jin-ne: seven-day-LOC-TOP this:CL emperor monk's.robe-DEF:CL
164	a-zə χqu ĥatə u-zmu-η,i i-tşi-s-le: one-little difficult INT DIR-dream-ADV DIR-sign-NOM-DEF:CL
165	ŋuə-ş, ĥata, ke: tçi-me <sup>1</sup> z-əs-ji ma-ŋuə-ta, COP-LNK INT INDEF:CL CON-seek-NOM-EXC NEG-COP-if
166	u-zmu-n i i-tşi-s zmətşi jin-le: ŋuə-şə DIR-dream-ADV DIR-sign-NOM emperor monk's.robe-DEF:CL COP-LNK
167	a-zə χqu-şə," jə-n,i, fiα-kə dze-jə-kui. one-little difficult-LNK say-ADV INT-thus say-REP-NAR
168	fia-kə şətçian ə-şə-kəi-tu, çtçə-s na INT-thus time DIR-put-NAR-LNK seven-day COM
169	çtçə-jə ŋuə-n.i, hata, ha-tsə z.mətşi-le:-ta-ŋuən.i seven-night COP-ADV INT INT-this emperor-DEF:CL-DAT-TOP
170	sə-dzi-ku-wa, sə-dze-tu, a-s-ва DIR-eat-NAR-EMPH DIR-eat-LNK one-day-LOC
171	z mətşi-le:-ŋuən,i, "a, qa-jin-le:-ŋuən,i emperor-DEF:CL-TOP EXCL 1sg-monk's.robe-DEF:CL-TOP
172	e:-wu nai-a-spəq-ta do-quq ʁu-s,'' one:CL-AGT other-one-place-LOC DIR-move willing-LNK
173	ha-tu ha-kə jə-ku, ha-tu, a-s-ва-tu, INT-RESULT INT-thus say-NAR INT-RESULT one-day-LOC-LNK
174	fiα-tu, stuaha χaişə ba kə t¢hə-kəpə-k, INT-RESULT rice/food †(still.is) big thus eat-HABIT-INF
175	fia-tu, a-s-ва-tu, mautsha sei-jə-kə INT-RESULT one-day-LOC-LNK toilet relieve.oneself-REP-go
176	ha-qə-kəi-tu. mautshə-le: da-tç DIR-go-NAR-LNK toilet-DEF:CL DIR-find
177	ma-lə-kəi, mautshə-le: da-tç ma-lə-kəi-tu, NEG-able-NAR toilet-DEF:CL DIR-find NEG-able-NAR-LNK

178	hala mautsha sei-kəi-wa, tu puŋ.i-le:-wu, INT toilet relieve.oneself-NAR-EMPH RESULT cat-DEF:CL-AGT
179	punu-lapa: lou-wu, fiata, cat-flower DEF:one:CL-AGT INT
180	ка-ŋuən.i fia-tha mautshə-le:-qu-ta ка roof.tile-TOP INT-there toilet-DEF:CL-top-LOC roof.tile
181	sə-zdzy la:-ва ĥa-tha zi-kui-wa. ĥa-tu DIR-put DEF:one:CL-LOC INT-there exist-NAR-EMPH INT-RESULT
182	tşekəzənla mi-tse-ze-ŋuən,i "hai! pefutsə, tşekə †(this.person) person-this-CL-TOP INT †white.beard(cat) †(this
183	pefutsə mə <sup>1</sup> ke guo zuo χαu sə," jə-i-stu. white.beard cat give 1sg do good thing) say-HS-PART
184	ha-tu punu-le:-wu ha-tha zmətşi INT-RESULT cat-DEF:CL-AGT INT-there emperor
185	jin-le:-ta ĥa-ʁdz̯e-jantɕi ĥala monk's.robe-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-bite-after there
186	u-zu-ni zi-kui-ha, ĥalə u-zu-ni DIR-wait-ADV exist-NAR-PART there DIR-wait-ADV
187	zi-kui-tu, "a, za ha-sa, <sup>115</sup> tse: punu-le:-wu exist-NAR-LNK INT thing DIR-make.sound this:CL cat-DEF:CL-AGT
188	qa-tç za ha-sa, hi qa-tç xausə 1sg-GEN thing DIR-make.sound EXCL 1sg-GEN †good.thing
189	tə-bəl-ən-şə," jə-n.i, hata ŋuə-jantçi, DIR-do-2sg-LNK say-ADV INT COP-after
190	fiala punu-le:-ta zə-z-niantçi there cat-DEF:CL-DAT DIR-bring-after
191	hala ва-ŋuən i çtçi-фi tə-şe. ha-the-wu, INT roof.tile-TOP seven-CL DIR-count INT-that-ABL
192	ва-ŋuən i tə-tşhatş ŋuən i ctcə-xtş, nai e-фi roof.tile-TOP DIR-vertically TOP seven-row other one-CL

193	e-фi	ŋuə-tu	ctcə-di	hal	ə-jantçi	z mətşi
175	one-CL	COP-LNK			re-after	emperor
194	jin-le: monk's.robe	e-DEF:CL	ha-thu INT-there		kəi-ha. le-NAR-PART	
195			suə R-hide	ka-han INDEF:one	ŋuə-kə kind COP-N-	
196	fia-tsa-xui-t INT-this:one	u, e-time-LNK	z mət empe	si-le:-ŋuəŋ eror-DEF:CI		ʻa, INT
197	a-zə-ŋuən i one-little-TC		-un, cult-too-2sg	qa 1sg	nai-a-spaq-te other-one-pl	
198	do-quq DIR-move	ви-r will	ting-ADV	ŋ.i: what	ŋuə-ŋuəi?" COP-Q	
199	fiata INT	tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l-kə-l DIR-ask-go				
200	fia-tha t INT-there I		ii-tu, NAR-LNK	"a, EXCL	soqho-n.i-ŋu tomorrow-Al	
201	("təp-ŋ,i" tomorrow		lə kh also †(			low
202	"soqho-n,i" tomorrow-	jə ADV say	lə khuoji), also †(be.po	"t¢ ssible) 1	cile-ta, a-s pl-LOC one-	a-s day one-day
203	la-han-ва," DEF:one-kin	fia-l hd-LOC that	kə jə .manner sa	-kui-tu. y-NAR-LNI	"a, K EXCL	
204	fie-se." DIR-allow	tse:-ŋuəŋ this:CL-T			pəmaha tonight	n.i:-le: what-DEF:CL
205	tə-sua, DIR-divine(v	ha-tu v.) INT-RES	çi-la: ULT little-D	EF:one:CL	i-tşi-s-ta-tu, DIR-sign-NC	M-LOC-LNK
206		tşi-la-wa. IR-sign-IND'	гv:1sg-емрн	otsůqua morning		
207	thuntşə notify	tu-pu-n-p DIR-do-2s				

208	da-в dzə-m, ə-m dzə-m, sei dzə-me¹wu DIR-go able-NOM DIR-hear able-NOM walk able-NOM:all
209	lu tche, fia-tsa-ha-ŋuən,i i-pə-l tche-wa," come want INT-this:one-pl-TOP DIR-arrive-come want-EMPH
210	jə-kui. zmu tşu-s-ŋuən i zmətşi-le:-ta-ŋuən i say-NAR meeting hold-NOM-TOP emperor-DEF:CL-DAT-TOP
211	ha-kə jə-kui-wa. hata, ''a, thuntşə-tu-pů-n <sub>.</sub> i INT-thus say-NAR-EMPH INT EXCL notify-DIR-do-ADV
212	mi ĥala da-вə dzə-m, de-sei dzə-m-le:'wu person INT DIR-go able-NOM DIR-walk able-NOM-all
213	lu-jə-kui." hata me <sup>1</sup> ş-ta-s-ва zmu ho-tsu. come-REP-NAR INT next-DEF:one-day-LOC meeting DIR-hold
214	tu ĥa-tsu sputhus tou-ва, RESULT INT-here bamboo.tube DEF:one:CL-LOC
215	fia-tsou-ва ke <sup>1</sup> l-əm lə n.i: INT-this:one:CL-LOC ask-NOM also 3sgREFL
216	ha-sə-m lə n.i:-ŋuən.i ha-ke DIR-make.sound-NOM also 3sgREFL-TOP INT-thus
217	zi-kəi-wa, ĥata tça-la şə, tça-lə exist-NAR-EMPH INT where-LOC exist where-LOC
218	mautshə-le:-ŋuən,i hala ка-ŋuən,i toilet-DEF:CL-TOP INT roof.tile-TOP
219	n.a-xtş, fia-tha n.e-фi nuə WH:one-row INT-there WH:one-CL COP
220	tə-şe-n iantçi, fia-thu şə-wa, jə-kui. DIR-count-after INT-there exist-EMPH say-NAR
221	fia-tse:-ŋuən.i n.im ha-qə-stun, INT-this:CL-TOP notice(n.) DIR-go-PART
222	n im ha-qa, fia-tsa-xui, da-tç-kə-stun, tsa-xui notice(n.) DIR-go INT-this:one-time DIR-find-go-PART this:one-time

223	ŋuə-tu, ha-tu tse:-wu n.im tə-s, <sup>116</sup> COP-LNK INT-RESULT this:CL-AGT notice(n.) DIR-make.sound
224	fia-tu zmətşi tse:-ŋuən,i mi xaişə INT-RESULT emperor this:CL-TOP INT †(still.is)
225	kə-jə-ku, "qa niyi dzə-ni niyi dzə, thus-say-NAR lsg what eat-ADV what eat
226	qa o-zů-n.i o-zů, qa tu-jů-n.i tu-jů. 1 sg DIR-sit-ADV DIR-sit 1 sg DIR-stand-ADV DIR-stand
227	ha-tsəi-ŋuən,i, ha-tha, ha-ke ha-ŋue <sup>1</sup> -wa." this.manner-TOP INT-there INT-thus DIR- COP:1pl-EMPH
228	jə-kui-şə, mi χaisə hα-tsəi hα-tse:-ŋuən,i say-NAR-LNK person †(still) INT-this.manner INT-this:CL-TOP
229	kənsə tə-pə¹z-ŋ.i fia-ke ŋuə-z-kui-ha. †even.more DIR-provide.for-ADV INT-thus COP-CAUS-NAR-PART
230	 ha-tu nai ŋuə-tu, zmətşi nai-e: ŋuə-tu, INT-RESULT other COP-LNK emperor other-one:CL COP-LNK
231	gənkuo wətshi-ŋuən,i gən phulu xaişə parrot bird-TOP very expensive ‡(still.is)
232	paufu-le: ŋuə-s ka-han ŋuə-kua-ji, fia-ke retaliation-DEF:CL COP-NOM INDEF:one-kind COP-NAR-HS INT-thus
233	do-yzu-kəi-wa, genkuo işə wətshi ka-han DIR-lose-NAR-EMPH parrot †(is) bird INDEF:one-kind
234	zi-ku-şə, ha-ka-han zi-kui-tu, exist-NAR-LNK INT-INDEF:one-kind exist-NAR-LNK
235	do-yzu-kəi. tu, ha-tsu tse-xşepi zmətşi DIR-lose-NAR RESULT INT-here this-side emperor
236	jin do-yzu-m-le:-wu fia-tha the-xṣepi-ʁa monk's.robe DIR-lose-NOM-DEF:CL-AGT INT-that that-side-LOC

237	khuə-ŋuən i dog-TOP	tha da-l-z there DIR-le	ζ∂-kui, " ook-CAUS-NAR	fia-tha-han INT-that:one-kind
238	do-yzu-n-tu, DIR-lose-2sg-LM	qa-ta NK 1sg-DAT	ĥa-ke: INT-INDEF:CL	zi-wa," exist-EMPH
239	jə-kui. fia-tu say-NAR INT-R	χaişə ESULT †(still.	a-tau tə-r is) one-time DIR	ne¹z-ni -seek-ADV
240	mi-le: person-DEF:CL		, ĥa-t ve-come-ADV INT-	
241	sətçian ə-tin- †time DIR-a	tha-n,i gree.on-AUX-AI	ha-tsəi DV INT-this.mann	er
242	ə-pə¹z -kə-kui, DIR-provide.for	ha-tu -go-NAR INT-I	ı, ə-pə¹z-n i RESULT DIR-provid	le.for-ADV
243		ŋuə-tu, a, COP-LNK EX	fia-tu, CL INT-RESULT	
244	"a, qa EXCL lsg	tse: tsəpar this:CL inanii	u-le: mate.treasure-DEF:C	ma-ŋuৢə-չə L NEG-COP-LNK
245	χuopαu-le: live.treasure-DE	ŋuə. χ F:CL COP l	uopau ŋuə ive.treasure COP	-§ə -LNK
246	ĥe-șue-n i DIR-be.hungry-		a die-şe-k ace-LOC DIR-die-	
247	հα-thə-ŋuəŋ i DIR-that-TOP	sətcian-ŋuən i †time-TOP		
248	tsə-s this-COMP	az-ŋuən i one:CL-TOF	çi-la: small-DEF	
249	u-z mu DIR-dream	η.a COM	u-tçu-s-le: DIR-see-NOM-DE	F:CL
250	ə-mə-s DIR-hear-NOM	xu-t exis	u, t-LNK	
251	qa-tç-ŋuəŋ,i 1sg-GEN-TOP	çi-la: small-DEF:CL	ataz ə-s-la: fast-NOM-DEF:CL	ça:-ŋua, INDTV-COP:1sg

252	fia-tu, a, tşentşen qa tse: genkuo-le: INT-RESULT EXCL †really 1sg this:CL parrot-DEF:CL
253	da-tçə-s ka-han ŋuə-tu, fia-tha genkuo-le: DIR-find-NOM INDEF:one-kind COP-LNK INT-there parrot-DEF:CL
254	dα-t¢i-n-tu, qα-n,ike phin-t¢hi-phin-tsuo, χaişə DIR-find-2sg-LNK 1sg-COM:thus †(equal-stand-equal-sit) †(still.is)
255	qa niyi dzə-ni dzə, hata qa tu-jů-ni 1sg what eat-ADV eat INT 1sg DIR-stand-ADV
256	tu-jů, qa o-zu-n,i o-zu, fiata qa n,iγi dzə-n,i DIR-stand 1sg DIR-sit-ADV DIR-sit INT 1sg what eat-ADV
257	nių dzə χaişə fiα-tsəi hα-ŋue <sup>1</sup> -wa," what eat †(still.is) INT-this.manner DIR-COP:1pl-EMPH
258	jə-n i ŋuə-kui-tu. mi xaişə fia-tu şətçian-ŋuən i say-ADV COP-NAR-LNK person †(still.is) INT-RESULT †time-TOP
259	χaişəfia-tutə-me¹z-la-s-κa-tu,†(still.is)INT-RESULTDIR-seek-DEF:one-day-LOC-LNK
260	sei-kə ha-qə-kəi-wa. sei-kə relieve.oneself-go DIR-go-NAR-EMPH relieve.oneself-go
261	ha-qə-kei-tu, fia-tu a-s-ва-tu, tha-han DIR-go-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT one-day-LOC-LNK that:one-kind
262	sei-kə ha-qə-kei-tu. fiala, relieve.oneself-go DIR-go-NAR-LNK INT
263	кә <sup>1</sup> -tа-ŋuən,i kaijuan-ка şpə Han.person-DAT-TOP †street.edge-LOC bamboo
264	me-we-m me-zi, NEG-exist-NOM NEG-exist
265	fiata, kaijuan-ва şpə we-wu-şə, <sup>117</sup> INT †street.edge-LOC bamboo exist-VIS-LNK
266	a-xtş a-xtş ta-han we-wu-tu, şpə one-row one-row DEF:one-kind exist-VIS-LNK bamboo

267				han F:one-kind	
268	we-ku-tu, exist-NAR-LNK	ha-tha INT-there	genkuo- parrot-D	le:-ŋuəŋ.i EF:CL-TOP	
269	yzəifa qə-ta-ŋı wing top-LOC	ıən i xşul C-TOP rope	lou DEF:one:C		)V
270	wet lou stick DEF:one:C	ha-ke CL INT-thus		ne-le: support-DEF:CL	
271	we-kui-wa, exist-NAR-EMPH	tu ĥala RESULT INT	xşul-le:-ŋ rope-DEF	uəni şpə CL-TOP bamboo	
272	χqa-la ha among-LOC DI	1-jə-kui. IR-stick/be.caugł		ha-jə-kui-tu, DIR-stick-NAR-LI	NK
273	fiala, mautsha INT toilet			-lə-kəi-tu. G-able-NAR-LNK	
274		əi-wa, ve.oneself-NAR-E		fiala, SULT INT	
275	sei-kəi-tu, relieve.oneself-NAF	genkuo-le R-LNK parrot-DE	e: zaxuc EF:CL inside	-la ctce <sup>1</sup> pctce <sup>1</sup> -LOC (birdcall)-	p-le: DEF:CL
276	tha sa-kui-ha, there make.sound-	"tsa- NAR-PART this	·χui :one-time	tse: genku this:CL parrot	
277	qa-tç za 1sg-GEN matter/af	ha-sə-şə," fair DIR-make.s	sound-LNK	jə-n.i fiala f say-ADV INT I	ìa-ke NT-thus
278	zə-kəi. fia-tu, exist-NAR INT-RES		e: tə-tsəqo Sg DIR-gra		
279	genkuo-le: tə- parrot-DEF:CL DI	tsəqa-jantçi, R-grab-after	fiata, INT	spə-ŋuən i bamboo-TOP	
280	a-xtş a-xtş one-row one.row	tə-şə-jantç DIR-count-		fia-the-wu, INT-that-ABL	
281	fia-tsəi r INT-this.manner O		ia-thu NT-there	i-çi DIR-put	

282	ha-tsa-xui-tu, a, ha-tu, zmətşi-le:-ŋuən,i INT-this:one-time-LNK EXCL INT-RESULT emperor-DEF:CL-TOP
283	tu, "a, qa-χuopau-le:-ŋuən,i şkupa-mo-ʁu, RESULT EXCL 1sg-live.treasure-DEF:CL-TOP disaster-NEG-willing
284	хиораи-le: ŋuә-şә a-şpa-la die-şe-kә ки, live.treasure-DEF:CL COP-LNK one-place-LOC DIR-die-go may
285	fie-sue-n,i," jə-n,i, "a atazə-s-la: DIR-be.hungry-ADV say-ADV INT fast-NOM-DEF:CL
286	dzə-n i ka-han ŋuə-şa, qa, ?ũ xaişə qa n iyi eat-ADV INDEF:one-kind COP-HORT 1sg 2sg †(still.is) 1sg what
287	dzə-n.i n.iyi dzə-tç, fia-tsəi-ŋuən.i n.iyi eat-ADV what eat-NOM INT-this.manner-TOP what
288	sətçian ha-tsə-ŋuən i tu-wu-n i †time INT-this-TOP DIR-discuss-ADV
289	fia-kə ə-şə-kəi-ha.'' INT-thus DIR-put-NAR-PART
290	fia-tu tşekəzənla xaişə şputhuş lou INT-RESULT †(this.person) †(still.is) bamboo.tube DEF:one:CL
291	he-tçy-ŋ,i, fia-tu-ŋuəŋ,i, fia-ka:-ва DIR-carry-LNK INT-RESULT-TOP INT-INDEF:one:CL-LOC
292	stuaha t¢hə-s fia-ka-han food eat-NOM INT-INDEF:one-kind
293	lez tə-ʁə-s-le: we-kuai. fate/destiny DIR-go-NOM-DEF:CL exist-NAR
294	fia-tu, fia-tsə xuan-tçhianme <sup>1</sup> fia-tse:-ŋuən, i, INT-RESULT INT-this Huang Qianmen INT-this:CL-TOP
295	χaişəgenkuo-le:,genkuo-le:dα-tç-kə-kuai-stun,†(still.is)parrot-DEF:CLparrot-DEF:CLDIR-find-go-NAR-PART
296	fia-tsu-ŋuən,i n,i ke guo san-jan, fia-thu INT-here-TOP †(2sg give 1sg three-kind) INT-there

297	xsə-han thunt three-kinds notify		u-şə, AUS-NAR-LN	fia-tu K INT-RESULT
298	z mətşi-le: niyi emperor-DEF:CL what	dzə-n i eat-ADV	n iyi what	dzə, eat
299	ha-tu ha-ka-h INT-RESULT INT-INE		uə. OP	
300	χuαn-t¢hiαnme¹-le: Huang-Qianmen-DEF:CI	tha-han that:one-kind		ŋuə-kuə-wa. COP-NAR-EMPH
301	 ha-tu z.m: INT-RESULT emp	ətşi-ŋuən i, peror-TOP	"ĥa-tse: INT-this:C	genkuo-le: CL parrot-DEF:CL
302	da-tçə-m-ŋuən i DIR-find-NOM-TOP	ha-tha-ŋuəŋ.i, INT-there-TOP		ŋuən.i, iter-DEF:CL-TOP
303	qa-luq-te:-ŋuəŋ.i 1sg-seat-DEF:CL-TOP		o-zu-n," DIR-sit-2sg	
304	fia-kə jə-ji INT-thus say-CSM	ŋuə-wa. COP-EMPH	(fia-tsu INT-here	χuan-tchianme <sup>1</sup> , Huang-Qianmen
305			pu-le:-ŋuəŋ,i ot-DEF:CL-TC	
306	tçiq dze-s-ta-ŋuən,i inside say-NOM-LOC-		sa EF:one-CL	da-m-a, DIR-forget-1sg
307	fiala xuan-tchianme INT Huang-Qianme			χuan-t¢hianme¹ Huang-Qianmen
308	zmə-w ka-han call-VIS INDEF:one-ki	ŋuə-w-tu.) nd COP-VIS-LI		ətşi-le:-ŋuən i peror-DEF:CL-TOP
309	tçi-steke-la ŋuə-tı most-back-LOC COP-I	u, hata g LNK INT p		
310	fia-ka-han ŋu: INT-INDEF:one-kind CO			

311	tsi-le:-ŋuən,i daughter-DEF:C		an-t¢hia ang-Qia		үट्र् AT mar	-s, ry-NOM	
312	χuan-tchianme <sup>3</sup> Huang-Qianme		z mətşi emperc		dzu-s, sit-NOM	z mətşi-le: emperor-DEI	F:CL
313	tsi-le:-ŋuən i daughter-DEF:C	L-TOP	χaişə †(still.i	s)			
314	ha-tha INT-there	de-l-əs, DIR-give-	NOM	ha-kə INT-thı	us	ŋuə-ku-tu. COP-NAR-LNK	

Narrator: Yu Zelong 余澤龍 Born 1960 Recorded 1996

### The Story of a Lazy Man

A long time ago there were two sisters. The husband of the older sister was the emperor (previously called /juonsuoi/, now called /zmətşi/). The younger sister had a son who was very lazy. Every day the mother would weigh out half a catty of wool and spin yarn. The son liked to drink liquor and often went to a restaurant in town to drink. When he returned, he often brought back half a catty of liquor for his mother.

One day the older sister went to her younger sister's home and chatted with her. The younger sister told the older one, "My son is very lazy." One day the younger sister's son pretended to go to town but hid behind the door. The older and younger sister chatted inside and the son of the younger sister listened from behind the door. The two sisters spoke of the younger sister's son. This son had not gone to town, but was behind the door secretly listening. They said things like "My son is very lazy."

The younger sister's son then said to his mother, "I'm back. Today I learned an ability." The younger sister asked, "Son, what ability did you learn?" The son said, "What were you saying today at home? When I was in the restaurant in the center of town, I heard what you said (what you said, I learned to be able to hear it all)." The two sisters said, "What did we say?" The son of the younger sister said, "When I was in the restaurant in town, I heard you say this and that." The younger sister said, "That's really how it was, son."

The older sister's husband was emperor. The younger sister then said, "If my son has learned this kind of ability, it really is a good thing." One day, the older sister's husband was preparing for his birthday. He bought three yak and tethered them inside a cowpen. The son of the younger sister, the one who said "I have learned an ability", at night stole the yaks and crossed the mountain and tethered them in a mountain cave. The emperor could not proceed with his birthday (celebration). The older sister said to her husband (the emperor), "My younger sister's son has an ability. He can see in his dreams where something is. When he listens, he can hear." This emperor had soldiers, and sent his soldiers to look for the lost yaks. After this person had stolen the yaks, he tied them in a cave on the mountain. He himself knew, and he was relaxed and carefree. Almost at the river embankment, the person searching said, a little faster. See if it's possible to find [the yaks] a day or two ahead of time. [The one with an ability] brought a bamboo tube, and he himself asked on the bamboo tube and he himself answered (he asked himself and answered himself). One day, the older sister's husband (formerly called /juankuai/ [emperor], now called /z mətsi/ [emperor]) said, "If one is able to go faster, then go a little faster. Those who can go tomorrow and can go fast must all go search." In this manner he selected a propitious day, and after the propitious day was selected, notified people everywhere. "Those who can go, and who can hear all come here. We will hold a meeting, and all must come here." On a cart this person [with an ability] used the bamboo tube to ask [the whereabouts of the yaks] on the day the meeting was held. On the cart he used the bamboo tube to ask where the emperor's livestock had been lost. There he said, "After a thief took the livestock, he drove them up on the mountain and tethered them in a mountain cave. Quickly now go over that mountain." Through the bamboo tube he himself answered and he himself asked. After asking, he said, "You see, that thief stole them. Quickly cross over that mountain. They are there!" This child of the older sister's family, this family's soldiers and the other people went to look, and when they went to look, the livestock really was there. At this time, as for this person, well! The younger sister's son's reputation went up greatly. Whatever the older sister's husband ate, he ate; whatever the emperor drank, he drank. It was discussed and agreed in advance to provide for him this way. Thus, this person's problems were solved.

Later, that time, the emperor of another place lost a "dzin" (also called a "jin." A monk's robe or "Huang Ma Gua"). After the emperor had lost the dzin, he was chatting with another person and learned about

(it). The emperor said, "(I) must have this person go search. This person can dream or hear other's words. This person has much ability." A person of this family took a message to him, and after taking him the message, he will find the emperor's dzin. After this person finds the dzin, the emperor will provide for him. He set a time, he set a time of seven days. "Within seven days he must find the emperor's dzin in his dreams. The difficulty is great."

For seven days and seven nights this person ate and drank at the emperor's. After eating, one day, the emperor said to him, "Ai! My dzin has been moved somewhere by someone." One day, the son ate too much and went to the toilet to relieve himself. There was a cat which had moved some roof tiles on top of the toilet and hidden the emperor's dzin among the tiles. When he went to look, he discovered the emperor's dzin. He said, "This brindled cat has done me a good deed," and took the dzin from the cat. He counted seven tiles, and stood up seven rows vertically; he hid the emperor's dzin there. At this time, the emperor said, "it will be a little difficult for you to find the dzin. I am willing to move to another place. How about that?" That person then said, "You come tomorrow" (we say "soqhun,i" [tomorrow], and it can also be said "təpn,i" [tomorrow]). "Tonight I'll try to divine [its whereabouts], all right? Tomorrow I'll notify you and notify those who can walk and who can hear to come. These people must all come." To organize a meeting, this is how he spoke to the emperor. The next day, a meeting was held. He used the bamboo tube and asked himself and answered himself, where is the dzin. This person had them go look, counting out which roof tile in which row of tiles on which toilet. The emperor's dzin was in fact there. After finding it, they notified the emperor, and the emperor said to him, "Whatever I eat, you eat; when I sit, you sit; when I stand, you stand." In the end, he was even better provided for.

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There was another emperor who lost (had stolen) a very expensive kind of parrot, perhaps for revenge. After losing it, this emperor who had lost the dzin told this person who had lost the parrot, "A dog barks in that direction. You have lost this kind of bird, and I have there (in my place) one of this kind of bird." A person came here to search. When he went to search, those people set a time to feed this parrot. "This parrot of mine isn't a dead treasure, it's a living treasure. It might starve to death someplace. If you can dream of it a little faster, see or hear it, do it a little faster for me. If you can find the parrot, you may rise and sit with me (as my equal) and like me eat what I eat, stand when I stand, sit when I sit." The day he went to look for the parrot, he went to a place where Han people live and went to relieve himself. Where the Han people live, each family grew bamboo. By the roadside there was row after row of bamboo trees. There was a rope tied around a small stick attached to the parrot's wing. The rope was wedged in the bamboo forest. This person couldn't find a toilet, so he went to relieve himself beside the bamboo forest. While relieving himself, he heard the parrot calling in the bamboo forest. He said, "This parrot has done a good thing for me," and he caught the parrot. After catching it, he counted the rows of bamboo and put the parrot there. The emperor said, "My living treasure might starve to death (it would be a disaster). It's a living treasure which may die someplace. If it could eat a little something as soon as possible, then like me, what I eat, you will eat." After this, they set a time (came to an agreement on it), and this person brought up the bamboo tube. He used the tube to eat (earn his living). Perhaps he had this kind of luck. This person was called Huang Qianmen. Huang Qianmen brought the parrot back and said to the emperor, "You must give me three things. These three things you must proclaim to the people." In the end, Huang Qianmen lived just like the emperor.

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This emperor said, "The person who finds the parrot will marry my daughter and sit on my throne. (The Huang Qianmen I spoke of is the person I called "this person" before. When I was talking before, I forgot his name. This person's name is Huang Qianmen.) The emperor said, "To the person who finds the parrot I will marry my daughter," so Huang Qianmen married his daughter and became emperor.

# Text 6The Old Man of the Chen FamilytshəntçaqapəChen.familyold.man

1	qe <sup>1</sup> long.ago	ŋuə-tu, COP-LNK	tshəntça Chen.family	qapə old.man	n.a COM
2	e: ŋuə-tu, one:CL COP-LN		ay-LOC-ADV		e-k, elease-go
3	ha-tu khu INT-RESULT dog		-tu, <sup>118</sup> e-NAR-LNK		
4	khuə çe-kəi-tu, dog release-NA			nuə tə-çi- og DIR-re	n i elease-ADV
5	phantshә-ва traveling.expenses		tə-çi-n i DIR-release-AD		t¢hə-m, eat-NOM
6	,	-ва-tu e-day-LOC-LNF	1		iyi anything
7	de-me-zde-kəi, DIR-NEG-hit-NAR	ha-tu, INT-RESUI		zde-kui-tu G-hit-NAR	
8	zo:pu-le: cave-DEF:CL	şqəl-la-ŋuən below-LOC-T	i bəs-le: OP snake-DI	EF:CL	
9	u-t¢u-kəi-wa. DIR-see-NAR-EMP	"ha, H EXCI	pəs-ŋuən i today-TOP	iyi anythi	lə ng also
10	de-me-zde. DIR-NEG-hit	fia-ke INT-thus	kə-вza-ңі, go-ought:1sg	g-ADV	fia-kə INT-thus
11	xşuçtçu-le: empty.handed-DEl	kə-qəsto F:CL go-not.a	i, u-t is.good.as DII	cu-ja-n.i R-see-CSM:	1sg-ADV
12		qhu-şa." shoot-HORT	jə-kəi. say-NA	R	
13	a-phau u-qhu-k	əi-tu, f	ìa-tu jau	tsan-le:	

13 a-phau u-qhu-kəi-tu, fia-tu jautsan-le: one-shot DIR-shoot-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT man.eating.demon-DEF:CL

14	ŋuə-kəi, jautsan-le: ŋuə-kəi-tu. fia-tu COP-NAR man.eating.demon-DEF:CL COP-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT
15	a-phau qhu-kəi-tu, jautsan-le:-ŋuən,i one-shot shoot-NAR-LNK man.eating.demon-DEF:CL-TOP
16	gəz nə-qəti-kui. gəz nə-qəti-kui-tu. the:-ŋuən,i strangle(n.) DIR-kill-NAR strangle(n.) DIR-kill-NAR-LNK 3sg-TOP
17	juanвuai, (pitc-ŋuən,i "zmətşi" şpi-ş qə:1-ŋuən,i emperor now-TOP emperor call-LNK before-TOP
18	"juansuai" zmə, zmətşi lax-sa "juansuai" emperor call emperor DEF:one:kind-LOC emperor
19	spu-ku-wa), fia-tu, jautsan-le:-ŋuəŋ.i call-NAR-EMPH INT-RESULT man.eating.demon-DEF:CL-TOP
20	tə-pian-tha-ji ŋuə-kui-wa zmətşi-le:-ŋuən i DIR-change-AUX-CSM COP-NAR-EMPH emperor-DEF:CL-TOP
21	"me <sup>1</sup> z kə tçhe," jə-ni he-çi-kui "niχua seek go want say-ADV DIR-send-NAR why
22	ŋuə-n.i (hatu) tə-zdzi?" şpaqta fio-pů-kəi, "n.iyi COP-ADV INT DIR-sick pretend DIR-do-NAR what
23	tə-zdzi-n?" jə-n.i, "zdzi fio-tşhup-n.i zdzi u-xşu DIR-sick-2sg say-ADV sick DIR-cure-ADV sick DIR-recover
24	ma-lə, fia-tu, zdzi u-xşu ma-lə ka-han NEG-able INT-RESULT sick DIR-recover NEG-able INDEF:one-kind
25	ŋuə-tu, ?ũ n.iɣi ŋuə-s ŋuə-ŋua?" fia-tu, COP-LNK 2sg what COP-NOM COP-Q INT-RESULT
26	tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l-kə-kui, zmətşi-le:-wu, zmətşi-le:-wu DIR-ask-go-NAR emperor-DEF:CL-AGT emperor-DEF:CL-AGT
27	tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l ka-han ŋuə-kui-tu, "fia, qa tshəntça DIR-ask INDEF:one-kind COP-NAR-LNK EXCL 1sg Chen.family

28	qapə-tç şpəl old.man-GEN kidney	n.a COM	ctçi:mi heart	sə-dza-tu, DIR-eat:1sg-LNK
29	dzə-wa," jə-kui. able-EMPH say-NAR	ha-tu, INT-RES	z mətşi ULT empere	i-le:-ŋuəŋ i or-DEF:CL-TOP
30	gue <sup>1</sup> he-çi-ŋ,i army DIR-send-ADV		tshəntça Chen.family	
31	me¹z he-¢i-kui-stũ. seek DIR-send-NAR-P	ART		
32	he-çi-kui ja-tu DIR-send INT-I			
33	tshəntça qapə Chen.family old.man	t¢əu-th save-A	na-tç, AUX-GEN(goal	tshəntça 1) Chen.family
34	qapə-tç tşi-ŋuən i old.man male/son-TC	tsh OP Ch	nəntitçhən, nen.Diqing	
35	fia-tu tshəntça INT-RESULT Chen.fami	qapa ly old.1	ə-ŋuən i man-TOP	suəsua divine(the.future)
36	yzə-jy, fiala tə- able-ASP INT DIH	sua-n.i R-divine-	dz uł ADV know	ků de-le, wledge DIR-exist
37	fia-kə suəsua yzə-n INT-thus divine able-A	i "qa DV 1sg	ha-kə n g INT-thus s	ne <sup>1</sup> z, hatə-ŋuən.i, eek INT-TOP
38	a, qa-tşi, ?ũ EXCL 1sg-son 2s	-ŋuəŋ i g-TOP	da-yzə-n, DIR-set.out-	qa-ŋuən i -2sg 1sg-TOP
39	fantşənşə zmətşi †(anyway.is) emperor			q-ta-ŋuən.i -top-LOC-TOP
40	do-χlu mα-lə-jya, DIR-escape NEG-able-			a ne-day-LOC
41	bəs-le: jopu-le: snake-DEF:CL cliff-DEF:	şqə- CL belo		
42	u-tçya-paqta fi DIR-see:1sg-LNK(after) II	ata tse NT thi		ha-tsoqpi-wu INT-this:family-AGT

43	qa me <sup>1</sup> z-lə 1sg seek-come	tche, want	qa 1sg	şpəl kidney	n a COM	¢t¢i:mi heart
44	sə-mə-dzə-s-te:-w DIR-NEG-eat-NOM		fiata INT	tha-han that:one-l		1ə-ş, DP-LNK
45	ha-tsa-xui-ŋuən i INT-this:one-time		ontitchin en.Diqing	?ũ 2sg		-фu R-run.away
46	dzə-tçe¹wu able-AMP <sup>119</sup> :all	du-фu-n-p DIR-run.av			-ŋuən i g-TOP	
47	jəpa-q hand-top	ha-mə-ʁə-չ։ DIR-NEG-gc	ə D-LNK	ma-l-j NEG-a	jya." ible-ASP	:1sg
48	ikə jə-ŋ thus say-	hala ADV INT		, in.away		-ŋuən i DEF:CL-TOP
49	du-фu-n <sub>c</sub> i run.away-ADV	nai-e-tshin other-one-v	-ва village-LO	i-pə-k C DIR-a:	əi-wa, rrive-NA	R-EMPH
50	nai-e-tshin-ва other-one-village		-kəi-tu, -arrive-NA	AR-LNK		
51	fiala da-qa INT DIR-go	da-qa DIR-go		-qa-tu, R-go-LNK	halə there	
52	ŋuə-tu, d COP-LNK l	la-qa-tu DIR-go-LNK	hala INT	die-şe DIR-d	e-m-le: ie-NOM-	DEF:CL
53	zi-kui, wutcu exist-NAR husba	ou-le:-ŋuən i nd-DEF:CL-T	die-şe- OP DIR-di	-kui, v e-NAR h	vutcupu- usband-	le:-ŋuəŋ,i DEF:CL-TOP
54	die-se-kui-tu, DIR-die-NAR-LNK	ha-tu, INT-RESU	loku JLT swo	un orn.brother	lokun sworn.	.brother
55	phənjəu fie-se friend DIR-mał	ce(friends)	ŋuə. tça-le COP whei	a ts re-LOC vi	ha-la-ка llage-LC	-ŋuəŋ.i )C-LOC-TOP
56	"ĥa-tsəi INT-this.manner	lokun sworn.	brother	ĥe-se¹-ş, DIR-make	(friends)	:1pl-LNK

57	fia-tsəifie-se <sup>1</sup> ."fia-tsəi-ŋuən,iINT-this.mannerDIR-make(friends):1plINT-this.manner-TOP
58	fie-se-kui-wa. "ha, tse: DIR-make(friends)-NAR-EMPH EXCL this:CL
59	fantşənşə tha-han shenzə bələ-s ŋuə," ikə †(anyway.is) that:one-kind birthday make-NOM COP thus
60	jə-η,i, ĥα-ke: tə-bəl-kui. ĥα-tu χu say-ADV INT-INDEF:CL DIR-make-NAR INT-RESULT goods
61	na tha-han kuan-tha-m əzzi zi-kui. fia-tu COM that:one-kind manage-AUX-NOM a.few exist-NAR INT-RESULT
62	tha-han afə <sup>1</sup> ali ma-tşhə-tç laxuilai xu. that:one-kind †(least.amount) NEG-lack-GEN †(take.back) goods
63	ha-tu-ŋuən,i, "kun,atsə n,a stumpətşe <sup>120</sup> -ŋuən,i, tsa INT-RESULT-TOP close.relatives COM relatives-TOP here
64	a-la tche, ?ũ-ŋuən i a-spa kə lə DIR-come want 2sg-TOP one-place go also
65	fie-me-se," jə-kui. fia-kə jə-kui-tu, DIR-NEG-allow say-NAR INT-thus say-NAR-LNK
65 66	fie-me-se,"jə-kui.fia-kəjə-kui-tu,DIR-NEG-allowsay-NARINT-thussay-NAR-LNKfialəə-la-kəi-wa.ə-la-kəi-tu,DIR-come-NAR-EMPHDIR-come-NAR-LNK
	DIR-NEG-allow say-NAR INT-thus say-NAR-LNK
66	DIR-NEG-allow say-NAR INT-thus say-NAR-LNK fialə ə-la-kəi-wa. ə-la-kəi-tu, there DIR-come-NAR-EMPH DIR-come-NAR-LNK
66 67	DIR-NEG-allowsay-NARINT-thussay-NAR-LNKfialəə-la-kəi-wa.ə-la-kəi-tu,thereDIR-come-NAR-EMPHDIR-come-NAR-LNKXaişəfiala-ŋuəniə-la-kəi-tu,t(still.is)there-TOPDIR-come-LNKson-TOPson-TOPsmart-capablefiala-ŋuənixaişətaulətçikuojueşəxəu

71	3	ʻa! EXCL	qa-ŋuən i 1sg-TOP	ma-k NEG-go
72	ĥe-me-se, DIR-NEG-allow	ka:," go:PRS	fiala INT	
73	sətsim-le:-ta-ŋuən,i, wife-DEF:CL-LOC-TOP	"a! EXCL		tha-han that:one-kind
74	ŋuə-ş, qa-ŋuən,i ma	a-k fie-r	ne-se-ş,	ĥa-tu-ŋuəŋ.i
	COP-LNK İsg-TOP NE	EG-go DIR-	-NEG-allow-LN	IK INT-RESULT-TOP
75	tşi pe-tu	ŋuə-tu,	¢t¢ə-p	le-n i
	son become-LNK	COP-LN	K seven-ye	ears exist-ADV
76	ləyz a:-su-k-wa. book DIR:INDTV-study	y-go-DTV	tsi daughter	pe-tu, become-LNK
77	xaisə iγi	qa	me¹zə-lə	me-tchi,
	†(still.is) anything	1sg	seek-come	NEG-want
78	nai tşi	pe-tu	şə?ə <sup>1</sup> sı	ui
	other son	become-LN	NK †(twe]	lve.years.old)
79	hani-p le-n,i	ha-tu	qa ta:-n	ne <sup>1</sup> z-lə-wa,"
	twelve-year exist-LNK	INT-RESU	LT 1sg INDI	W-seek-come-DTV
80	jə-jy. ŋuən i say-ASP TOP		ta-ŋuən i CL-LOC-TOP	ə-χte-jy, DIR-exhort-ASP
81	ha-tu "ղmə-ŋuə	n i thankhe	emu ə-şpə-n	-pa," jə-jy,
	INT-RESULT name-TO	P Thankh	emu DIR-cal	l-2sg-DTV say-ASP
82	"thankhemu-ŋuən,i ha	a-tsəi	ə-şpə-n-p	a, fia-tu
	Thankhemu-TOP IN	VT-this.man	ner DIR-call-	2sg-DTV INT-RESULT
83	ləyz u-su-n <sub>e</sub> i	¢t¢ə-p	o le-n,i,	kə-ŋuə-tu
	book DIR-study-ADV	seven	i-year exist-Al	DV thus-COP-LNK
84	i-pə-l-ŋ.i DIR-return-come-ADV		a:-me¹z-wa." DIR:INDTV-see	fia-tu, k-DTV INT-RESULT
85	xsə nai-e-fən- new(again) other-one-	-CГ-ГОС Џ Ra Х		zə-lə-m-ŋuən i k-come-NOM-TOP

- 86 steke-la ə-dza-lu-kui. behind-LOC DIR-chase-come-NAR
- 87ə-dzα-lu-kui-tu,<br/>DIR-chase-come-NAR-LNKχaişə<br/>t(still.is)du-φu-η,i<br/>DIR-run.away-ADV
- kə-jə-kəi-tu, nai-α-şpaq-ta, χaişə
   go-REP-NAR-LNK other-one-place-LOC †(still.is)
- 89 ŋuən i wutcupu die-şe-m-le:-ta, wutcupu TOP husband DIR-die-NOM-DEF:CL-LOC husband
- 90die-şe-m-le:-ta<br/>DIR-die-NOM-DEF:CL-LOCχaişə<br/>†(still.is)ha-ke:<br/>INT-INDEF:CL
- 91 pe-n,i, qe:<sup>1</sup> şpaşpa fia-ke: become-ADV before same.way INT-INDEF:CL
- 92 tu-tsu-jə-kəi. fia-ke: tu-tsu-jə-kəi-tu, DIR-meet-REP-NAR INT-INDEF:CL DIR-meet-REP-NAR-LNK
- 93 ha-ŋuən,i xu-pan-tha-luo, ha-la-han-ŋuən,i, INT-TOP goods-manage-AUX-perhaps INT-DEF:one-kind-TOP
- 94 <u>xaisə</u> thu ə-mə-la-z mo-ви-jə-kui. †(still.is) there DIR-NEG-come-CAUS NEG-willing-REP-NAR
- 95 fia-thə ə-la-kəi-tu, xsə me<sup>1</sup>z ə-lə-m INT-there DIR-come-NAR-LNK new(again) seek-come-NOM
- 96 i-pə-l-jə-kui "tşi pe-tu, qa me<sup>1</sup>z-lə DIR-arrive-come-REP-NAR son become-LNK 1sg seek-come

97	t¢he-wa, want-DTV	tsi daughter			me¹z-lə seek-come
98	me-t¢he-wa, NEG-want-DTV	tşi son	pe-tu, become-LNK	fiala INT	¢t¢ə-p seven.years
99	le-n i exist-ADV	ləyz book	a:-su-ku, DIR:INDTV-study	-go:EMPH	hodzy-p ten-year

100	le-n,i qa ta:-me <sup>1</sup> z-lə-wa,'' ĥa-kə exist-ADV 1sg DIR:INDTV-seek-come-DTV INT-thus
101	jə-kui-tu. say-NAR-LNK
102	ha-tu thankhemu na likhemu jə-ze wu tşi INT-RESULT Thankhemu COM Likhemu two-CL all son
103	pe-kui, ĥa-tu, a-s-ва-ŋuəŋ,i da-yz-ŋ,i become-NAR INT-RESULT one-day-LOC-TOP DIR-set.out-ADV
104	χaişə,ĥa-tha"ep-te:me¹ζ ka:,"†(still.is)INT-therefather-DEF:CLseekgo:PRS:1sg
105	jə-χua, "ep-te: me <sup>1</sup> z ka:," say-because father-DEF:CL seek go:PRS:1sg
106	jə-χua ŋuən.i da-qa da-qa-kəi-tu, say-because TOP DIR-go DIR-go-NAR-LNK
107	ba-la:-ва e-tşepe-kəi. fia-tu flat.area.on.side.of.hill-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-encounter-NAR INT-RESULT
107 108	
	flat.area.on.side.of.hill-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-encounter-NAR INT-RESULT tshəntitchin-nuən i ep nuə-w, ep-le: $me^{T}z$ ə-k
108	flat.area.on.side.of.hill-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-encounter-NAR INT-RESULT tshəntitchin-ŋuən i ep ŋuə-w, ep-le: me <sup>1</sup> z ə-k Chen.Diqing-TOP father COP-VIS father-DEF:CL seek-go
108 109	flat.area.on.side.of.hill-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-encounter-NAR INT-RESULT tshəntitçhin-ŋuən,i ep ŋuə-w, ep-le: me <sup>1</sup> z ə-k Chen.Diqing-TOP father COP-VIS father-DEF:CL seek-go da-qə-kəi-tu, fiala gue: <sup>1</sup> -ta-ŋuən,i e-tşepe-kəi. DIR-go-NAR-LNK INT road-LOC-TOP DIR-encounter-NAR thankhemu-ŋuən,i tə-ke <sup>1</sup> -kəi. thankhemu
108 109 110	flat.area.on.side.of.hill-DEF:CL-LOCDIR-encounter-NARINT-RESULTtshəntitçhin-ŋuən,iepŋuə-w,ep-le:me¹z ə-kChen.Diqing-TOPfatherCOP-VISfather-DEF:CLseek-goda-qə-kəi-tu,fialague:¹-ta-ŋuən,ie-tşepe-kəi.DIR-go-NAR-LNKINTroad-LOC-TOPDIR-encounter-NARthankhemu-ŋuən,itə-ke¹l-kəi.thankhemuThankhemu-TOPDIR-ask-NARthankhemutə-ke¹l-kəi-tu,"?ũtçaka:-n-a?"jə-kui,"?ũtçaka:-n-a?"

114	jə-tu, "qa-ep tshəntitchin ŋuə-ŋua," <sup>121</sup> jə-ji. say-LNK 1sg-father Chen.Diqing COP-VIS:1sg say-CSM
115	thankhemu fia-tsə "ep lə tshəntitchin ŋuə, Thankhemu INT-this father also Chen.Diqing COP
116	<ul> <li>?ũ qa ma-sun-şə," ikə jə-kui, "qa</li> <li>2sg 1sg NEG-consider-LNK thus say-NAR 1sg</li> </ul>
117	ma-sun-şə" jə-kui-tu, nə-quaq-tcə-i. hai NEG-consider-LNK say-NAR-LNK DIR-fight-3pl-HS EXCL
118	ne-quaq-kei-tu, thankhemu-ŋuən,i "a, ?ũ n,a qa DIR-fight-NAR-LNK Thankhemu-TOP EXCL 2sg COM 1sg
119	quəqua ma-qa <sup>1</sup> , ?ũ n.a qa quəqua ma-qa <sup>1</sup> , fight NEG-ought:1pl 2sg COM 1sg fight NEG-ought:1pl
120	ə-zə ə-zdz-şa," jə-kui. a-zə ə-zdz-tu, fiala one-CL DIR-rest-HORT say-NAR one-CL DIR-rest-LNK INT
121	a-zə ə-zdz-niantçi, thankhemu-jə ba-kəi-şə, fiala one-CL DIR-rest-after Thankhemu-†(TOP) big-NAR-LNK INT
122	tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l-kui, likhemu tə-ke <sup>1</sup> l-kui-tu, fiala DIR-ask-NAR Likhemu DIR-ask-NAR-LNK INT
123	likhemu-ŋuən,i "n,i:tsəi ŋuə-zɑ:?" jə-kui-şə. Likhemu-TOP WH.kind COP-CAUS:PRS:1pl say-NAR-LNK
124	thankhemu-ŋuən,i, "?ũ na qa jə-ze wu tsəi-ŋuən,i Thankhemu-TOP 2sg COM 1sg two-CL all this.manner-TOP
125	tha-han ep me <sup>1</sup> ze: <sup>1</sup> , ep-te: kənti e: that:one-kind father seek:1pl father-DEF:CL jointly one:CL
126	ŋuə-k-a:1-tçi?ta,içtçi-ŋuəŋ,ikə-şa,"COP-INF-PRS:1pl-QINTtogether-TOPgo-HORT
127	jə-kui. ha-thu-ŋuən i, quəqua say-NAR INT-there-TOP fight

128	a-xə-n.i da-qə-kəi-ha. DIR-stop-LNK DIR-go-NAR-PART
129	da-qa da-qa da-qə-tu, fiala DIR-go DIR-go DIR-go-LNK INT
130	xsə-tçi-la:-ʁa ə-wəi-jə-kəi ha, god-house(temple)-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-stay/live-REP-NAR INT
131	ə-wəi-jə-kəi-tu, fia-tu "the: maha-ŋuən,i tshəntça DIR-stay/live-REP-NAR-LNK INT-RESULT 3sg night-TOP Chen.family
132	qapa na tshəntitçhin-tçə kuantausəje, fiala-ŋuən i old.man COM Chen.Diqing-GEN sword.and.bow INT-TOP
133	hala xsə-tçi piena tə-şuə-jə, ha-kə INT god-house beside DIR-hide-REP that.manner
134	səqu-le:-piena tə-şuə-jə ke: u-zmu-a-wa," tree-DEF:CL-beside DIR-hide-REP INDEF:CL DIR-dream-1sg-EMPH
135	jə-ji. "ha, ?ũ, qa-tutş say-HS EXCL 2sg 1sg-younger.brother
136	n,i:-ke: u-z,mu-n-a?'' jə-i-tu, "a, qa lə WH-INDEF:CL DIR-dream-2sg-Q say-HS-LNK EXCL 1sg also
137	ha-kə u-zmu-a. a, ta, ?ũ na qa a-qəs INT-thus DIR-dream-1sg EXCL INT 2sg COM 1sg one-form
138	we-k-a: <sup>1</sup> -tçi? kuantausəje fia-tsəi-ke: exist-INF-PRS:1pl-Q sword.and.bow INT-this.manner-INDEF:CL
139	u-zmu-a-şə, tshən-ŋuən i fia-tha xsə-tçi-le:-piena-ŋuən i DIR-dream-1sg-LNK Chen-TOP INT-there god-house-DEF:CL-beside-TOP
140	zoru-piena-la wətshəi-le:-ta fia-l-n,i courtyard-beside-LOC wild.prickly.ash-DEF:CL-LOC DIR-look-ADV
141	ha-ke-ze zi-jə kə u-zmu-a-wa," INT-INDEF-CL exist-REP thus DIR-dream-1sg-EMPH

142	jə-ji. ĥa-tu say-CSM INT-RESULT	da-qə-kəi-tu, DIR-go-NAR-I	LNK
143	каt¢hi fiala gue: <sup>1</sup> -le:-j really INT road-DEF	piena-ŋuən i CL-beside-TOP	
144	səq-lə-jin-tşa we-s-ta tree-DEF-few-CL exist-NG	-ŋuən i DM-LOC-TOP	fiala INT
145	tsə-le: lu-ji, water(river)-DEF:CL come	e(flow)-HS	tsə fie-çpi-kei, water DIR-thirsty-NAR
146	a-i da-qə-kəi-tu, one-time DIR-go-NAR-LNK	fia tsə INT water	ĥe-cpi-kəi-tu, DIR-thirsty-NAR-LNK
147	hala χqatsəimi-le: INT spring.water-DEI	fia-lə-l F:CL DIR-co	kui. ome-NAR
148		nemu-ŋuən i hemu-TOP	tsə water
149		ıla tsə ere wate	, ,
150	tsə da-tç-kəi-tu, water DIR-find-NAR-LNK	"likhemu Likhemu	
151	ə-χə-n, qa tuw DIR-stop-2sg 1sg olde	a-le:-ŋuəŋ i er.brother-DEF:Cl	qe: <sup>1</sup> L-TOP before
152	sə-tç-la, fia-tu DIR-drink-INDTV:1sg INT-R	sə-t¢h-r ESULT DIR-drin	
153		alə-ŋuən.i, ?ũ NT-TOP 2sg	lə g also
154	ə-t¢hə-n-pa. na DIR-drink-2sg-DTV ot	ai qa ther 1sg	die-sa-tu, DIR-die:1sg-LNK
155	?ũ tça-tçhi-n-pa," 2sg NEG.IMP-drink-2sg		xui-tçu. ha-kə 7-NAR-PART INT-thus

156	jə-kui-tu, tha-xui-tu, thankhemu sə-tç-kəi, say-NAR-LNK that:one-time-LNK Thankhemu DIR-drink-NAR
157	sə-tç-kəi-tu fiala zawa-şəpan-le: DIR-drink-NAR-LNK INT stone-†stone.slab-DEF:CL
158	ha-que-ji-le:tu-tsu-kəi,DIR-cover-CSM-DEF:CLDIR-encouter-NAR
159	fia-tu e:! tshəntça qapa n.a tshəntitchin INT-RESULT EXCL Chen.family old.man COM Chen.Diqing
160	kuantausəje hala he-le-n i şə-zə-kui sword.and.bow INT DIR-pack-ADV exist-CAUS-NAR
161	ha, pana quəqua-s pana, INT thing fight-NOM thing
162	kantchi, ĥa-tha gə-zə-kui-tu, club INT-there exist-CAUS-NAR-LNK
163	tha-han, fia-la-xui-tu, thankhemu-ŋuən.i tsə that:one-kind INT-DEF:one-time-LNK Thankhemu-TOP water
164	o-qu sə-tç-kəi, fiala şəpan-le: ça-la: one-mouthful DIR-drink-NAR INT stone.slab-DEF:CL small-DEF:CL
165	tə-qe-kəi-tu. ça-la:-ji tə-tsi mɑ-lə-kəi, DIR-lift-NAR-LNK small-DEF:CL-EXC DIR-lift NEG-able-NAR
166	fia-tu "likhemu lə ə-tçhə-n qa-tutşu ə-tçhə-n," INT-RESULT Likhemu also DIR-drink-2sg 1sg-little.brother DIR-drink-2sg
167	jə-kui-şə, sə-t¢-tu, ĥα-la-χui-tu, say-NAR-LNK DIR-drink-LNK INT-DEF:one-time-LNK
168	jə-ze wu u-χsu, u-χsu-η.i α-than two-CL all DIR-jump DIR-jump-ADV one-trip
169	tə-tsi-kəi-tu, fiala ça-la:-ji DIR-lift-NAR-LNK INT small-DEF:CL-EXC
170	tə-me-qe-kəi, ha, a-thən sə-tçi-tç-şa, a-thən DIR-NEG-lift-NAR EXCL one-time DIR-CON-drink-LNK one-time

171	sə-tçi-tç-kəi, DIR-CON-drink-NAR		time-LNK	sə-tç, DIR-d	şəpan rink stone.slab
172	tə-qe-n.iaufu, DIR-turn.over-LNK(a		a tshənt here Chen.:		qapə n.a old.man COM
173	tshəntitçhin-wu Chen.Diqing-AGT		ə-jə, ide-CSM	ha INT	kuantausəje sword.and.bow
174	ha-la-han h INT-DEF:one-kind tl	ala i-le-n <sub>t</sub> i nere DIR-pack-A	şə-l ADV exis	cui, st-NAR	ĥa-tu INT-RESULT
175	tə-xtşe-kəi, DIR-take.out-NAR	tə-xtşe-ŋ DIR-take	i .out-ADV	he- DII	-tçy-ni R-carry-ADV
176	da-qə-kəi. DIR-go-NAR		a-qə-kəi-tu IR-go-NAR-		fiala INT
177	gue:¹-guχu-lα road-upper.part-LOC	xsə-tçi-] god-hou	le:-ва 1se-DEF:CL-	LOC	
178	sin-le:-ta lion-DEF:CL-LOC	ha-l-ni DIR-look-AI	OV		cui-wa, st-NAR-EMPH
179	fialə zi-ku there exist	ii-tu, -NAR-LNK			shəntitçhin Chen.Diqing
180	na tshəntça COM Chen.family	qapə-tç old.man-GEN	fia INT	sin lion	ŋuə-n-şa COP-2sg-LNK
181	qap fia-вu-n, <sup>12</sup> head DIR-throw		ma-ŋua NEG-CO	o-n-şa, DP-2sg-	tu LNK RESULT
182	qap fia-tçi-ʁu-ı head DIR-NEG.IN	n, AP-throw-2sg	tçile 1pl		za:-n-şa, it:PRS-2sg-LNK
183	ə-zə-n, nai DIR-eat-2sg oth		sin lion	ŋuə COF	-n-tu, P-2sg-LNK
184		-ви-n," R-throw-2sg	jə-kui. say-NAR	fialc ther	

185	qap head	ĥa-вu-kui DIR-throw		qap head	ĥa-вu-kui DIR-throw	-tu, ⁄-NAR-LNK	fialə there
186	ŋuə-tu, COP-LN		kuantausa sword.and		sin lion	tə-qətşi-n i DIR-ride-Al	OV
187	da-qə-k DIR-go-	kəi-wa. -NAR-EMPH	sin lio		tə-qətşi-r DIR-ride-		
188	da-qə-k DIR-go-	kəi-tu, -NAR-LNK	ha-tu INT-RESU		utsan an.eating.	demon	
189	pe-m become		fia-tu INT-RESULT		nətşi-le:-tç iperor-DEF		
190	fia-tse:- INT-this	-ŋuən i, s:CL-TOP	fiata INT		khemu khemu		likhemu, Likhemu
191	the-wu that-AB		shəntça Chen.family		apə, d.man		chin-ŋuən,i, iqing-TOP
192	tshəntço Chen.fa		pə-ŋuən i l.man-TOP			jautsan ady) man.ea	
193	dzemi Dzemi	pe-m-le become	:-wu -NOM-DEF:(	CL-AGT	şpəl kidne	n a COM	¢t¢i:mi heart
194	ha-xtşe DIR-tak	-n.i ce.out-ADV	jitcin †(alread	the- y) that	xşepi-sa -side-LOC	ə-sa-s-ta DIR-go-N(	OM-LOC
195		ə-pian-thɑ-l DIR-change-		tha the		n-tha-n,iant¢ ange-AUX-a	
196	gantsə saddle	χua- sell-1			z i-kəi. exist-NAI	R	
197	gantsə saddle	χua- sell-1		tha there		əi-tu, t-NAR-LNK	hala INT
198	thankha Thankh			emu-ŋu nemu-T(	P	fia-tha INT-there	me¹z-kə seek-go

199		nəntitçhin nen.Diqing	me¹z-kə seek-go	ha-qə-kə-wa. DIR-go-INF-EMPH
200	tchəntitchin me <sup>3</sup> Chen.Diqing seel			fiala tshəntça INT Chen.family
201	qapə-ŋuən.i fiala old.man-TOP ther			ə-pian-tha-tu, JR-change-AUX-LNK
202	fiala gantsə-ŋuən,i INT saddle-TOP	fiala sin INT lion		ha-şə-tç, OC DIR-put-GEN
203	fio-şu DIR-wash.clean	kə thus	ha-thə INT-there	tə-bəl-n iantçi DIR-make-after
204	gantsə χua-m saddle sell-NOM	fialə ə-tç- there DIR-	kəi, stop-NAR	fia-tu INT-RESULT
205	thankhemu na Thankhemu COM		i-pə-k-tu, DIR-arrive-go	hala во-men D-LNK INT city-gate
206	ĥo-tsu-ji-la:-ва DIR-stand.up-CSM-DI	fic EF:CL-LOC th	ula, "?ile tça ere 2pl wl	1: ka:-i-wa?" here:LOC go:PRS-2pl-Q
207	jə-tu, "tçil say-LNK 1p		in me <sup>1</sup> ing seel	
208	jə-kui. "a, say-NAR EXCL	gantsə saddle	pa:-ji-ŋua? buy:PRS-2p	
209	"a, tçile EXCL 1pl		-ка EE:CГ-ГОС	χοşu-şə fit-LNK
210	ĥа-§-§а. DIR-put-HORT		o-xoşu-tu EG-fit-LNK	ma-pə¹-wa,'' NEG-buy:1pl-EMPH
211	jə-ji. ha-tu say-HS INT-RESULT		ha-ş-kəi-t R DIR-put-N	u, qhuat AR-LNK as.it.happens
212	tə-ş-ŋ.ike DIR-grow-after			e-t¢hi, hɑ-tsəi EG-want INT-this.manner

213	tə-ş-n.ike ha-kə pe-kui, ha-tu thankhemu na DIR-grow-after INT-thus become-NAR INT-RESULT Thankhemu COM
214	likhemu-ŋuən,i sin tə-qtşi-n,i kuantausəje Likhemu-TOP lion DIR-ride-ADV sword.and.bow
215	he-tçy-ŋ,i ə-qa-kəi. DIR-carry-ADV DIR-go-NAR
216	ə-qa-tu, fia-tu jautsan dzemi DIR-go-LNK INT-RESULT man.eating.demon Dzemi
217	wutcupu-ŋuən,ihalatitautə-xkue-n,ihusband-TOPINT†tunnelDIR-dig-ADV
218	ha-tsəiə-ş-jy-kui-wa,ha-tuINT-this.mannerDIR-put-ASP-NAR-EMPHINT-RESULT
219	tshəntitçhin-tçə gue <sup>1</sup> -ŋ,a nə-qua-kui-ş, Chen.Diqing-GEN army-COM DIR-fight-NAR-LNK
220	tşi thankhemu n <sub>a</sub> a likhemu male/son Thankhemu COM Likhemu
221	tshəntitchinn.i:-epə-tçgue <sup>1</sup> -n.aChen.Diqing3sgREFL-father-GENarmy-COM
222	nə-qua-kəi-wa, ĥa-tu nə-qua-ŋ.i DIR-fight-NAR-EMPH INT-RESULT DIR-fight-ADV
223	halanuə-tu,steken.i:-epə-te:-tçthereCOP-LNKbehind3sgREFL-father-DEF:CL-GEN
224	gue <sup>1</sup> -ŋuəŋ,i nə-qəti da-s. army-TOP DIR-beat.to.death DIR-finish
225	nə-qəti da-s-tu, fiala jautsan DIR-beat.to.death DIR-finish-LNK there man.eating.demon
226	dzemi ha-tsoqpi-tç zmətşi ha-tse:-wu Dzemi INT-this:family-GEN emperor INT-this:CL-AGT

227	taitaula, tə-tsəq †(catch) DIR-ca	a-ku, tch-NAR	ha-tu INT-RESULT	tshəntitçhin Chen.Diqin	
228	nə-xş-ku.	nə-xş-n i	ha-	the-wu, th	ankhemu
	DIR-tie.up-NAR	DIR-tie.uj	p-ADV INT	T-that-ABL T	hankhemu
229	na likher COM Likhe	nu-ŋuəŋ i mu-TOP	titau-ва tunnel-LC	a-вů-ŋ,i DC DIR-thro	ow-ADV
230	n isues me- nearly.dead NEG	le:-tç-ŋuən i -exist-GEN-'	TOP	sipe da-c medicine DIR-	etc-jə, -feed-CSM
231	sipe da-cto medicine DIR-fo	s-jə-ku-tu, eed-CSM-NA	fi R-LNK II	a-tu NT-RESULT	
232	nə-χ§-η i χ DIR-tie.up-ADV †	zaişə 1 (still.is) 3	ni:-ep-te:-na 3sgREFL-father	-DEF:CL-COM	ĥala INT
233	ດ໗ູມູຈ nə-Ҳ§-n i	i-çi-j	ku. ĥa-tu	ep-te:-	ŋuən i
	together DIR-tie.uj	D-ADV DIR-	put-NAR INT-F	RESULT father-	DEF:CL-TOP
234	fiala ke <sup>1</sup> l-jy,	şku-z	pu-j	iy, <sup>123</sup> fia-ts	əi
	there ask-ASF	oranguta	an-talk do-4	ASP INT-1	this.manner
235	şku-z fic	o-pu-n.i,	"hã, qo	fialə ə-x	te
	orangutan-talk Di	R-do-ADV	EXCL 1s	g there DIF	R-exhort
236	la-han tşi	pe-ko	i:-ji,"	ikə-jə-n.i	ha-kə
	DEF:one-kind mal	e/son becor	ne-INF:PRS-CS	M thus-say-AD	V INT-thus
237	ə-xte-ku, fi	a-tu	thankhemu	na likhe	emu-ŋuən i
	DIR-exhort-NAR II	NT-RESULT	Thankhemu	COM Likh	emu-TOP
238	χαişəχuijələjitian,	fia	-tsəi-ŋ.i	ct¢	:ů
	†(also.recalled.a.li	(ttle) IN	Г-this.manner	ADV the	ought(n.)
239	zə-la-n.i, DIR-come-ADV	a, EXCL	ep-te:-wu father-DEF:CI	fia-tsəi L-AGT INT-th	is.manner
240	ĥe-dzi-kui, DIR-say-NAR		fie n-talk DI	-dzi-n i " R-say-ADV	tşi male/son

241	pe-ka:-ji, tşi pe-tu ctcə-p le-n,i become-INF:PRS-CSM male/son become-LNK seven-year exist-ADV
242	ləyz a:-su-wa, the-wu hatşi-p book DIR:INDTV-study-DTV that-ABL eleven-year
243	le-n,i qa ta:-me <sup>1</sup> z-wa, nai exist-ADV 1sg DIR:INDTV-seek-DVT other
244	steke-le:-ŋuən i likhemu ə-sp-n i, likhemu-ŋuən i behind-DEF:CL-TOP Likhemu DIR-call-ADV Likhemu-TOP
245	hotçu-p le-n,i qa ta:-me <sup>1</sup> z-lə-wa, ten-year exist-ADV lsg DIR:INDTV-seek-come-DTV
246	tşi pe-tu," fia-kə jə-kui-wa, male/son become-LNK INT-thus say-NAR-EMPH
247	fia-tu şku-z pə-kəi. fia-tu INT-RESULT orangutan-talk do-NAR INT-RESULT
248	ep-te:-ŋuən i fia-kə jə-kui-tçu. thankhemu-ŋuən i, father-DEF:CL-TOP INT-thus say-NAR-PART Thankhemu-TOP
249	"?ũ na qa niyi bəl-lə 2sg COM 1sg what do-come
250	ha-lə <sup>1</sup> , qa-tutş," jə-kui, fia-tu DIR-come:1pl 1sg-younger.brother say-NAR INT-RESULT
251	fia-kə jə-kui-tu. "a ?ũ na qa ep INT-thus say-NAR-LNK EXCL 2sg COM 1sg father
252	me <sup>1</sup> z lə <sup>1</sup> -n,i," jə-kui, "ep me <sup>1</sup> z lə <sup>1</sup> ," seek come:1p-ADV say-NAR father seek come:1pl
253	likhemu-ŋuən,i kə-jə-kui. fiα-lα-χui-tu, ep-te:-tu, Likhemu-TOP thus-say-NAR INT-DEF:one-time-LNK father-DEF:CL-LNK
254	e! ĥa-ṣəṇi-kə-tçi-jə, "ta, qa ?ile ep EXCL DIR-discuss-go-3pl-HS INT 1sg 2pl father
255	ŋuə-k-a," ikə jə-kui. COP-INF-1sg thus say-NAR

256	fia-kə INT-th	J	ru, R-LNK		şən.i, -discuss
257	fia-şəŋ i DIR-discuss	ka-han INDEF:one-kind	ŋuə-tu, COP-LNK		หฉ-ŋนอก.i one-day-LOC-TOP
258	qəti-s, beat.to.death-		ata NT	tshəntit Chen.D	
259		thankhemu, Thankhemu	likhem Likhem		səzzi-ŋuən i hese.people-TOP
260	fiala jaut there man	san a.eating.demon	dzemi Dzemi	wutcup husban	u-le:-ŋuəŋ,i, d-DEF:CL-TOP
261	χaişə †(still.is)	z mətşi-le: emperor-Di		uə-kəi-n i, COP-NAR-AI	DV
262	χaişə †(still.is)	qəti-s beat.to.c	leath-NOM	ə- D	-§-jy, IR-release-ASP
263	jautsan man.eating.de		zemi Dzemi	tse: this	-wu :CL-AGT
264	χaişə lau †(still.is) †or	ipeçi rdinary.citizens		isu ery.many	ə-tşən-tha, DIR-kill-AUX
265	0			nensə spute	qusu very.many
266	tə-qa-z-kui-v DIR-go-CAUS	va. -NAR-EMPH	ha-tu INT-RESU	qus JLT ver	u y.many
267	tə-qa-z-n i DIR-go-CAUS		ka-han '-INDEF:one		·kui-tu. -NAR-LNK
268	ha-tu INT-RESULT	tshəntitçhin-ŋuə Chen.Diqing-TC		u RESULT	tijikuojautchiu, †(first.demand)
269	"soqho-ŋuən tomorrow-T			ze-jy, nust-ASP	hala-ŋuən i, that-TOP
270	?ũ-sətsim-le:- 2sg-wife-DEF		z χaişə †(still.is)	tça: where:LOO	mi-le: C person-DEF:CL

271	ŋuə, COP	a-sə one-time	u-tçu DIR-see	t¢he, want	quαha-χupi face-appeara	nce	lə also
272	u-mu-tçu DIR-NEG·	-le, -see-because	tçile 1pl	qəti kill		e-se." EG-all	ow
273		e:-ta-ŋuən i DEF:CL-DAT	fia- -TOP INT		jautchiu-tu-pu demand-DIR-c		
274	ha-tu INT-RESU	wut§hu- JLT help-do-	pu-m-le-y NOM-DEF		ha-kə INT-th	us	
275	jə-kui-tu, say-NAR-		îa-kə NT-thus		jə-kui-tu, say-NAR-LNK		
276	"mi person	χai§ə †(still.is)	u-tçu DIR-see	fi D	e-se-wa,'' IR-allow-EMPI	H	jə-kui, say-NAR
277	"khuoji †(is.possi	təp-n i ible) tomor		şe-ı die-	sze-jə-u-n i -must-CSM-VIS	S-ADV	
278	a-ş one-time	u-tçu DIR-se	e	ŋuə COP	lə also		oji," .possible)
279	jə-kui-şə. say-NAR-		u RESULT		-le:-ŋuən i or-DEF:CL-TOP		m-le: -DEF:CL
280	fia-tha INT-there	me <sup>1</sup> §-ta-s- next-DEF:		zm OC me			
281	sətsim-le wife-DEF		shetsə-qua cart-top-L0			he-t¢h DIR-br	i-kəi, ing-NAR
282	ha-tha-ŋเ INT-there	uən i, tsh -TOP Ch	əntitchin-r en.Diqing	juən.i, -TOP	"a! ots EXCL mo	ůqua-ı orning-	դi-ŋuən i ADV-TOP
283	tçile-tç 1pl-GEN	jautchiu demand	tciuş †(tha		n iuxuan-ŋua bezoar-TOP	n₂i	a-t¢, one-catty
284	the-wu, that-ABL	kant †cha	han rcoal	mudzu- charcoa		-pile	phə blow(burn)
285	tche-wa, want-DTV		tu-jů-n i DIR-stand	-ADV	za:, exist:PRS	?ile-v 2pl-A	,

286	tçhanpi-pa:-j-jə-ş qətia:-i ji, fia-thu-ŋuən,i, †shoot-do:PRS-2pl-say-LNK kill:PRS-2pl say INT-there-TOP
287	tçile putu-la-ŋuən,i kanthan a-w phə 1pl front-LOC-TOP charcoal one-pile blow(burn)
288	tche-wa," jə-kui-tcu. fiα-tu χaişə "khuoji want-DTV say-NAR-PART INT-RESULT †(still.is) †(is.possible)
289	fie-se," jə-kui-şə, zmətşi-le:-ŋuən kə-jə-kui. DIR-allow say-NAR-LNK emperor-DEF:CL-TOP thus-say-NAR
290	ha-tu niuxuan i-se-kui, ha-tu zmu tsu INT-RESULT bezoar DIR-burn-NAR INT-RESULT meeting hold
291	χαişəŋuən,imijautsandzemi-le:†(still.is)TOPpersonman.eating.demonDzemi-DEF:CL
292	lə ha-l-kəi, zmətşi lə ha-l-kəi, also DIR-come-NAR emperor also DIR-come-NAR
293	zmu-tsu thontsə-tu-pů-n.i fiata meeting-hold †notify-DIR-do-ADV INT
294	ha-lə-kui, ha-lə-kui-tu fiala DIR-come-NAR DIR-come-NAR-LNK INT
295	tha-s-ва-tu, ĥa-thizzi-ŋuən,i t¢hanpi-pu-t¢, ĥala that:one-day-LOC-LNK INT-3dl-TOP †shoot-do-GEN INT
296	qəti qəzdzi-jə-kui. fia-tu qəti qəzdzi-jə-kui-tu, kill prepare-CSM-NAR INT-RESULT kill prepare-CSM-NAR-LNK
297	χaişə tha-han ŋuə-ku-wa, ĥa-tu-ŋuəŋ,i, ĥa-tha †(still.is) that:one-kind COP-NAR-EMPH INT-RESULT-TOP INT-there
298	tşhetsə-məq ictçi sə-l-n,i zmətşi-le: n,a cart-top together DIR-look-ADV emperor-DEF:CL COM
299	zmətşi sətsim jautsan dzemi, fia-tha emperor wife man.eating.demon Dzemi INT-there

300	sə-l-n i DIR-look-LNK	z i-tu. exist-LNK	fiala INT	tshəntitchi Chen.Diqi	
301	η iuχuan-le-ste bezoar-DEF-CL		-məq-ta -top-LOC	η iuχuan-le-ste bezoar-DEF-CL	
302	şə-ku-tu, put∕place-NAR∙	LNK INT	fia-tsu INT-he		z mitşi emperor
303	sətsim-le: wife-DEF:CL	jautsan man.eating.d		juə-ku-ş. COP-NAR -LNK	<u> </u>
304	jautsan-le:-ŋuə man.eating.der	n i non-DEF:CL-TOP		ha-lə-kəi-stu: DIR-come-NA	
305	"ha, EXCL	pəs-ŋuən i today-TOP	z mətşi emperor		tsim-le: fe-DEF:CL
306	tçiutçin †(actually	şə COP)	mi-le: person-DE		ə-ŋua? )P-Q
307	jautsan man.eating.der	ŋuə, non COP	?ile a-ş 2pl one-ti	i-tse-i- me DIR-lo	-wa, ok-2pl-DTV
308	ha-tse:-wu INT-this:CL-AG	laupeçin T †ordinary.citi			tha-han that:one-kind
309	qusu sunsə tə-qa-zə-ş, fia-tse:-ŋuən,i ?ileile very.many loss DIR-go-CAUS-LNK INT-this:CL-TOP 2plREFL				
310	i-tse-i-wa," DIR-look-2pl-D	jə-kui-stı DTV say-NAR			kui-tu, -NAR-LNK
311	"a! ваt EXCL truly		F /	каt ŋuə" truly COP	jə-j. say-CSM
312	ha-the-wu, INT-that-ABL	"zmətşi emperor	nə-qəti, ha DIR-kill INT	z mətşi emperor	taipu, †capture
313	tə-tsəqa, DIR-capture	halə he-me-se INT DIR-NEG-		tchi ŋuə, ıly COP	kə thus
314	ha-kə INT-thus	thauluan †discuss	ha-qə-n.i," DIR-go-ADV		i-stun. IAR-PART

315	haləke-ŋuə-kui-tINTthus-COP-NA		fia-la-xui-tu INT-DEF:one-tim	e-LNK
316	tçiu tshəntitçhin na †(then) Chen.Diqing COM	thankhe M Thankh	emu, likhemu nemu Likhemu	
317		hinfanla, (redressed)		
318	ha-qə-zə-k-wa, DIR-go-CAUS-INF-EMPH	zə affaiı		
319	ha-ke ŋuə-tu, INT-thus COP-LNK		aişə fiala (still.is) INT	L
320	tçiu akha, tçiu-la †(then) slow home-LOC		t¢əu-la home-LOC	
321	lu-kə:-tu, χaişə come-INF-LNK †(still	me <sup>1</sup> χ, .is) pitiful	sətsim l wife l	a-han, DEF:one-kind
322		themu-t¢ khemu-GEN	ma: ŋ.a mama COM	1
323	la-han me <sup>1</sup> z DEF:one-kind seek	kə-tç go-3		
324	kə-tu, χaişə, go-LNK †(still.is)	fiala there	tə-me¹z -n i DIR-seek-ADV	dz u-ŋuən i guest-TOP
325	xsə-s da-çtç-k-wa, three-day DIR-host/feed-INF	tə-r F-EMPH DIR	ne¹z-ni, dzu -seek-ADV guest	xsə-s three-day
326	da-¢t¢ə-kə:-tu, DIR-host/feed-go-LNK	χaişə †(still.is)	da-¢t¢-kə-n,i DIR-host/feed-g	0-LNK
327	xsə-s da-çtç-n,i three-day DIR-host/feed	d-ADV	хsə-s-ка three-day-LOC	tçiu †(then)
328	i-me-t¢i-pə-l, DIR-NEG-CON-arrive-come		ə-s-ta-s-ва r-day-DEF:one-da	y-LOC
329	da-t¢-kə-tu, DIR-find-go-LNK	fiala there	tsi woman	

330	su-ydu:-la zə-m fia,-kəzzi pe-kui, DIR-left.over-LOC exist-NOM INT-INDEF:two:CL become	-NAR
331	fia-tu fia-ke pe-kui-tu, a! fia INT-RESULT INT-thus become-NAR-LNK EXCL IN	
332	sə-xşə-s-ta zə-m DIR-be.last-NOM-LOC exist-NOM	hala INT
333	tsəzzi-ŋuən,i thankhemu n.a likhemu-tç this:two:CL-TOP Thankhemu COM Likhemu-GEN	ma: mama
334	ləzzi-ŋuən,i do-qu-kəi, "ha!, tçile DEF:two:CL-TOP DIR-afraid-NAR EXCL 1pl	
335	tsoqpi, tçile-apə lə tse-ze this:family 1pl-grandfather also this-CL	
336	japəq-ta die-şe-jy, fia! ?ile hand-LOC DIR-die-ASP:EVID EXCL 1pl	
337	ep-te: lə tsoqpi n.a quəqua-s-ta-ŋı father-DEF:CL also this:family COM fight-NOM-LO	
338	die-şe-jə-ka:-ji, me-z i-jy, qa-tşi-ŋa DIR-die-REP-INF:PRS-CSM NEG-exist-ASP:EVID 1sg-son-C	COM
339	tha-han ho-jy-n,i, t¢al kə ma-n-jy-a, that:one-kind DIR-set.out-ADV where:LOC go NEG-know-ASI	P-1sg
340	xaişə tçile tsoqpi jəpα-q se вza:" †(still.is) 1pl this:family hand-top die must	
341	tçau-z bə-kə-n i, fia-ke z botçu-kəi, think.to.oneself-INF-ADV INT-thus think-NAR	
342	ctci:miq-ta-ŋuən,i, ctci:miq-ta fia-ke z botcu heart-LOC-TOP heart-LOC INT-thus think	
343	ka-han ŋuə-kəi-tu, ĥala ɣz ə-s-ta-s-ʁa INDEF:one-kind COP-NAR-LNK INT four-day-DEF:one-d	lay-LOC

344	zə-la-tu, "sə-xşə-s- DIR-come-LNK DIR-be.la			hala INT	ŋuə-tu, COP-LNK	tsa here
345	a-§ one-time	u-lu DIR-come		-wa," t-EMPH	I	
346	jə-tu, say-LNK	ки mountain		-qua-ka R-overt	9i-wa, urn-NAR-EI	MPH
347		-qhua-n_i R-overturn-ADV	ha-ka INT-II		me-kind	
348	ŋuə-jə-tu, COP-HS-LNK	hai! EXCL	me-tçhi NEG-wan		ia-tha NT-there	
349	wutshu-ĥo-pu, help-DIR-do	thankhemu Thankhemu	n a COM		likhemu Likhemu	
350	sasəu †assassin	he-çi-ŋ,i, DIR-send-ADV			1-pu-m-le-y -do-NOM-D	
351	he-çi-ŋ.i DIR-send-ADV	ŋuə-tı COP-I			iala NT	"tsa here
352		tçhe, sə-xşə-s want DIR-last	-ta -NOM-LOC		ə-m xist-NOM	
353	ləzzi-ŋuən i DEF:two:CL-TOP	tsa here	a-ş one-	while	i-le DIR-l	oring
354		ui-wa, ĥa NAR-EMPH IN	-tu T-RESULT		i-kəi, bring-NAR	
355	i-t¢hi-kəi-tu, DIR-bring-NAR-LN	hala NK INT		u diately	fiala INT	
356	fusan-tu-pu-n <sub>.</sub> i help.up <sup>124</sup> -DIR-do	o-ADV cloth		•	kəi-wa, ınge-NAR-E	MPH
357		1-n.iau hange-LNK	kən imn	tau nediate	ely	
358		ha-tsəizzi-ŋuən INT-this:two:CL-		ala VT	ma: mama	n.a COM

359	ha-la-han,		thankhemu		na	likhemu	ma:
	INT-DEF:one-kind		Thankhemu		COM	Likhemu	mama
360	la-han-ŋuəŋ i		fa	t:	ə-ləla-n.	aufu	
	DEF:one-kind-TOP		clothing	E	DIR-chan	ge-LNK(as.soon.as)	
361	kəntau χaişə immediately †(stil			ha-l INT	kə -thus	tə-bəl-kui-w DIR-do-NAR	

Narrator: Yu Zelong 余澤龍 Born 1960 Recorded 1996

#### The Old Man of the Chen Family

Long ago there was an old man named Chen and another person. Every day they went hunting. They made a living hunting. One day they went up the mountain to hunt but didn't get a single animal. In a mountain cave they saw a snake and said, "Today we didn't get anything. It looks like we'll have to return empty-handed. It's better to kill [this snake] we've just seen with one shot." After they shot it once, [it turned out that] this wasn't a snake at all, but was an evil demon that ate people. He strangled it to death. She was the wife of the emperor (today we say /z mətşi/, before we said /juɑnʁuai/ for 'emperor'), and had changed into an evil demon who ate people. ... The emperor said "Go find her", and sent people to find her. (After they found her) this evil demon who ate people pretended to be sick. The emperor asked, "What illness do you have? The doctor can't cure it. What will you do?" The evil demon who ate people answered, "If I eat the kidney and heart of Old Man Chen, I can be cured."

The emperor sent soldiers to find Old Man Chen. Old Man Chen's son was called Chen Diqing. Old Man Chen could foretell people's future. He divined his own future and said to his son Chen Diqing, "They are looking for me, son. Hurry and leave. I cannot escape. Because that day in the mountain cave I saw a snake, this snake (evil demon who eats people) will come looking for me. Only by eating my kidney and heart can its illness be cured. Chen Diqing, you hurry and escape. I cannot run away." The old man's son, Chen Diqing, ran away and arrived at another village. It happened that when he arrived at the other village, there was a woman whose husband had just died. He made friends there. The widow's family and friends made him stay

there. "You cannot go anyplace." So he stayed there. He was both smart and capable.

A couple of months passed and the emperor's family was again looking for him. He said to his wife, "I must go. I will go. (When our child is born) if he is a boy, make him go study when he is seven. If it is a girl, don't look for me. If it is a boy, have him come look for me when he is twelve. Give him the name "Thankhemu". At seven have him go study and after he returns, have him come look for me." Later the people of another village came to look for Chen Diqing and Chen Diqing fled.

He arrived at another place and met another widow whose husband had just died, and again stayed at the widow's. Again some people came looking for him and he said to the widow. "If our child is a boy, have him come look for me. If it is a girl, you/she needn't look for me. If you give birth to a boy, have him go study at seven, and at ten come look for me. (His name should be Likhemu)."

Thankhemu and Likhemu were both boys. One day each said "I will go find my father", and they set out to go find their father. After walking a while, the two met each other in a river valley. Thankhemu asked Likhemu, "Where are you going?" Likhemu said, "I'm going to find my father." Thankhemu further asked, "What is your father's name?" Likhemu said, "He's called Chen Diqing." Thankhemu said, "My father is also called Chen Diqing. You aren't to be considered me." In this manner, the two started to fight. After fighting a while, Thankhemu said, "Let's not fight. Let's rest a minute." After resting a while, Thankhemu, who was older than Likhemu, asked Likhemu, "Now what shall we do? Both of us are looking for our father (Chen Diqing), and our father is perhaps one person. Let's go together." So the two of them stopped fighting and went together.

After walking a while, they put up at a temple. "Last night I dreamed I saw Old Man Chen and Chen Diqing's sword and bow hidden under a tree by the temple." Thankhemu said. Likhemu said, "I dreamed the same." Thankhemu said, "We both saw the sword and bow in our dreams. Could it be the same? We dreamed the sword and bow were on a wild prickly ash tree beside the temple courtyard." They went on again for a while, and in fact there were some trees beside the road. The two of them were very thirsty. Thankhemu went to look for some water. After finding water, Thankhemu said to Likhemu, "Likhemu, don't drink. Let me, your older brother, drink first. If I don't die after drinking, then you drink. If I die, then don't drink." Thankhemu then drank. When he drank the water he encountered a stone slab cover. Eh! Old Man Chen and Chen Diqing's sword and bow were put there, a thing for fighting, a club, was there. Thankhemu drank a mouthful of water and lifted the stone slab. He could only lift it a little bit.

"Likhemu, you drink too." Likhemu drank also, and the two of them together again lifted the stone slab. They still could only lift it a little way. The two drank a mouthful of water again and they turned over the stone slab, and then they saw Old Man Chen and Chen Diqing's sword and bow hidden inside and took them out. They went on again for a while, carrying the sword and bow, and then there was a lion looking down at them from within a temple above the road. The two of them said, "If you are (my) Chen Diqing and Old Man Chen's lion, then nod your head. If not, don't nod your head. If you are going to eat us, then eat us. If you are our lion, then nod your head." The head was nodded. Thankhemu and Likhemu rode on the lion and went on. After Old Man Chen's heart and kidney had been taken out by the evil demon who ate people, he became a person who sold horse saddles (by the gate to the city). When Thankhemu and Likhemu went out to find their father, they saw the old man there selling horse saddles. When Thankhemu and Likhemu arrived at the city gate, Old Man Chen asked them, "Where are you going?" The two of them answered, "We're going to find Chen Diqing." The old man also asked, "Will you buy a saddle?" They said, "If it fits our lion, we will buy it. If not, we won't." They tried it and it fit just right, so they bought it. Riding a lion and carrying the sword and bow, Thankhemu and Likhemu entered (the city).

The husband of the evil demon who ate people had already prepared a pit as a trap there. They fought with Chen Diging's army, and Thankemu and Likhemu fought with their own father's army. Later Chen Diging's soldiers were beaten to death. After that the man-eating demon and the emperor captured Chen Diging and tied him up. After Thankhemu and Likhemu were captured, they were thrown into the pit. They were almost beaten to death. After feeding them some medicines, they were tied up together with their father. Their father asked the two of them (using pantomime) "The matter I instructed my wives about, did they really have sons?" Thankhemu and Likhemu recalled the past a bit. Their father used pantomime and said, "Can it really be that [my wives] gave birth to sons? If it was a son, at seven have him go study, and at eleven come look for me. Afterwards that [second] child, call him Likhemu, and at ten have him come look for me." Thankhemu then said, "Little brother, what have the two of us come to do?" Likhemu answered, "We came to find our father." Thus their father said, "I am your father."

They then had a discussion. The husband [the emperor] of the evil demon who ate people [dzemi], had already determined to beat Chen Diqing, Thankhemu and Likhemu to death the next day. The evil demon who ate people [dzemi] had already killed many ordinary people and soldiers. Their dispute had continuously escalated. Chen Diqing made a demand. "Tomorrow we must die. Because we still have not

seen your wife (haven't had one look at her face). It won't do to execute us like this." The emperor said, "Tomorrow they must die. They may have a look (at my wife)." The next day when they had a meeting, the emperor brought his wife out on a cart. Chen Diging said further to the emperor, "Tomorrow our demand is to bring half a catty of bezoar and some charcoal and set a fire. We will be standing and you will shoot us. In front of us, use charcoal and set a fire." The emperor agreed to this as well. The demon who ate people [dzemi] and her husband [the emperor] notified everybody that they planned to shoot and execute Chen Diqing and his two sons. That day, the emperor and his wife, the demon who ate people, stood on the cart and watched. Chen Diqing put/burned a piece of the bezoar on top of the charcoal. The emperor's wife, the demon who ate people, grew long canine teeth. Chen Diqing said, "Ha!, today see if your emperor's wife is human or not. She's a man-eating demon. You all look! This thing caused the loss of many soldiers and ordinary citizens. Look for yourselves!" He said, "It is true! It is true! Kill the emperor, capture the emperor. This can't be allowed, it is true, you should go discuss this." Thus they did this (the emperor was arrested and beaten to death). Thus Chen Diging, Thankhemu, and Likhemu were acquitted [their case was reversed/obtained justice]. The three of them, father and sons, slowly returned home.

After returning home, Thankhemu and Likhemu went to find their mothers. In order to find them, they invited guests for three days. After three days of inviting guests, their mothers still had not returned. On the fourth day, they found them. At this time their mothers had already become the last two people. Thankhemu and Likhemu's mothers were afraid. "This family of ours, our grandfather died at the hands of this person, and is no longer with us. Your father also fought with this person and perhaps is dead. Our sons also went to find their father and we don't know where they've gone. Can it be that we will all die at this person's hands?" That is what they thought in their hearts. On the fourth day they returned and the two of them said, "The last few come in." (The result is that) the mountain peak has toppled. Thankhemu and Likhemu sent out an assassin. "You must come here. Those last two people, bring them in." The assassin brought in the two. They were brought in and immediately had their clothes changed, and these two were Thankhemu and Likhemu's mothers.

# **English-Qiang glossary arranged by semantic field**

#### NATURAL PHENOMENA

- **sky** mutup ~ mutu (mu < PTB \*muw).
- **day breaks (vi.)** mutu su (mutu = 'sky').
- night falls (vi.) ha-xtşəp ~ xtşap (DIR + 'dark').
- **sun** məsi / məsaq / mujuq.
- rise (of the sun) məsi ətsu ('sun' + 'shine').
- set (of the sun) məsə  $\partial -\chi^{\frac{1}{2}} \sim$ məsi  $\partial -\chi^{\frac{1}{2}}$  ('sun' + DIR +  $\chi^{\frac{1}{2}}$ 'disappear, descend').
- **become dusk** fio-ful (< phul 'unclear, dusky').
- **sun (vt., vi.)** məsi şkue ('sun (n.)' + 'bake').
- shine (vi.) ə-tsu.
- solar eclipse khuə-wu mujuq sə-dzi ('dog' + AGT + 'sun' + DIR + 'eat').
- **moon** ci-sue ('moon/month' + 'bright'; ci possibly < PTB \*s-la).
- **lunar eclipse** khuə-wu çişue sədzi ('dog' + AGT + 'moon' + DIR + 'eat').
- **moonlight** suaq (= 'light').
- star sdz ə
- **meteor / falling star** вdzə dotshu ('star' + DIR + 'fall').
- light suaq.
- **bright** sue / suex.
- shiny, shining tə-şue (DIR + 'bright').
- dark xtsap / mo:tcu.
- obscure, dark mo:tcu (mo: possibly < PTB \*muk ~ \*muŋ).
- **shadow** suaq (= 'light').
- wind mosu.
- blow (of the wind) moкu we (= 'there is wind') / moкu кu ('wind' + 'blow'(?)—cognate

verb, from last syllable of 'wind').

- stop blowing (of the wind) moкu mə-we-ji (= 'wind' + NEG + 'exist' + CSM).
- **storm (vi.)** moкu we (= 'there is wind').
- whirl (vi., of the wind) Blas.
- whirlwind moви вlaş ('wind' + 'whirl').
- **dry up by the wind** tu-juku-z (DIR + 'dry' + causative suffix).
- **rain (n.)** me:<sup>1</sup>.
- **rain (vi.)** me:<sup>1</sup> ce ('rain' + 'release, fall').
- get wet (from the rain) inn i (<
   i-n ie DIR + 'wet').</pre>
- stop (of the rain) me:<sup>1</sup> mə-ce-ji ('rain' + NEG + 'release, fall' + CSM).
- **drizzle** buz me:<sup>1</sup> ('dirt/soil' + 'rain').
- raindrop ctcy.
- drip (vi.) tshu.
- drop (CL) t<sub>§</sub>ə.
- rainbow tsəqtsə виә ('rainbow' + 'to be bent') / tsəqtsə we ('rainbow' + 'exist').
- cloud zdam.
- **disperse (of clounds)** zdam fiaqatshe ('cloud' + DIR + 'disperse').
- rosy clouds, rosy sunset stu taci ('oil' + DIR + 'release'; used for colored clouds morning or night).
- fog, mist zdə-qhu ~ zdo-qhu ('cloud' + 'descend').
- spread (of fog) zdəqhu ce ('fog' + 'release/descend') / zdəqhu do-qhu ('fog' + DIR + 'descend (of fog)').
- dew dz əq.

**dewdrop** dz aq ctcy ('dew' + 'raindrop'). fall (of dew) dz əq de-we ('dew' + DIR + 'exist'). sleet (vi.) qhats. frost me<sup>1</sup>-x ('rain' + 'form (of frost)'). snow pe. snow (vi.) pe ce ('snow' + 'release, fall'). **melt (of snow)** (pe) ha-l ('snow' + DIR + 'melt'). hail zu. hail (vi.) zu ce ('hail' + 'release, fall'). lightning (n.) su(ə)-qua ('tooth' + 'lightning'). lightning (vi.) suə-qua ('tooth' + 'lightening'). thunder (n.) me<sup>1</sup>-gu ('rain' + 'thunder'). **thunder (vi.)**  $me^{t}gu / sa (sa =$ 'to make loud noise'). be struck by lighting me<sup>1</sup>gu fiaqa ('lightning' + 'go down (DIR + 'go')').fine day, nice day ma xqa ('sky/heaven' + 'clear'). cloudy day, rainy day ma sai ('sky/heaven' + 'bad'). drought mə tə-xqa ('sky' + DIR + 'clear'). seven sister stars tsi-satsu ctcats ('older sister' + 'younger sister' + 'seven' + CL). south wind more an-real (= 'wind blows down-river' (relative to Ronghong village)). north wind more un-real (= 'wind blows up-river' Ronghong (relative to village)).

up' (relative to Ronghong village)). west wind more ho-reader (= 'wind blows down' (relative to Ronghong village)). air məs (= 'breath'). earth (the earth) z = (z = z)'field, land, ground'). surface of the earth  $l = \chi$  (not natural ground, but altered in some way, such as bottom floor of house, etc.). land, ground za. earthquake zə te<sup>1</sup>m ('earth/ land' + 'shake').

east wind more to-read (= 'wind

crack, split (vi.) da-tsa.

soil, dirt buzu.

blows

**mud** matsa.

- mire maha.
- stone zawa / χłu (χłu < PTB \*r-luŋ).
- rock z guət.

pebble xqan.i.

- sand tsə-şa ('water' + 'sand') / sats (< Ch. shā, shāzi').
- hill, mound mountain sopu.~ КIJ
- climb a hill dode.
- peak ви-q ('mountain' + 'head').
- halfway up a mountain su edzue ('mountian' + 'one' + 'half').
- foot of a hill je-kuə ('cliff' + 'base').

slope of a hill xepi.

- **loess** xłiex-buz ('loess' + 'soil/ dirt').
- ravine, valley  $\chi ot \sim \chi ot_{\S}$ .
- landslide su do-tshu ('mountain' + 'fall down' (DIR + 'fall')).

hill without vegetation sa<sup>1</sup>.

- cliff jaq.
- cave, hole, crack zo:pu.
- water tsə (< PTB \*tsə).
- freeze (vi.) tsəpa zu-pu ('ice' + DIR + (form(v.)).
- ice tsəpa (cf. tsə 'water').
- flow (vi., of water) (tsə) lu ('water' + 'come').
- wash down (vi., of water) sə-la (DIR + 'come'; = 'comedown').
- soak, flood (vi.) inni (< i-nie DIR + 'wet').
- flood (n.) şuəm (cf. şuə 'sea').
- flood (vi.) suom so-la ('flood (cf. suə 'sea')' + 'come down (DIR + 'come')').
- float (vi.) tə-q-ta.
- sink (vi.) ha-q-ta.
- clear (of water)  $(tsa) qa^{J}q$ ('water' + 'clear').
- **muddy** ma-q $\Rightarrow$ <sup>1</sup>q (NEG + 'clear').
- dirt in water tsə- $\chi_{\xi}$  ('water' + 'shit').
- waterfall tsə ho-xu ('water' + 'fall down').
- sea, lake sua.
- flow like a wave (vi.) xtate.
- rise (of the tide) tsə tə-wa ('water' + 'become big (DIR + 'big')').
- ebb (of the tide) tsə fia-xtşa ('water' + 'become small (DIR + 'small')').
- river, stream tsə / xsəts (large river) (tsə = 'water'; xsə-ts = 'god' + 'water').
- river valley qhua:.
- river-bed tsə-xuş (tsə = 'water').
- embankment tsə qhats.
- dredge a river tso ce ('water/ river' + 'release/do').
- **pond** tshəthaŋ (< Ch. chítáng).

**puddle** tan(tan) (< Ch. tān). spring sn is. ditch, gully, gorge tsa-xu ('water' + 'mountain valley' (<xotsu)). foam, froth (n.) matshas. foam (vi.) matshas ta-la ('foam' + 'come up (DIR + 'come')'). **gold** χqu ~ şqu. silver nuə (< PTB \*d-nul). **copper, bronze** χα. (possibly < PTB \*kar) iron somu. rust zəxtş. **rust (vi.)** təlqhua (= 'alter / change form'). steel kaŋχu (< Ch.). tin xtşə. coal mei (< Ch. méi). **soot** mu-ku-tchuş (mu = 'fire'; muku = 'fireplace'; tchu = 'soot'). **kerosene** meijo (< Ch. méiyóu). **gasoline** zdue:<sup>1</sup> (= 'oil'). mildew, mold phom. dust spəl. get dusty (vi.) spal de-we ('dust' + DIR + 'exist').

- powder fen (< Ch. fěn). fire mə (< PTB \*mej).
- **burn (vi.)** phu-x-tçu (phu = 'blow', can be used alone for 'burn').
- on fire, to catch fire (vi.) zəm de-we ('fire disaster' + DIR + 'exist').
- there is a fire made-we ('fire' + DIR + 'exist').
- fire disaster zam.
- tçu-xu-buz u ('ash' + a s h 'smoke(?)' + 'dirt').
- become ashes (vi.) tcu-xu-buz y pe ('ash' + 'smoke(?)' + 'dirt'

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+ 'form/become') / de-we-das (DIR + 'exist' + 'finish').

- smoke (n.) mu-&u ~ mu-xu ('fire' + 'smoke').
- smoke (meat) (vt.) tchau-tha (<
   Ch. (Sichuan dialect form for
   'to smoke meat') + AUX).</pre>
- flame mə-zda (mə = 'fire', zda = 'cloud (?)').
- vapor, steam lue.
- **congeal (vi.)** tə-g (DIR + 'congeal').
- stop up (a hole), fill (in land) xtgə.
- stop the flow of water tsə xtşə ('water' + 'stop up').
- water gate tsulpi.
- **level up (vt.)** sə-phin-tha (DIR + 'level (< Ch. píng)' + AUX).
- enjoy coolness suaqqa zi ('cool shade' + 'exist').

#### ANIMALS (Wild)

**fur** xupa (= 'feather'). tail sikue. wag the tail sikue phete ('tail' + 'shake/pat'). **claw (n.)** pa<sup>1</sup>χ. claw (vi.) gigi. hoof tşuəx (cf. tşuəwa 'shoes' and tsuə 'wear (shoes)'). horn zaq. chew the cud dz u-z ('grass' + 'eat (< dzə)'). herd wu (with number pronounced a-w(u) 'one herd'). flock spu. herd together a-wu pe / a-wu nuə ('form a herd' / 'is a herd'). copulate (of animals) b a l (euphemistic term; = 'do'). give birth to the young (of animals) tşuə i-ci ('child' + DIR + 'release/do'). hide, skin (n.) z əpi. excrement jimi /  $\chi_{SP}$ . **nest** z baha. beasts (wild animals) phuxsu (phu < phə 'tree/forest' + xşu 'roedeer'). dragon zbu~zbə. tiger χu (< Ch. hǔ). lion sin ~ siŋgi (< Tibetan < Sanscrit singa) / sətsə (< Ch. shīzi; former used mostly by older people, latter by younger people). roar (as lion), howl (as wolf) zdə. **leopard** sə (< PTB \*sik). **wolf** la (< Ch. láng). jackal speci (spe cf. Tib spjankhu). fox z gue.

fox, wildcat tue:<sup>1</sup>. weasel tgoqu. elephant ja:ku ~ jaku (= 'bracelet'). deer zdu. roedeer, barking deer xsu. musk, river deer, roedeer ju-xşu (ju < jy 'female roedeer';  $x_{su} =$  'roedeer'). roedeer (female) jy-mi (mi = female animal suffix). wild boar pie-xu ('pig' + 'tiger (?)'). bear tci. bear gall tci-xts ('bear' + 'gall'). monkey suasa. ape, orangutan skuəp ~ skup. **badger** tçuku. porcupine waitsa (< Ch. wèizi (cìwèi)). rabbit z ətchaq. rabbit (male) zətchaq-zdu ('rabbit' + male gender marker for small animals). mouse, field mouse zexu. **mole** z ='field, earth'). mountain goat skuəi. land otter yzac (possible to eat this animal, but quite oily). otter tsə-yz ('water' + 'land otter'). squirrel lubəi (lu = 'China fir tree'). silver monkey khuə-hi: (khuə = 'dog'?).

# BIRDS

bird wə.

- **fly (vi.)** la (da-la).
- **wing** yzəi-fa ('fly' (cf. Mawo gzi) + 'clothing' (?)).

+ 'throw, cast away').
beak zdeku.
peck (v.) tshuete.
gizzard dz ual.
egg (in general) wə-s ('bird' + nominalizer).
hawk χłu.
owl wufu.

moult (vi.) xupa-sue ('feather'

feather xupa (= 'fur').

- **swallow (n.)** jantshaquətsi (= 'long forked stick').
- crow no-ви ('black' (?) + 'goose').
- **magpie** ctcictcaq (onomatopoetic form).
- **sparrow** wətshi (wə = 'bird').
- pigeon wu-spu / nuspu / gugu (wu < wə 'bird' + 'flock'; nu form possibly related to nuku bu 'deaf'; gugu is onomatopoetic form; wuspu / nuspu refers to wild pigeons, gugu to those raised by the family).
- **woodpecker** lukua-tshuete-m ('China fir tree' + 'peck' + agentive nominalizer).
- parrot ginguo ~ gənkuo.
- **pheasant** wu-lu (wu < wə 'bird').
- crane jugų.
- bat (animal) pie-spala / pispala ('pig' + 'change (< spata)').
- **cuckoo** kuput ~ kupət (onomatopoetic form).
- hunt khuə-ce ('dog' + 'release')
  / xşu-qhu-k ('roedeer/wild
  animal' + 'hit/shoot' + 'go').
- **set a snare** xşul le (of a trap made of hemp rope; 'rope' + 'insert/install') / χαnsu le (of a trap made of metal wire).

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catch (vt.) gigi.shoot qhu (soqhu qhu 'shoot a gun').gun soqhu.

#### **ANIMALS** (Domestic)

livestock ketse. rear (vt.), breed (vt.) pe<sup>z</sup>z.

kill tşə.

- **remove fur** xupu khue (from animals; 'fur' + 'scrape, shave').
- butcher (vt.) tşu-tşu.
- castrate sue.
- castrated animal tosu.
- ox xse-x / ζρ ('cow' + castrated male marker / ζρ is stud male; also wild cow).
- **cow** xşe-mi ('cow' + female gender marker).
- **calf** xşe-tşuə ~ xşe-tşu ('cow' + 'child').
- **cow manure** xşe-χş ('cow' + 'manure, excrement').
- **buffalo** tsuə-z ('water' + 'wild cow (< zə)').
- common yellow cow soru.
- common yellow cow, male soru-z.ə.
- common yellow cow, female ŋuə / soкu-ŋuə / ŋuə-mi (ŋuə < PTB \*ŋwa).
- wild cow zə.
- yak zbə (= 'dragon').
- **pianniu** (a cross between a bull and a yak) xiε.
- tend cattle xse ctcy ('cow' + 'release/graze').
- fight (of bulls), gore (vt.) tşitşi.
- tie up a cow xşe zdzy ('cow' + 'tie up').
- pierce the nose of a cow ctcy sə ('nose' + 'pierce').

nose ring of cow ja. **pig** pie (< PTB \*p(w)ak). pig (male) pie-ci. **sow** piejmi ('pig' + female gender marker). breeding boar, sire pig tcotso. **shoat, piglet (male)** pie-cu. half-grown pig pie-tcatsə ('pig' + 'family' (< Ch. jiāzi 家 子)). root (vt., of pigs) ylə (= 'turn over'). pig's bristles tsum-pha ~ tsonpha (< Ch. zōng). tend pigs pie suasų ('pig' + 'tend'). **pig feed** pie-st ('pig' + 'food/ rice'). **sheep, mountain goat** tshe. drive (sheep) (tshe) we. sheep (wool sheep) nowu ~ no:wu. goat (male) dze. goat (female) tshe-mi ('sheep' + female gender marker). kid nowu-zdue ('wool sheep' + diminutive for sheep). **lamb** tshe-zdue ('mountain sheep' + diminutive for sheep). wool, fleece tshe-fu ('mountain sheep' + 'fur' (fu < xupa ~ φupa)) / n.iu (wool of wool sheep). sheepskin tsha:pi ('sheep' + 'skin' ( $\langle z epi \rangle$ ). horse wa (possibly < PTB \*sraŋ ~ \*m-raŋ; cf. Mawo dial.  $\kappa u < *ra\eta$ ). mare wə-mi ('horse' + female gender marker). horse dung wə- $\chi_{\xi}$  ('horse' + 'manure, excrement' (< χ§ə)).

ride (a horse) tsa / qatshe.

- **horse feed** paha (= 'dried grass').
- ass, donkey dz awa.
- **dog, hunting dog** khuə (< PTB \*kwəy).
- **dog, male** khuə-zdu ('dog' + male gender marker for small mamals).
- **dog, female, bitch** khu-mi / khuə-miaha ('dog' + female gender marker).
- bark (vi.) te.
- **dog feed** khu-st ('dog' + 'food/rice') / sen iau (< Ch. sīliào).
- cat pun.u.
- **cat (male)** punu-zdu ('cat' + male gender marker for small mamals).
- meow (vi.) mjau.
- chicken tcy:.
- **cock** jy-pi ('chicken' (< tcy:) + male gender marker for flying birds).
- **chicken dung** tçy:-χ<sub>ξ</sub> ('chicken' + 'manure, excrement').
- cockscomb jy-pi-qulu ('chicken' (< tcy:) + male gender marker for flying birds + 'point').
- crow (vi., of cock) se.
- **cock's tail** tçy: sikue ('chicken' + 'tail').
- hen (before or after laying eggs) jy-miaha ('chicken' (< tcy:) + female gender marker).
- chick tçy:-tşu ('chicken' + 'child').
- **lay eggs** was khe<sup>1</sup> (was = 'egg').
- hatch (sit on eggs) tçy: le ('chicken' + 'insert').
- **hatch (come out of egg)** was phe(te) ('egg' + 'shake, pat,

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scratch') / tcy: le ('chicken' + 'exist')

- **scratch for feed (chicken)** phete ('shake, pat, scratch').
- **duck** jats (< Ch. yāzi).
- quack (vi.) qa qa.
- tend ducks jats виавц ('duck (< Ch.)' + 'tend').
- **goose** ки (possibly < PTB \*ŋa).
- remove feathers xupa stue
   ('feathers' + 'pull out').
  clip the wings yzəifa tua
- ('wing' + 'cut').

# INSECTS

- insect, maggot, worm, riceworm bəl (bə < PTB \*bu).
- crawl (of insects) sei (= 'walk').
- metamorphosis zepi fia-вие ('skin' + DIR + 'throw, cast away').
- silkworm buqtşhu.
- **bee** bə (< PTB \*b(y)a).
- stinger of a bee/wasp ji.
- sting (vt.) i-tsue (DIR + 'sting'). honeycomb, beehive bət (bə =
- 'bee' + tçi 'house' ?). **honey** bə-χ<sub>ξ</sub> ~ bə-x<sub>ξ</sub> ('bee' + 'excre-ment').
- wasp, yellow jacket tshuarni.
- hornet bian.
- butterfly, moth xtsampha.
- caterpillar soqhu ~ suqhu.
- **firefly** butshuqu / dum.
- fly, blue-bottle fly baixa.
- **mosquito, gnat, wriggler** bunqutsə (there are no big mosquitos in the Qiang areas).
- **bite (vt., of mosquito)** sa tshe ('blood' + 'suck').

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mosquito bite (n.) tə-pha (DIR + 'swell'). spider tshas. spider's web tshəs-dz u ('spider' + 'net'). spin a web (of spider) dzu bəl ('net/web' + 'do').ant, termite tçukhu. **snail** z<sub>u</sub>m-me:<sup>1</sup>. earthworm lax-bal ('ground/ earth' + 'worm'). **centipede** de:<sup>1</sup>. grassshopper tsho- $\chi$ su ( $\chi$ su = 'jump'). snake (thick) bas. snake (thin) bəyi. red-spotted lizard squ-tshe ~ squ-tshi (= 'stutter'; squ = 'mouth'). leech maxuan (< Ch. måhuáng). **bedbug** buqtchu (= 'silkworm'). **louse**, **tick** xtse (possibly < PTB \*srik). nit xtsutsu. flea tsun. intestinal worm bəl-qhua (bəl = 'worm'). insect which eats wood or **bamboo** bətş.

## FISH, FROGS, & TURTLES

frog (green), toad dzupi ~
 dzuəpi.
frog (black) dzuəpi n.iq ('frog'
 + 'black').
turtle wukuəi (< Ch. wūgūi).
fish ʁzə.
swim (vi.) tsu ʁlu ('water' +
 'swim') / ʁzə-la (of fish;
 'fish' + 'fly (v.)').</pre>

fish scale dze.

fish spawn вzә-wəs ('fish' + 'egg').

- fish (with a rod) BZP BUE (BZP = 'fish (n.)').
- fishing rod jy ke<sup>1</sup> (< Ch. yúgān).
- **fishing hook** jy kəu (< Ch. yúgōu).
- catch fish with net or hands BZƏ gi ('fish' + 'grab/catch').
- fishing net jy suan (< Ch. yúwǎng).

#### PLANTS

grow (vi.) tə-s. creep (vi.) ha-tsha. seed zuə ~ zu. sprout (n.) tshoq. sprout (as from seed) tshoq ta-s ('sprout (n.)' + 'grow'). young shoots sə-q ('grow' + 'head'). tree, shrub sə-f ('wood' + 'forest' ( $f < ph_{\theta}$ )). forest pha. seedlings of a tree tshen miau (< Ch. qīngmiáo). root kopu. tree trunk səq (= 'body'). **bark** səf z əpi ('tree' + 'skin'). branches z aji. tree-fork, a forked stick jan tsha quə tsi (< Ch.) **resin, colophony** luz (lu = 'fir tree'). **pine tree** cpie- $\phi$  ~ cpie-f ('pine' + 'tree/forest'). pine cone cpie-lu-qug ('pine' + 'fir' + ?). fir tree lu / lusu. poplar tree szu-fu. cypress tree zuamə-du. willow tree sa:". birch tree zdzəs. tree stump zeke. **leaf** xtsapa (used for all types of leaves, including those of vegetables). shade (vt., of leaves) *a*-xts. tree shade (n.) suaq (= 'shadow'). flower (n.), pollen lampa ~ lapa. bud (n.) lampa tşhuqu. petals of a flower efi. thorn tshama.

bloom (vi.) pa. flowers falling/wilting sue. bamboo spə. vine kum. sunflower mu-n-tuq (mu = 'sun'). dandelion məq maha ('top, above' + 'evening'/'mire'). **moss** tsə-χαf ('water' + 'grass'). bracken məsl. fennel xocian (< Ch. húixiāng). grass, thatch rushes  $\chi af$ . azalea sofu. sheephorn flower, morning glory zeke lampa. cotton miæyu (< Ch. miánhuā). grains dzə-s ('eat' + instrumental nominalizing suffix). rice shoots, sprouting grain gaq (= 'sprouts').rice (in field or hulled) qha<sup>1</sup>. ear of grain, ears of wheat ctcəq / dzəpat (ctcəq < PTB \*sni; cf. 'seven', 'heart', Tib. sni-ma; q is secondary, possibly < qə 'head'). glutinous rice tçiumi (< Ch. jiůmí ('wine rice')). long white rice qhə<sup>1</sup>-xs ('rice' + 'new'). rice husk kha. wheat sla. buckwheat dzuaka. tares pə. wheat bran fəts (< Ch. fùzi). gluten of wheat  $g a^{I}$ . wheat flour bolu. spiked millet kutsə (< Ch. gůzi). sorghum, glutinous millet spa. **corn** jima (< Ch. yùmǐ). flax, hemp su.

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hemp seed su-zug ('hemp' + 'seed'). barley nəz. highland barley dza. tsamba dz u. oats wəma. wheat straw paha (= 'horse feed'). vegetables kuşu. sweet potato xonsau (< Ch. hóngsháo). potato jajanų (< Ch.). **cabbage** tçyan-çin-pe (< Ch. juǎnxīnbái). **Chinese cabbage** patshai (< Ch. báicài). spinach po-tshai (< Ch. bōcài). rape seed plant tshət / tsə. pumpkin, bottle gourd pakua (< Ch.). winter melon tonkua (< Ch. döngguā). cucumber xuankua (< Ch. huángguā). young cucumber kekua (< Ch.). turnip lup (< Ch. lúobo). carrot xolumpau (< Ch. húlúobo). bean, pea, soybean do (said by Sun (1988:58) to be an old loan from Chinese, but said by Huang Chenglong to be a native word). pea/bean shoots/sprouts də-gəq ('bean' + 'sprout'). soybean təutəu (< Ch. dòu). hyacinth bean/lentil petau (< Ch. biǎndòu, an older loan of same word as piantau?next item). black-eyed pea, black bean, string bean, white bean piantəu (< Ch. biǎndòu).

horsebean  $\chi uth a^{I}$ .

**snow pea-pod** də (= 'bean') / виапtәи (< Ch. wǎndòu). peanut xuasen (< Ch. huāshēng). chives tciu tshai (< Ch. jiucài). celery tchin tshai (< Ch. qīncài). coriander jansui (< Ch. yánsuī). onion dutsha. **garlic** tçi-ç ('house' + 'garlic'). pepper xoitshu (< Ch. hǎijiāo). **ginger** kuisua ~ kuisa. laminaria, kelp taipi (< Ch.). lettuce khuma tshai (tshai < Ch. cài). fungus, mushroom mujų. **grass mushroom** se: <sup>1</sup>-muju ('willow' + 'fungus / mushroom'). fruit zuə / səimi. bear fruit zuə u-dz u. **pear** pie səimi ('pig' + 'fruit'). **prune** tshəp ki səimi. grape kulumi. jujube  $z uants a^{I}$ . walnut yathi (< Ch. hétáo). apple phinkuo (< Ch. pínggůo). red bayberry buz u səimi ('dirt/earth' + 'fruit'). strawberry xaf-səimi ('grass' + 'fruit'). herb, medicine sipe. danggui (a kind of medicinal root) tçiquaki. fritillary (Fritillaria thunbergii) **bulb** gupki. rhubarb suaki.

## FARMING

- plant (vt.), sow seeds phie.
- **field**  $z \Rightarrow p \sim z \Rightarrow (= \text{`earth'}).$
- **plant a field** zə phie ('field' + 'to plant').
- weed (vt.) xa ste ('grass (< xaf)' + 'get rid of').
- **gather night soil** χ<sub>δ</sub>ə tçy ('excrement' + 'pick up').
- fertilize jimi ßlie ('fertilizer (dry manure or grass stalks)' + 'use, apply').
- **graft (vt.)** tça tçe pə (< Ch. jiē zhī (in reverse order) + 'to do').
- plow (n.) tuq.
- plow-share gu:.
- **plow (a field)** lə (= 'to turn over, roll up'; used with xse 'cow (pianniu)': xse lə 'plow the fields').
- edges of a field zə-piena ('field' + 'side/vicinity').
- irrigate tsə şuə ('water' + 'irrigate').
- **water (vt.)** tsə qhutu ('water' + 'to spread, sprinkle').
- **pick** tshu-(tshu) (reduplicate for repeated action).
- harvest (vt.) ku.
- thresh (vt.) ze.
- winnowing tray tshotçu.
- sieve (n.), sieve (vt.) se (native word, not loan).
- flour sieve zbu.
- soak (vt.) stə.
- **mill (n.)** dzua-sl ('grind' + 'stone (< slu)').
- grind (vt.) dzue.
- grind, rub fine (vt.) khe<sup>1</sup>.
- pound, hit zete.

- peel with a peeler sue (< Ch. xuē).
- climb (a tree) dide.
- garden tsekų.
- vegetable garden kuşu tseku ('vegetable' + 'garden').
- **mow / cut grass (vt.)** jimi gue ('fertilizer grass (grain stalks)' + 'to cut').
- bind, tie up (grain stalks etc.) dz uedz uə.
- grain stalk rack jimi-laqua.
- hang (vt.) (on grain stalk rack) ju.

## FOOD

- food, provision zguə.
- meal (CL) zdzi (e-zdzi).
- **breakfast** ctces (possibly < \*sthə-s [causative prefix-eatinstrumental nominalizer] 'what is fed').
- noon meal, lunch dza:.
- evening meal, dinner j e s (possibly 'good to eat' + instrumental nominalizer] 'what is good to eat').
- cooked rice, food stuaha.
- cooked rice (dry or drained) skum.
- rice gruel, congee yzem.
- corn gruel, corn meal porridge maha.
- rice water mithan (< Ch. mǐtāng).
- **burnt rice that adheres to sides of pot** kupa (< Ch. gūobā).
- steamed or baked bread qhal.
- round dumpling kuque / pautsə (< Ch. bāozi).

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- noodle(s) cpies. thin vermicelli that has been hung to dry cpies / kuamin (< Ch. guàmiàn).
- dregs (of solids or liquids) tsatsə (< Ch. zhāzi).
- flour bolu.
- dishes of food kuşu (= 'vegetables').
- **soup** than (< Ch. tāng).
- **pork** pie-pies ('pig' + 'meat ('pig' + 'meat')').
- **meat** pie-s ('pig' + 'meat' (< PTB \*sya); now used for all kinds of meat).
- fat meat piexu ~ piefu ('meat' +
   'fat' (?)).
- **lean meat** tsha $\chi$  $\Rightarrow$  ( $\chi$  $\Rightarrow$  <  $\chi$ a).
- roast pork with skin piesphuxtcu ('meat' + 'roast').
- **pig's feet** pie-dzoqu ('pig' + 'foot').
- brain (as food) qəpatş (= 'head').
- beef xşe-pies / zbə-pies / soкupies (pianniu meat / yak meat / cow meat).
- **beef stomach** z guə-χqa ('grain' + 'transport').
- tail sikue.
- **mutton** tshə-pies / ŋ.o:wu-pies (mountain goat meat / woolsheep meat).
- egg wə-s ('bird' + nominalizer). kidney spəl.
- bean curd de-zdz.
- bean thread footbil
- bean-thread fənthiautsə (< Ch. fěntiáozi).
- **dried fungus** mak-nukų (nukų = 'ear').
- **leftover** kuşu-hogu-j ('vegetables' + 'left over' + CSM).

- fried bread-stick jauthiau (< Ch. yóutiáo).
- small round soft cake of pounded glutinous rice, grass jelly n ianfə<sup>1</sup> (< Ch. miànfěn; made of potatoes).
- **pastry, cake** pintsə (< Ch. bingzi).
- bean paste təutşa (< Ch. dòushā).
- melon seed kuatsə (< Ch. guāzi).
- ingredients thiau niau (< Ch. tiáoliào).
- oil zdue 'animal oil' / zdue:<sup>1</sup> 'plant oil' / n<sub>a</sub>ama 'butter' (< Tib).
- **press out oil** zdue:<sup>1</sup> thə ('plant oil' + 'squeeze').
- **lard** pie-zdue ('pig' + 'animal oil').
- salt tshə (< PTB \*tsa).
- soy sauce təujəu (< Ch. dòuyóu).
- vinegar tshu (< Ch. cù).
- sugar, candy matha (< Ch. mátháng).
- white sugar pethan (< Ch. báitáng).
- black salted beans təuş (< Ch. dòuchǐ).
- **cornstarch** təufən (< Ch. dòufěn).
- bunge prickly ash peel (pericarpium zanthoxyli; sometimes called wild pepper; used for numb hotness) tshəi.
- **boiled water** tsə tu-χ§ə-l ('water' + 'come to a boil (DIR + 'boil (vi.)') + 'come (?)') / khaişue (< Ch. kāishǔi).

- wine, liquor (made by Qiang; not filtered) çi.
- **liquor (made by Chinese)** вә<sup>1</sup>-çi ('Han' + 'liquor'; Chinesemade white liquor).
- **brew wine** çi şqu ~ çi χqu ('liquor' + 'boil').
- **sweet fermented rice** qhə<sup>1</sup>-çi ('rice' + 'liquor').
- distiller's yeast tchoχu (possibly < Tibetan).
- **milk** papə (= 'breast').
- cigarette tşijan (< Ch. zhīyān).
- smoke (cigarettes) (vt.) tşhe (=
  'suck').
- **be addicted to** jin le (jin < Ch. yin + 'exist').

# FOOD PREPARATION

- **cook (rice)** stuaha bəl ('cooked rice' + 'do') / qhə<sup>1</sup> şqu ('uncooked rice' + boil') / qhə<sup>1</sup> tsə ('rice' + 'steam').
- wash rice qhə<sup>1</sup> χuəla ('rice' + 'wash') / thau-tha (< Ch. táo + AUX).
- sort out vegetables kuşu staqa ('vegetables' + 'select').
- large shallow basket (worn on back) peilantsə (< Ch. bēilánzi).
- cut (with downward motion), cut into slices, threads or dice qhua.
- cut with a rolling action khukhu.
- cut with sideward motion ku.
- chop, to mince tshua.
- **cut in two** ji-dzue pə ('two' + 'sections' + 'do').
- **chopper** tsheton (< Ch.).

- cutting board bet (large cutting board) / tshafən (like small table < Ch.) / tegu (block of wood).
- **chop firewood** sə gue<sup>1</sup> ('fire-wood' + 'chop').

firewood splitter duarl.

**kindling (for a fire)** tshuxsupi. **firewood** sə.

- charcoal muku-tchus ('fireplace' (possibly < 'fire' + base')) + 'ash') / mutcu ~ mudzu ('fire' + 'ash'; small, used in making steel) / konthan (large; < Ch.).</pre>
- smother (charcoal) χethan (<
   Ch. hēitàn 'black charcoal')
   / pɑithan (< Ch. báitàn
   'white charcoal'; use water).</pre>
- **make a fire** mə phə ('fire' + 'blow').
- light a fire dzue.
- **burn (firewood)** sə ctçə ('fire-wood' + 'add').
- **bellows** phete (= the verb phete 'blow').
- kitchen range tsul.
- fire hole in a kitchen range səctcə-sta ('firewood' + 'add' + 'place (-s nominalizer + LOC)').
- stove χolutsə (< Ch. hǔolúzi).
- brazier xophen (< Ch. hǔopén).
- fire tongs sə-ste ('firewood' + 'pick up with chosticks').
- frying pan dz ə.
- lead cooking pan la qua.
- lid for cooking pan qutc.
- food-turner tshantsə (< Ch. chănzi) / səpi (flat; has handle).
- fire kettle tshue.
- steamer tsentsə (< Ch. zhēngzi).

heat up a pan tə-si (DIR + 'hot' = 'become hot'). soot of a pan Blani. scour a pan kupa-khue ('burnt rice (< Ch. gūobā)' + 'scrape'). stir wəte. mix tsaqa. **knead (dough)** nethe (< Ch. niě). **mix (dough)** sə-xtşue. roll into a ball with the hands ylu (= 'to roll').wrap (dumplings) quague. **pound (garlic)** tçiç qhua (use back of knife; 'garlic' + 'cut'). put in (ingredients) ə-ků (DIR + 'to place'). sprinkle (vt.) se. pour over qhutu. soak stə. rise (vi., of bread) fa-tha (< Ch. fā + AUX). strain (strain away liquid) sa. filter, to strain (strain away solid) tsa. crack an egg was pie. cook (a few dishes) tshuətshue. boil (vi.), (vt.), stew (vt.) squ. **boil for a long time** 1a. **boil (water; vt.)** tshu. boil (of water) tsə tu-xsu ('water' + 'come to a boil'). cook on a griddle, fry in fat or oil ce. pop (of oil, etc.) da-sp (= 'split apart'). deep-fry tsa-tha (< Ch. zhá + AUX). steam (vt.), smoke tsa. roast phuxtcu. roast in hot ashes tshu. warm, to roast, to bake skue.

half-cooked χαρət.
warm up leftovers sesi ('hot' + 'hot').
render fat tşhə.
cook soup than bəl ('soup (< Ch. tāng)' + 'to do').</li>
taste tse.

# EATING AND STORAGE UTENSILS

set the table tguats as ('table (< Ch.)' + 'to place'). dish out rice stuaha ju ('rice' + 'to spoon'). rice ladle za. cover (n.) quətç. tray pe (< Ch. pén). dish phantsə (< Ch. pánzi). dip (vt.) ə-stu. bowl sua-tsa ('bowl (< Ch. wǎn)' + Qiang word for 'bowl'). **chopsticks** wets ~ wet-tsə (wet = 'stick'; ts $\Rightarrow$  < Ch. zi). **pick up with chopsticks** ste. **spoon (n.)** thiauk $a^{I}$  (< Ch. tiáogēng). ladle, spoon (vt.), pour (tea) ju. large open-mouthed jar şuə tshua. gourd used for a ladle tsuku. **bottle** phintsə (< Ch. píngzi). cork (vt.) sə-xtsə. hot water bottle pauwenphin (< Ch. bǎowēnpíng). tea tsha (< Ch. chá). teapot tshaxy (< Ch. cháhú). infuse tea tsha phau-tha (< Ch. chá pào ('tea' + 'infuse') + AUX). **cup** peitsə (< Ch. bēizi).

large earthenware jar without handle, shaped like an upside-down pear qap (ci qap) ('liquor' + 'jar').

**cooking utensils** stuaha-bəl-əs ('rice' + 'to do' + instrumental nominalizer).

**blowing pipe for kindling** χothoŋ (< Ch. hǔotǒng).

### **CLOTH AND CLOTHING**

cloth ba:. cotton cloth mianpu (< Ch. miánbù). printed cotton ba:-lampa ('cloth' + 'flower(y)'). thin silk **sua**. wool tshe-fu ('sheep' + 'fur' (fu < xupa ~ *φ*upa)). foreign woolen cloth nitsə (< Ch. nízi). spin (yarn) (vt.) lete. weave (vt.) tcetci (< PTB \*tak). loom tce. weaver's shuttle  $\chi_{azu}$ . make clothes fa jəj ('clothing' + 'to sew'). cut tua. cutout in sewing qhaqha. sew jəj. torn (of clothes) depi. patch (vt.) spetc. **needle** χa (< PTB \*kap) eye of needle  $\chi_a z_{opu}$  ('needle' + 'hole'). thread a needle ba:-tshal da-s ('thread' + DIR + 'place') thimble tintgen (< Ch. d'ingzhēn). **thread** ba:-tshəl (ba: = 'cloth'). **spool** puju. wind thread **BU**. sew on a button dz u. make a button hole fie-phe. border (garment, shoes) (vt.), embroider sa. woollen thread maucian (< Ch. máoxiàn). knit (vt.), weave a net kepi. **knitting needle** kepi-s ('knit' + instrumental nominalizer). brush (n.) suatsa (< Ch. shuāzi).

brush (vt.) sua-tha (< Ch. shuā + AUX). wash (clothes) fa xuəla ('clothing' + 'to wash'). wooden stick for washing clothes Rquas (Rqua = 'hammer'). wash clothes with stick dzete (= 'hit').shrink (vi., of clothes) tə-watsi (= 'become short (DIR +'short')'). put on clothesline, sun (clothes) (vt.) pha. dye (vt.) sə. clothes fa ~ fua / guə-s ('to wear' + instrumental nominalizer). wear (clothing) guə (< PTB \*gwa). wear (shoes) tşuə (cf. tşuəx 'hoof' and tsuawa 'shoes'). wear (pants) de. undress da-qe. change clothes lala (= 'exchange'). hang (clothes) sub sue. **naked** sta ci pau (sta = 'buttocks'; cf. 'barefoot' for ci). woollen sweater xsufu. zepi (= 'skin, leather, fur hide'). fur garment phikuatsə (< Ch. píguàzi). **collar** jinin (nin < Ch. lǐng). **sleeves** juqu (ju = 'hand' (?)). waist belt dzəidzi. fasten the waist belt dzu dzu. trousers, pants doqu. trousers' seat doqu thunpa (doqu = 'trousers').**skirt** tsulwa. wear a skirt tsulwa su. button (n.) kata.

**buttonhole** kata-z op ('button' + 'hole (< z<sub>.</sub>o:pu)'). snap button (n.) gan khau (< Ch. ànkòu). button (vt.) ə-tsu. unbutton (vt.) fie-phe. **pocket** pau pau (< Ch. bāobāo). hat tawa. wear (a hat) ta. head scarf səpat. scarf baq. head wrapping thotho. leg wrappings (leggings) cyde. handkerchief sauphatsa (< Ch. shoupazi). apron wəiwəi (< Ch. wéi-(qún)). **shoes** tsuawa (cf. tsuax 'hoof' and tsuə 'wear (shoes)'). tie (shoelace), make a knot tu tu. untie (shoelace) phe<sup>1</sup> phe<sup>1</sup> (can be pronounced phe<sup>1</sup>z). long boots cyets (< Ch. xuēzi). socks suats (< Ch. wàzi). sheepskin vest lankuats (< Ch.). belt for carrying baby on the **back** tçymi-bie-s ('child' + 'carry on back' +instrumental nominalizer). carry on one's back bie. **mourning apparel** se<sup>1</sup>-fu (Qiang mourning apparel is white). barefooted dzoq(u) pa ci (dzoqu pa = 'foot' + 'sole(palm of foot)'). necklace pio lu. earring nupal (nu < nukų 'ear' (?)). pierce the ear lobe so.

**bracelet** ji-de (ji = 'hand').

**ring** ji-sa ('hand' + CL for joints and sections).

umbrella tşhuə-sa.

- **put up an umbrella** tshuəsa ta (ta also used for 'to wear a hat').
- walking stick kueiphatsə (< Ch.).
- carry a walking stick kueiphatsə tçə-tçi.
- tobacco pipe jan tu (< Ch. yāndǒu).

### BUILDINGS AND STRUCTURES

- cattle pen xse-tcase ('cattle' + 'pen').
- **pigsty, hogpen** pie-tçase ('pig' + 'pen/sty').
- stable wə-tçake ('horse' + 'pen, stable').
- **manger** wə-tshu (wə = 'horse').
- **kennel** khuə-nəş ('dog' + 'bed').
- chicken nest tçy:-z baha ('chicken' + 'nest').
- bird's nest z baha.
- beast's cave zopu (= 'hole, cave').
- house tçi-виа (tçi alone also = 'house' < PTB \*kjim; виа is possibly an old classifier for house (it still is used as such in some other dialects), cf. tçi-sa 'room' < 'house' + 'joint, classifier for sections').
- **dwell (vi.)** le (= 'to exist in a container of some type').
- **move (house)** pan-tha (< Ch. bān + AUX).
- watch the house dzy  $g \vartheta^{I}$  ('door' + 'to guard').
- storey sa (classifier for rooms, stories, and for joints and sections).
- ground floor tsha.
- upper storey tcy.
- second floor of house ji-sa ('two' + CL; same form as 'two rooms').
- third floor of house xsə-sa ('three' + CL for rooms, stories, sections).
- storehouse spa.
- **room** tci-sa ('house' + classifier for rooms, stories, sections).

- **kitchen** tşhufan (< Ch. chúfáng; the Qiang don't have separate kitchens; the cooking is done in the fireplace in the middle of the main (= 2nd) floor).
- toilet mausə (< Ch. máocè).
- **corridor** phetci / tsəulan (< Ch. zǒuláng).
- **roof** qə-sta ('head' + 'place').
- **ceiling** such pan (< Ch.).
- beam taxų.
- pillar tsu.
- **wall** qhats (qha = 'stone').
- climb over a wall didi.
- corner kuokuo (< Ch. jiǎo).
- staircase, ladder (wooden) buzd ('board' + 'ladder').
- ladder (to the roof) zdə.
- **railing** japə-gigi-s ('hand' + 'grab' + instrumental nominalizer).
- door dzy.
- knock at the door dzy z ete ('door' + 'hit, knock').
- open a door dzy z ge ('door' + 'open').
- close a door dzy ha-qua ('door' + DIR + 'close').
- door frame dzoqpu.
- **doorway, an entrance** dzoqpu-q (dzoqpu = 'doorframe).
- step over the doorsill da-sua.
- door bolt slatshua.
- **bolt (a door)** (Blatshua) del (< DIR + le 'insert').
- lock (n.) dzorn
- key quəsasu.
- lock (vt.) sua.
- **steps** luts-qha (qha = 'stone').
- courtyard suax.
- platform, level area dzəq

- well (n.) tsuək ~ tsəkuş ('water' + 'pit'). drying terrace (on roof of house) or yard tcepi. bamboo fence tsekupi. fireplace mugu.
- fireplace rack səi mi.
- mill house dzuaʁl ('grind' +
   'stone (< ʁlu)').</pre>
- build a house, pile up a wall  $\chi^{4}$  ie.
- lay the foundation of house lathe.
- roof (vt.) tci-sa-buz zdzye
   ('room (< 'house' + CL for
   rooms)' + 'earth, dirt' + 'put
   roof together').</pre>

lime səxui (< Ch. shíhūi).

- cement suin i (< Ch. shùin í).
- lumber panpan (< Ch. bǎn).
- set up pillars tsu le ('pillar' + 'insert, move across').
- paint, spread on (vt.) ma ma.
- fence in pa.
- collapse, fall on its own weight da-qhua.
- clean / tidy up (room, house) suəsuə.
- **broom** tolu.
- dust basket tsotçu.
- sweep the floor dz udz u.
- **splash water** tsə se ('water' + 'splash, sprinkle').
- **dust cloth** məma-s ('to wipe' + instrumental nominalizer).
- **wipe (vt.)** məma (< Ch. (?)) / tsha-tha (< Ch. cā).
- feather duster xse-sikue ('cow, cattle' + 'tail').

dust (vt.) phete.

- **water-drawing bucket** tsə kut (tsə = 'water').
- fetch water tsə bie ('water' + 'carry on back').

**polish (vt.)** fia-tshə-tha (DIR + 'wipe (< Ch.)' + AUX). **leak (v.)** zə.

### **FURNITURE**

**furniture** pana (= 'things'). **arrange / place (furniture)** *φ*-ξ. **table** tşuats (< Ch. zhuōzi). **cupboard** ʁuɑn kui (< Ch.

- wăngùi). **chair** jəts (< Ch. yĭzi) / dzuə-s (< 'sit' + nominalizer, used for any thing to sit on).
- stool, wooden bench pante (< Ch. bǎndēng).
- closet kuitsə (< Ch. gùizi).
- drawers tshəu-tshəu (< Ch. chōu(tí)).
- box qhuəş.
- trunk cantsə (< Ch. xiāngzi).
- **bed** bede / nə-s ~ nə-ş (< 'sleep' + instrumental nominalizer).
- **bed plank** bu (= 'wooden board').
- set up a bed bede-e-ze bəl ('bed' + 'one' + CL + 'to do').
- **mirror** mi:-laŋų (mi: = 'eye').
- **look in a mirror** mi:-laŋu tse ('mirror, lens' + 'look').
- **lamp** muwu (mu < mə 'fire'; originally meant the burning of pine cones, now can refer to any kind of lamp).
- turn on the light muwu de-z ge ('lamp, light' + DIR + 'open').
- **turn off the light** muwu ə-qua ('lamp, light' + DIR + 'close').
- wick lian-xutsə (< Ch.).
- candle latşu (< Ch. làzhú).

**picture** lampə (= 'flower'). bedding tşhuanpə (< Ch. chuángpu). make the bed nas phapha ('bed' + 'to spread'). mattress z utsə (< Ch. rùzi). mattress made of rice-stalks butshu. **mat** sits (< Ch. xízi). **blanket** tsan (< Ch. zhàn). quilt quatchi. cover (with quilt) gup (= 'to wear'). spread (vt.) phapha. fold up tə-çtçi. **pillow** nəku. lay on a pillow  $\mathfrak{d}-\mathfrak{g}$  (DIR + 'to place'). hang (a mosquito net) sue.

### TOOLS

- thing panə. matter z.ə. method, way panfa (< Ch. bànfǎ). tools panə (= 'things'). scissors quəsap. cut with scissors tua. **knife** xtsepi ~ xtcepi. back of a knife tuopi (< Ch. dāoběi). sheath, scabbard tuoçau (< Ch. dāoshāo (dāoqìao). **grindstone** slu-s (slu = 'stone'). sharpen a knife su. **handle** ji (= 'hand' (?)). scrape (vt.) khue. peel (vt.) sue.
- split (wood) (vt.) qhe<sup>1</sup>.
- **prick (vt.)** ə-tş (DIR + 'to prick').
- **pierce (vt.)** da-tşhuan-tha (DIR + < Ch. chuān + AUX).

hammer (n.) sdua (< PTB \*mtwa). hammer (vt.) dze. axe stei. **chop with an axe** khe. **pincers** tchiantsə (< Ch. qiánzi). pincer (vt.) xtse. вzu (cf. zu 'to chisel (n.) chisel'). chisel (vt.) zu. saw (n.) səqa. saw (vt.) khə<sup>1</sup>. file tshuotsə (< Ch. cuòzi). awl or drill tsantsə (< Ch. zuànzi). awl sənitsu. bore a hole tşitşi. plane (n.) thuipau (< Ch. tuībào). plane (vt.) thui-tha (< Ch. + AUX). shavings pauxua<sup>1</sup> (< Ch. bàohuār) hook (n.) tinniu (< Ch. dīngniù). hook (vt.) ha-tsua. nail (n.) tintsə (< Ch. dīngzi). nail (vt.) z əz i. screwdriver luosətau (< Ch. lúosīdāo). screw (n.) luosə (< Ch. lúosī). screw in (a screw) quatgue (= 'to turn'). carrying pole tuə-s ('carry' + instrumental nominalizer) / piantan (< Ch. biǎndàn). roll (v.) ylu. shovel, spade (n.) tshuantsə (< Ch. chǎnzi). spade (vt.) tshuan-tha (< Ch. chǎn + AUX). hoe (n.) tçye. hoe (vt.), dig (with tools) phiphi.

dig (with hands) phe<sup>1</sup>. sickle set / duard (the latter is a heavy curved knife used for chopping wood). sickle with teeth used to cut grain crops kaset (also smaller than set and duard). stick wet. **beat (with a stick)** dzete. whip (n.) piantsə (< Ch. biānzi). whip (vt.) zə-dzi. ropes, cordage jal. string, rope (n.) dz au / xsul ('rope for traps') / tçaşuen (< Ch.). twist ropes dz au bal ('rope' + 'to do'). pail suat. hand bucket thon (< Ch. tǒng). crossbar at the top of a Chinese bucket ji (= 'handle' = 'hand' (?)). basket lantsə (< Ch. lánzi). small hand basket puku. whistle (n.) ctcyl. matches janxu (< Ch. yánghuð). torch suap (cf. sue 'bright' and suaq 'light'; -p possibly <</pre> paha 'straw'). flint slu-fi ~ slu-\oplusion i ('stone' + 'white'; this is the white stone used for decoration and to invest spirits in). **light a match** khe. **straw** paha. **board** bu. wire thiesə (< Ch. tiěsī). gunpowder mu-dzu ('fire' + 'powder'). **wood** sə (< PTB \*sik). **tile** виа (< Ch. wǎ). lacquer ləts (< Ch. (?)).

ivory jaku (< Ch. yǎgǔ).</li>
kiln jautsə (< Ch. yáozi).</li>
winnowing shallow basket se.
net κυαηκυαη (< Ch. wǎng).</li>
sawdust tçymutsə (< Ch.).</li>
repair bəl (= 'to do') / çiu-tha (< Ch. xiū + AUX).</li>
pierce with a fork ə-tş.

### TRADE AND BUSINESS

trade (n.) təts. do business təts pə ('trade' + 'to do'). buy pə. sell χua. it sells well yua-na ('sell' + 'good'). capital pə-tshe (< Ch.běnqián). earn **money** dzigu qupu ('money' + 'earn'). lose money in business ta-pheitha (DIR + <Ch. péi+AUX). accounts tsan (< Ch. zhàng). record accounts the qua. put on credit kuatsi (< Ch.). collect debts xsolu. make a quotation or offer phu dze ('price' + 'say'). how much (asking for price) nawe. haggle over prices phə dzidzi ('price' + 'discuss'). become wealthy dzikų tu-qupu ('money' + DIR + 'earn'). get promoted tə-qa (= 'go up (DIR + 'to go')').get demoted fina-la (= 'come down (DIR + 'to come')'). country market or fair tshaq (= 'street'). open stall (n.) thantsə (< Ch. tānzi). buy vegetables or groceries kuşu pə ('vegetables' + 'to buy'). settle a bill fia-sua (DIR + 'compute'). inn (hostel) je tçi ('live/stay (at)' + (house').stay at an inn je (= 'live/stay (at) (short term)') / wəi. pawnshop phutsə (< Ch. pùzi).

mortgage (vt.) ti-tha (< Ch. di + AUX). **money** dzigų ~ dzikų (dzi said by Sun (1988:58) to be an old loan of Chinese qián). **price** phu ~ phə. paper money phiautsə (< Ch. piàozi). coins (small change) n.epi (< Ch. nièbì ('nickel' + 'money') (錄幣)). dollar pi (epi) (< Ch. bì (幣)). dime (ten fen) tco (otco) (< Ch. jiǎo). **cent** fe<sup>1</sup> (a-fe<sup>1</sup>) (< Ch. fèn). spend money sə-tha (< Ch. shì (使) + AUX). waste money xax? the ('waste' + 'to use'). lend (money) he-ci. **borrow(money)** ha-xkų. owe (money), debt ctcy. dun for (money, debt) ctcy nuasi (ctcy = 'debt'; nua = 'to loan, borrow' (?)) return a borrowed object or money he-w. return a debt ctcy he-w ('debt' + 'return'). return change (from purchace) (ha)-tsə. interest paq. worth (be worth) lu. tax (n.) khe<sup>1</sup>/sui (< Ch. shuì). tax (vt.) khe<sup>1</sup> sa ('tax' + 'to levy'). pay tax sui şa (sui < Ch.). unite tşuə tşuə. scale tshə (< Ch. chèng). weigh (vt.) tshəts (tshə = 'scale'). measure (rice) **BZI**. measure (cloth) **kzəkzi**.

- **catty** tc (a-tc) (< Ch. jīn).
- tael, ounce lu (o-lu) (< Ch. liǎng).
- **mace, 1/10 tael** t¢han (a-t¢han) (< Ch. qián).
- peck, a dry measure (316 c. in.) quat.
- **pint, 1/10 peck** pu.
- measure of 10.8 feet tsan (atsan) (< Ch. zhàng).
- **yard** ma (a-ma) (< Ch. mǎ).
- **foot (measure)** tş (α-tş) (< Ch. chĭ).
- inch tshuen (e-tshuen) (< Ch. cùn).
- Chinese mile (360 paces, 1/2 km.) li (e-li) (< Ch. lǐ).
- Chinese measure of land area (240 square paces) mu (omu) (< Ch. mù).
- fathom (length of outstretched arms) ze (e-ze).
- handspan (thumb to middle finger) tu (a-tu; < PTB \*twa).
- handspan (thumb to forefinger) tshe (e-tshe).
- handspan (thumb to curled forefinger) qu tche (o-qu tche) (qu = 'mouth(ful)').

# TOWN AND ROAD

town, city ви ~ во (= 'mountain') / tşhaq. city gate во men ('city' + 'gate (< Ch. mén)'). street tşhaq. go into town tşhaq-ta kə ('street' + LOC + 'to go'). road, path gue:'. walk on foot sei.

- **build a road** guə:<sup>1</sup> bəl ('road' + 'to do, make').
- forked road guə:<sup>1</sup> etşetəpe-sta ('road'+ 'meet' + 'place').
- bridge tshua.
- temporary bridge tshua-stua (tshua = 'bridge').
- **village** tshua (= 'bridge').
- **county** can (< Ch. xiàn).
- **Chengdu** zdzyta (takes long a: instead of locative particle).
- **Mao County** χqun,i(la) ~ squn,i(la).
- Wenchuan County qhusu(la).
- Li County (Xue City) satsha-(la) (actually the name of the county town, Xue Cheng ('Xue City') but also used for the whole county).
- Ronghong Village joxta.
- Muyu / Moyu Village buja(la).
- Guali Village quarla.
- Wowo Village koku (la).
- **Chibu Village** tshəpa (pronounced tshəpa: including locative particle).
- Matang Village tshoкu (la) (can be pronounced tshoкua: including locative particle).
- **Hexi Village** χłopa (pronounced χłopa: including locative particle).
- **Xihu Village** cəfu (ta).
- Kawo Village qhoвu (la) (= 'coffin').
- Yadu Township jotų.
- Ekou Village gufuta.
- Daguazi Village quazda.
- Xiaoguazi Village ¢i-quazda (¢i- < Ch. xiǎo 'little').
- Luhua Village вю-хиа ('stone tower' + 'crooked').
- Seergu Village se<sup>1</sup>gų.

Longba Village lunpaqpə. Wasi Village waxs. Luoda Village slota.

# TRAVEL

- **travel (vi.)** ha-qa (= 'go out (DIR + 'go')').
- **traveller** da-qa-m ('pass by (DIR + 'go')' + agentive nominalizer).
- start on a journey ho-ju.
- **luggage** panə (= 'thing(s)').
- pack (luggage) ctcopų.
- unpack (luggage) phe<sup>1</sup>z.
- pass by a place da-qa (= 'go by (DIR + 'go')').
- **guide (n.)** qə-şə-m ('head' + 'lead' + agentive nominalizer).
- **reach destination** i-pə-k (DIR + 'arrive' + 'go') / i-pə-l (DIR + 'arrive' + 'come').
- **go home** tcəu-la ipək ('home' + LOC + 'reach destination').
- yoke citsu.
- saddle gantsə (< Ch. ānzi).
- sedan chair tçautsə (< Ch. jiàozi).
- carry a sedan chair tcautsə tuə (< Ch. jiàozi + 'carry').
- ride (a bicycle) tsa (= 'ride a horse') / qətşi.
- ride in a car tşhetsə-ва dzu (car + LOC + 'sit').
- automobile, car tşhetsə (< Ch. chēzi).
- **have a holiday** de-ce (DIR + 'release'; possibly a calque of Chinese fàngjià).

# LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

language z əwa.

- pass on a message pha sta.
- spoken words mele.
- speak, say dze.
- talk (vt.), say jə.
- chat, gossip pethiau pə (< Ch. băitiáo).
- **ask** ke<sup>1</sup>l.
- answer (vt.) he-z gue (DIR + 'answer').
- whisper (vi.) hama-ni kə-jə ('quiet' + adverbial marker + thus + 'say').
- **be silent** squə-stuş ('mouth' + 'to store').
- call (vi.), shout (vi.) BOI.
- respond verbally ha-sa (= 'make a sound').
- story skupu-mele ('gorilla' +
   'words').
- tell a story şkupu-mele dze ('story' + 'say').
- **telephone (n.)** tianχuα (< Ch. diànhuà).
- **telephone (v.)** κοί (tianχua κοί) (= 'shout, call').
- letter, book layz.
- message (oral) pha.
- **write (a letter/book)** ləɣz ze ('letter' + 'to write').
- **mail a letter** ləyz sta ('letter' + 'entrust to').
- read a book layz tse ('book' + 'to look at').
- read aloud zda.
- recite lessons from memory ləyz bie ('book' + 'carry on back' (calque from Chinese?)). teach, study su.

- literate layz xsa ('letter' + 'understand'). illiterate ləyz ma-xsa ('letter' + NEG + 'understand'). diligent na-ji su ('good' + adverbial marker + 'study'). draw / paint a picture xua-tha (< Ch. huà + AUX).newspaper pautsə (< Ch. bàozhí). read newspaper pootso tse ('newspaper' + 'look at'). paper ze:<sup>1</sup>. pen, writing brush z e-s ('write' + instrumental nominalizer) / pi (< Ch. bǐ). **ink (fluid)** me (< Ch. mò). shape qəs. **sign (v., n.)** suqhu / i-tsi-(s) (becomes a noun with -s nominalizer). **trace** jimi-gu (= 'footprint'). **bundle (CL)** pa (a-pa; < Ch.bǎ). paste, glue (n.) maha.
- glue (vi.), paste, stick (vt.) məma.
- paste up spe.

#### RELIGION

- **god** apə xsə ('grandfather' + 'god').
- **deity (family god)** tçi-xs ('house' + 'god').
- worship god, sacrifice (to the gods) xsə ctcə ('god' + 'feed; respect').
- **ghost, spirit** du-gų-mi: (mi: = 'eye(s)').
- incense fəts ~ fət ~ fut(s) (possibly < Tib. spos).
- incense burner futs-ə-şə-s ('incense' + 'put, place' + instrumental nominalizer).
- **burn incense** fut tsə ('incense' + 'burn').
- **temple** xsə tçi ('god' + 'house').
- **monastery** xsə tçi ('god' + 'house').
- **boddhisatva** leme (< Tibetan).
- tell the future suə sua (< Ch. suàn).
- efficacious tse.
- fate lez.
- **pagoda** la-xse ('stone' + 'god'). **auspicious** jiqhua ce ('chest
- (bodypart)' + 'beautiful'). white stone slu-\oti ('stone' +
- 'white'; the white stone (a piece of flint) is invested with spirits).

# **FESTIVALS**

- Qiang Festival (held in Autumn; also used for Lunar New Year) (zme) dze.
- **Solar New Year's Day** вә<sup>1</sup> dze ('Chinese' + 'festival').
- **observe the New Year** dze ce ('festival' + 'release').

- crack firecrackers ce (= 'release').
- swear brotherhood or sisterhood; to pledge in a sworn brotherhood gul se (= 'make friends'; gul = 'friend').
- adopt, raise pə<sup>1</sup>z.
- take a wife də.
- take a husband  $\gamma z_{2} \vartheta$ .
- wedding or other set date zat.
- **groom, bride** mi-xs ('person' + 'new'; calque from Chinese?).
- remarry (of woman) n\_ai-e:-ta yzə ('another' + 'one (+CL)' + goal marker + 'marry').
- birthday senzə (< Ch. shēngrì).
- **birthday** mə (= 'one's symbolic animal').
- celebrate birthday senzə bəl (< Ch. shēngrì + 'do').
- **dress a newly dead person** fa ləla ('clothes' + '(ex)change').
- **burial clothes** lau-ji (< Ch. lǎo-yī (老 衣)).
- coffin qhosu.
- put the dead into the coffin qhoкu-ка le ('coffin' + LOC + 'put in').
- watch the coffin containing the corpse  $g \partial^{1} g \partial^{1}$ .
- **hold a funeral procession** hekue (= 'take out').

inter, to bury guele ~ kuele.

grave məp.

- tombstone mopei (< Ch. mùbèi).
- cremation zbə.
- **human nature, friendliness** zen tshen (< Ch. rénqíng).

- **make friends** gul se ('friend' + 'make (friends)').
- hail (v., to say hello) z mətşi pə.
- **keep company** gul pə ('friend' + 'do').
- **make a visit (to friends)** gul tse-k ('friend' + 'look at' + 'go').
- welcome, to receive da.
- receive (visitor), entertain ctcə (= 'feed').
- host/master tcip (tci = 'house'; -p < PTB \*pa 'male gender marker; formative suffix').
- guest dzu.
- send presents pana dzu ('things' + 'send').
- **gift, present** u-lu-tc pana (DIR + 'send' + genitive/relative marker + 'thing').
- treat (others to a meal, etc.) tcip dzuə ('host/master' + 'sit').
- invite guests to give a party dzu-ctc ('guest' + 'invite/ feed').
- see a visitor off ce (= 'release').
- **be a guest** dz u pə-k ('guest' + 'do' + 'go').
- set up a banquet ə-ş (= 'to place').
- take a seat at a dinner table əzu (DIR + dzu 'sit').
- start serving a banquet kuşu əş ('vegetables' + 'to place').
- thank for a gift zə ha-sa ('affair, matter' + DIR + 'make sound').
- thank for an act of kindness  $z_{\partial}$ ha-sa ('affair, matter' + DIR + 'make sound').
- **'excuse me'** ma-tsuə-s-ta ŋuə (NEG + 'pay attention' + nominalizer + LOC + copula).

- 'please have a seat' ə-zu-na (DIR + 'sit' + 'good').
- 'stop, don't trouble yourself to come out' ə-tçə (= 'stop (walking)').

# GAMES AND PLAY

- play szəla / şua-tha (< Ch. shuă + AUX; used more commonly than the native word szəla).
- **toy** şua thə-s ('play' + AUX + instrumental nominalizer).
- somersault tantcigugu.
- **shuttlecock** tçantsə (< Ch. jiànzi).
- play the shuttlecock tcantsə sue ('shuttlecock' + 'throw').
- take a step da-sua.
- play hide and seek e-wu e:-ipikə-bəl ('one' + agentive marker + 'one (plus classifier)' + 'hide' + 'go' + 'do').
- cards phai (< Ch. pái).
- play card game phai ce (phai <
   Ch. pái + 'release, play').</pre>
- dice sqan i (= 'stones').
- play jacks, dice game sqan,i кие (sqan,i is seven stones thrown like dice; кие = 'throw').
- ball pou tan.
- play ball pou tan the.
- song, music zəm.
- sing zəm tshuə.
- whistle (n.) ctcyl.
- whistle (vt.) ctcyl phə ('whistle (n.)' + 'blow').
- flute tchəl.
- **play the flute** tchəl phə ('flute' + 'blow').

gong xomu.

- **sound the gong** χomu z ete ('gong' + 'strike, beat').
- drum zbu.
- hit a drum zbu zete ('drum' + 'strike, beat').
- **dance** zəm χsutu ('song' + 'jump').
- **movies** tia-jin (< Ch. diànying).
- watch a movie tia-jin tse (= 'look at').
- **camera** tşauçan pə-s (< Ch. zhàoxiāng + 'do' + instrumental nominalizer).
- take a photo mi:-laŋu qua ('mirror, lens' + 'close') / tşauçan pə / tşauçan qua (tşauçan < Ch. zhàoxiāng + pə 'do' or qua 'close').
- win tu-qu.
- lose fio-qu.

# BODYPARTS

**body** pe<sup>1</sup>sen. **body hair** xupa (= 'fur'). skin ze:pi~zepi. wrinkle phutu. mole, birthmark spaimi. bone zeke. **marrow** zeke-s (zeke = 'bone'). tendon, vein gə<sup>1</sup>. fat (n.) tsha (< PTB \*tsa, used to refer to the fat of animals) / tshini (used to refer to the fat of people). **blood** sa. **bleed** sa ha-la ('blood' + 'come out ('DIR + 'come')'). sweat (n.) xtşu. sweat (v.) xtsu lu ('sweat (n.)' + 'come'). **body dirt** khue. callous, blister, corns on the feet tsuəq. grow callous skin, raise a blister tsuəq sə<sup>1</sup>-sp. **pus** spə-sa (sa = 'blood'). breathe (in) mas e-xky ('breath' + 'inhale'). breathe out mas he-ci ('breath' + 'exhale ('release out (DIR + 'release')'))). pant (v.) (məs) çiçi. yawn (v.) laxu tə-la. **doze** məzi pə / quəta. head qə-pats ('head' + 'round'). top of the head qp-sta ('head' + 'place'). dandruff zdadzi. head hair qə-ŋu ('head' + 'hair'). **hair whorl** z bə (= 'dragon'). **bald-headed** dzoq-pats ('hair' + 'round').

back of the skull, occiput wuluχοτ<sub>§</sub> (χοτ<sub>§</sub> = 'mountain ravine'). brain qə-n.i ('head' + 'brain' < PTB \*nuk). temple qactcy. forehead zduxku. face quaha. eyebrow, eyelash mi:-xkam (mi: = eye(s)). eyes, eyeball mi: (< PTB \*mik ~ myak). eyelid miapi ('eye' + 'skin (< z epi)'). white of the eye mi:-phis ('eye' + 'white'). secretion in the eye mi:- $\chi_{\S}$ ('eye' + 'excrement'). tears slaq. shed tears sloq ci ('tears' + 'release'). cross-eyed mi:-daqhua ('eye' + 'slanted, crooked'). twitching of the eyelid mi:  $\chi$ sutu ('eye' + 'jump'). have a sty qap sə-la ('sty (= (jar')' + DIR + (come').ears nuky (nu possibly < PTB \*g/r-na). ear lobe nuku-qulu ('ear' + 'point'). soft secretion of the ear nukutshus. **nose** ctcy-tsu (ctcy < PTB \*sna 'nose'). ridge of nose ctcy-tsu: ('nose' + 'pillar'). base of nose ctcyts-kopu ('nose' + 'root'). **nostril** ctcyts-zo:pu ('nose' + 'hole'). mucus from the nose  $\chi a$ . **have a running nose** χa lu ('mucus' + 'come').

**blow the nose** χa sue ('mucus' + 'blow (the nose)'). hard secretion from the nose  $\chi$ a-kupa ('mucus' + 'burnt rice (that sticks to pan < Ch. gūobā)'). flat-nosed ctcyts-pats ('nose' + 'round'). mouth, opening of the mouth şqu. lips zdekų. tongue zəq (q final probaby from qo 'head, point' (Liu 1984)). tongue tip zəq-qulu ('tongue' + 'point'). root of the tongue zəq-kopu ('tongue' + 'root'). fur on the tongue squ ma (squ = 'mouth'). saliva, spittle tşua / tsə-s (tsə = 'water'). phlegm tshup-qha. spit (v.) tşua phə ('saliva' + 'spit, blow'). teeth sua (< PTB \*swa). incisors, front teeth sua-zdu 'tooth' + male marker). canine teeth dza. tartar sua-xs ('tooth' + 'excrement'). gums (of teeth) sua-z (sua = 'tooth'). lose one's milk teeth sup lala ('tooth' + '(ex)change'). protruding teeth dza qəpi ('canine teeth' + 'protrude'). cheek tçipi. cheekbone tçini. sideburn, mustache, beard xots (< Ch. húzi). **dimples** ci-cpie (ci = 'liquor' (+ 'thirsty'?—if this is a calque

on Chinese jiùwō it should

be 'nest', but 'nest' is z baha)). chin dzo:. freckles nitsə (< Ch.). **neck** tşuəke ~ tşuki. throat muwu. Adam's apple dzuqtchi-pats (pats = 'round').shoulder, forearm jipi (ji = 'hand, arm'). armpit dz odz ə-şqəl / zdziyqa (sqəl = 'under(neath)'). hand japa (also ji in combination). right-hand na-xse ('right' + 'side'). left-hand sua-xse ('left' + 'side'). arm lo-pu. elbow la-suas. wrist sa sua. pulse of the wrist  $ga^{I}$  (= 'vein, tendon'). back of the hand pewe (= 'instep'). **palm** la-xs. finger, knuckles ji-saq (ji = 'hand'; sa(q) = 'section, joint'). **finger tips** qulu (= 'point, tip'). fingernail *kdz* əs. **thumb** ji-miaq ('hand' + female marker). little finger tci-xtsa ('most' + 'small'). finger zeku-ta-la middle ('middle, between' + DEF:one + CL for long thin objects). **lines of the palm** ji-ləyz ('hand' + 'letter, writing, book'). **fist** ju-spul ('hand' + 'kidney'). **chest** ji-qhua. **breast** papə (= 'milk').

nipple papə-qulu ('breast' + 'point'). heart ctci:mi (ctci: < PTB \*snin; mi is secondary, and dropped in compounds). **lungs** tshu (< PTB \*tsjwap?). stomach sikue. waist səq. belly, intestines pa. small intestine bitsi. large intestine pə-po ('intestine' + 'thick'). **navel** pu-tsu (pu = 'belly'). **liver** sa- $\chi a$  (sa = 'blood'). gall bladder xtsə. kidneys spəl ~ spul. pancreas xatşu. bladder tshas. backbone thosu. **buttocks** stasta. anus χ<sub>s</sub>u-z u ('excrement' + 'hole' (< χ§u-ζo:pu)). feces mi-χ<sub>ξ</sub> ('person' + 'excrement'). defecate xgə ju ('excrement' + 'to move from one container to another (= 'to spoon, pour (tea)')'). urine bi. urinate bi ce ('urine' + 'release'). expulsion of intestinal gas  $\chi_{\S \Im}$ (= 'excrement'). expel intestinal gas  $\chi_{s} \Rightarrow ce$ ('intestinal gas' + 'release'). penis (common term) liaq. penis (baby term) tcutcu. testicles bə<sup>1</sup>. sperm, semen lies. have nocturnal emissions lies sə-la ('sperm' + DIR + 'come'). vulva (common term) phos. vulva (euphemistic term) cpie.

sexual intercourse (common term) staxu (sta = 'buttocks (?)'). sexual intercourse (euphemistic **term)** bəl (= 'to do'). pregnant tçymi le ('child' + 'exist (in a container)'). **give birth** i-ci (DIR + 'release'). leg dua. **thigh** duap (dua = 'leg'; -p < po'thick'?). kneecap z guaq. shinbone gə<sup>1</sup>. calf of the leg dz isputs (possibly 'foot' + 'round'). foot dzoqu. **heel** jimi-pats ('foot(print)' + 'round'). **instep** pewe (= 'back of hand'). lower leg saq. sole of the foot paq / dzoq-pa. **toe** ji-saq (= 'finger'). toenail sdz əs (= 'fingernail'). point of the foot ji-saq-qulu ('toes' + 'point').strength guaqe. voice, sound, noise qai. ribs χa:. **back** tsup / jipi (upper back; = 'shoulders').

### ACTIONS INVOLVING BODYPARTS

raise the head qəpatş ho-ĸu. droop the head qəpatş ha-quət. turn the head ha-l. turn around (the head) zə-l/dal. look (vt.) tse/lə. open the eyes mi: da-tşa (= 'crack/split').

close the eyes mi: fia-tşa.

- **blink (v.)** mi: phəqphəq pə (mi: = 'eye(s)'; p = 'to do'). gaze fixedly or fiercely za-tsa. look sideways pianyuə<sup>1</sup> (< Ch.). aim at z uzda. hear xsuctc (ctc < \*st(front vowel) < \*sn, ultimately < PTB \*sna; cf. Mawo dial. khçust, Taoping dial. tchy55  $n_y^{55}$  (data from Sun 1981a); compare also 'rest' and 'painful'). smell (vt.) cete. open the mouth squ da-qa. close the mouth squ fia-mma. open the mouth a slit squ dzaha ('mouth' + 'slit open'). purse the lips zdekų su-tshu ('lips' + DIR + 'extend, stick out'). **kiss (vt.)** zde tşue pə (zde = 'lips'; p = to do').
- eat dzə (dry foods; < PTB
   \*dza) / tchə (liquidy foods;
   = 'drink').</pre>
- drink (vt.) tchə / suqu.
- suck (vt.), smoke (cigarettes) tşhe.
- bite (vt.), hold in the mouth <sup>kdz</sup>e.
- chew (vt.) dzidzi.
- **gnaw at a bone** ваłі (people or animals).
- **lick with tip of tongue** n ete.
- **taste (vt.)** a-§ tse ('one' + 'time' + 'look at').
- sip (vt.), suck (fingers) tshe-xł (tshe = 'suck').
- swallow (v.) sərzü.
- choke with food sukutsu.
- **spurt (vt.)** fia-f (DIR + 'to spit, blow (< phə(te))').

- **spit (vt.), blow (vt.)** phə(te).
- **drool** tsəs lə<sup>1</sup> ('saliva' + 'drip, flow').
- stick out the tongue zəq ho-tşhu
   ('tongue' + DIR + 'extend,
   stick out').
- **tuck under the arm** dz odz əşqal ('armpit' + 'under').
- elbow (v.), nudge that.
- raise the hand ho-tshu (DIR + 'extend, stick out').
- stretch out the hand su-tshu (DIR + 'extend, stick out').
- **clap the hands** laxs zete ('palm(s)' + 'hit, strike').
- **let loose of the hand** de-ci (DIR + 'release').
- shake hands koşəu pə (< Ch. wòshǒu + 'to do').
- clench one's fist juspul zu-su.
- **point (v.)** tşə-tha (< Ch. zhǐ + AUX).
- hold with the hand, take in the fingers, carry in the hand(s), pick up, raise (vt.) tə-tsi.
- carry, bring lie.
- **claw (v.), clutch** zə-tşua (< Ch. zhuā (?), but cf. tşuə-tşua 'twist, crush together in the hand').
- gather together xsol.
- hold firmly zə-tşhi.
- **bring (as a tray)** tcy (= 'carry').
- bring (polite request) ha-xkue.
- hold up in both hands i-tsi (same root as in 'hold with the hand, take in the fingers', and 'raise').
- raise with the hands ho-tshu (= 'extend').
- shoulder (a load), carry on the shoulders (two people) tuə.

raise by putting something under u-xsu / tian-tha (< Ch. diàn + AUX). transport sqa / pan-tha (pan-tha < Ch. bān + AUX). feel, touch (vt.) sosu xtsa. put, place in/on a-s. put down rudely da-kų (< kue 'throw'). pile up bə. rub, wipe saxtsa. rub between the hands, rub, massage vliete. rub on (oil) məmə. press down fie-tshe. twist (v.), wring (a wet towel), pinch with the fingers, clutch, grasp with the hand, screw (v.), turn (doorknob) quə-tşue. **crowded** ctcictci (= 'fold' (?)). squeeze (out) zə-tshi. strangle zə-xş. twist, sprain (v.) patayl. twist, crush together in the hand (e.g. clothes) tsua tsua (cf. zə-tşua 'claw (v.), clutch'). scratch dze de ('itch' + 'grab, scratch (< phe')'). **push** ctci / thui-tha (< Ch. tuī + AUX). pull, drag (vt.) se-xkų. pull at (a string) fia-(se)-xky. **pull out** stue. draw (lots) staqa (= 'select'). disperse (e.g. sand) se. flay, peel (vt.), open out, separate  $q a^{I} q a^{J}$ . separate, divide, divorce qala. rip, tear (vt.) phi<sup>-</sup>phi<sup>-</sup> (< PTB \*prak). fold (vt.) ctcictci / zəctci. hit, strike (vt.) dzete. slap (vt.) qhəli.

pound, tap, strike, rap on (the head), skim, fish out, massage the back by pounding zete. pick at, scrape (e.g. the nose) tşutşu. pat (on the shoulder) tə-xłi (< qhəli 'slap'). pat (on the table) phete. pound, ram dze. **poke (vt.)** *a*-tg. break into two ji-dzue fio-p ('two' + 'sections' + DIR + 'to do'). shake stuəstua. **shake out** fie-dete (< phete). pull out, take out (from pocket) xtsp(xtse). rummage (vt.) me<sup>1</sup>z (= 'look for'). **throw** z gutu / suəte ~ sue. throw away qa-rň (DIL + 'throw (< suate)'). take with the hand, receive, support, prop up fie-ke. embrace, hug (v.) tə-yua. carry in the arms ho-yua. ward off  $\exists xt_s = t_s = t_s$ up') / ta-tha (< Ch. dǎng + AUX). prop up, stretch out tə-tç. **roll up** ylə ~ ylu. wrap (vt.) quəqua. tie up, bind tə- $\chi_{\S}$ . fill up, load lala. carry in upper garment phala-ta del (phəla is the part of the upper garment that comes across the chest). shake open, spread by shaking da-qatshe. lift open (a lid) tə-qe. pry open tə-tchau-tha (DIR + < Ch. qiào + AUX).

cover from head down fia-g / ha-que. ladle (vt., water) tə-za (za = 'ladle (n.)'). scoop from one container to **another** ju. line up, queue up phai-tha (< Ch. pái + AUX). tread on the (< Ch.). stamp the feet dzoqu tshuate. step across da-sua. limp (n.) tchəq-la. **run** phu (possibly < PTB \*ploŋ). **kick** tshu. kick (as a horse), kick back pazsu tshu. kick off coverings quatci sə-su ('quilt' + 'turn over'). cross the legs zə-pela. **bind the feet** cyte-de ('binding' + 'wrap'). sit (up) dzuə (said by Sun (1988:58) to be an old loan of Ch. zuò). sit down ə-dzuə. stand (up), get up tu-ju. squat tuen-tha (< Ch. dūn + AUX) / fie-gue (said by Sun (1988:58) to be an old loan from Chinese guì 'kneel'). stoop ho-su. kneel, bow (vi.), prostrate and knock head on ground suptshu (tshu = 'jump'). lean against ə-qhua (qhua = 'slanted'). **lie down** fia-n (DIR + 'sleep'). lie flat on the stomach pun nu sleep face down pun nu qu-ni nə ('lie flat on stomach' + adverbial particle + 'sleep').

- sleep on one's back mutu ta-ln i nə ('lie on back ('sky' DIR + 'look')' + adverbial particle + 'sleep').
- sleep on one's side e-xse da-l- $\eta_i$  nə ('one' + 'side' + DIR + 'look' + adverbial particle + 'sleep').
- **slip (v.)** ła.
- stumble, fall down, slip and fall da-ła (fall because ground is slippery (ła = 'slip'; < PTB \*kla) / da-que (fall because of tripping over rock, etc.).
- jump χsutu / tshu. crawl bə-tc pə ('bug' + genitive particle + 'do').
- **rush on** zu-χsu (DIR + 'jump').
- run against ə-t.
- move or slip away or to one side (v.) de-xtse.
- hide i-pi (i-pi / i-pi-k) (< PTB \*pak).
- meet e-tsepe.
- carry on the back (child or objects) bie.

# GROOMING

- wash face quaha xuəla ('face' + 'wash').
- pan for washing face səlanphən (< Ch. xíliánpén) / tshiphen.
- take a bath pe<sup>1</sup>sen xuəla ('body' + 'wash')
- wash the feet dzoqu xuəla ('feet' + 'wash').
- shampoo the hair qəpatş xuəla ('head' + 'wash').
- soap jits (< Ch. yízi).
- washcloth, bath towel phatsə (< Ch. pàzi).

- toothbrush sua-xuala-s ('tooth' + 'wash' + instrumental nominalizer).
- brush one's teeth suə xuəla ('tooth' + 'wash').
- rinse one's mouth squ xuəla ('mouth' + 'wash').
- wipe the anus (after defecating) tsha-tha (< Ch.  $c\bar{a}$  + AUX).
- make up (v.) dzə dzə.
- **comb (n.)** quəsə  $\sim$  qusa  $\sim$  quəsi ('head' (?) + 'comb' (?) < PTB \*si (?)).
- comb the hair qapats khe<sup>1</sup>x ('head' + 'comb' (khe<sup>1</sup> $\chi$  < khe<sup>1</sup>-khe<sup>1</sup> < PTB \*kwi (?)).
- dress up the hair tutu.
- pigtail (tied with hemp) quxsul. pigtail (not tied with hemp) dzoq / qutçu.
- plait the hair (vt.) kepi.
- have a haircut (male), shave the head qapats khue ('head' + 'scrape, shave').
- have a haircut (female) tua (Qiang women don't normally cut their hair).
- shave the head bald kuanthau khue (< Ch. guāngtóu + 'scrape, shave').
- shave beard xots khue ('beard (< Ch. húzi)' + 'scrape, shave').

### LIFE, DEATH, AND ILLNESS

life suə.

- whole life (one's whole life) ese ('one' + 'die').
- **be born** zi-ji ('exist' + CSM)
- **give birth** i-ci (DIR + 'release')
- **living, to be alive** χsu (= 'to jump' (?)).
- raise (children) pe<sup>1</sup>z.
- watch (the children) tse (= 'look at').
- young in age suas me-le ('years/age' + NEG + 'exist').
- **grow up (vi.)** tə-wa (DIR + 'big (< ba)').
- **be grown up** tə-wa-ji (DIR + 'big (< ba)' + aspect marker (CSM)).
- old of age, become old da-p (DIR + 'old').
- become tired tə-tşhue ctcaq mo-lu (DIR + 'move' + heart' + NEG + 'come' = 'not want to move').
- rest zdzə (< \*na; cf. 'disease', 'hear', 'nose').
- sleep nə (also used for 'lie down') / məzi (fully asleep).
- **dream (v.)** u-z mu (DIR + 'dream'; < PTB \*r-mang).
- talk in sleep məzi-q pə (məzi = 'sleep'; pə = 'to do').
- fatigued ho-su.
- part from qale.
- **die (vi.)** se (has special form for DIR prefix: die-se).
- have maggots bəl de-zi ('worm' + DIR (= become) + 'exist (animate refer-ent)').
- **corpse** zmu~zmə.
- **age** pə / şuəs (= 'years').
- year old pə.

- disease, illness, pain(ful) zdzi (< \*na; cf. 'hear', 'rest', 'nose').
- ill tə-zdzi (DIR + 'disease, be ill' = 'become ill').
- infect da-tsu.
- **not feel well** leme mo-lu ('spirit, energy' + NEG + 'come').
- moan (v.) tsəydz.
- get well u-xşu.
- have headache qəpatş zdzi ('head' + 'be painful, ill').
- feel dizzy qəpatş su ('head' + 'turn, spin').
- eyesight blurred mi: lampə təla ('eye(s)' + 'flower' + DIR + 'come').
- deaf nuku bu ('ear' + 'deaf'; bu
   < PTB \*ban).</pre>
- **sneeze (v.)** i-sau pa (pa = 'to do').
- have a stuffy nose ctcyts ma-nə ('nose' + NEG + 'good').
- remove teeth sue stue ('tooth' + 'pull out').
- have decayed teeth bəl-wu şuə dzə ('bug, insect' + agentive marker + 'tooth' + 'eat').
- **burp (v.)** qhup-tul.
- nauseating dowa-ş-ke: ŋuə ('vomit' + 'think about' + DEF:CL + copula).
- vomit (v.) dowe.
- have the mumps tsue  $\chi$ .
- hoarse qei ha-sə-ma-lə ('voice' + DIR + 'make sound (< sa)' + NEG + 'able (< dz ə)').</pre>
- **nervous, palpitating heart** ctci:mi χsutu ('heart' + 'jump').
- heart disease ctci:mi-zdzi ('heart' + 'disease; be ill, painful').

have tuberculosis laupin (< Ch. láobìng).

- strain, sprain (one's back, muscles) do-quła.
- have indigestion pə-le: ma-nəke: ŋuə ('intestines' + DEF:CL + NEG + 'good (< na)' + INDEF:CL + copula).
- **have stomachache** sikue qhə'qhə' ('stomach/belly' + 'be painful, hurt (only used for stomach pain)').
- **have diarrhea** sikue zdzi ('stomach, belly' + 'disease; be ill, painful').
- have dysentery, diarrhea kuə (tə)-şa.
- feel numb tə-yzə (DIR + 'hot (peppery / spicy)').
- **have cramps** gə<sup>1</sup> su ('tendon' + 'turn, spin').
- shiver (v.), shudder (v.) leme
   xse ('spirit, energy' +
   'move').
- **catch chill** tə-nian-tha (DIR + < Ch. liáng + AUX).
- have fever tə-si (DIR + 'hot' = 'become hot').
- have the measles bu da-tsu ('rash' + DIR + 'meet with').
- have pockmarked face matsə (< Ch. mázi).
- **dropsy** pə phəpha ('intestines, belly' + 'swell').
- have asthma tshup tshu (tshu =
   'cough'; cf. tshup-qha
   'phlegm').
- **hysterical** sentcin tshu (< Ch. shénjīng + 'meet with').
- have cholera şa-χşə da-tsu ('blood' + 'stool(feces)' + 'meet with').
- have leprosy dzu.

- **have lice** xtse de-w ('lice' + DIR + 'exist').
- have underarm odor tşoqubəxtsi ('weasel' + 'smell bad').
- have goose flesh pufu ha-la (hala = 'come out').
- have piles (hemorrhoid) luku zdzi ('backside, read end' + 'illness, pain').
- get a splinter tshəma ə-tşə ('thorn' + DIR + 'to stick').
- scald oneself fie-tşi.
- heal, close (of wound) zəmma. grow into a scar jinpi quət
- ('wound' + 'cover (quə)').
- wound, sore jinpi.
- get wounded san tu-tsu (< Ch. shāng + DIR + 'to get (illness), suffer').
- wrap a wound lələ.
- have prickly heat zəfetsə (< Ch. rèfèizi).
- have sores jinpi fio-p ('sores' + DIR + 'become')
- **have the itch, scabbies** pie-dzu (pie = 'pig').
- **have nosebleed** ctcy-sa lu ('nose' + 'blood' + 'come').
- constipation kaitsu ho-p.
- smallpox bu.
- heal disease tshop.
- examine the disease / see a doctor zdzi tse ('illness' + 'look at').
- acupuncture jin tşen (< Ch. yínzhēn).
- **make up a prescription** phei-tha (< Ch. pèi + AUX).
- medicine sipe.
- dose of medicine fu (a-fu) (< Ch. fu).

- **pill** sipe-pats ('medicine' + 'round').
- liquid medicine sipe-than ('medicine' + 'soup (< Ch. tāng)').
- **make a decoction** sipe squ ('medicine' + 'boil').
- take medicine sipe dzə ('medicine' + 'eat').
- **drink liquid medicine** sipe t¢hə ('medicine' + 'drink').
- medicinal plaster kaojau (< Ch. gāoyào).
- apply a plaster kaujau spe ('plaster' + 'to paste').
- **ointment** jokau (< Ch. yàogāo).
- **rub ointment** jokau məma ('ointment' + 'rub').

poison duə.

hospital jisuan (< Ch. yīyuàn).

# WARFARE

**army** gue<sup>1</sup>. **bow** lə (< PTB \*d-liy). crossbow qhuataq. slingshot phiphəntsə (< Ch.). shoot an arrow or gun qhu. gun soqhu. bullet xtsa. shoot a gun soqhu qhu. target zuə. shoot the target z u a z da (z u a ='target'). **ambush (vt.)** ipi (= 'to hide'). guard (vt.)  $g a^{J} g a^{J}$ . surround (vt.) tchytchy. win (in some contest) tu-qu. be defeated fio-qu. truce fia-tşuə.

### KINSHIP

- name (n.), surname, clan name zmə (< PTB \* r-miŋ).
- be called, be named or surnamed zmə/ŋuə(ŋuə = copula).
- regard as nuə (= copula).
- count as ca-ŋu ('allow' + copula).
- relatives kuə-ŋ.a-tsə (< 'older brother' + 'and' + 'sister'; refers to close relatives) / stuəm ~ stum (refers to relatives with the same surname) / tsuoßlumi (refers to women from a family who have married into other families).
- married relationships tchintcia (< Ch. qīnjiā).
- senior generation suəs-le-m ('age, years' + 'exist' + agentive nominalizer).
- great-grandfather jipa.
- great-grandmother jima.
- paternal grandfather (address term), maternal grandfather (address and quoting term) apa.
- paternal grandfather (quoting term) apa / qapa (-pa < PTB \*pa).
- paternal and maternal grandmother (address and quoting term) utuma.
- **parents** ma:-n,a-tatə ('mother' + 'and' + 'father').
- father (address term) tata.
- father (quoting term) tata / ep.
- mother (address term) ma:.
- mother (quoting term) aw.

- husband's or wife's mother (address and quoting term) khəsta.
- paternal uncles upu.
- father's elder brother (address and quoting term), mother's sister's husband ipi.
- father's elder brother's wife, mother's sister imi.
- father's younger brother upu.
- father's younger brother's wife,
- elder brother's wife itci. father's sister's husband atsa.
- father's sister nini.
- namer s sister italitat.
- wife's father (quoting term) pukų.
- mother's brother akua.
- mother's brother's wife ispai.
- of the same generation e-pei ('one' + 'generation (< Ch. bèi)').
- husband wutçupu.
- wife sətsim.
- brothers tuə-tuə-wa (< tuətştuə-ba 'younger brother' + 'older brother ('brother' + 'big')').
- elder brother (address term) ku: (< Ch. gē?).
- elder brother (quoting term) tuə-wa ('brother' + 'big (< ba)').
- sister call brother ma.
- brother call sister ylu.
- younger brother (quoting term) tuətsu.
- sisters tsi-satşu ('girl' + 'younger sister').
- elder sister tsəi (< Ch. jiě).
- elder sister's husband atsa.
- younger sister (quoting term) satsu.
- siblings of father's sisters; of mother's brothers and

sisters, cousins laupiau (< Ch. lǎobiǎo).

- cousins on father's or mother's s i d e tuə-tuə-wa (= 'brothers').
- junior generation subs-me-le-m ('age, years' + NEG + 'exist' + agentive nominal-izer).
- **son** tşi (= 'boy').
- son's wife tsuyzu (tsu < tsi
  'girl/daughter' + yzu < yzə
  'marry'(?)).</pre>
- **daughter** tsi (= 'girl').
- **daughter's husband** tşi-mi ('boy/son' + 'person').
- brother's son or daughter dzi.
- sister's child spots (male or female).
- **grandchild** zə-tşu (< PTB \*za + tşuə 'child').
- great-grandson lə-tşu (< PTB \*b-liy + tşuə 'child').
- **family** tçəu-lo-qpi ('home' + DEF:one: + DEF:one-family).
- sworn brothers lokun (< Ch. lǎogēng (老 庚)).
- friend gul / taχu.
- intimate friend gul.
- neighbor məq-to-qpi ('above' + 'DEF:one-family') / thex-toqpi ('that side' + 'DEF:onefamily') / qəl-lo-qpi ('below' + 'DEF:one-family').
- villagers (same village) atshəp.
- family members o-qpi ('one' + 'family').
- baby tsiçi.
- child tcymi / tşuə (now used mainly for the young of animals, but appears in some compounds referring to humans).
- boy, male, married man tsi.

girl, female, married woman tsi.

- young man cauxots (< Ch. xiǎohùozi) / suəs-me-le-m ('age, years' + NEG + 'exist, have' + agentive nominalizer).
- **bachelor** tokun (< Ch. dúgēn (獨 根)).

unmarried young woman tsam.

- **pregnant woman** tcymi-le-m ('child' + 'exist (in container)' + 'agentive moninalizer).
- widow kuamutsə (< Ch. kuămŭzi).
- **old man** qapa (= 'paternal grandfather').
- old woman qotu.
- **adult** ba-tə-m (ba = 'big'; -m is agentive nominalizer).
- **first born** tçi-wa (< tçi-ba; 'most' + 'big').
- youngest child tci-χtşa ('most' + 'small').
- twins a-sue ('one' + 'placenta').
- single child tşi-xtş (male) / tsixtş (female).
- orphan kap / kapətş.

# TYPES OF PEOPLE

- person, human being mi.
- **in-group** tçile-mi (3pl pronoun + 'person').
- outsider tçile-mi ma-ŋuə (3pl pronoun + 'person' + NEG + copula).
- **stranger** ma-sə-m mi (NEG + 'know, recognize' + animate nominalizer + 'person').
- townpeople tshənsa-mi (< Ch. chéngshì + 'person').

- **countryfolk** za-вә-bәl-әm ('earth, land' + locative particle + 'to do' + agentive nominalizer).
- person from another province waisen-mi (< Ch. wàishěng + 'person').
- foreigner waikue-mi (< Ch. wàiguó + 'person').
- **bald-headed person** dzoq-patş ('hair' + 'round').
- **blind person** (mi:) khə<sup>1</sup>p (('eye') + 'blind').
- blind mi: fia-khə<sup>1</sup>p ('eye' + DIR
  + 'blind') / mi: mo-tçu (
  'eye' + NEG + 'see').
- one-eyed person mi: e-xşe khə<sup>1</sup>p ('eye' + 'one' + 'side' + 'blind').
- person who wears glasses jantcintsə-de-m (< Ch. yǎnjìngzi + 'wear' + agentive nominalizer).
- **deaf person** nukų pu ~ nukųbu ('ear' + 'deaf').
- **deaf** bu (< PTB \*baŋ).
- dumb person sua.
- **dumb** qəi ha-sə-ma-l ('sound' + DIR + 'make a sound' + NEG + 'able').
- harelipped person o-qu tchuetchue ('one' + 'mouth' + < Ch. quē).
- person who stutters tcetsə (< Ch. jiēzi) / şqu-tshi (şqu = 'mouth').
- person with missing front teeth suə-z.o:pu ('tooth' + 'hole').
- person with pockmarks matsə (< Ch. mázi).
- lame person tchəqla / peitsə ( < Ch. bŏzi).

lame tchəqla.

humpbacked tsupu.

**simpleton** he-me-the (DIR + NEG + 'able').

- mad person, crazy person kuku-m ('curse, be crazy' + agentive nominal-izer).
- **Tibetan (name of ethnic group)** spe (= 'people of the grasslands').
- **Tibetan language** spe-z ('Tibetan' + 'speech').
- Han (name of ethnic group)  $B \Theta^{1}$ .
- Han person (common derogatory term, literally 'rotten Han person')  $B = 1^{-1} p - 1^{-1} p + 1^{-1$
- **Han language** кә<sup>1</sup>-д ('Han'+ 'speech').
- rGyalrong (Jiarong; name of ethnic group) tshap.
- Qiang (name of ethnic group) zme.
- Qiang language z m e z ('Qiang' + 'speech').
- Yi (name of ethnic group) lolo.
- Hui (name of ethnic group; Moslems) pie-pies ma-se-m (< 'pig'-'meat' NEG-know-NOM 'those who don't know pork') / χuitsə (< Ch. húizi).</p>
- common people pesi (< Ch. bǎixìng).
- **poor people** ma-qə-m (NEG + 'wealthy' + agentive nominalizer).
- **rich people** qəqə-m ('wealthy' + agentive nominalizer).
- **work (vt.)** bəl (= 'to do').
- train cunn.ian pə (< Ch. xùnliàn + 'to do').
- hire, to employ ku (< Ch. gù).
- salary cinşui (< Ch. xīnshŭi).

- **master** tci-p ('house' + formative affix < PTB \*pa).
- servant sua-m ('help' agentive nominalizer).
- officer yza.
- teacher ləyz-su-m ('book, letter' + 'teach, study' + agentive nominalizer).
- student cosen (< Ch. xuéshēng)
   / su-m ('teach, study' +
   agentive nominalizer).</pre>
- farmer za-ĸə-bəl-əm ('field, land' + locative postposition + 'to do' + agentive nominalizer).
- **hunter** qhu-m ('hunt' + 'agentive nominalizer).
- landowner titşu (< Ch. dìzhǔ).
- herd, shepherd (v.) ctcy
- **cattle shepherd** xse-ctcy-m ('cattle' + 'herd, shepherd (v.)' + agentive nominalizer).
- **pig tender** pie-ctcy-m ('pig' + 'herd, shepherd (v.)' + agentive nominalizer).
- **butcher** pie-tşə-m ('pig' + 'kill' + agentive nominalizer).
- woodchopper sə-gue-m ('wood' + 'chop' + agentive nominalizer).
- **tailor** fa-jeji-m ('clothing' + 'sew' + agentive nominalizer).
- **barber** qəpatş-khue-m ('head' + 'scrape, shave' + agentive nominalizer).
- carpenter mutsan (< Ch. mùjiàng).
- **blacksmith** dzy-m ('forge' + agentive nominalizer).
- forge (thing) out of iron dzy.

- **mason** tçi-xłie-m ('house' + 'build (pile bricks)' + agentive nominalizer).
- doctor zdzi-tshop-əm ('illness' + 'heal, cure' + agentive nominalizer (with epenthetic vowel)) / zdzi-i-tha-m ('illness' + 'heal, cure' < Ch. yī + AUX + agentive nominalizer).
- **household servant** к u a m ('help' + agentive nominalizer).
- **cook** stuaha-bəl-əm ('food, rice' + 'to do' + agentive nominalizer).
- **doorkeeper** dzy-gə<sup>1</sup>-m ('door' + 'to guard' + agentive nominalizer).
- master of a trade səfə (< Ch. shīfù).
- apprentice su-m ('teach, study' + agentive nominalizer) / thuti (< Ch. túdì).</pre>
- **merchant** təts-pə-m ('trading' + 'to do' + agentive nominalizer).
- **do business** təts pə ('trading' + 'to do').
- **shopkeeper** χuα-m ('sell' + agentive nominalizer).
- assistant in a shop, waiter gul (= 'friend').
- soldier gue<sup>1</sup>.
- **military officer** gue<sup>1</sup>-yz ('army' + 'leader').
- jail keeper, guard  $g a^{I} g a^{J}$ .
- to guard  $g a^{I}$ .
- **monk** χoşan (< Ch. héshàng).
- **beggar** wasi-m ('beg, demand' + agentive nominalizer).
- thief, pickpocket (n.) skuə (< \*PTB r-kuw).

### VERBS OF INTERACTION BETWEEN PEOPLE

- beg (for money) wasi (= 'demand'). steal, pickpocket (v.) squats. **rob** dz uadz ue. cheat phian-tha (< Ch. piàn + AUX). joke (verbally, v.) dz actci-s dze ('laugh' + instrumental nominalizer + 'say'). brag (v.) χtuχtu. argue tsən-tha (< Ch. zhēng + AUX). criticize phoiphan po (< Ch.  $p\bar{p}an + 'to do').$ ridicule sarcastically or in **disguise** suakhu pu (< Ch.  $w\bar{a}k\check{u}$  + 'to do'). **lie (v.)** pian $\chi$ u ctce (pian $\chi$ u = 'lie (n.)'). make a mistake de-tshi (< Ch. cuò). incite to contention day Rue. tease (vt.) dz actci-z ('to laugh' + causative suffix). provoke ze-tha (< Ch. rě + AUX). blame (vt.) kuai-tha (< Ch. guài + AUX). upbraid xe.
- scold, curse (v.) xe / susu.
- **use bad words** e<sup>1</sup>-kan-tsə (< Ch. èrgànzi).
- get scolded tuəptçi.
- quarrel z məmə<sup>1</sup>.
- act as peacemaker, persuade someone not to fight xse.
- intercede fia-tşu.
- advise tchuan-tha (< Ch. quàn + AUX).

promise (vt.)

Rn (= ,pe

give in to z an-tha (< Ch. rang + AUX).

- deal with negligently maq-maq ('top, above' + 'top, above'; = 'sloppy').
- conceal stua.
- assume falsely spata.
- offend people tetsui pə (< Ch. dézuì + 'to do').
- hinder, to get in the way miskue-m ('(other) person' + 'pull' + agentive nominalizer) / bəl-əz -mo-ки ('to do' + causative suffix + NEG + 'allow').
- **bully (vt.)** mag sala ('top, above' + DIR + 'look').
- compel, force (vt.) tchianphe  $p = (\langle Ch. qiangp\bar{o} + 'to do').$
- **keep for oneself** tsan-tha (< Ch. zhàn + AUX).
- wedge in; to crowd into the line tçha-tha (< Ch. chā + AUX).
- intercept, to stop (vt.) fie-qe.
- crowd (v.) tci-tha (< Ch. ji +AUX).
- tell tales of, to play trick on suan-tha (< Ch. suàn + AUX).
- fight (vt.) quə-quə (= reciprocal form of qua 'to hit').
- get beaten zə-dzi.
- chase away he-w.
- scram! he-xtse.
- call 'help' tə-sua-l (DIR + 'help' + 'come').
- 'don't move' tce-mexte (prohibitive prefix + 'move').
- consult dzidzi (the NP representing the person consulted takes the comitative particle -n.a).
- beg (for a favor) tchiu-tha (< Ch. qiú + AUX).

willing'). **imitate** su (= 'study, teach'). **depend on** khau-tha (< Ch. kào + AUX). help (vt.) sua. protect paufu pa (< Ch. bǎohù + 'to do'). rescue (vt.) tçiu-tha (< Ch. jiù + AUX). **beware of** i-tsi. look after tşauku pu (< Ch. zhàogù + 'to do'). attend (someone) tshixou pə (< Ch. cìhòu + 'to do'). requite (vt.) pauta pə (< Ch. bàodá + 'to do'). avenge a grievance pautshau pa (< Ch. bàochóu + 'to do'). **meet with** tse (= 'to look at, see'). meet (by chance) e-tsipe ~ etsepe. summon (vt.) do-soi (DIR + 'to call, yell'). send phai-tha (< Ch. pài + AUX). give command minn in pa (< Ch. mìnglìng + 'to do'). lead (vt.) ta-ctcu. cause (vt.) bəl-əz (use  $-z \sim -az$ suffix after verb, or if no verb, then 'to do' + causative suffix). wait for zulu. hasten, to urge tshui-tha (< Ch.  $c\overline{u}i + AUX).$ 

- give  $da-l \sim de-l$  (< DIR + le; cf. 2sg form: delen).
- decline (refuse) fie-qe-mo-su ('accept' + NEG +'willing').
- accept, seize and arrest fie-qe.
- exchange (vt.) ləla.

- take the place of taithi pə (< Ch. dàitì + 'to do'; usually use causative suffix on copula to express this meaning).
- compensate phei-tha (< Ch. péi + AUX).
- hand down fia-tshuan-tha (DIR + < Ch. chuán + AUX).
- select (as) staqa.
- **hold a meeting** z mu tsu ('meeting' + 'hold (meeting)').
- **meeting dismissed** z mu tsu da-s ('meeting' + 'hold (meeting)' + DIR + 'finish').
- sue kau-tha (< Ch. gào + AUX).
- search the person sou-tha (< Ch. sou + AUX).
- **detain** tçyn iu tu-pu (< Ch. jūliú + DIR + 'to do').
- release (from captivity) de-ci (DIR + 'release').
- flee du-fu (DIR + 'flee/run (< phu)'; possibly < PTB \*ploŋ).
- pursue dza.
- **murder** mi qəti ('person' + 'slaughter').
- overtake (in pursuit) ə-dza-k (DIR + 'pursue' + 'go').
- **use (vt.)** §ə-tha (< Ch. shǐ (使) + AUX).
- **waste (vt.)** χαχ<sub>2</sub> p<sub>2</sub> ('waste' + 'to do').
- **keep (vt.)** ha-§ (DIR + 'place').
- try (vt.) a-s ('one' + measure word for actions; no auxiliary verb for this meaning, simply add this measure to imply doing tentatively).
- prepare tşunpəi pə (< Ch. zhunbèi + 'to do').

put (things) away, hide (things) tə-şu. look for me<sup>1</sup>z. forget (something), leave behind, forget to take da-m ( < DIR + root).compare pi-tha (< Ch. bi + AUX). make up the proper amount tshou-tha (< Ch. còu + AUX). succeed he-the. fail he-me-the (DIR + NEG + 'succeed'). OK, acceptable fie-se. unable to sustain / resist ti-thama-l (< Ch. dǐ + AUX + NEG + 'able'). mark / make a sign qhuə. like, love (vt.) topu. love (a child) (vt.), favor to excess ge. spoil (a child) ge-tsu ('love' + 'child'). long for, want to (do something) ctcək lu ~ ctcaq lu ('heart' + 'come'). fascinated by, addicted to fiotopu (DIR + 'to like, love'). laugh (at) (v.), smile (v.) dz actc. anger (vt.) tə-khue-z (DIR + 'angry' + causative suffix). lose one's temper phitchi fa-tha ('temper (< Ch. piqi)' + < Ch.  $f\bar{a} + AUX$ ). weep, to cry zei. pity, piteous (vt.) ctci xqəs (`heart' + `pity').jealous, envy (vt.) qhu.

**dislike (vt.)** mo-topu (NEG + 'to like, love').

- hate (vt.) χən-tha (< Ch. hèn + AUX) / qhu (= be jealous of, to envy).
- tire of əkn i (= 'fatty' (calque from Chinese?)).
- fear (vt.), afraid (vi.), worried qu ('have been frightened' = do-qu (DIR + 'be afraid')).
- **opinion** jitcian (< Ch. yìjiàn).
- **decision, resolution** tşuji (< Ch. zhŭyì).
- intention jisə (< Ch. yìsī).
- **plan, device** tçiχuα (< Ch. jìhuà).
- know, be clear about, understand, r e m e m b e r dz uku le ('knowledge'(?) + 'exist (in a container)').
- comprehend  $\chi$ sa.
- become aware of, enlightened tcowu (< Ch. juéwù).
- **misunderstand** de-tsha (DIR + 'mistake').
- think about, worry, to put to heart z botcu.
- speculate, to guess tshai-tha (< Ch. cāi + AUX).
- fancy, imagine ho-yodzu.
- believe ctce.
- make an effort to remember tsequa.
- recognize, know (someone)  $s \vartheta(s)$ .
- recognize (on meeting someone, exchange chat) z mətsi pə.
- want tche ~ tchi.
- demand (vt.) wasi.
- **value, regard as rare** ciχan (< Ch. xīhǎn).
- **ought to, should** V-s ŋuə (verb + instrumental nominalizer + copula) / sze (auxiliary verb).

- **have to** V-s ημ<sub>φ</sub> (verb + instrumental nominalizer + copula).
- worthy of (doing), may do bəlji me-tchi ('to do' + exclusion particle + NEG + 'want'; = 'can do').
- willing (to), prefer Bu.
- not willing mo-ви (NEG + 'willing').
- dare xşu.
- capable of, know (how to) yzə. pretend spaqta pə / tsuaŋ-tha (<
- Ch. zhuāng + AUX).
- ability, capability pənsə (le) (< Ch. běnshì (+ 'to exist')).

# STATIVE VERBS (ADJECTIVES)

cold məpa. **cool** stu. hot, warm si. hot (to the touch), sultry, stuffy and hot dz idz i. stuffy məs tə-çi-ma-l ('air' + DIR + 'release' + NEG + 'able'). **hungry** fie-sue. thirsty (he)-cpi. full, satiated  $\chi_{\bar{\nu}} \sim t_{\bar{\nu}} - \chi_{\bar{\nu}}$ . fatty, oily (of food) əkn.i. drunk çi-q tə-qa ('liquor' + 'head' + DIR + 'go'). itchy dze. comfortable (of person) ctci:mi-q-ta-na-ke: ŋuə ('heart' + 'head' + locative postposition + 'good' + INDEF:CL + copula; = 'insidethe heart is a good one'). busy, urgent, pressing toin-tha (< Ch. jin 'tight' + AUX). leisurely, unimportant ma-tcintha (NEG + 'busy (< Ch.)' + AUX). tickle dzactci qhu ('laugh, smile' + 'carve'). frustrated bəl-squ ('to do' + 'difficult'). delicious je. it tastes bad me-j (NEG + 'delicious (< je)'). sweet tsha. sour tsue. **bitter** qha ~ qhaq (< PTB \*ka). **hot (peppery)**  $\chi z = (numb';$ used for both numb-type hotness and chili-type hotness).

astringent tsisti.

salty dzə. flavorless, insipid ma-zə (NEG + 'salty ( $\langle dz \vartheta$ )'). brittle, crunchy qhapqhap. soft, uncrisp, spongy, fluffy matsə. smell (vt.) cete. fragrant xu. fresh (of food) cincyan (< Ch. xīnxiān). smell bad, musty (of cereals), rotten (of meat, etc.), rank (smell of urine, fish) bəxtşi. **big** ba. **small, tiny** χtşα / çi. tall, high ti-wi (DIR + 'tall', but wi not used alone). low, short (of height) fie-gi (DIR + 'short', but gi not used alone). **long** dz ə (< PTB \*s-rin (?)). short (in length) watsi. thick (eg. thread) po. fine (eg. thread) bətsi. broad, wide la. narrow tshitshi. thick lie. thin khikhi. **deep** tsha. shallow ma-tsha (NEG + 'deep'). round pats / jyan-ti (< Ch. yuán de). **upright** ə-yl (DIR + 'roll, turn'; = 'turn/roll over'). turn over (the wrong side), **reversed** fia-yl (DIR + 'roll, turn'). upside down qa ta-tsu ('head' + DIR + 'stand, vertical'). slanted, inclined, sloping taqhua (DIR + 'slanted').

horizontal (n.) χuantchi (< Ch. héngzhe).

vertical tə-tsu.

- straight sta.
- steep xepi.
- crooked qawe. **level** phin-(tha) (< Ch. píng; with -tha is adjective, without -tha is noun).
- concave quətsa.
- convex tu-phuqu.
- **blurred** u-tcu-ma-l (DIR + 'see' + NEG + 'able').
- good-looking ə-l-na (DIR + 'look (< lə)' + 'good').
- ugly looking *ə*-l-ma-na (DIR + 'look (< lə)' + NEG + 'good').
- **giant** to- $\chi \mathfrak{p}^{I}$  (< Ch. dàhàn).
- skinny die-se-s (DIR + 'die' + 'appearance' (used for cursing out someone)).
- shabby, tattered garments baha (= 'poor, remote, out of the way').
- clumsy and bulky, bulging piese ('pig' + 'oil').
- **nauseating**, **unsightly** dowa-s ('vomit' + 'think about, want to').
- vexed leme mo-lu / ctci-kų mana ('spirit, energy' + NEG + 'come' / 'heart' + 'inside' + not' + 'good').
- **suitable** qhuat (= 'just right').
- **angry** tə-khue (DIR + 'angry').
- sad ctci-kų ma-na ('heart' + 'base' + NEG + 'good').
- grievous, sad ctci xqəs we ('heart' + 'pity' + 'exist').
- glad, happy ctci-kų na ('heart' + 'base' + 'good').
- self-satisfied qətsə-ma-l ('modest' + NEG + 'able').
- **detestable** mei (< me NEG + jə 'good (to eat)' (?)).

- terrible, frightening qu-s we ('be afraid' + instrumental nominalizer + 'exist'). bashful dz oxu. embarassed dz oyu-s we ('be
- bashful' + instrumental nominalizer + 'exist').
- lose face, be disgraced quaha me-we ('face' + NEG + 'exist').
- shameful dz oxu ma-xsa ('be bashful, ashamed' + NEG + 'know, understand').
- distressed ctci:mi zdz(i) ('heart' + 'be ill, be painful').
- **patience** ctci tse ('heart' + 'look at').
- peaceful, quiet hama (of people) / squap (of the surrounding environment).
- free from anxiety qu me-tchi ('be afraid' + NEG + 'want').
- grateful zahasa.
- difficult(y), tired squ ~  $\chi$ qu.
- red, pink cupu.
- yellow, orange color xas. **blue** lan-ti (< Ch. lán de).
- white  $phi_{\delta} \sim phi$ . black  $n_{i}ix \sim n_{i}iq$  (< PTB \*nak; the final is secondary).
- **green**  $\chi af-z au$  ( $\chi af = 'grass'$ ).
- grey phiaque.
- **colorful** lapa (= 'flower').
- loud sa.
- soft voice qəi xtşa ('sound' + 'small').
- **light (in weight)** yzu.

heavy dza.

- loose de-phas (DIR + 'loose', but phas not used alone).
- **tight**  $\Im$ - $\chi$ s (DIR + 'tight', but  $\chi$ s $\Im$ not used alone).
- cram in tightly sə-xtş-təi (DIR + 'cram' + 'very').

taut tə-xg-təi (DIR + 'tie' + 'very'). **dry** juku. wet (n.) matsa (takes the copula or pe 'become' to be predicative). **moistening** zə-z uen-tha (DIR + < Ch. rùn + AUX). soft matştşa. tender lon-tha (< Ch. nèn + AUX). hard, tough (of meat, rice) skuctcu (tu-skuctcu = 'become hard'). tough, old, spoiled, bug-eaten (of vegetables) ha-tsuqa (if fruit on a tree, then hatsuqa). scorched, burned (of rice) ctcap. raw xatsaq. done, ripe fia-m (DIR + 'done, ripe' < PTB \*s-min). cooked till tender fia-m-təi (DIR + 'done, ripe' + 'very'). thin (of liquid) than əş. thick (of liquid) be. sparse, not dense qha. dense tchi. **smooth** łała (cf. ła 'slippery'). slippery ła. wrinkled a-tua (of clothing) / phə-tuə (of skin). **scattered** cici (ci = 'release'). empty me-le (NEG + 'exist (in a container)'). full tə-sue. overflowing ha-xłe. hollow (of grain) zə-piaq (piaq < Ch. biǎn (?)). solid (of grain) sə-p. sharp tse. **dull** me-tse (NEG + 'sharp'). **pointed** tsaq.

**blunt** ma-tsaq (NEG + 'pointed'). new xsə. old ba. steady wen-tha (< Ch. wěn + AUX). unsteady stəstua. torn de-pi. chipped (of cup, etc.) o-qu dotshu ('one' + CL (mouth) + 'fall out'). broken da-se. fragmentary nin-ti (< Ch. líng de). orderly, regular, uniform, even khep. disorderly (of things), uneven luan (< Ch. luàn; with -tha is adjective, without -tha is noun). mildewed and spoiled (of wood) səptsuqa. strong, lasting zgue. **flimsy** ma-gu (NEG + 'strong, lasting (< z gue)'). good na. bad, not good enough, poor quality, ma-na (NEG + 'good') of passing/indifferent quality, plain, second-rate tsa:n-mana ('too' + NEG + 'good', = 'not too good'). rare (n.) ciyan (< Ch. xīhǎn; takes the copula or pe 'become' to be predicative). unusual (n.) citchi (< Ch.  $x\bar{1}q\hat{1}$ ; takes the copula or pe 'become' to be predicative). strange (n.) tchikuai (< Ch. qíguài; takes the copula or pe 'become' to be predicative).

difficult squ.

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easy ze.

- **knotty (problem) (n.)** mafan (< Ch. máfán; takes the copula or pe 'become' to be predicative).
- **rough (of road)** sei-ma-na ('walk' + NEG + 'good').
- **expensive, valuable** p h u l u ('valuable' + 'cost').
- **cheap, worthless** mo-fulu (NEG + 'expensive (< phulu)').
- worth, worthwhile χuasuan (< Ch. huāsuàn).
- **clean** kantsi (< Ch. gānjìng; although this is a loan word, it is used as an adjective in Qiang without an auxiliary verb or copula).

**dirty** ma-kantsi (NEG + 'clean').

early dza.

late sla.

- **quick, fast** łułu-(wa) / sei-dzə ('walk' + 'able') / khuai-thawa (< Ch. kuài + AUX + 'very').
- **slow** basta.
- accurate zuə-sta ('target' + 'accurate').
- **bustling** lauze (< Ch. nàorè; although this is a loan word, it is used as an adjective in Qiang without an auxiliary verb or copula).
- crowded with (people) tci-tha (< Ch. jǐ + AUX).
- remote, out of the way baha (= 'poor').
- **safe** qu-s me-we ('be afraid' + instrumental nominalizer + NEG + 'exist').
- **dangerous** qu-s we ('be afraid' + instrumental nominalizer + 'exist').

- **harmful** mei (< me NEG + jə 'good (to eat)' (?)).
- harmless, unimportant qu metchi ('be afraid' + NEG + 'want').
- advantageous bəl-əs je ('to do' + instrumental nominalizer + 'good (to eat)').
- gay and extravagant, luxurious kən-na ('very' + 'good').
- **fat (of people)** tə-pha / tshini we ('fat (n.)' + 'exist').
- fatty (of meat) tsha we ('fat' + 'exist').
- **lean** tsha me-we ('fat' + NEG + 'exist').
- thin (of people) basei.

strong bedi.

- weak fia-tsə (become weak).
- state of being well na-ji ŋuə ('good' + adverbial particle + copula).
- **famous** mintchi le (< Ch. míngqì + 'exist').

correct pe.

- wrong me-pe (NEG + 'correct').
- **poor** ma-qe (NEG + 'rich').
- rich qəqe.
- **lucky** lez we ('luck' + 'exist').
- unlucky lez me-wę ('luck' + NEG + 'exist').
- temper phitchi (< Ch. píqì).
- behavior, attitude thaitu (< Ch. tàidù).
- **bad-tempered, irritable** phitchi ma-na ('temper' < Ch. + NEG + 'good').
- **impatient** ctci:mi χsutu-wa ('heart' + 'jump' + 'very').
- fierce, courageous, brave χəntha (< Ch. hěn (狼) + AUX).
- trustworthy, honest pənfən (< Ch. běnfèn).

- **cunning** tçiau-tha (< Ch. jiǎo + AUX).
- **designing** jin-səkue (< Ch. yǐn + 'tail').
- **kind** ctci:mi na ('heart' + 'good').
- considerate ctci:mi sə ('heart' + 'exist').
- weak (of character) tshutcu mosku ('character' + NEG + 'hard (< skuctcu)').</pre>
- **bold, greedy for money** ctci:mi ba ('heart' + 'big').
- timid ctci:mi χtşa ('heart' + 'small').
- stubborn tshutçu şku ('character' + 'hard (< şkuçtçu)').
- **bold and aggressive** tshon-tha (< Ch. chōng + AUX).
- clever, smart tshimpe.
- **quick, smart** qə ła ('head' + 'slippery'; calque from Chinese huátóu 'slippery head').
- capable bəl-dzə ('to do' + 'able').
- stupid pən-tha (< Ch. bèn + AUX).
- **foolish, dull, stupid, ignorant (n. or v.)** χαραυ (< Ch. cǎobāo; can take kən 'very', e.g. kən χαραυ le: 'the very stupid person').
- **cute** topu-s we ('to like, love' + instrumental nominalizer + 'exist').
- **lively** χsutu-dz ('jump' + 'able').
- **good (of a child)** zəwa-xşuçtçu ('speech, words' + 'listen').

- naughty, mischievous z ə w a mo-xşuctcu ('speech, words' + NEG + 'listen').
- **spoiled (of child)** məq tə-ка ('top' + DIR + 'go').
- **irritating, annoying (n.)** tuptcim.
- proud tçaukau pə (< Ch. jiāoào + 'to do').
- modest qətsə.
- **generous** japə ba ('hand' + 'big').
- **niggardly, miserly** jαpə χtşa ('hand' + 'small').
- mad, out of one's mind tu-ви (= 'become mad'; DIR + 'curse, crazy').
- **unconscientious** məq-məq ('top' + 'top').
- **careful, conscientious** ctci tse ('heart' + 'see').
- **careless, headless** ctci me-tse ('heart' + NEG + 'see').
- **mean-spirited** dz uəş qhu ('teaching (jiàoxùn)' + 'hate').
- act in a blushing manner dz oχu (= 'be bashful, ashamed').
- **childish** tçymi-qəs we ('child' + 'form' + 'exist').
- **taciturn** mele tsan-dze-kə ma-p ('words' + 'too' + 'say' + thus + NEG + 'to do').
- long-winded, garrulous, talkative mele dze-dzə ('words' + 'say' + 'able').
- like to tell tales of others miwəsta-mi dze-kəpə ('person' + 'behind' + 'person' + 'say' + habitual aspect marker).
- jokeful dzactcis dze-dzə ('joke (< 'laugh' + instrumental nominalizer)' + 'say' + 'able').

- **diligent** bəl-dzə ('to do' + 'able').
- lazy sqə/lan-tha (< Ch. lǎn).
- **nervous** ctci:mi χsutu-wa ('heart' + 'jump' + 'very').
- in a hurry, hurried ataz (= 'quickly').
- **bewildered**, in a fluster χuantha (< Ch. huāng + AUX).
- slyly hama-n.i.
- quick łułu-wa ('fast' + 'very').
- sluggish bastə (= 'slow').
- **clumsy** japə mo-ви ('hand' + NEG + 'willing').
- skillful japə ви ('hand' + 'willing').

## TIME PHRASES

four seasons ts a q - s u > q ('spring/summer' + 'autumn/ winter'; traditionally the Qiang only recognized two seasons).

spring-summer tsaq.

autumn-winter suəq.

year pə.

this year tsə-p ('this' + 'year').

next year ein,i.

- **last year** nə-p (cf. 'yesterday'; p < pə 'year).
- year before last dzə-p (cf. 'day before yesterday'; p < pə 'year').
- **beginning of the year** a-pə-tç fio-lua: ('one' + 'year' + genitive marker + DIR + 'come' + PRS).
- end of the year a-pə-tç ho-tshu ('one' + 'year' + genitive marker + DIR + 'fall').
- all year round a-p ('one' + 'year').
- **month** c(a) (= 'moon').
- first lunar month tgə-c / a-c (both 'one' + 'moon/ month').
- this month tsa-c (('this' + 'one') + 'moon/month').
- **last month** qə:<sup>1</sup>-la-ç ('before' + DEF:one + 'moon/month').
- **next month** steke-la-c ('after' + DEF:one + 'moon/month').
- end of the month a-c fio-tshu ('one' + 'moon/month' + 'fall down (DIR + 'fall')').

first day of the lunar month tsutçu ('one' + 'beginning (< Ch. chū)'). day sə. today pə-s (s = 'day'). tomorrow təp-n.i. day after tomorrow sudzu-n.i. day after day after tomorrow dzusu-ni. yesterday nə-s (cf. 'last year'; s = 'day'). day before yesterday dz ə-s (cf. 'year before last'; s = 'day'). day before day before yesterday dz ə-dz ə-s ('day before yesterday' reduplicated). this morning pəsu-qua (pəsu (= pəs) 'today' + 'morning (< ətsqua)'). təpotsqua tomorrow morning ('tomorrow' + 'morning'). this evening pə-maha ('today' + 'evening'). tomorrow evening təp-maha ('tomorrow' + 'evening'). day after tomorrow evening sudzu-maha ('day after tomorrow' + 'evening'). yesterday evening nə(i)-maha ('yesterday' + 'evening'). day before yesterday evening dz əi-maha (cf. 'day before yesterday' + 'evening'). **daytime** ctcuxłu (ctcu < \*ctcə < PTB \*sni; u due to vowel harmony). nighttime gas. whole day  $\alpha$ -s ('one' + 'day'). from morning till night a-sə<sup>1</sup>wu ('one' + 'day' + 'all' (retroflex vowel on 'day' is part of 'all')). whole night e-jə<sup>1</sup>wu ('one' + 'night' + 'all' (retroflex

vowel on 'night' is part of 'all')).

- **dawn, daybreak** mu tu-su ('sky' + DIR + 'bright').
- sunrise mujuq-ə-tsu ('sun' + DIR + 'shine').
- morning ətsqua ~ otsuqua.
- **before noon** dza:-tçiku ('midday meal' + 'before').
- **noon** dza:-tcha-ʁa ('midday meal' + 'eat' + locative/ temporal particle).
- **afternoon** dza:-khui ('midday meal' + 'after').
- sunset fia-xtsəp (DIR + 'dark' (=
   'become dark')).
- evening maha.
- night je (< Ch. yè).
- midnight panji (< Ch. bànyè).
- every other day a-s-pe-n,i ('one' + 'day' + 'become' + adverbial particle).
- overnight e-je-pe-n,i ('one' + 'night (< Ch.)' + 'become' + adverbial particle).
- hour, o'clock tian (< Ch. diǎn).
- what day is today? (ask date)
  n,a-cə-tc-n,o-tcu ('how
  much' + 'moon, month' +
  genitive postposition + 'how
  much' + 'beginning (< Ch.
  chū)').</pre>
- what time is it? (ask time) n.atian-pe-ji-ŋua ('how much' + 'hour, o'clock (< Ch.)' + 'become' + CSM + Q).
- **week** ciŋtci (< Ch. xīngqī).

## LOCATION PHRASES

**place** z = p / z = p q (z = land, earth, field').

be at a place, existential verb, to have zi (animate referents only) / we (immovable referents) / le (location within a container) / sə (inanimate movable referents only) / xu (similar to sə but also takes nominalized clause).

- **not at (home)** me-zi (NEG + 'exist (animate referent)').
- face (to the east) a-l (DIR (inside/toward the mountain) + 'look'; use of directional prefix relative to position of village).
- face (to the south) sə-1 (DIR (downriver) + 'look'; use of directional prefix relative to position of village).
- face (to the north) nə-l (DIR (upriver) + 'look'; use of directional prefix relative to position of village).
- face (to the west) tə-l (DIR (up)
  + 'look'; use of directional
  prefix relative to position of
  village).
- **front** t¢i-qe:<sup>1</sup> ('most' + 'before, front').
- **central, middle** zegų ~ zekų. **back** steke.
- location, place where something is zi-s-ta / we-s-ta (both 'exist' + nominalizer + locative postposition).
- **inside** tçiqua / zaxua (deeper inside than tçiqua).
- outside sua-la ('outer side' + locative postposition).
- **above** məq-ta ('top' + locative postposition).

- **top (n.)** qə-s-ta ('head' + 'place (nominalizer + locative postposition)').
- **below** qəl-la ('below' + locative postposition).

underneath sqal.

- side, neighboring, next door, surrounding piena.
- **both sides** ji-xşe ('two' + 'side').
- around dz uku-ta.
- opposite the-xse ('that' + 'side').
- east mujuq-ha-lə-s-ta / musiha-lə-s-ta (both 'sun' + 'come out (DIR + 'come')' + nominalizer + locative postposition).
- west mujuq-ə-xɨ-s-ta / musi-əxɨ-s-ta (both 'sun' + 'go down (DIR + 'move')' + nominalizer + locative postposition).
- **south** khi-la locational noun, 'downriver').
- **north** n.i-la (locational noun, 'upriver').
- left (side) sua.
- right (side) na.
- **world** zmə-ş (the people of the world; zmə = 'people').
- home tçəu-la.
- everywhere, the whole floor / ground tcetci-la.
- **along (the road)** (gue:<sup>1</sup>)-ta / -wu ('road' + locative or ablative postposition).

far guaha.

near gue-n.i.

#### MOVEMENT

move mexłe.

- stop -γ (stop doing an activity) / -τε- (stop walking).
- start *экке*.
- **come** lu (imperfective) / la (perfective).
- go kə (unprefixed imperfective) / -вә prefixed imperfective or prospective (e.g. /daв/ 'go out') / -qa prefixed perfective (e.g. /fiaqa/ 'went down').
- ascend tə-ĸ (DIR + 'go').
- descend fia-k (DIR + 'go').
- enter, advance (v.) ə-ĸ (DIR + 'go').
- **exit** ha-к (DIR + 'go').
- return (v.) (come back) i-pə-l (DIR + 'arrive' + 'come').
- cross (v.), go around da-в (DIR + 'go').
- retreat (v.) ha-в (DIR + 'go') / he-thue (DIR + 'retreat (< Ch. tuì)').
- turn around ə-l (DIR + 'look').
- **turn a corner** zə-fie (DIR + 'turn').
- go around in a circle fie.
- surround itchye.
- **pace back and forth** zə-к da-к (DIR + 'go' + DIR + 'go').
- be (copula) nuə.
- resemble a-qəs we ('one' + 'form' + 'exist').
- **appear** ha-la (DIR + 'come').
- disappear me-zi-ji (NEG + 'exist' + change of state particle).
- lose (thing) do-yzu.
- change (v.) pian-tha (< Ch. bian + AUX); (changes of

state are often marked by the addition of a directional prefix rather than by use of this loan word).

#### QUANTIFIERS

- all (e-yle) wu (e-yle ('one' + plural marker) often appears as r-coloring on vowel of previous syllable + wu, e.g. sə<sup>1</sup>wu 'all day').
- every (mi<sup>1</sup>) wu (for people ('person' + 'all'; r-coloring is part of 'all')) / (as) maqa (for days, etc.).
- very long (in time) kən a-şu pe ('very' + 'one' + CL + 'become').
- whole (e-ze<sup>i</sup>) wu (('one' + CL
   (with r-coloring from 'all))
   + 'all').
- **half** dzue (e-dzue 'one' + 'half').
- **greater half** ba-le-dzue ('big' + DEF + 'half').
- **smaller half** χtşα-le-dzue ('small' + DEF + 'half').
- one and a half e-zi-n,a-e-dzue ('one' + CL + 'and' + 'one' + 'half').
- twice as much / many e-pei ('one' + < Ch. bèi).
- two times odd e-pei ma-χtşe ('one' + 'time (< Ch. bèi)' + NEG + 'stop').
- increase (v.) tə-wa (< tə-ba; DIR + 'big').
- count (v.) șiși.
- calculate, to count suəsuə (< Ch. suàn).
- add tcia-tha (< Ch.  $ji\bar{a}$  + AUX).
- **subtract** t¢ian-tha (< Ch. jiǎn + AUX).
- multiply sen-ji (< Ch. chéng).
- divide tşhu-ji (< Ch. chú).
- **zero** lin (< Ch. líng).

- one a / dz ə / tşi / tşuə (see §3.1.5 for the uses of these different forms).
- two jə/n.i (< PTB \*g-ni-s/k; n.i only used in ha-n.i 'twelve').
- **three** χsə / si (< PTB \*g-sum; si only used in hα-si 'thirteen').
- four yzə (< PTB \*b-lij ≤ \*bləj)
- five виа (< PTB \*l/b-ŋa; cf. 'fifteen').
- **six** χtşu (< PTB \*d-(k)-ruk).
- seven ctcə (< PTB \*s-nis).
- **eight** khe<sup>1</sup> (< PTB \*b-r-gjat × \*b-g-rjat.
- nine zguə (< PTB \*d-kəw × \*s-gəw).
- ten hotçu ~ hodzu.
- eleven ha-dz i ~ ha-tşi ('ten' + 'one').
- twelve ha-ni ~ ha-ni ('ten' + 'two').
- thirteen ha-si ~ ha-si ('ten' + 'three').
- fourteen ha-z ('ten' + 'four').
- fifteen ha-ŋu̥ə ('ten' + 'five'). sixteen ha-tsu ('ten' + 'six').
- seventeen ha- $c \sim ha-c$  ('ten' +
- 'seven').
- **eighteen** ha-khe<sup>1</sup> ~ ha-khe<sup>1</sup> ('ten' + 'eight').
- **nineteen** ha-gu ('ten' + 'nine').
- twenty ju-su ('two' + 'ten').
- twenty-one ju-su-tşi ('two' + 'ten' + 'one').
- **twenty-two** ju-su-jə ('two' + 'ten' + 'two').
- twenty-three ju-su-xsə ('two' + 'ten' + 'three').
- thirty xsu-su ('three' + 'ten').
- **forty** yz u-su ('four' + 'ten').
- **fifty** so-su ('five' + 'ten')
- **sixty** χtsu-su ('six' + 'ten')
- seventy ctcu-su ('seven' + 'ten')

- eighty khe-su ~ khe<sup>1</sup>-su ('eight' + 'ten')
- **ninety** zgu-su ('nine' + 'ten')
- **hundred** khe (e-khe 'one hundred'; < PTB \*r-gya).
- hundred and one e-khe-n,a-e: ('one' + 'hundred' + 'and' + '(one + classifier)').
- thousand stu (a-stu 'one thousand'; < Tibetan stun (?)).
- ten thousnd вuan (а-виап 'one ten-thousand'; < Ch. wàn).
- **ten odd** hodzu-ma-χtşe ('ten' + NEG + 'stop').
- **the first one** t¢i-qə<sup>1</sup>-le: ('most' + 'front' + DEF:CL).
- the last one tci-steke-le: ('most' + 'back' + DEF:CL).
- **champion** kuantçyn (< Ch. guànjūn).
- runner-up jatçyn (< Ch. yǎjūn).
- **numbering** χαuma (< Ch. hàomǎ).
- more or less, about, approximately a:n ~ fia:n (appears after numeral expression).
- **decrease** fiα-χtşa (= 'become small'; DIR + 'small').
- handful a-pa (< Ch. bǎ).
- **some (number)** a-ha ('one' + plural marker).
- several əizi (< 'one' + 'two' + CL).
- a little, some (quantity) a-za ~ a-zə (a = 'one').
- **a little while** a-i ('one' + 'time'). **alone** e-ze ('one' + CL).
- **time (one time)** §ə (α-§) / tau (< Sichuan dialect Chinese) / χui (α-χui 'one time'; < Ch. húi).

### PRONOUNS

- I/me (1st sg. pronoun) qa.
- you (thou) (2nd sg. pronoun) ?ũ.
- he, she, it (3rd sg. pronoun) the: (< the 'distal demonstrative pronoun' + lengthened vowel to represent the classifier) / qupu (used for close relations and as logophoric pronoun).
- **we/us (1st plural pronoun)** tcile (le < γle plural marker; no inclusive/exclusive distinction).
- we/us two (1st dual pronoun) tçizzi (1pl pronoun + 'two' + classifier).
- you (2nd pl. pronoun) ?i-le (le < yle plural marker).
- you two (2nd dual pronoun) ?izzi (2pl pronoun + 'two' + classifier).
- **they (3rd pl. pronoun)** them-le ~ themne (le < γle plural marker).
- they/them two (3rd dual pronoun) thizzi (3pl pronoun + 'two' + classifier).
- we all, all of us e-yle-wu ('one' + plural marker + 'all').
- self, emphatic and reflexive pronoun qa-qəi (1sg), tciltcile (1pl), ?ĩ-?ĩ: (2sg), il-ile (2pl), ni-ni ~ ni: (3sg), nilnile (3pl).
- individual(ly) nutcuku.
- other people mi (= 'person').
- other (things or people) nai.
- whoever s = (= who').
- **anything** iyi (used with negative verb).

**something** n iyi (used with positive verb; = 'what').

- 'all').

one by one e-ze e-ze ('one' + CL + 'one' + CL).

- possessive pronouns, mine qatc (1sg + genitive postposition).
- **yours (sg.)** ?ũ-tc (2sg + genitive postposition).
- **his, hers** the:-tc (3sg + genitive postposition).
- **ours** tçile-tç (1pl + genitive postposition).
- **yours (pl.)** ?ile-tc (2pl + genitive postposition).
- **theirs** themle-tc (3pl + genitive postposition).
- this tse.
- that the.
- **these** tsa-ha ('this' + 'one' + plural marker).
- those tha-ha ('that' + 'one' + plural marker).
- here tsa / tsakua (adding kua implies larger area than tsa alone) / tsu (smaller area than tsa).
- there tha / thakua (adding kua implies larger area than tha alone) / thu (smaller area than tha).
- this side tse-xşe ('this' + 'side').
- that side the-xse ('that' + 'side').
- this much, in this way tsei ~ tsəi (tse 'this' + adverbial marker (< ji)).

- that much, in that way thei ~ thəi ('that' + adverbial marker (< ji)).
- who? s a / s a = 0.

what? n iyi.

- which one? n iyi-le: (le = DEF:CL).
- where? tca-la ~ tca: ('where' + locative postposition (or lengthened vowel representing the postposition)).
- which side? n.iyi-la:-kua ('what' + DEF:one + 'side').
- **when?** n,iyi-lai ('what' + DEF + a-i 'one' + 'time') / tcho:.
- **how (to do?) -manner-** n.i-ke: (WH-INDEF:CL).
- **how (in what way or form)** η,iqəs (WH + 'form'; this is the 'how' of pe<sup>1</sup>sen η,iqəs we [body how have] 'how is your health?').
- **why?** n<sub>i</sub>yi- $\chi$ uan<sub>i</sub> ('what' + cause marker).
- **how (good!) -degree-** wa (= 'very'; postverbal adverbial).
- how much / how many  $\eta_a$ -wu ~  $\eta_a$ -we (WH + 'many').
- how long (in time) n.i-kai (WH + INDEF + a-i 'one' + 'time').

# ADVERBS AND PARTICLES

also lə.

- **also, in addition** jə (postverbal particle).
- **all** (e-yle)-wu (people) / ahe<sup>1</sup>-wu (objects).
- **again** xsə (= 'new').
- **additionally** nai (= 'other').
- mutually (mutually help each
   other) e:-wu e:-ta ('one' +

agentive postposition + 'one' + dative postposition). individually, separately nutçuku. only ma-ŋup-ji (used after noun; NEG + copula + exception marker). merely, scarcely, barely tci. all together utşuqu. almost a-zə tça-tşha. **previous** qe:<sup>1</sup> (= 'front, before'). **next** steke (= 'back, after'). **temporarily**  $\alpha$ -zə (= 'a little'). **now** tsai ('this (< tse)' + 'one time (< a-i)'). that time thai ('that (< the)' + 'one time (< a-i)'). in the future steke-n,i ('back' + adverbial particle). (ha)-tsəi-nike (INTlater this:ADV-after). first (tci)-qe:<sup>1</sup> ('most' + 'front, before'). beforehand tci-qe:1. start early a-zə dz a-tc ('a little' + 'early' + genitive postposition). continue tca-V. finish (v.) da-s. quickly, immediately ataz / ata-ni. often, always, usually ictcimaqa ('together' + 'every'). then and only then tci (postposition used with negative verb to achieve this meaning). **already**  $-ji \sim -jy$  (CSM). recently tsu-nan-tci. just now, just a while ago patsa-ni. formerly de: -lotsn-ra. from childhood tcaxtsəstə-wu.

- just right, in the nick of time, exactly qhuat.
- too late me-zde-ji (NEG-'enough time'-CSM).
- still, as before, more tça ~ tçe ~ tçə ~ tçi (preverbal adverb).
- very, rather, pretty, quite w a
   (postverbal adverb; used
   mostly with stative verbs) /
   ken ~ gen; (preverbal
   adverb, has wider use than
   wa.).
- **most** tçi (verbal prefix).
- too (adj.), excessively t s a n (placed before adj.) / -s.
- **slightly, somewhat** a-zə (= 'a little'; 'one' + CL).
- progressive aspect, 'he is eating' root form of verb: the: tchə [3sg eat].
- perfective aspect, 'have you eaten?' prefix+V (+ ji) (ji = change of state marker): ?ŭ stucha sə-tch-ji-n-a? [2sg food DIR-eat-ASP-2sg-Q].
- **experiential aspect** dze (post-verbal auxiliary verb).
- inchoative aspect use directional prefix or change of state marker /ji/).
- continuative aspect tca+V.
- instantative aspect, 'as soon as (he eats, he vomits)' .....n.ike.....pə.
- additive, 'V some more!' a z ə ətçi V.
- really and truly satchi.
- terminative, 'finish (eating the rice)' V-da-s.
- partitive, '(ate two apples) out of (five)' N-ва (= locative postposition).
- possibly, perhaps V-m la-hannuə (verb + agentive nomi-

nalizer + DEF:one + 'kind' + copula).

- **largely** V-m ton ŋuə (verb + agentive nominalizer + appearance + copula).
- not (e.g. it is not good) ma- ~ me- ~ mə- ~ mu- (verbal prefix).
- in unison, together itci ~ ictci.
- have not (e.g. he has no money) ma-ş (N E G + 'exist (inanimate object)').
- not yet (e.g. he has not yet come) mə-tçi-V (NEG + 'still, yet').
- negative imperative, prohibitive tca-V.
- need not (eg. you need not cry) V-me-tchi (NEG + 'want').
- cannot (e.g. I cannot see) Vma-la (NEG + 'able (< dz,ə)').
- **possessive marker (eg. my book)** tc(ə) (genitive postposition).
- comparative degree marker (eg. you are taller than him) s(a)(used in following structure: NP1 + NP2-s(a) + adj.).
- empty-handed japə-xşuçu ('hand' + 'empty').
- face to face utcu-s-ta ('to see' + instrumental nominalizer + locative postposition).
- as...as, same as (eg. you are as tall as he is) NP1 + n,a + NP2 aqəs + adj.
- degree complement marker (eg. he runs very fast) V-dz ə wa ('able' + 'very').
- secretly hama-n.i.
- **seemingly** qes-we ('form' + 'exist').

- agentive marker (eg. he was hit by his brother) wu (same postposition as used for instrumental and ablative meanings).
- instrumental marker (eg. to cut with a pair of scissors) wu (same postposition as used for agentive and ablative meanings).
- side, inside, (locational particle) kua (used in combination with demonstrative pronouns, e.g. tsakua 'here'; also seems to be morpheme aside from 'heart' in ctciku na 'happy' [heart-in good]).
- **from** wu (ablative postposition; same form as agentive and instrumental postposition).
- horizontally xuantchi (< Ch.).
- in place of (eg. do it for him) yuani / -tc.
- vertically tutsu ji.
- if tu / ta / sə (all clause-final linkers).
- according to my view ... qa itsi n ike nua sa (1sg look LNK COP:1sg LNK).
- except for ma-ŋu̥ə tçi (NEG-COP ADV).
- when (eg. when I came) вzа-ва (time-LOC / lai (< DEF + 'one' + 'time').
- **before (eg. before I came)** mo tcu + V + tc.
- after (eg. after I came) V-n ike (marks the action in the following clause as occuring after the action in the clause where n ike appears).
- since (eg. since you were born) V-n.ike (= 'after').

- just before (eg. just before he left) sza-sa.
- **cause, reason for, because** wu / χuani (postpositions used after clause representing the cause).
- for the sake of (eg. for the sake of him) χuα-η i (used after an NP).
- since (eg. since you don't like
   it) tu (used clause-finally).
- unless ma-ŋu̥ə tu (NEG + COP + 'if').
- although ha-ŋu̥ə-lu (DIR + COP + 'come').
- **and** n.a.
- even, including (eg. even he doesn't want to go) lə (= 'also').
- **both...and** la...la (= 'also').
- at the same time, while..., as... (eg. he eats while he runs) e xse...e xse.
- at one time ... at another time (eg. at one time he says he is coming at another time he says he is not coming), sometimes ... sometimes ... (eg. sometimes he is naughty, sometimes he is good) ai nuan...ai ('one time' TOP ... 'one time').
- not only...but also metchi...tca...
- either ... or ... ... ŋuaŋ.i ... ŋuaŋ.i (... TOP ... TOP).
- either...or (interrogative) (eg. are you eating rice or eating noodles?) ... n-a ... n-a? (... 2sg-Q ... 2sg-Q).
- the ... the (eg. the older he grows the smarter he becomes) a zə wu a zə.

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fish 338 fish (with a rod) 338 fish scale 338 fish spawn 338 fishing hook 338 fishing net 338 fishing rod 338 fist 359 five 383 flame 334 flat-nosed 358 flavorless, insipid 374 flax 339 flay, peel (vt.) 361 flea 338 flee 372 flimsy 376 flint 350 float (vi.) 333 flock 334 flood (n.) 333 flood (vi.) 333 flour 342 flour sieve 341 flow (vi., of water) 333 flow like a wave (vi.) 333 flower (n.) 339 flowers falling/wilting 339 flute 356 fly (vi.) 335 fly, 337 foam (vi.) 333 foam, froth (n.) 333 fog, mist 331 fold (vt.) 361 fold up 349 food 341 food, provision 341 food-turner 343 foolish 378 foot 360 foot (measure) 352 foot of a hill 332

for the sake of (eg. for the sake of him) 388 forearm 359 forehead 358 foreign woolen cloth 345 foreigner 368 forest 339 forge (thing) out of iron 369 forget (something) 372 forked road 353 formerly 386 forty 383 four 383 four seasons 379 fourteen 383 fox 335 fox, wildcat 335 fragmentary 376 fragrant 374 freckles 359 free from anxiety 375 freeze (vi.) 333 fresh (of food) 374 fried bread-stick 342 friend 367 fritillary (Fritillaria thunbergii) bulb 340 frog (black) 338 frog (green) 338 from 387 from childhood 386 from morning till night 380 front 381 frost 332 fruit 340 frustrated 374 fry in fat or oil 344 frying pan 343 full 376 full, satiated 374 fungus, mushroom 340 fur 334, 346 fur garment 346 fur on the tongue 358

furniture 349 gall bladder 359 garden 341 garlic 340 garrulous, talk-ative 378 gasoline 333 gather night soil 341 gather together 361 gay and extravagant, luxurious 377 gaze fixedly or fiercely 360 generous 378 get a splinter 365 get beaten 371 get demoted 351 get dusty (vi.) 333 get promoted 351 get scolded 370 get up 362 get well 364 get wet (from the rain) 331 get wounded 365 ghost, spirit 355 giant 375 gift, present 356 ginger 340 girl 368 give 371 give birth 360 give birth i-°i (DIR + 'release') 364 give birth to the young (of animals) 334 give command 371 give in to 371 gizzard 335 glad 375 glue (n.) 354 glue (vi.) 354 gluten of wheat 339 glutinous millet 339 glutinous rice 339 gnat 337 gnaw at a bone 360

go 382 go around 382 go around in a circle 382 go home 353 go into town 352 goat (female) 336 goat (male) 336 god 355 gold 333 gong 357 good 376 good (of a child) 378 good-looking 375 goose 337 gorge 333 gossip 354 gourd used for a ladle 344 graft (vt.) 341 grain stalk rack 341 grains 339 grandchild 367 grape 340 grass 339 grass jelly 342 grass mushroom 340 grassshopper 338 grateful 375 grave 355 great-grandfather 366 great-grandmother 366 great-grandson 367 greater half 383 greedy for money 378 green 375 grey 375 grievous, sad 375 grind (vt.) 341 grind, rub fine (vt.) 341 grindstone 349 groom 355 ground 332 ground floor 347 grow (vi.) 339 grow callous skin 357

grow into a scar 365 grow up (vi.) 364 Guali Village 353 guard 370 guard (vt.) 366 guest 356 guide (n.) 353 gums (of teeth) 358 gun 336, 366 gunpowder 350 haggle over prices 351 hail 332 hail (v., to say hello) 356 hail (vi.) 332 hair whorl 357 half 383 half-cooked 344 half-grown pig 336 halfway up a mountain 332 hammer (n.) 350 hammer (vt.) 350 Han (name of ethnic group) 369 Han language 369 Han person (common derogatory term, literally 'rotten Han person') 369 hand 359 hand bucket 350 hand down 372 handful 384 handkerchief 346 handle 349 handspan (thumb to curled forefinger) 352 handspan (thumb to forefinger) 352 handspan (thumb to middle finger) 352 hang (a mosquito net) 349 hang (clothes) 346 hang (vt.) (on grain stalk rack) 341 happy 375

hard 376 hard secretion from the nose 358 harelipped person 368 harmful 377 harmless 377 harvest (vt.) 341 hasten, to urge 371 hat 346 hatch (come out of egg) 337 hatch (sit on eggs) 337 hate (vt.) 373 have a haircut (female) 363 have a haircut (male) 363 have a holiday 353 have a running nose 358 have a stuffy nose 364 have a sty 358 have asthma 365 have cholera 365 have cramps 365 have decayed teeth 364 have diarrhea 365 have dysentery, diarrhea 365 have fever 365 have goose flesh 365 have headache 364 have indigestion 365 have leprosy 365 have lice 365 have maggots 364 have nocturnal emissions 359 have nosebleed 365 have not (e.g. he has no money) 387 have piles (hemorrhoid) 365 have pockmarked face 365 have prickly heat 365 have sores 365 have stomachache 365 have the itch, scabbies 365 have the measles 365 have the mumps 364 have to 373

have tuberculosis 365 have underarm odor 365 hawk 335 he, she, it (3rd sg. pronoun) 384 head 357 head hair 357 head scarf 346 head wrapping 346 heal disease 365 heal, close (of wound) 365 hear 360 heart 359 heart disease 364 heat up a pan 344 heavy 375 heel 360 help (vt.) 371 hemp 339 hemp seed 340 hen (before or after laying eggs) 337 herb, medicine 340 herd 334 herd together 334 herd, shepherd (v.) °t°y 369 here 385 Hexi Village 353 hide 334, 363 hide (things) 372 high 374 highland barley 340 hill 332 hill without vegetation 332 hinder, to get in the way 371 hire, to employ 369 his, hers 385 hit 361 hit a drum 357 hoarse 364 hoe (n.) 350 hoe (vt.) 350 hold a funeral procession 355 hold a meeting 372 hold firmly 361

hold in the mouth 360 hold up in both hands 361 hold with the hand 361 hole 333 hollow (of grain) 376 home 381 honey 337 honeycomb, beehive 337 hoof 334 hook (n.) 350 hook (vt.) 350 horizontal (n.) 374 horizontally 387 horn 334 hornet 337 horse 336 horse dung 337 horse feed 337 horsebean 340 hospital 366 host/master 356 hot 374 hot (peppery) 374 hot (to the touch) 374 hot water bottle 344 hour 380 house 347 household servant 370 how (good!) -degree- 385 how (in what way or form) 385 how (to do?) -manner- 385 how long (in time) 385 how much (asking for price) 351 how much / how many 385 howl (as wolf) 334 hug (v.) 362 Hui (name of ethnic group 369 human nature, friendliness 355 humpbacked 368 hundred 384 hundred and one 384 hungry 374 hunt 335

hunter 369 hunting dog 337 husband 367 husband's or wife's mother (address and quoting term) 367 hyacinth bean/lentil 340 hysterical 365 I/me (1st sg. pronoun) 384 ice 333 if 387 ill 364 illiterate 354 illness 364 imitate 371 immediately 386 impatient 377 in a hurry, hurried 379 in place of (eg. do it for him) 387 in that way 385 in the future 386 in this way 385 in unison, together 387 in-group 368 incense 355 incense burner 355 inch 352 inchoative aspect 386 incisors, front teeth 358 incite to contention 370 inclined, sloping 374 increase (v.) 383 individual(ly) 384 individually 386 infect 364 infuse tea 344 ingredients 342 ink (fluid) 354 inn (hostel) 351 insect 337 insect which eats wood or bamboo 338 inside 381

instantative aspect, 'as soon as (he eats, he vomits)' 386 instep 360 instrumental marker (eg. to cut with a pair of scissors) 387 intention 373 inter, to bury 355 intercede 370 intercept, to stop (vt.) 371 interest 352 intestinal worm 338 intestines 359 intimate friend 367 invite guests to give a party 356 iron 333 irrigate 341 irritable 377 irritating, annoying (n.) 378 it sells well 351 it tastes bad 374 itchy 374 ivory 351 jackal 334 jail keeper 370 jealous, envy (vt.) 372 joke (verbally, v.) 370 jokeful 378 jujube 340 jump 363 junior generation 367 just a while ago 386 just before (eg. just before he left) 388 just now 386 just right, in the nick of time 386 Kawo Village 353 keep (vt.) 372 keep company 356 keep for oneself 371 kennel 347 kerosene 333 key 348 kick 362

kick (as a horse), kick back 362 kick off coverings 362 kid 336 kidney 342 kidneys 359 kill 336 kiln 351 kind 378 kindling (for a fire) 343 kiss (vt.) 360 kitchen 348 kitchen range 343 knead (dough) 344 kneecap 360 kneel 362 knife 349 knit (vt.) 345 knitting needle 345 knock at the door 348 knotty (problem) (n.) 377 know 373 knuckles 359 lacquer 350 ladder (to the roof) 348 ladle 344 ladle (vt., water) 362 lake 333 lamb 336 lame 368 lame person 368 laminaria, kelp 340 lamp 349 land 332 land otter 335 landowner 369 landslide 332 language 354 lard 342 large earthenware jar without handle, shaped like an upsidedown pear 345 large intestine 359 large open-mouthed jar 344

large shallow basket (worn on back) 343 largely 387 last month 379 last year 379 late 377 later 386 laugh (at) (v.) 372 lay eggs 337 lay on a pillow 349 lay the foundation of house 348 lazy 379 lead (vt.) 371 lead cooking pan 343 leaf 339 leak (v.) 349 lean 377 lean against 362 lean meat 342 leather 346 leave behind, forget to take 372 leech 338 left (side) 381 left-hand 359 leftover 342 leg 360 leg wrappings (leggings) 346 leisurely 374 lend (money) 352 leopard 334 let loose of the hand 361 letter 354 lettuce 340 level 375 level up (vt.) 334 Li County (Xue City) 353 lick with tip of tongue 360 lid for cooking pan 343 lie (v.) 370 lie down 362 lie flat on the stomach 362 life 364 lift open (a lid) 362 light 331

light (in weight) 375 light a fire 343 light a match 350 lightning (n.) 332 lightning (vi.) 332 like 372 like to tell tales of others 378 lime 348 limp (n.) 362 line up, queue up 362 lines of the palm 359 lion 334 lips 358 liquid medicine 366 liquor 343 liquor (made by Chinese) 343 literate 354 little finger 359 lively 378 liver 359 livestock 336 living, to be alive 364 location, place where something is 381 lock (n.) 348 lock (vt.) 348 loess 332 long 374 long boots 346 long for 372 long white rice 339 long-winded 378 Longba Village 353 look (vt.) 360 look after 371 look for 372 look in a mirror 349 look sideways 360 loom 345 loose 375 lose 357 lose (thing) 382 lose face, be disgraced 375 lose money in business 351

lose one's milk teeth 358 lose one's temper 372 loud 375 louse 338 love (a child) (vt.) 372 love (vt.) 372 low 374 lower leg 360 lucky 377 luggage 353 Luhua Village 353 lumber 348 lunar eclipse 331 lunch 341 lungs 359 Luoda Village 353 mace, 1/10 tael 352 mad person 369 mad, out of one's mind 378 maggot 337 magpie 335 mail a letter 354 make a button hole 345 make a decoction 366 make a fire 343 make a knot 346 make a mistake 370 make a quotation or offer 351 make a visit (to friends) 356 make an effort to remember 373 make clothes 345 make friends 356 make the bed 349 make up (v.) 363 make up a prescription 365 make up the proper amount 372 male 367 manger 347 Mao County 353 mare 337 mark / make a sign 372 married man 367 married relationships 366 married woman 368

marrow 357 mason 370 massage the back by pounding 362 master 369 master of a trade 370 mat 349 Matang Village 353 matches 350 maternal grandfather (address and quoting term) 366 matter 349 mattress 349 mattress made of rice-stalks 349 may do 373 meal (CL) 341 mean-spirited 378 measure (cloth) 352 measure (rice) 352 measure of 10.8 feet 352 meat 342 medicinal plaster 366 medicine 365 meet 363 meet (by chance) 371 meet with 371 meeting dismissed 372 melon seed 342 melt (of snow) 332 meow (vi.) 337 merchant 370 merely 386 message (oral) 354 metamorphosis 337 meteor / falling star 331 method, way 349 middle 381 middle finger 359 midnight 380 mildew, mold 333 mildewed and spoiled (of wood) 376 military officer 370 milk 343

mill (n.) 341 mill house 348 mire 332 mirror 349 mischievous 378 misunderstand 373 mix 344 mix (dough) 344 moan (v.) 364 modest 378 moistening 376 mole 335, 357 monastery 355 money 352 monk 370 monkey 335 month 379 moon 331 moonlight 331 more 386 more or less 384 morning 380 morning glory 339 mortgage (vt.) 352 mosquito 337 mosquito bite (n.) 338 moss 339 most 386 moth 337 mother (address term) 366 mother (quoting term) 366 mother's brother 367 mother's brother's wife 367 mother's sister 367 mother's sister's husband 367 moult (vi.) 335 mound 332 mountain 332 mountain goat 335, 336 mourning apparel 346 mouse 335 mouth 358 move 382 move (house) 347

move or slip away or to one side (v.) 363 movies 357 mow / cut grass (vt.) 341 mucus from the nose 358 mud 332 muddy 333 multiply 383 murder 372 music 356 musk, river deer, roedeer 335 mustache 358 mutton 342 mutually (mutually help each other) 386 Muyu / Moyu Village 353 nail (n.) 350 nail (vt.) 350 naked 346 name (n.) 366 narrow 374 naughty 378 nauseating 364 nauseating, unsightly 375 navel 359 near 381 neck 359 necklace 346 need not (eg. you need not cry) 387 needle 345 negative imperative 387 neighbor 367 neighboring, next door 381 nervous 379 nervous, palpitating heart 364 nest 334 net 351 new 376 newspaper 354 next 386 next month 379 next year 379 nice day 332

niggardly, miserly 378 night 380 night falls (vi.) 331 nighttime 380 nine 383 nineteen 383 ninety 384 nipple 359 nit 338 noise 360 noodle(s) 342 noon 380 noon meal 341 north 381 north wind 332 nose 358 nose ring of cow 336 nostril 358 not (e.g. it is not good) 387 not at (home) 381 not feel well 364 not good enough 376 not only...but also 388 not willing 373 not yet (e.g. he has not yet come) 387 now 386 numbering 384 oats 340 obscure, dark 331 observe the New Year 355 of passing/indifferent quality 376 of the same generation 367 offend people 371 officer 369 o'clock 380 often 386 oil 342 ointment 366 OK, acceptable 372 old 376 old man 368 old of age 364

old woman 368 on fire, to catch fire (vi.) 333 one 383 one and a half 383 one by one 385 one-eyed person 368 onion 340 only 386 open a door 348 open out, separate 361 open stall (n.) 351 open the eyes 360 open the mouth 360 open the mouth a slit 360 opening of the mouth 358 opinion 373 opposite 381 orange color 375 orderly 376 orphan 368 other (things or people) 384 other people 384 otter 335 ought to, should 373 ounce 352 ours 385 outside 381 outsider 368 overflowing 376 overnight 380 overtake (in pursuit) 372 owe (money) 352 owl 335 ox 336 pace back and forth 382 pack (luggage) 353 pagoda 355 pail 350 pain(ful) 364 paint, spread on (vt.) 348 palm 359 pan for washing face 363 pancreas 359 pant (v.) 357

paper 354 paper money 352 parents 366 parrot 335 part from 364 partitive, '(ate two apples) out of (five)' 386 pass by a place 353 pass on a message 354 paste 354 paste up 354 pastry 342 pat (on the shoulder) 362 pat (on the table) 362 patch (vt.) 345 paternal and maternal grandmother (address and quoting term) 366 paternal grandfather (address term) 366 paternal grandfather (quoting term) 366 paternal uncles 367 path 352 patience 375 pawnshop 351 pay tax 352 pea 340 pea/bean shoots/sprouts 340 peaceful 375 peak 332 peanut 340 pear 340 pebble 332 peck (v.) 335 peck, a dry measure (316 c. in.) 352 peel (vt.) 341, 349 peel with a peeler 341 pen, writing brush 354 penis (baby term) 359 penis (common term) 359 pepper 340

perfective aspect, 'have you eaten?' 386 person from another province 368 person who stutters 368 person who wears glasses 368 person with missing front teeth 368 person with pockmarks 368 person, human being 368 persuade someone not to fight 370 petals of a flower 339 pheasant 335 phlegm 358 pianniu 336 pick 341 pick at, scrape (e.g. the nose) 362 pick up 361 pick up with chopsticks 344 pickpocket (n.) 370 pickpocket (v.) 370 picture 349 pierce (vt.) 349 pierce the ear lobe 346 pierce the nose of a cow 336 pierce with a fork 351 pig 336 pig (male) 336 pig feed 336 pig tender 369 pigeon 335 pig's bristles 336 pig's feet 342 pigsty, hogpen 347 pigtail (not tied with hemp) 363 pigtail (tied with hemp) 363 pile up 361 pile up a wall 348 pill 366 pillar 348 pillow 349 pincer (vt.) 350

pincers 350 pinch with the fingers 361 pine cone 339 pine tree 339 pink 375 pint, 1/10 peck 352 pity, piteous (vt.) 372 place 380 plain, second-rate 376 plait the hair (vt.) 363 plan, device 373 plane (n.) 350 plane (vt.) 350 plant (vt.) 341 plant a field 341 platform, level area 348 play 356 play ball 356 play card game 356 play hide and seek 356 play jacks, dice game 356 play the flute 356 play the shuttlecock 356 plow (a field) 341 plow (n.) 341 plow-share 341 pocket 346 point (v.) 361 point of the foot 360 pointed 376 poison 366 poke (vt.) 362 polish (vt.) 349 pollen 339 pond 333 poor 377 poor people 369 poor quality 376 pop (of oil, etc.) 344 porcupine 335 pork 342 possessive marker (eg. my book) 387 possessive pronouns, mine 385

possibly, perhaps 387 potato 340 pound (garlic) 344 pound, hit 341 pound, ram 362 pound, tap, strike, rap on (the head) 362 pour (tea) 344 pour over 344 powder 333 prefer 373 pregnant 360 pregnant woman 368 prepare 372 press down 361 press out oil 342 pretend 373 previous 386 price 352 prick (vt.) 349 printed cotton 345 progressive aspect, 'he is eating' 386 prohibitive 387 promise (vt.) 371 prop up, stretch out 362 prostrate and knock head on ground 362 protect 371 protruding teeth 358 proud 378 provoke 370 prune 340 pry open 362 puddle 333 pull 361 pull at (a string) 361 pull out 361 pull out, take out (from pocket) 362 pulse of the wrist 359 pumpkin 340 purse the lips 360 pursue 372

pus 357 push 361 put (things) away 372 put down rudely 361 put in (ingredients) 344 put on clothesline 346 put on credit 351 put the dead into the coffin 355 put up an umbrella 347 put, place in/on 361 Qiang (name of ethnic group) 369 Qiang Festival (held in Autumn 355 Qiang language 369 quack (vi.) 337 quarrel 370 quick 377, 379 quick, smart 378 quickly 386 quiet 375 quilt 349 quite 386 rabbit 335 rabbit (male) 335 railing 348 rain (n.) 331 rain (vi.) 331 rainbow 331 raindrop 331 rainy day 332 raise (children) 364 raise (vt.) 361 raise a blister 357 raise by putting something under 361 raise the hand 361 raise the head 360 raise with the hands 361 rank (smell of urine, fish) 374 rape seed plant 340 rare (n.) 376 rather, pretty 386 ravine 332

raw 376 reach destination 353 read a book 354 read aloud 354 read newspaper 354 really and truly 386 rear (vt.), breed (vt.) 336 receive (visitor) 356 recently 386 recite lessons from memory 354 recognize (on meeting someone, exchange chat) 373 recognize, know (someone) 373 record accounts 351 red 375 red bayberry 340 red-spotted lizard 338 regard as 366 regular, uniform, even 376 relatives 366 release (from captivity) 372 remarry (of woman) 355 remember 373 remote, out of the way 377 remove feathers 337 remove fur 336 remove teeth 364 render fat 344 repair 351 requite (vt.) 371 rescue (vt.) 371 resemble 382 resin, colophony 339 respond verbally 354 rest 364 retreat (v.) 382 return (v.) (come back) 382 return a borrowed object or money 352 return a debt 352 return change (from purchace) 352 rGyalrong (Jiarong 369 rhubarb 340

ribs 360 rice (in field or hulled) 339 rice gruel, congee 341 rice husk 339 rice ladle 344 rice shoots, sprouting grain 339 rice water 341 riceworm 337 rich 377 rich people 369 ride (a bicycle) 353 ride (a horse) 337 ride in a car 353 ridge of nose 358 ridicule sarcastically or in disguise 370 right (side) 381 right-hand 359 ring 347 rinse one's mouth 363 rip, tear (vt.) 361 rise (of the sun) 331 rise (of the tide) 333 rise (vi., of bread) 344 river 333 river valley 333 river-bed 333 road 352 roar (as lion) 334 roast 344 roast in hot ashes 344 roast pork with skin 342 rob 370 rock 332 roedeer 335 roedeer (female) 335 roll (v.) 350 roll into a ball with the hands 344 roll up 362 Ronghong Village 353 roof 348 roof (vt.) 348 room 347

root 339 root (vt., of pigs) 336 root of the tongue 358 rope (n.) 350 ropes, cordage 350 rosy clouds, rosy sunset 331 rough (of road) 377 round 374 round dumpling 341 rub 361 rub between the hands 361 rub ointment 366 rub on (oil) 361 rub, massage 361 rummage (vt.) 362 run 362 run against 363 runner-up 384 rush on 363 rust 333 rust (vi.) 333 sacrifice (to the gods) 355 sad 375 saddle 353 safe 377 salary 369 saliva 358 salt 342 salty 374 sand 332 saw (n.) 350 saw (vt.) 350 sawdust 351 say 354 scald oneself 365 scale 352 scarcely, barely 386 scarf 346 scattered 376 scissors 349 scold 370 scoop from one container to another 362 scorched, burned (of rice) 376

scour a pan 344 scram! 371 scrape (vt.) 349 scratch 361 scratch for feed (chicken) 337 screw (n.) 350 screw (v.) 361 screw in (a screw) 350 screwdriver 350 sea 333 search the person 372 second floor of house 347 secretion in the eye 358 secretly 387 sedan chair 353 see a visitor off 356 seed 339 seedlings of a tree 339 seemingly 387 Seergu Village 353 seize and arrest 371 select (as) 372 self, emphatic and reflexive pronoun 384 self-satisfied 375 sell 351 send 371 send presents 356 senior generation 366 separate 361 separately 386 servant 369 set (of the sun) 331 set a snare 335 set the table 344 set up a banquet 356 set up a bed 349 set up pillars 348 settle a bill 351 seven 383 seven sister stars 332 seventeen 383 seventy 383 several 384

sew 345 sew on a button 345 sexual intercourse (common term) 360 sexual intercourse (euphemistic term) 360 shabby, tattered garments 375 shade (vt., of leaves) 339 shadow 331 shake 362 shake hands 361 shake open, spread by shaking 362 shake out 362 shallow 374 shameful 375 shampoo the hair 363 shape 354 sharp 376 sharpen a knife 349 shave beard 363 shave the head 363 shave the head bald 363 shavings 350 sheath, scabbard 349 shed tears 358 sheep 336 sheep (wool sheep) 336 sheephorn flower 339 sheepskin 336 sheepskin vest 346 shell (vt.) 341 shinbone 360 shine (vi.) 331 shiny, shining 331 shiver (v.) 365 shoat, piglet (male) 336 shoes 346 shoot 336 shoot a gun 366 shoot an arrow or gun 366 shoot the target 366 shopkeeper 370 short (in length) 374

short (of height) 374 shoulder 359 shoulder (a load) 361 shout (vi.) 354 shovel, spade (n.) 350 shrink (vi., of clothes) 346 shrub 339 shudder (v.) 365 shuttlecock 356 siblings of father's sisters 367 sickle 350 sickle with teeth used to cut grain crops 350 side 381 side, inside, (locational particle) 387 sideburn 358 sieve (n.) 341 sieve (vt.) 341 sign (v., n.) 354 silkworm 337 silver 333 silver monkey 335 simpleton 369 since (eg. since you don't like it) 388 since (eg. since you were born) 388 sing 356 single child 368 sink (vi.) 333 sip (vt.) 360 sister call brother 367 sister's child 367 sisters 367 sit (up) 362 sit down 362 six 383 sixteen 383 sixty 383 skillful 379 skim, fish out 362 skin 357 skin (n.) 334

skinny 375 skirt 346 sky 331 slanted 374 slap (vt.) 361 sleep 364 sleep face down 362 sleep on one's back 363 sleep on one's side 363 sleet (vi.) 332 sleeves 346 slightly 386 slingshot 366 slip (v.) 363 slip and fall 363 slippery 376 slope of a hill 332 slow 377 sluggish 379 slyly 379 small 374 small hand basket 350 small intestine 359 small round soft cake of pounded glutinous rice 342 smaller half 383 smallpox 365 smell (vt.) 360, 374 smell bad, musty (of cereals), rotten (of meat, etc.) 374 smile (v.) 372 smoke 344 smoke (cigarettes) 360 smoke (cigarettes) (vt.) 343 smoke (meat) (vt.) 334 smoke (n.) 334 smooth 376 smother (charcoal) 343 snail 338 snake (thick) 338 snake (thin) 338 snap button (n.) 346 sneeze (v.) 364 snow 332

snow (vi.) 332 snow pea-pod 340 soak 344 soak (vt.) 341 soak, flood (vi.) 333 soap 363 socks 346 soft 376 soft secretion of the ear 358 soft voice 375 soft, uncrisp 374 soil 332 solar eclipse 331 Solar New Year's Day 355 soldier 370 sole of the foot 360 solid (of grain) 376 some (number) 384 somersault 356 something 385 sometimes ... (eg. sometimes he is naughty, sometimes he is good) 388 somewhat 386 son 367 son's wife 367 song 356 soot 333 soot of a pan 344 sorghum 339 sort out vegetables 343 sound 360 sound the gong 357 soup 342 sour 374 south 381 south wind 332 sow 336 sow seeds 341 soy sauce 342 soybean 340 spade (vt.) 350 sparrow 335 sparse, not dense 376

speak 354 speculate, to guess 373 spend money 352 sperm, semen 359 spider 338 spider's web 338 spiked millet 339 spin (yarn) (vt.) 345 spin a web (of spider) 338 spinach 340 spit (v.) 358 spit (vt.) 361 spittle 358 splash water 348 split (wood) (vt.) 349 spoil (a child) 372 spoiled (of child) 378 spoken words 354 spongy, fluffy 374 spool 345 spoon (n.) 344 spoon (vt.) 344 spread (of fog) 331 spread (vt.) 349 spring 333, 379 sprinkle (vt.) 344 sprout (as from seed) 339 sprout (n.) 339 spurt (vt.) 360 squat 362 squeeze (out) 361 squirrel 335 stable 347 staircase, ladder (wooden) 348 stamp the feet 362 stand (up) 362 star 331 start 382 start early 386 start on a journey 353 start serving a banquet 356 state of being well 377 stay at an inn 351 steady 376

steal 370 steam (vt.) 344 steamed or baked bread 341 steamer 343 steel 333 steep 375 step across 362 step over the doorsill 348 steps 348 stew (vt.) 344 stick 350 stick (vt.) 354 stick out the tongue 361 still 386 sting (vt.) 337 stinger of a bee/wasp 337 stir 344 stomach 359 stomach (pork) 342 stone 332 stool 349 stoop 362 stop 382 stop (of the rain) 331 stop blowing (of the wind) 331 stop the flow of water 334 stop up (a hole) 334 store (grains) (vt.) 341 storehouse 347 storey 347 storm (vi.) 331 story 354 stove 343 straight 375 strain (strain away liquid) 344 strain, sprain (one's back, muscles) 365 strange (n.) 376 stranger 368 strangle 361 straw 350 strawberry 340 stream 333 street 352

strength 360 stretch out the hand 361 strike (vt.) 361 string 350 string bean 340 strong 377 strong character 378 strong, lasting 376 stubborn 378 student 369 study 354 stuffy 374 stumble 363 stupid 378 subtract 383 succeed 372 suck (fingers) 360 suck (vt.) 360 sue 372 sugar 342 suitable 375 sultry, stuffy and hot 374 summer 379 summon (vt.) 371 sun 331 sun (clothes) (vt.) 346 sun (vt., vi.) 331 sunflower 339 sunrise 380 sunset 380 support, prop up 362 surface of the earth 332 surname, clan name 366 surround 382 surround (vt.) 366 surrounding 381 swallow (n.) 335 swallow (v.) 360 swear brotherhood or sisterhood 355 sweat (n.) 357 sweat (v.) 357 sweep the floor 348 sweet 374

### 416 Glossary

sweet fermented rice 343 sweet potato 340 swim (vi.) 338 sworn brothers 367 table 349 taciturn 378 tael 352 tail 334, 342 tailor 369 take a bath 363 take a husband 355 take a photo 357 take a seat at a dinner table 356 take a step 356 take a wife 355 take in the fingers 361 take medicine 366 take the place of 372 take with the hand, receive 362 talk (vt.) 354 talk in sleep 364 tall 374 tares 339 target 366 tartar 358 taste 344 taste (vt.) 360 taut 376 tax (n.) 352 tax (vt.) 352 tea 344 teach 354 teacher 369 teapot 344 tears 358 tease (vt.) 370 teeth 358 telephone (n.) 354 telephone (v.) 354 tell a story 354 tell tales of, to play trick on 371 tell the future 355 temper 377 temple 355, 358

temporarily 386 temporary bridge 353 ten 383 ten odd 384 ten thousnd 384 tend cattle 336 tend ducks 337 tend pigs 336 tender 376 tendon 357 terminative, 'finish (eating the rice)' 386 termite 338 terrible, frightening 375 testicles 359 thank for a gift 356 thank for an act of kindness 356 that 385 that much 385 that side 385 that time 386 thatch rushes 339 the ... the (eg. the older he grows the smarter he becomes) 388 the first one 384 the last one 384 the whole floor / ground 381 theirs 385 then and only then 386 there 385 there is a fire 333 these 385 they (3rd pl. pronoun) 384 they/them two (3rd dual pronoun) 384 thick 374 thick (eg. thread) 374 thick (of liquid) 376 thief 370 thigh 360 thimble 345 thin 374 thin (of liquid) 376

thin (of people) 377 thin silk 345 thin vermicelli that has been hung to dry 342 thing 349 think about 373 third floor of house 347 thirsty 374 thirteen 383 thirty 383 this 385 this evening 380 this month 379 this morning 380 this much 385 this side 385 this year 379 thorn 339 those 385 thousand 384 thread 345 thread a needle 345 three 383 thresh (vt.) 341 throat 359 throw 362 throw away 362 thumb 359 thunder (n.) 332 thunder (vi.) 332 Tibetan (name of ethnic group) 369 Tibetan language 369 tick 338 tickle 374 tie (shoelace) 346 tie up a cow 336 tie up, bind 362 tiger 334 tight 375 tile 350 time (one time) 384 timid 378 tin 333

tiny 374 tire of 373 to guard 370 toad 338 tobacco pipe 347 today 380 toe 360 toenail 360 toilet 348 tombstone 355 tomorrow 380 tomorrow evening 380 tomorrow morning 380 tongue 358 tongue tip 358 too (adj.), excessively 386 too late 386 tools 349 toothbrush 363 top (n.) 381 top of the head 357 torch 350 torn 376 torn (of clothes) 345 tough (of meat, rice) 376 tough, old, spoiled, bug-eaten (of vegetables) 376 town 352 townpeople 368 toy 356 trace 354 trade (n.) 351 train 369 transport 361 travel (vi.) 353 traveller 353 tray 344 tread on 362 treat (others to a meal, etc.) 356 tree 339 tree shade (n.) 339 tree stump 339 tree trunk 339 tree-fork, a forked stick 339

### 418 Glossary

trousers, pants 346 trousers' seat 346 truce 366 trunk 349 trustworthy, honest 377 try (vt.) 372 tsamba 340 tuck under the arm 361 turn (doorknob) 361 turn a corner 382 turn around 382 turn around (the head) 360 turn off the light 349 turn on the light 349 turn over (the wrong side), reversed 374 turn the head 360 turnip 340 turtle 338 twelve 383 twenty 383 twenty-one 383 twenty-three 383 twenty-two 383 twice as much / many 383 twins 368 twist (v.) 361 twist ropes 350 twist, crush together in the hand (e.g. clothes) 361 twist, sprain (v.) 361 twitching of the eyelid 358 two 383 two times odd 383 ugly looking 375 umbrella 347 unable to sustain / resist 372 unbutton (vt.) 346 unconscientious 378 underneath 381 undress 346 uneven 376 unimportant 374, 377 unite 352

unless 388 unlucky 377 unmarried young woman 368 unpack (luggage) 353 unsteady 376 untie (shoelace) 346 unusual (n.) 376 upbraid 370 upper storey 347 upright 374 upside down 374 urgent, pressing 374 urinate 359 urine 359 use (vt.) 372 use bad words 370 usually 386 valley 332 valuable 377 value, regard as rare 373 vapor, steam 334 vegetable garden 341 vegetables 340 vein 357 vertical 375 vertically 387 very 386 very long (in time) 383 vexed 375 village 353 villagers (same village) 367 vine 339 vinegar 342 voice 360 vomit (v.) 364 vulva (common term) 359 vulva (euphemistic term) 359 wag the tail 334 waist 359 waist belt 346 wait for 371 walk on foot 352 walking stick 347 wall 348

walnut 340 want 373 want to (do something) 372 ward off 362 warm 374 warm up leftovers 344 warm, to roast, to bake 344 wash (clothes) 346 wash clothes with stick 346 wash down (vi., of water) 333 wash face 363 wash rice 343 wash the feet 363 washcloth 363 Wasi Village 353 wasp 337 waste (vt.) 372 waste money 352 watch (the children) 364 watch a movie 357 watch the coffin containing the corpse 355 watch the house 347 water 333 water (vt.) 341 water gate 334 water-drawing bucket 348 waterfall 333 we all, all of us 384 we/us (1st plural pronoun) 384 we/us two (1st dual pronoun) 384 weak 377 weak (of character) 378 wear (a hat) 346 wear (clothing) 346 wear (pants) 346 wear (shoes) 346 wear a skirt 346 weasel 335 weave (vt.) 345 weave a net 345 weaver's shuttle 345 wedding or other set date 355

wedge in 371 weed (vt.) 341 week 380 weep, to cry 372 weigh (vt.) 352 welcome, to receive 356 well (n.) 348 Wenchuan County 353 west 381 west wind 332 wet (n.) 376 what day is today? 380 what time is it? 380 what? 385 wheat 339 wheat bran 339 wheat flour 339 wheat straw 340 when (eg. when I came) 387 when? 385 where? 385 which one? 385 which side? 385 whip (n.) 350 whip (vt.) 350 whip mark 365 whirl (vi., of the wind) 331 whirlwind 331 whisper (vi.) 354 whistle (n.) 350, 356 whistle (vt.) 356 white 375 white bean 340 white of the eye 358 white stone 355 white sugar 342 who? 385 whoever 384 whole 383 whole day 380 whole life (one's whole life) 364 whole night 380 why? 385

wick 349 widow 368 wife 367 wife's father 367 wild boar 335 wild cow 336 willing (to) 373 willow tree 339 win 357 win (in some contest) 366 wind 331 wind thread 345 window 348 wine 343 wing 335 winnowing shallow basket 351 winnowing tray 341 winter 379 winter melon 340 wipe 361 wipe (vt.) 348 wipe the anus (after defecating) 363 wire 350 wolf 334 wood 350 woodchopper 369 wooden bench 349 wooden stick for washing clothes 346 woodpecker 335 wool 345 wool, fleece 336 woollen sweater 346 woollen thread 345 work (vt.) 369 world 381 worm 337 worried 373 worry, to put to heart 373 worship god 355 worth (be worth) 352 worth, worthwhile 377 worthless 377

worthy of (doing) 373 wound, sore 365 Wowo Village 353 wrap (dumplings) 344 wrap (vt.) 362 wrap a wound 365 wriggler 337 wring (a wet towel) 361 wrinkle 357 wrinkled 376 wrist 359 write (a letter/book) 354 wrong 377 Xiaoguazi Village 353 Xihu Village 353 Yadu Township 353 yak 336 yard 352 yawn (v.) 357 year 379 year after next 379 year before last 379 year old 364 yellow 375 yellow jacket 337 yesterday 380 yesterday evening 380 Yi (name of ethnic group) 369 yoke 353 you (2nd pl. pronoun) 384 you (thou) (2nd sg. pronoun) 384 you two (2nd dual pronoun) 384 young cucumber 340 young in age 364 young man 368 young shoots 339 younger brother 367 younger sister 367 youngest child 368 yours (pl.) 385 yours (sg.) 385 zero 383

- 1. In the stories the interjections often take the form of demonstrative pronouns, but are used as fillers rather than for their lexical content. This is common in Chinese as well, but I don't know if this is by chance or due to contact influence.
- 2. Other members of the Qiangic branch include Pumi (Prinmi), Muya, Ergong, Shixing, Namuzi (see Sun 1982, 1983, 1985). rGyalrong is often included in this group as well, though this categorization is less than certain (see LaPolla 2000b, 2003a).
- Studies on the culture and history of the Qiang people include Zhuang 1937; Yan 1951; Graham 1958; Luo & Shi 1983; Ran, Li & Zhou 1984; Ren 1984; Ma 1984; Zhou & Liu 1993; Xu 1993; Li, Lin & Wang 1994; Meng, Gui & Lin 1994; and Wang 1997a, 1997b, 1998, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c, 2000, 2001a, 2001b.
- 4. These population figures are from Sun 1981a:177; Huang Bufan 1991:208 gives the total number of Qiang speakers as approximately one hundred thousand people. Neither author gives a source for these figures. According to the 1990 census (figures cited in Zhou & Li 1993), the total population of the Qiang people is one hundred ninety-eight thousand people (it had been 102,768 in the 1982 census). If Huang's number is correct, then only about half of the people of the Qiang nationality still speak the Qiang language fluently. This seems about right, as my understanding is that there are very few fluent speakers left in the majority of the southern Qiang areas. See also Lin 1990.
- 5. Having the animals within the same building was to prevent theft and to maintain warmth, but as this is a rather unhygienic arrangement, the government has been encouraging the Qiang to build separate pens for the animals.
- 6. Before 1949 the area was quite poor, and the main economic activity was opium growing and selling. Few Qiang people were able to attend schools or improve their livelyhood. Their situation was not unlike the difficult situation the Akha people in northern Thailand still live in today.
- 7. The Qiang are sometimes mistakenly believed to be worshiping the white stone itself, but they are in fact worshiping the spirit invested in the stone.
- 8. Liu (1998b:1-3) gives a detailed history of the work done by the team in the 1950's. Fieldwork was carried out in 32 different Qiang-speaking areas, and a large amount of data was collected. Work on this data stopped for many years because of the disruption of the Cultural Revolution, although Liu and Sun have since the late 1970's tried to work up and publish the data (Liu's book, Sun 1981a, and many of the other relatively recent publications are based largely on the data collected in the 1950's).

- 9. This list was compiled by Yu-hung Chang, Anne Y. Hashimoto and Jerry Norman, and published by Princeton University. While this was not an ideal word list for Qiang, as it included many lexical items specific to Southeast China, it was chosen because it had both English and Chinese glosses, semantic numbering, an index, and more items than the standard lists used in China. A revised version of this list is also being used for the Qiang Dialect Atlas Project.
- 10. The form /n/ is used instead of the standard IPA /p/ simply to be consistent with other works on the language published in China (where this form is standard usage), and to have the palatal series consistently marked by the curl on the right.
- The forms /kha/ and /xα/ do not appear in Qiang, though /k-/ and /kh-/ contrast in /kha/ 'rice husk' and /ka:/ 'teeth of a sickle', and /x-/ and /χ-/ contrast in /xa/ 'scold (1sg)' and /χa/ 'sword'.
- 12. The analysis of the phonemic form of the prefix as /§-/ (rather than /s/) may seem odd from a Tibeto-Burman comparative perspective, but based on both internal evidence, and comparative evidence from other Qiang sub-dialects (e.g. cf. Mawo dialect /§pi/, Ronghong dialect [cpie] 'thirsty'), this seems the only choice.
- 13. It is a puzzle why the second person pronoun has a glottal or zero initial (they don't contrast) instead of /n/ or /n/, as the rhyme /u/ would be a regular development from the usual Tibeto-Burman second person singular pronoun \*nang. (PTB \*n- has several reflexes in Qiang, but not usually  $[?- \alpha \emptyset]$ .)
- 14. When r-coloring is added to  $/\alpha/$ , it is usually pronounced  $[a^{J}]$  or  $[a^{J}]$ , so we cannot determine whether there are separate  $/a^{J}/(/a^{J})$  and  $/\alpha^{J}$  forms.
- 15. This example has been added to show that the final r-coloring contrasts with final /-l/.
- 16. Even though this is true, the forms of the second person pronouns, /ũ/ (singular) and /i-/ (plural) are written in this grammar with a glottal stop onset, purely to give them graphic bulk.
- 17. Here we are treating the glides that appear after the initial as part of the final rather than as part of an initial cluster because they do not form part of the syllable-final clusters (which are formed from initial clusters), even though historically the high-front glide has affected the initial consonant or cluster, palatalizing the initial, or in some cases (where the initial is /p/) palatalized the preinitial (e.g. \*spie > [cpie]). See the discussion of clusters later in this section, and also footnote 12.
- 18. In general, prefixes are preserved in the second syllable of two-syllable combinations (unless the entire complex initial is reduced), except in the case of the numerals (see §3.1.5) (and a few very old compounds such as [magu] 'flimsy', from /ma/ NEG + /zgue/ 'strong'). This would be evidence that the numeral combinations were formed at a time when the prefixes were still productive, or at least were still not seen as integral to the root, and that other combinations (where the prefixes were preserved) developed after the prefixes had become fixed as part of an initial consonant cluster.

- 19. Even if the form does not become monosyllabic, there will still be a reduction in the number of syllables, e.g. in (2.5b), below, where three syllables reduce to two.
- 20. The lateral which occurs from the weakening of /dz-/ is somewhat retroflexed.
- 21. This contrasts with languages such as Dulong/Rawang and Jinghpaw, which generally have an iambic stress pattern, and so reduction is of the first syllable rather than the second syllable (basically a southern pattern within Tibeto-Burman, possibly due to Mon-Khmer influence). See Dai 1995, Dai & Xu 1995 on Jingpo initial syllable reduction.
- 22. There are several forms for 'one' and 'ten'; see §3.1.5.
- 23. The words for 'eight' and 'hundred' can both be pronounced [khe] or [khe<sup>1</sup>], though in context there doesn't seem to be a problem of ambiguity. It seems the r-coloring is in the process of being lost, at least in the speech of the younger people. This homophony might seem odd, but it also occurs in the Cantonese dialect of Chinese, when final /-k/ and final /-t/ both become glottal stop in rapid speech (i.e. baat<sup>33</sup> 'eight' and baak<sup>33</sup> 'hundred' both > baa?<sup>33</sup>).
- 24. If more than two need to be expressed, an adverbial marker would need to be added, e.g. [tshetsə xsə na-n,i khuaitha] (car new good-ADV fast] 'good fast new car'.
- 25. In Chinese it is also the case that many nouns which are themselves measures do not take classifiers or measures, particularly those of units of time, such as *nián* 'year' and *tiān* 'day'.
- 26. A stative verb (adjective) can also be followed by the definite marker, though the resulting form functions as a noun, not a verb.
- 27. One example of a non-natural referent that seems to have this structure is /soqhu qhu/ 'to fire a gun', but I am not clear on the origin of the term /soqhu/ 'gun'. James A. Matisoff (p.c.) has suggested that the first syllable of /soqhu/ might be related to /somu/ 'iron'.
- 28. The semantics of this noun are exactly that of Chinese *yuèliàng* 'moon' (< 'moon' + 'bright'), but as it is an item of basic vocabulary and follows a general pattern of Qiang, and the pattern is also found in a number of other Tibeto-Burman languages (Xu 1997), it does not seem to be a calque on the Chinese.
- 29. In the case of 'flower', the form is sometimes pronounced [lapa], sometimes [lampa]; in general, [lampa] is used when referring to the actual flowers, and [lapa] is used when it is an adjective, 'flowery', modifying a noun. The form [lam] is not used alone for 'flower', so the gloss here is speculative.
- 30. This is an animal that is a cross between a common cow and a yak.
- 31. In some northern Qiang sub-varieties, such as the Qugu variety, the form /qupu/ is used more generally.
- 32. In one elicited example, given in (3.201b), the form [the:-xs-ta] 'on that side', with a long vowel, was said to mean a position farther away than that meant by [the-xs-ta], with a short vowel, but this does not seem to be a regular pattern.
- 33. Where the form of the verb has been altered by the addition of person or aspect marking, the original form of the verb is given at the margin.

- 34. Here the verb is glossed as having first person singular marking (/-a/), though because the form of the prospective aspect marking (/-a:/) incorporates that of the first person singular marking, there is no obvious difference between first person singular prospective aspect and third person singular (zero marking) prospective aspect forms of verbs. See §4.3.2 on person marking.
- 35. Given this situation, and the fact that an (in)definite marker plus classifier can form a complete noun phrase (see T3:63 for an example), plus the fact that cross-linguistically definite markers often derive from demonstrative pronouns, as in English, it seems likely that the definite markers (and locative markers) of Qiang also derive historically from demonstrative pronouns. The form /te/ is not very problematic in this regard, as it could easily be related to the contemporary distal demonstrative pronoun /the/ (both possibly < Proto-Tibeto-Burman \**day*; see Benedict 1972:19), but the origin of /le/ is more puzzling, as the only evidence for a /le/ or /la/ demonstrative pronoun other than that used for the definite marker is the form [ficId], which often appears as an interjection in the Texts and seems to mean 'there'. (See also footnote 53).
- 36. Here the copula could have been used instead of the existential verb, but the sense would be of a state that was permanent or at least lasted a rather long time.
- 37. In fact one expression meaning 'story' is /skup-mele/, literally 'orangutan words'. (As far as I know, there are no orangutans in Sichuan, China, but the Chinese word for the type of animal involved in these stories, which matches the imagined form of the animal, translates as 'orangutan'.)
- 38. Both 'eight' and 'hundred' can be pronounced either [khe] or [khe<sup>3</sup>]. Only the context can distinguish the two. See footnote 23.
- 39. As mentioned in <sup>6</sup>2.2.3, this expression appears as [wu], [le-wu], [yle-wu], [le<sup>4</sup>wu], [-e<sup>4</sup>wu], or [-<sup>4</sup>wu]. In the case of the latter form, the final vowel of the previous word becomes r-colored.
- 40. Although this form seems very similar to the form [o-u] given just above, this form is made up of the word 'one' plus the initial consonant of the word for 'pile' and so there is no vowel harmony, while [o-u] involves two vowels, and so there is vowel harmony.
- 41. It might be argued that there is only one topic in this example, as the expression /səkue zdzi/ 'stomach hurts' is predicated about the main topic, but within this predication the stomach is also a topic about which a predication is made, and an adverb such as [kən ~ gən] 'very' can appear between the second noun phrase and the verb, so it can also be said there are two topics. The second topic is a secondary topic, though, and can only take topic marking in a quoted clause, e.g. [the:-ŋuəni səkue-ŋuəni zdzi jə] (3sg-TOP stomach-TOP pain say) '(He) says his stomach hurts'. See LaPolla 1995a, LaPolla & Poa 2003, for discussion of this type of construction in Chinese.
- 42.  $[\chi umt_{\xi}i]$  and [khumt\_{s}i] are common Qiang names. They are derived from the name of the animal associated with the year of birth of the individual, plus a nominalizer /-m/, plus a suffix indicating whether the person is male (/t\_{\xi}i/= 'male child') or female (/t\_{\xi}i/= 'female child'). In this case / $\chi u$ / means 'tiger',

and /khu/ means 'dog' (< /khuə/), so [ $\chi$ umtşi] is a male child born in the year of the tiger, and [khumtsi] is a female child born in the year of the dog ([ $\chi$ u-lu-m] 'the one who came in the year of the tiger', etc. is also possible). There are several other common ways of forming Qiang names: using the name (= number) of the month the person was born in, e.g. the name [khe¹tşi] is derived from [khe¹-c] 'August' (< /khe¹/ 'eight' + /cə/ 'moon, month') plus the male child suffix, so [khe¹tşi] is a male child born in August (the eighth month); using the age of one of the parents at the time of the child's birth, e.g. [ $\kappa$ uosuetşi] 'son of a fifty-year-old'; using the name of the place where the mother gave birth, e.g. [joøotsi] 'girl born on the threshing ground'; using the weight of the child at birth, e.g. [wutcin] (< Chinese w*ŭjīn*) 'five catty'; using one of the five elements, e.g. [tcinsen] (< Chinese *jīnshēng*) 'golden birth'; using a reference to the god who was prayed to in requesting the child be born, e.g. [xsə-lu-tşi] 'god-coming-son'. See Huang, Yu, & Huang 1992.

- 43. There is also use of non-actor person marking to show affectedness; see §4.3.2.
- 44. Here the vowel change is due to harmonizing with /ji/, and then the prefix harmonizes with the changed vowel.
- 45. Notice in (3.121) and (3.122) that 2nd person plus 1st person results in 1pl person marking, while 2nd person and 3rd person result in 3pl person marking.
- 46. Qiang only has native words for two seasons, one (/tsaq/) representing both Spring and Summer, the other (/suəq/) representing both Autumn and Winter.
- 47. The third person pronoun is translated as 's/he' because there is no gender distinction, and except for those examples that are taken from the stories, there was no disambiguating context (Chinese, the working language, also has no gender distinction).
- 48. See LaPolla 1995d on the common development of ablative markers into instrumental and agentive markers in Tibeto-Burman languages.
- 49. Notice here how the verb is first reduced from /tchə/ to [-tc] and then an epenthetic vowel is inserted before the /-m/ suffix.
- 50. The Chinese measures *zhàng* in (3.177) and *lǐ* in (3.178) are equivalent to 3 1/3 meters, or 10.8 feet, and half a kilometer, or 1/3 of a mile, respectively.
- 51. In a kinship relation such as this, we would normally have causative marking on the verb (see §3.2.14), but in the exclusion construction, the verb is intransitive, and there is only one direct argument (here, 'my sister'). Another example would be (i):
  - (i) *the: o-u-stu-tci me-zi*. 3sg one-CL-alone-EXC NEG-have/exist 'There is only him alone.'
- 52. There does not seem to be any regularity as to when [tci] is used as opposed to [ji ~ jə], other than emphasis. That is, when the particle is emphasized, it is more likely to be pronounced [tci], but if it is not emphasized, it is often pronounced [ji] or [jə].

- 53. There is an interesting correlation between the two definite markers, /le/ and /te/, the demonstrative pronoun /the/ 'this' (also /tha/ 'there'), and these locative particles /la/ and /ta/ (see also footnote 35).
- 54. This is a loan from Chinese, so the individual morphemes have not been given glosses. This is also the case with '1958' below.
- 55. The two phrases [joutchiu] 'demand' and [tciu-sə] 'just-is' are Chinese. This is possibly a case of code-mixing in the telling of the story rather than loans.
- 56. Middle voice marking is found in a number of Tibeto-Burman languages (see LaPolla 1995b, 1996, 2003a), but passive marking is rare.
- 57. This pattern is similar to that found in Dulong and Rawang (see LaPolla 2000, 2003b), but unlike in Dulong and Rawang, the noun phrase representing the causer cannot take topic marking in this example. In ex. (4.8), where the inanimate causer is marked with the agentive marker, it would be possible to have the noun phrase representing the causee in sentence-initial position and marked by the topic marker.
- 58. While this structure is acceptable, most often if the causer is 3rd person and the causee is 1st or 2nd person, the direct causative is not used. Instead a quotative structure is used, as in (i):

(i)	the:	qa-ta	stuaha	tə-bəl-i	kə-ji.
	3sg	1sg-LOC	food	DIR-make-NAR	thus-say
'He told me to make the food.'					

- 59. In this example it would also be possible to use a directional prefix on the copula (i.e., [ha-ŋu̥ə-ʒə]), if the person had already assumed the office. As it stands, with no directional prefix and prospective aspect marking on the verb, the sentence assumes the person has been chosen, but has not yet assumed office. That is, the prospective aspect is relative only to the becoming, not to the choosing.
- 60. This is a sufficient, but not a necessary condition for adjective status: except for /topu/ 'like', any verb that can take /-wa/ will be an intransitive state predicate verb, but a verb that cannot take /-wa/ may also be an intransitive state predicate verb (see §4.4.1).
- 61. It could be that the sense of plurality is involved in both types, as the reciprocal must involve more than one person.
- 62. Because of the semantic nature of adjectives as stative verbs, prospective aspect can only be used with an adjective if the continuative aspect marking is used together with it, marking the sense that a state will continue to exist or develop.
- 63. In the case of 'potatoes' in this example and 'fish' in (4.33a-b) below, number marking is not used (though it would be possible to add [a-ha] 'some, a few') when the exact number of items is not relevant.
- 64. There is another verb /kə/ that means 'walk, leave', but does not undergo the changes that the form /kə/ 'go' undergoes when prefixed, e.g. /ə-kə/ 'leave!', /tça-kə/ 'don't leave!'.
- 65. The change of state marker /-ji/ is not used with the negative of this construction.

- 66. This distinction of actor vs. non-actor parallels the use of agentive and nonagentive (ergative and anti-ergative) marking on noun phrases (see LaPolla 1992a, 1995c), and makes the Qiang system quite different from many of the other Tibeto-Burman person marking systems, which mark person primarily, and not semantic role (they are hierarchical systems). For example, in Tangut or Dulong/Rawang, marking of a first person participant appears in a clause regardless of the semantic role of that participant (see LaPolla 1992b, 1994, 2003a for discussion of person marking).
- 67. In the Mawo dialect (Sun 1981:192), the form /sa/ is used for all persons and numbers in the non-actor paradigm: 1sg /sa/, 2sg /san,i/, 3sg /saji/, 1pl /sa<sup>1</sup>/, 2pl /satcin,i/, 3pl /satciji/. From the Mawo evidence it seems the actor marking, number marking, and non-actor marking were originally three different systems.
- 68. These are the maximum forms possible. As the non-actor marking is always optional, and the actor marking is sometimes optional, these are not necessarily the forms that appear in the examples throughout this grammar.
- 69. The non-actor person marking is optional in most cases.
- 70. The verb /le/ never appears alone without the directional prefix /də/ for the meaning 'give', therefore no unprefixed forms are given here. There are corresponding verbs [səle] 'pack in', [zəl(e)] 'take, bring over here', and [ile] 'bring in, put in', which leads one to assume there was originally a verb /le/ that meant some kind of change of possession or movement, with the four directional prefixes (movement away from the center vs. movement downstream (here used for down-in), movement toward the center vs. movement in) determining the meaning as 'give', 'pack in', 'take', or 'bring'. This verb may in fact be the existential verb /le/, which can have a transitive use in reduplicated form (see §4.2.4), but which would possibly lose the reduplicated token when a prefix is added. The word /-sə/ 'put' may also be the existential verb /sə/ (which can also have the sense of transitive 'put' in reduplicated form) when it takes a prefix.
- 71. The two systems do not correspond one-to-one, as the Taoping dialect uses the cognate of the Ronghong 'movement in' prefix for marking movement up-river, and it seems the cognates of the prefixes for marking movement toward or away from the center are used for movement towards the mountain and towards the river respectively. See Nishi 1990 and Huang Bufan 1991, 1994 for broader comparative treatments.
- 72. The assignment of a verb to a certain class is not arbitrary; it is done on the basis of tests for each type. See Van Valin & LaPolla 1997, Chapter 3 for discussion.
- 73. One of the few exceptions to this found so far is the form [tiwi] 'tall, high'. This form is made up of the root /-wi/ and the directional prefix [ti-], but the root cannot be used without the prefix. The combined form has the simple meaning rather than the change or state meaning.
- 74. There is a contrast between a nominalized adjective used with the verb /pe/ 'become', and the form of the adjective (intransitive stative verb) with the directional prefix, which gives it the sense of 'become ADJECTIVE': /tə-n,iq/

[DIR-black] 'become black' vs. /n,iq-ke: pe/ [black-INDEF:CL become] 'become a black thing'.

- 75. Not all verbs can do this, even if the semantics might allow it; in some cases if the verb can take all of the directional prefixes, then the concrete directional sense will override the more abstract sense, e.g. [fioylu] 'roll down' has no connotation of agentiveness, because it can take all of the directional prefixes, and so the use of /fiə-/ here will be based on the actual direction of rolling.
- 76. For discussion of *Aktionsart* differences expressed using the directional prefixes, see Section 4.3.3.
- 77. See also the discussion in §4.3.3 on the use of reduplication with different directional prefixes on each token for marking a type of repeated action.
- 78. While logically it would seem the two could be used together, they aren't. For example, if one wanted to express the meaning 'don't do it again/anymore', the form would not be \*/tcə-tcə-bəl/, but would be [tca-bəl-jy] (NEG.IMP-do-ASP); for 'don't let him come again/anymore' it would not be \*/ca:-tcə-tcə-la/, but would be [tco-lu-z\_-jy] (NEG.IMP-come-CAUS-ASP).
- 79. Huang Bufan (2000) has suggested this suffix derives from /kə/ 'thus' + /pə/ 'do', but except for 'come' and 'go', generally two verbs are not used together in that way (/pə/ can immediately follow the main verb), and it is possible to have another word for 'do' in between /kə/ and /pə/, as in (i), so it would seem /pə/ does not mean 'do'.

(i) the: khuə ce-k-kə-bəl-pə.
3sg dog release-go-thus-do-habitual
'He goes hunting.'

- 80. It is important to emphasize that these are the formal means of marking the associated speech-act types, not necessarily the only way of performing these speech acts. Almost any formal type can be used to perform any type of speechact.
- 81. In some cases, such as the verbs for 'eat' and 'drink', the prefix usually used for the imperative is different from the prefix usually used for the other uses of the directional prefixes: [sə-z] '(S/he) ate.' vs. [ə-z] 'Eat!' (both < prefix + dzə); [sə-tc] '(S/he) drank.' vs. [ə-tc] 'Drink!'.</p>
- 82. The resulting form can appear to be the same as a question form, which also has [-nα] at the end of the clause (see §4.3.5.3), but it does not have the same origin, i.e. the imperative particle /nα/ does not involve person marking, as the question form /-n-α/ does, and so can be added after 2sg/2pl marking, as in /ə-zə-n-nα/ (directional prefix + 'eat' + 2sg + polite imperative marker) '(Please) eat!'. It also can be used with the plural, whereas the question particle /nα/ cannot, and the imperative /nα/ has a falling rather than rising intonation.
- 83. The form /la/ is glossed as 'INDTV:1sg', even though there is no non-first person form, because there is this first person plural form.
- 84. The form of the verb as [tu-pu] (i.e. with the [-u] vowel) is due to the fact that the unprefixed form of 'to look after someone' is [tşauku pu] (< /tşauku pə/, where

- 85. The form /?ə̃hə/ sounds like the English backchannel positive response, but its meaning is the opposite of that in English!
- 86. The form which results from  $/\eta u \partial / + /\eta i / is$  the same as the topic marker  $/\eta u \partial \eta i / \eta$ , and this may be the origin of the topic marker, but they are not felt to be the same thing in this context.
- 87. Compare Chinese yào (要) which has the same two uses.
- 88. This form of nominalized verb plus the copula is sometimes used for simple statements, and even in questions, with the meaning 'it is the case that', e.g.

(i)	dza:khui	ləyz	su-s	<b>ŋuə-ŋu</b> a?
	afternoon	book	learn-NOM	COP-Q
	'Is there cla	ass this a	afternoon?'	
(ii)	dza:khui	ləyz	su-s	та-ŋиә.
	afternoon	book	learn-NOM	NEG-COP
	'There is no	o class t	his afternoon'	

There are also examples of this form with only the nominalized clause without the copula:

- (iii) *n\_iyi-lai* kə-s? what-time go-NOM 'What time (do we) go?'
- 89.  $/dz \partial/is an adjective, and seems to be the same word as <math>/dz \partial/iong'$ ; it is reduced to a somewhat retroflexed /-l/ after a prefix, such as the negative and continuative prefixes.
- 90. Cf. the systems in Hare and Sunwari discussed by DeLancey (1997), where perfective contexts yield an evidential interpretation, and imperfective contexts yield a mirative interpretation. See also Zeisler 2000 for discussion on the relationship of tense/aspect and interpretation as mirative or not.
- 91. The combination of inferential and hearsay marking is sometimes pronounced [kui] in stories, as in (4), but there is no difference in meaning between [kəi] and [kui] in that context.
- 92. This form contrasts with a direct quote, which would involve a 1st person pronoun and a full verb of speaking (i), and an indirect quote, which would involve third person forms (ii):

(i) "qa ctcimi zdza"	, jə.	(ii) th	ne: ctcimi	zdzi jə.	
1sg heart sick+	1sg say	38	sg heart	sick say	y
'He said "I'm unhappy".'		ʻH	Ie said he's u	unhappy.'	

- 93. As the prohibitive prefix and the continuative prefix have the same form in some contexts, 'still want to go out' would have almost the same structure as 'don't go out', but due to differences in stress and aspect, the pronunciation of the former would be a bit different: /ha-tci-Ka:/.
- 94. In this clause, [mi lewu wu qəs] functions as one argument with [qəs] as the head, and so the existential verb used is one for inanimate objects rather than animate beings.
- 95. Although the prospective aspect marking in these cases seems more like an irrealis marker, it is not used in all hypothetical, conditional, or unrealized situations; /-tu/ and /-ta/ are more common as conditional markers, and generally do not appear with the prospective aspect marking.
- 96. Cross-linguistic comparison points to the original Sino-Tibetan relative clause structure being of this type, that is, a clause directly modifying a noun without nominalization or relative marking, although most Sino-Tibetan languages have grammaticalized some sort of nominalizer or complementizer for relativization (see for example, DeLancey 1986, Genetti 1992).
- 97. It is an open question whether the /-s/ form here is a native innovation or an old loan from Tibetan. The lexical form in Qiang corresponding to Tibetan /sa/ is /zə/ 'ground, earth'; the voiced initial makes it an unlikely source for the suffix. On the other hand, the uses of Tibetan /-sa/ and Qiang /-s/ are not completely the same: both can be used for locations, but Tibetan does not use this form for instrumentals. See Mazaudon 1978, DeLancey 1986 on the Tibetan relative formations.
- 98. Yoshio Nishi (personal communication) suggests the possibility that /-ta/ might be derived from a noun, and here might still be functioning as a noun head in a relative clause structure of the type discussed below.
- 99. Usually the comitative marker is not used to link verbs unless they are nominalized, but here the first verb is missing the marker of nominalization.
- 100. In this example, the vowel of the last verb could be pronounced [ə] or [a]. While these two vowels are usually distinguished, especially in such cases where they can represent person marking, there are a number of cases where they are not carefully distinguished. Another example is [the: tawa fia-ta] (3sg hat DIR-wear) 'S/he put on a hat', the final vowel of which, although phonemically /-a/, could also be pronounced [-ə].
- 101. Notice in (5.59) that the person marking is plural, unlike in English, where the verb agreement in a disjunction of two singular noun phrases like this would be singular.
- 102. In this example and the following one, the verb takes the non-actor person marking to show the affectedness of the referent involved. If the referent involved were 2nd person, the form would be the same except for the person marking, which would then be /-san/ or /-sai/ for singular or plural respectively. There is no person marking in a subordinate clause marked by [-wu] or [-n<sub>i</sub>].
- 103. The particle /tu/ is also often used in narratives without the sense of a conditional, but more as a general linker of clauses (/ta/ is only used for

conditionals). See the Texts for examples. (Cf. the development of the use of the clause particle /na/ in Tibetan from a general marker of clause connectedness to a marker of conditionals, and the common use of *de-huà* 'if' in Chinese as a topic marker.) There is something of a contrast between /-tu/ and the clause-final marker /- $\mathfrak{s}\mathfrak{d}$ / discussed in §4.4, in that both are used for a broad range of meanings centered around the conditional, but /- $\mathfrak{s}\mathfrak{d}$ / is used only with a verb marked with prospective aspect marking, while /-tu/ appears with verbs without prospective aspect marking.

- 104. Here the verb [-x-] is a reduced form of /khe<sup>1</sup>/. The form [xte] at the end of this line is a reduced form of /xtexte/.
- 105. Here [-wa] is a form of the question marker /-ŋua/.
- 106. This 'feast' refers to the feast held two days after the new year, usually for the newly married man to visit his in-laws. /dze/ is the word for 'festival', particularly the new year festival.
- 107. The Qiang drink their home-made barley wine from large casks with straws, so the verb for 'suck' is used here instead of that for 'drink'. This verb is also used for 'smoke (cigarettes)'.
- 108. Ram's horn flower: among the Qiang this symbolizes true love. Whenever the ram's horn flower is in bloom, young men use the flower to express their feelings of love to their beloved.
- 109. The expression [zmətşi] is from /zmə/ 'people' and /tşi/ 'male, son', and here means the local leader, but when translating this term into Chinese, the term for 'emperor' (*huángdì*) was used, so I have followed that usage. Before 1949, the Chinese official system title *yuánwài* (pronunced [juɑnʁuɑi] by the Qiang) was used for local officials.
- 110. Here [delde] derives from /de-lede/. Although we would not normally expect a directional prefix on a habitual action, it seems the fact that this appears in an adverbial phrase ending with /-n.i/ makes the prefix necessary.
- 111. In this clause, ["pənsə u-su-a-sə" jə-m-le:-wu] 'the one who said "I have learned an ability"' is in apposition to [satşů-le:-tşi-le:-wu] 'the younger sister's son', clarifying which person is mentioned.
- 112. Here we would have expected a noun, such as  $/2\sigma/$  'affairs, things', but it was left out by the speaker.
- 113. This object is either a monk's robe  $(g\bar{a}s\bar{a})$  or a Huáng Mǎ Guā (a golden topcoat given by the emperor of China to people who had performed meritorious deeds for the emperor). Both [dzin] and [jən ~ jin] refer to the same object.
- 114. The expression [α-l-wu α-l] means 'one to the other' and gives the sentence a reciprocal sense.
- 115. The expression [za ha-sa] is used to mean 'do something good for someone', and can be used as something like 'thank you'.
- 116.  $[n, im t \Rightarrow s] = `notify'$ .
- 117. The visual evidential marker is used here to emphasize that this is common knowledge.
- 118. Here 'release dog' is an expression to mean 'go hunting'.

- 119. This syllable adds the meaning 'as much as possible; completely'.
- 120. The expression [kuə-ŋ.a-tsə] is literally 'older brother' + COM + 'sister', but here means close relatives. The expression [stumpətşe] includes the word [stum ~ stuəm] 'same-surname relatives', and refers to a wider set of relatives. A third category of relatives is the [tsuɔʁlumi], the females from a family who have married into other families.
- 121. Here the form [-ŋua] is derived from /-u-a/ (VIS + 1sg), which normally produces [-wa], but the initial is influenced by the initial of the copula.
- 122. [qap su] 'head throw' is an expression for 'nod the head'.
- 123. The expression 'do orangutan talk' means to use gestures instead of speech. As the vowel of 'do' harmonizes with the /u/ of /sku/, I have linked the parts with hyphens.
- 124. This word [fusan-pu] is a loan of Chinese *fú* 'to support under the arm to help a person get up or walk' plus possibly *shàng* 'up' or *chān* 'support under the arm'.

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<sup>1.</sup> The Chinese word pronounced [tchiang<sup>55</sup>] is written as <Qiang> throughout most of this book, following the official Chinese Pinyin orthography, but in some sources, such as this one, it is transliterated as <Ch'iang>.

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