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SHĪXĪNG, A SINO-TIBETAN LANGUAGE OF SOUTH-WEST CHINA: A GRAMMATICAL SKETCH WITH TWO APPENDED TEXTS*

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This article is a brief grammatical sketch of Shīxing, accompanied by two analyzed and annotated texts. Shīxing is a little studied Sino-Tibetan language of South-West China, currently classified as belonging to the Qiangic subgroup of the Sino-Tibetan language family. Based on newly collected data, this grammatical sketch is deemed as an enlarged and elaborated version of Huáng & Rēnzēng’s (1991) outline of Shīxing, with an aim to put forward a new description of Shīxing in a language that makes it accessible also to a non-Chinese speaking audience.

Keywords: Shīxing; Qiangic; Mǔlǐ

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Location, name, people

The Shīxing 史兴语 language is spoken by approximately 1,800 people who reside along the banks of the Shuǐluò 水洛 river in Shuǐluò Township of Mǔlǐ 茂县 Tibetan Autonomous County (WT smi li rang skyong rdzong). This county is part of Liángshān Yí Autonomous Prefecture in Sìchuān Province in the People’s Republic of China (PRC).

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Shuīluò Township, where the Shìxīng language is being spoken, is situated in the western part of Mūlì (WT, variously, smi lî, rmi lî, mu lî or mu le). Mūlì is a mountainous and forested region of 13,246.38 m² at an average altitude of 3,000 meters above sea level. Before the establishment of the PRC in 1949, Mūlì was a semi-independent theocratic kingdom, ruled by hereditary lama kings. The Austrian-American botanist and explorer Joseph Rock was befriended with the 18th lama king of Mūlì, Chote Chaba (Tsurtrim Dakpa), and visited Mūlì on his invitation in the 1920s. Based on his travels, Rock published a series of colorful reports on the region in National Geographic magazine in the 1930s. Despite these incidental visits, Mūlì’s geographic isolation and poor infrastructure withheld researchers from accessing the region until recent decades (Wellens 2006: 23-27).

The Shìxīng language first came to the attention of linguists in the 1980s, when Sūn Hōngkāi included a brief outline of its prominent linguistic characteristics in his seminal article “Minority languages of the six river valley and their genetic classification” (1983a). Sūn coined the language “Shìxīng” after

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1 I am grateful to Franz Huber and Caroline Weckerle from the Institute of Systematic Botany, University of Zürich, for providing this map of Shuīluò.
the autonym of the group, which he recorded as $[H_{ʂ}-Hhı]$.² Huáng Bûfàn and Rénzhēng Wângmû, who continued linguistic fieldwork on Shîxîng in the late 1980s, adopted the same name for this language, even though they recorded the autonym of the group as $[H_{ʂu}-Hhı]$ (Huáng & Rénzhēng 1991: 174). The name Shîxîng is now widely used in scholarly discourse, where it refers both to the language and to its speakers. It is, however, rarely heard in Mûlí, where the group resides. In Mûlí the group is known as Xùmì 旭米 (currently their official denomination in Chinese) or Sûmû 栗母, both of which are Chinese renderings of the group’s name in Prînmî (Pûmî), i.e. $[莿o-Hmʊ]$. In the following, I use ‘Xùmì’ to refer to the people, as this was the name preferred by my language consultants, and ‘Shîxîng’ to refer to their language, as customary in the linguistic literature.

The Xùmì people reside in eleven villages in the Shîlûò Valley, alongside the Shûlûò River (Chînînghê 冲天河 or Wûlîânhê 无量河). The name of the river in Shîxîng is $[H_{ʂu}-dzɜ]$, from $[H_{ʂu}]$, river name (this element is possibly related to the word for ‘iron’, $[LH_{ʂõ}]$; see footnote 10) and $[LHdɜ] ‘water, river’.⁴ The autonym of the Xùmì is taken from the name of this river: $[H_{ʂu}-Hhı]$ , which literally means ‘people of the river Shu’ (< $[Hhı] ‘person’$).

The five largest Xùmì villages are (from north to south on the map):

- $[H_{ɕi}-Hwa] Xīwâ 西瓦⁵$
- $[Hdõ-Hla] Dōnglā 东拉
- $[Hlã-Hmã] Lánmǎn 兰满
- $[Lpʰi-Hwu] Píngwēng 平翁
- $[Lru-Hhı] Liánɡbǎo 两保

Based on lexical and phonological differences, Sûn and Huáng & Rénzhēng divide the area inhabited by the Xùmì into two parts: (1) Upper Reaches of the Shûlûò River, which includes the villages Xīwâ, Dōnglā and Lánmǎn, and (2) Lower Reaches of the Shûlûò River, which includes the villages of Píngwēng and Liángbǎo. The two sub-varieties of Shîxîng are mutually intelligible.

The lifestyle of the Xùmì is essentially agricultural. They cultivate wheat, barley, buckwheat, corn, millet, and a variety of vegetables (e.g. potatoes, soybeans, kidney beans, peas and cabbage). They also cultivate rice, which practice distinguishes them from other ethnic groups of Shûlûò, who concentrate on other staple foods (Weckerle et al. 2005b, 2006). The Xùmì practice animal husbandry (mostly goats, pigs, cows and mules), forestry and fruit farming.

² Shîxîng data are provided in broad phonetic transcriptions in the International Phonetic Alphabet. A phonological outline of Shîxîng and transcriptions conventions are detailed in §2. Tones are here marked by superscript letters instead of more current and visually preferable diacritics over the vowels, because currently available IPA fonts do not provide a satisfactory typographic solution to the problem of combining symbols for tone sequences, such as low-high and high-low, with the diacritic for nasality. The hyphen (‘-’) separates syllables in a word. The equals sign (‘=’) separates enclitics from their host phonological word. The pound sign (‘#’) separates tone pattern domains. A full list of symbols and abbreviations used in glossing is provided at the end of the article.

³ Prînmî is a member of the Qiângic subgroup of the Sîno-Tîbêtan language family. The Prînmî dialect of Shûlûò is supposedly close to the Tâobā 桃巴 Prînmî dialect of Mûlí, as described in Lû (2001).

⁴ Word tone derivation from syllable tones is discussed in §2.3.

⁵ This village is also known as $[H_{ʂu}-Hwu] ‘Shu family or Shu clan’, which probably indicates that it used to be the center of the Shu community.
(mostly pears, pomegranades, peaches, and walnuts, which until recently was the main source of oil for the Xùmǐ; Weckerle et al. 2005a). Local crafts include spinning, weaving and tanning leather. The Xùmǐ also mine placer gold in the Shuìluō river.

Shuǐluō is a multi-ethnic township, inhabited by five different ethnic groups:
- ethnic Tibetans: locally known as ‘Kami’ Tibetans, the autonym of the group is [¹ka⁻²mi], in Chinese 嘎米藏族 Gāmī Zàngzú
- Prinmi
- Xùmǐ
- Mùlǐ Mongolians
- Nàxī

The former three groups are officially classified as Tibetans. The latter two groups speak two different varieties of the Nàxī language: the Mongolians speak the Eastern dialect of Nàxī, also known as Nà (or Mósuō摩梭 or Mōxiē摩些), whereas the Nàxī speak the Western dialect of Nàxī.6 (The former group came to be associated with Mongolians due to their chieftains’ legitimization of their rule by claiming descent from Mongol officers of Kublai Khan.)

The Xùmǐ of the Upper Reaches border on the Kami Tibetans, whereas the Xùmǐ of the Lower Reaches live in the immediate neighborhood of Prinmi-speaking and Nà- and Nàxī-speaking groups. Consequently, the Shìxīng language of the Upper Reaches is in close contact with Kami Tibetan (a Khams dialect), whereas the Shìxīng of the Lower Reaches is more influenced by Prinmi and Nà and Nàxī. Many Xùmǐ are multilingual and master, in addition to their native language, Kami Tibetan, Prinmi, Nà, Nàxī and South-West Mandarin Chinese.7

1.2. Research history and genetic affiliation

Shìxīng is one of the lesser-known Sino-Tibetan languages spoken in the PRC and has been little researched to date. Only two brief outlines in Chinese exist, one by Sūn Hóngkāi (1983a) and one by Huáng Bùfán & Rénzēng Wāngmù (1991). Their analyses differ substantially at some points, possibly because Sūn worked with language consultants from the Lower Reaches area and Huáng & Rénzēng with language consultants from the Upper Reaches area. In addition to the two brief outlines, two works on Tibeto-Burman phonology and lexicon by Sūn et al. (1991: 240-244) and Huáng et al. (1992: 646-647) present the

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6 The division between the Western and Eastern dialects of Nàxī was proposed by the Chinese linguists Hé Jīrán and Jiāng Zhūyí (1985: 1-4, 104-116). For the history of the Nàxī, see Guō & Hé 1994. Mùlǐ belongs to the areas historically populated by Nà groups (i.e. border areas between the provinces of Sìchuān and Yúnnán). The Nàxī of Mùlǐ represent a later migration into the area (see §1.3).

The Nàxī language is an un subgrouped Sino-Tibetan language, held to be close to, although not a member of, the Ngwi-Burmese branch of Sino-Tibetan (Bradley 1975; 1997: 37; Matisoff 2003: 5, 8; Thurgood 2003: 19-20). (I have adopted the term ‘Ngwi’ as a replacement for ‘Loloish’ (or Yí, Yipho and Ni), as recommended by Bradley 2004, quoted from Pelkey 2005.) Nàxī is considered to be transitional between the Ngwi-Burmese and the Qiangic subgroups (Sūn 1984: 14; Bradley 1997: 37), sharing lexical material with both subgroups, but lacking the extensive morphology of the Qiangic.

7 The Chinese dialect of Mùlǐ tentatively belongs to the Chéngyú成渝 subgroup of the Southwestern Mandarin group (Wurm, Li et al. 1987: Map B6). A systematic study of this dialect is in preparation in the context of the aforementioned ANR project PASQi.
phonological system of Shǐxīng as well as approximately 1,000 and 1,800 Shǐxīng words, respectively. 8

Shǐxīng is currently classified as belonging to the Qiangic subgroup of the Sino-Tibetan language family (Bradley 1997: 36-37; Sūn 2001; Thurgood 2003: 17). Qiangic is a putative grouping of eleven Sino-Tibetan languages of Sichuān and Yūnnán provinces in the PRC. 9 The Qiangic languages are subdivided, mainly on geographical grounds, into a Northern and a Southern group (Sūn 1983a, 1983b, 2001; Huáng 1991). Shǐxīngs belong to the Southern Qiangic group, as detailed in Figure 1:

Figure 1: Qiangic subgroup of the Sino-Tibetan language family (adapted from Sūn 2001: 160)

The validity of the Qiangic subgroup in its present understanding has long been challenged, as it has been formulated for the most part on the basis of shared typological features, such as the presence of uvulars, tones, directional prefixes, verbal agreement and measure words (cf. Sūn 1983b, 2001). No substantial supporting evidence for this grouping in the form of common innovations, the only reliable basis for a linguistic subgroup as argued by Leskien (1871), has

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8 The phonological analysis of Shǐxīng in Sūn et al. (1991) is identical to that in Sūn (1983a); that in Huáng et al. (1992) differs slightly from the analysis in Huáng & Rénzēng, as discussed in §2.
9 The original idea that some languages of the Chinese Southwest cohere to form a Sino-Tibetan subgroup can be traced to F. W. Thomas (1948: 88-109), who proposed a “Hsifan group” based on wordlists of Mūyā, Nāmūyī, Qiāng, Quèyù and Prı̂nh (Sun 1992: 76). The label “Qiangic”, under which the group is currently known, was introduced by Chinese linguists in the 1960s as an umbrella term for the Qiāng, Prı̂nh and rGyalrong languages (Sūn 1962: 561; 2001). The Qiangic group expanded in the 1970s, when new languages discovered in Western Sichuan (e.g. Shǐxīng, Guǐqióng, Nāmūyī and Ėrsū) were also seen as Qiangic (Sūn 1983a, 1983b, 2001; further elaborated in Huáng 1991).
been demonstrated so far. A factor that considerably hampers a better evaluation of the subgroup is that Southern Qiangic languages are virtually undescribed and therefore only rudimentarily known, which circumstance considerably restricts comparative work. Release of new data and new analyses on lesser known Qiangic languages, such as Shìxīng, is therefore crucial to facilitate a better assessment of this subgroup, as well as to further our understanding of the ethnic and linguistic variety of South-West China.

1.3. Shìxīng and its neighboring languages

Shìxīng is spoken at the border areas with mixed Tibetan and Hán Chinese influences and in the immediate proximity of many Ngwi-Burmese and Nà- and Nàxī-speaking groups. Throughout its history, the Xūmī have been in contact with various ethnic groups; the impact of Tibetans, Nà and Nàxī is most notable.

The indigenous inhabitants of present-day Mūlǐ are various Sino-Tibetan groups, of which the Prinmi form the largest single group. In the Chinese historiographic tradition, these indigenous groups are historically associated with Tibetans and are commonly referred to as fān or xīfān (in Western sources, traditionally Hsifan). After the establishment of the PRC, most fān groups (including the Xūmī) were incorporated into the Tibetan nationality. The Xūmī strongly identify with the Tibetans in religion (Tibetan Buddhism) and lifestyle (e.g. housing, diet, culture).

At the same time, according to popular belief among the Xūmī, their group is non-native to the region and originates instead from the area near present-day Luòyáng in Hénán Province of the PRC, where they claim to have resided until the end of the Táng dynasty (618-907). The turmoil and wars of that era allegedly forced them to move south-westwards from the former capital of Luòyáng to Jiāzhōu Prefecture (present-day Lèshān County) in Sìchuān. In the Qīng dynasty (1644-1911), they continued to migrate further south, reaching present-day Dàlǐ and Nínglàng Counties in Yúnnán, where the dominant languages for several centuries have been Nàxī, Bái (Dàlǐ) and Nà (Nínglàng). Then, from the shores of Lake Lúgū, following the flow of the Jīnhāijīāng (Yangtse) to the north they arrived to the Shuīluò River in Mūlǐ, where they finally settled down.

By the time when the Xūmī supposedly arrived in Mūlǐ, the area had been ruled by Tibetan Buddhist elites for several centuries. Even though the region was nominally part of the Chinese Empire, the penetration of ethnic Chinese in the area has been negligible until well into the 20th century (Mūlǐ Zàngzú Zìzhìxiàn Zhi Biānzuǎn Wěiyuánhuì 1995: 113-115). The influence of the Nàxī in Mūlǐ was also saliently present. In the beginning of the 15th century, several valleys which are now part of Mūlǐ were controlled by Nàxī Mǔ Kings from their capital at Lijjiāng. The Mù shì huànpǔ 《木氏宦谱》 [Official chronicles of the Mù clan] mention that the 11th Mù King, Mù Qīn 木嵚, conquered many villages in the Shuīluò River valley, including those presently inhabited by the Xūmī. His grandson, Mù Dìng 木定, added a considerable number of villages, also in
Shuǐluò (Rock 1947: 110, 114). The troops of the Mù Kings built watchtowers, fields, and waterways, and they searched for gold. The soldiers were forced to withdraw from Mùlí in the early years of the Qīng dynasty (Wellens 2006: 26-27). Yet, a substantial number of Nàxī watchtowers have been preserved in Shuǐluò to the present day.

While the Xûmî’s claim concerning their origin in Luòyáng is probably historically inaccurate, their link with the Nà- and Nàxī-speaking groups is more reliable. In fact, some Nàxī historians even consider the Xûmî as part of the Nàxī group. For example, Guō Dāliè & Hé Zhīwǔ (1994: 8-9) in their Nàxī zú shì [History of the Nàxī] straightforwardly list the Xûmî group as a branch of the Nàxī, thereby also suggesting a genetic link between the Nàxī and Shìxīng languages.

In view of the complex history of the Xûmî group, no language of the groups with which Shìxīng has been in close contact (Tibetan, Nà and Nàxī) can be excluded a priori from a discussion on the genetic affiliation of Shìxīng. However, salient structural differences between Tibetan and Shìxīng in all linguistic sub-systems preclude a close genetic link between these two languages. Nonetheless, Tibetan has exercised a profound influence on Shìxīng in the form of loanwords, due to a prolonged contact with the Tibetans and the pervasive influence of the Tibetan religion and lifestyle. Conversely, preliminary comparisons between Shìxīng and Yòngnìng Nà (based on Lidz 2006 and lexical data provided by Alexis Michaud, p.c.) suggest considerable similarities between these two in lexicon and grammar (e.g. aspectual marking, existential verbs). Consequently, a careful investigation of a possible genetic link between Shìxīng and Nà may be warranted in future research. In sum, the question of the genetic affiliation of Shìxīng remains open and requires further investigation.

1.4. Data sources and goals

This article is based on a total of three months of linguistic fieldwork on Shìxīng in 2005, 2006 and 2008. I worked in close cooperation with my principal language consultant, Mr. Lúróng Duōdīng [Łdı-Hsɛ̃ Hlu-Hźũ Hto-Hdí], where [Łdı-Hsɛ̃] is a place name, and [Hlu-Hźũ Hto-Hdí] is a personal name (WT blo bzang stobs ldan). We worked together on the Upper Reaches sub-variety of Shìxīng, which Lúróng Duōdīng speaks natively. Lúróng Duōdīng provided most of the data and background information on the Shìxīng language and its speakers. Together we verified Shìxīng data (word lists and sentences) by previous authors (Sūn 1983a; Huáng & Rénzhēng 1991), collected new vocabulary (our Chinese-
Shǐxīng vocabulary list currently contains ca. 3,500 items), collected, transcribed, translated (into Chinese) and analyzed seventeen traditional stories and discussed the semantic and syntactic phenomena observed in these stories with other language consultants, supported by additional sentence elicitation. Finally, I wrote the present linguistic analysis.

The goal of this article is to put forward a new description of Shǐxīng in a language that makes it accessible also to a non-Chinese speaking audience. This article is deemed as an enlarged and elaborated version of Huáng & Rénzhěng’s (1991) concise but insightful outline of the Shǐxīng Upper Reaches sub-variety. It adopts Huáng & Rénzhěng’s phonological analysis for transcriptions, in order to keep the newly presented data uniform with those in Huáng et al. (1992), which remains the principle source of lexical information on Shǐxīng to date.

Despite the preliminary nature of the present analysis, this new outline of Shǐxīng, accompanied by two analyzed and annotated texts, is presented here for two reasons.

First, recent years have witnessed an upsurge of interest in the Qiangic subgroup. Many previously little known Qiangic languages are currently being investigated, e.g. nDrapa (Shirai 2006) and Guiqiong (Wāng 2008). These new data and analyses are bound to throw light on the complex issue of the genetic affiliation of these languages, possibly even challenging existing classification.

The available Shǐxīng data (both lexical and grammatical) are often quoted in comparative studies (e.g. Matisoff 2004; Evans 2006). However, no matter how insightful, the existing outlines of Shǐxīng contain inaccuracies, due to the restricted periods of fieldwork on which they are based. These inaccuracies are unavoidably adopted by the new publications making use of the data. One example from the domain of the lexicon: the Shǐxīng word [bie³³-\textit{tsʰe}⁵⁵] (Sūn et al. 1991: 769) is quoted in Matisoff (2004: 332) and Evans (2006: 119) as meaning ‘meat’. This word means ‘bacon’, as verified in my fieldwork, for it consists of the elements [bie] ‘pig’ and [tsʰe] ‘fat’.

Second, the genetic classification of Shǐxīng (as well as probably of most Southern Qiangic languages) requires joint efforts from specialists working on various Sino-Tibetan languages of the Chinese South-West. It is my hope that the grammatical data presented in this article can be used, in addition to the lexical data released in Sūn et al. (1991) and Huáng et al. (1992), for identification of Shǐxīng individual-identifying features (Nichols 1996), so as to allow a well-informed and balanced discussion of its linguistic affiliation.

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12 The word [bie³³-\textit{tsʰe}⁵⁵] (in my transcription: [ʰbiʰ-ʰtʃʰ]) occurs in the appended texts and therefore deserves a short note. It refers to strips of specially preserved pig fat. [ʰbiʰ-ʰtʃʰ] is a local speciality of the region, including also the neighbouring Yǒngnìng County (Rock 1947: 413). This speciality is prepared by removing almost all the meat of the pig, leaving only fat attached to the skin. The inside of the pig is then salted and the pig is sewn together. The so prepared pig can be kept for a number of years.
1.5. Shǐxīng: A bird’s eye view

Shǐxīng is a phonologically monosyllabic language. The syllabic structure is (C)(G)V, where C is a consonant, G is a glide, V is a vowel nucleus, and brackets indicate optional constituents. The three Shǐxīng glides, j, w and r, have a severely restricted distribution with the effect that most syllables are simply CV. A small number of syllables (the imperative form of some high frequency verbs) have a consonant final -n, forming thus the third, minor, syllable type: CVn, e.g. [ʰɕi] ‘look’ > [ʰɕun] ‘look!’ (§4.1). Shǐxīng is a tone language with a three-way tone contrast, i.e. /H/ (high), /LH/ (rising) and /HL/ (falling). The domain for the contrastive tones in Shǐxīng is the phonological word. Hence, the tone system of Shǐxīng is word-based rather than syllable-based (§2.3).

Shǐxīng is by and large an agglutinative language with little inflexional morphology. Shǐxīng is phonologically monosyllabic with a strong tendency towards disyllabicity in the lexicon. Shǐxīng’s polysyllabic words superbly lend themselves to a morpheme per morpheme analysis, each morpheme having a separate meaning and grammatical function. Monosyllables are of two types: (i) roots (free and bound) and (ii) affixes. Monomorphemic words are for the most part monosyllabic, e.g. [ʰtɕæ] ‘earth’, [ʰtɕʰi] ‘drink’. Polysyllabic monomorphemic words also occur, but they are essentially borrowings into Shǐxīng from another language, e.g. [ʰpa] ‘head’ (WT thod pa). Overall, words in Shǐxīng are mostly mono- and disyllabic. Longest words normally do not exceed five syllables in length, e.g. [jæ-ʰtsʰ]-mu-dz3-ʰo] ‘afternoon’, literally, ‘before having lunch’ (< [jæ-ʰtsʰ] ‘lunch’, the negator [mu], [³dz3] ‘eat’, the locative marker [sɔ] ‘on’).

Affixation, compounding and reduplication are the three major word-formation processes in Shǐxīng. Shǐxīng is mostly prefixing on verbs and suffixing on nouns. The majority of suffixes are derivational. Affixation processes in Shǐxīng are accompanied in some cases by the phonological processes of vowel harmony and lenition. Shǐxīng inflexional morphological changes, namely vocalic alternation (ablaut) and consonant alternation, are attested primarily in the derivation of irregular stems of some high frequency verbs and the formation of causatives. Reduplication is mostly attested on verbal roots. It is partially productive and partially lexically idiosyncratic. Reduplication involving dynamic verbs expresses frequentative or iterative meaning, e.g. [cy3-³cy3] ‘stir’, [dz3-³dz3] ‘run’. An additional meaning of reduplication is reciprocity, e.g. [qao-⁴qao] ‘help (each other)’. The meaning of reduplication for stative verbs (adjectives) is intensification, e.g. [⁴gu3-³gu3] ‘round’.

Shǐxīng major open word classes include nouns and verbs, with standard Sino-Tibetan criteria for noun- and verb-hood applicable to Shǐxīng. Nouns in Shǐxīng are those forms which can take case and discourse markers and numeral-classifier phrases, all of which follow the head, or be marked with derivational morphology for such categories as number and gender. Nouns in Shǐxīng can modify other nouns directly (appearing immediately before the modified noun) or in a genitive phrase (pre-head, with or without the genitive enclitic [ji]). Nouns can appear as the complement of a copular clause. Verbs in Shǐxīng are those forms that can
take directional prefixes, the negator [mV] ‘not’ (subject to vowel harmony) and the causative suffix [-x]. Verbs can be preceded by adverbial expressions, followed by auxiliaries expressing aspect, mood, modality and mirativity and nominalized by one of the nominalizing markers. Adjectives are formally a subset of verbs (intransitive stative verbs).

Closed word classes in Shîxîng include pronouns, noun and verb adjuncts. Noun adjuncts can be further subdivided into case and discourse markers, numerals and classifiers; whereas verb adjuncts include auxiliaries, adverbalizers, negators and interjections.

In terms of their positioning in relation to other sentence elements, noun and verb adjuncts in Shîxîng are enclitics. Shîxîng nominal case markers and verbal auxiliaries are for the most part recent grammaticalizations, mostly of locative origin. Overall, Shîxîng nominal case markers and verbal auxiliaries display a high degree of isomorphism. The same restricted set of markers is used with both noun and verb phrases.

The basic word order in Shîxîng is SOV. Syntax operates predominantly through word order and the use of nominal markers and verbal auxiliaries. Similar to many other Sino-Tibetan languages, a clause in Shîxîng must have a verb phrase, whereas noun phrases are optional.

The present overview focuses on the Shîxîng variety spoken in the Upper Reaches of the Shûlû River. It consists of two parts: (i) grammatical description (§2-4) and (ii) texts (Appendix). The descriptive part is further sub-divided into sections on phonetics and phonology (§2), the noun phrase (§3) and the verb complex (§4). Due to length restrictions, certain aspects of the linguistic organization of Shîxîng, such as verb serialization, have not been included and will await future publications.

2. PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

The present study essentially adopts Huáng & Rénzhîng (1991) and Huáng et al. (1992) phonological analyses of the Upper Reaches variety of Shîxîng. Both analyses are based on the same data, collected by Huáng & Rénzhîng in the late 1980s. On the whole, Huáng & Rénzhîng (1991) and Huáng et al. (1992) present their data in broad phonetic transcriptions, which allow a considerable amount of phonetic detail, including some common allophones.

2.1. Initials

According to Huáng & Rénzhîng and Huáng et al. analyses, Shîxîng has a total of forty-nine initials. The inventory of initials includes six prenasalized initials, viz. nb nd ng ndz nd ndz (where “n” stands for a homorganic nasal: m, n, ṇ, n, ṇ, and ṇ respectively). Based on my fieldwork, I add to this inventory one additional phoneme, /ŋ/.[ŋ].

The overall initial inventory of Shîxîng is presented in Table 1:
The following observations concerning Shǐxīng initials are in order:

(i) Voiceless nasals. The two voiceless nasals, viz. /m̥/ and /n̥/, are slightly aspirated and slightly voiced. Taken together, /m̥/ and /n̥/ occur only in five words in my current 3,500-word vocabulary list. Three of these words are loans from Tibetan, namely [Hm̥ɛ̃] ‘medicine’ (WT sman), [Hn̥a-Htsʰɜ] ‘ink’ (WT snag tsha) and [Hn̥a] ‘spell, curse’ (WT sngags). Two words with voiceless nasals, [Lm̥iæ-Htsũ] ‘tail’ and [LHn̥o] ‘hair, fur, feather’, appear to belong to Shǐxīng native vocabulary.

(ii) Alveo-palatal. Similar to the three-way complementary distribution of the alveo-palatal series in Mandarin, the alveo-palatal series in Shǐxīng is in complementary distribution with dentals, retroflexes and velars.

Retroflexes and velars do not occur before the high front vowels /i/ and /y/. Instead, velars co-occur with /u/, and retroflexes with /ɻ/. Dentals do not co-occur with /y/. Retroflexes do not co-occur with /æ/. Alveo-palatal co-occur with all these vowels.

In the position before /i/, the contrast between the dental and the alveo-palatal series has been neutralized for some phonemes.

All series contrast before /u/, e.g. [Htʰu] ‘spin (into yarn)’, [Htˢu-Lzũ] ‘shiver, tremble’, [Htʰču] ‘stroke, touch’, [Htʰku] ‘can, know (how to do something)’.

(iii) Uvulars. Shǐxīng has a total of five uvular initials, namely /q qʰ ng ʁχ/. Of these, /q/, /qʰ/ and /ʁ/ occur with relatively high frequency. /χ/, on the other hand, occurs predominantly as a lenited allophone of /qʰ/, when /qʰ/ occurs intervocalically; but it also occurs as an independent phoneme, e.g. [Htʰɻz-ʁχ] ‘itch’. /ng/ is infrequent and has so far been attested only in two words, i.e. [Htʰngɑ] ‘block, obstruct’ and [Hgo-Lngɑ] ‘baby, infant’.

(iv) Consonant lenition. Similar to Qiāng (the Máwō variety, Liū 1998: 58-63 and Sun 2003: 236-238; or the Yādū variety, LaPolla with Huáng 1996: 31-32), Shǐxīng has a set of productive lenition rules, which transform some initial stops and (mostly aspirated) affricates into spirants. This happens when these initials appear intervocalically—in compounds as well as when the verb root is preceded either by a prefix or by the negator. The output of the above rules are all independent full-fledged phonemes which can occur word-initially. The noted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bilabial</th>
<th>dental</th>
<th>retroflex</th>
<th>palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>uvular</th>
<th>glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stop</td>
<td>p pʰ b nb</td>
<td>t tʰ d nd</td>
<td>k kʰ q qʰ ng</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>nasal</td>
<td>m m</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td>ts tsʰ dz</td>
<td>n j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affricate</td>
<td>tsʰ dz</td>
<td>tsʰ dz</td>
<td>nc nc dz</td>
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<tr>
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<td>ʃ z</td>
<td>c z</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>χ Ϛ</td>
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<tr>
<td>lateral fricative</td>
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<tr>
<td>approximant</td>
<td>w</td>
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<td>lateral approximant</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Shǐxīng initials:
changes are summarized in Table 2 (see §2.3 for word tone derivation from syllable tones):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b &gt; w</td>
<td>[LHbïæ] ‘leaf’ &gt; [HLsï-ære], /HLsï-ære/ ‘tree leaves’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dz &gt; z</td>
<td>[HLdzũ] ‘sit, live, reside’ &gt; [Lmiæ-ũ], /Lmiæ-ũ/ ‘sit down’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tɕʰ &gt; ɕ</td>
<td>[LHtɕʰĩ] ‘drink’ &gt; [Htɕyi-Hɕĩ], /Htɕyi-Hɕĩ/ ‘drink tea’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kʰ &gt; x</td>
<td>[HLkʰɪ] ‘throw’ &gt; [Lmiæ-Hxɪ], /Lmiæ-xɪ/ ‘fill, pour’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qʰ &gt; χ</td>
<td>[HLqʰu] ‘bowl’ &gt; [dzi-Hχu], /dzi-Hχu/ ‘one bowl’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Consonant lenition in Shìxīng

In view of the overall inventory of Shìxīng stops and affricates, the observed lenition patterns have a number of gaps. For example, the expected lenition of the voiceless aspirated alveolar affricate [ʦʰ] to [s] is not attested. The changes of [dz] to [z], [ʦʰ] to [ʃ] and [dz] to [z] are sporadic and marginal. For example, when preceded by a prefix, the verb [LHdzua] ‘hit’ preserves its initial unchanged in most cases, e.g. [dzi-Hdzua] ‘hit one time’, but the lenition of [dz] to [z] is also occasionally attested in this environment, e.g. [dzi-Hdzua] ‘hit one time’.

Moreover, the noted changes are not without exceptions. For example, the initial [kʰ] of the words [Hkʰu] ‘year’ and [Hkʰu] ‘contain’ does not undergo the otherwise pervasive change to [x], e.g. [dzi-Hkʰu] ‘one year’ and [mu=Hkʰu] ‘not contain’, respectively.

In sum, given, on the one hand, that the output of the above rules are all independent phonemes, and, on the other hand, that the noted changes are not without exceptions, I give Shìxīng forms in phonetic representation. For example, the word [miæ-Hxi] ‘pour’ (< [miæ-] ‘downward’, [Hkʰi] ‘throw’) is transcribed as [miæ-Hxi] ‘fill, pour’, i.e. with the derived allomorph [xɪ], rather than /Hmiæ-kʰu/ ‘fill, pour’.13

(v) Onset-less syllables. A glide is inserted both word-initially and word-internally. Glide j is inserted with front vowels, e.g. the genitive marker /i/> [ji]. Glide w is inserted with back vowels, e.g. the resultative marker /u/> [wu]. A small number of syllables with the (plain or nasalized) nucleus vowel /u/ contrast a glide onset with a glottal stop onset, e.g. [Hjũ] ‘bark, yap’ vs. [Hũ] ‘fish’.

Following conventions in Huáng & Rénzēng and Huáng et al., I transcribe the initial phonetic glide, conforming to the overall use of phonetic rather than phonemic notation in this study.

2.2. Rhymes

In Huáng & Rénzēng (1991) analysis, Shìxīng has thirteen plain and ten nasalized vowels, as recapitulated in Table 3:

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13 Affixes, bound roots and enclitics are not marked for tone, if quoted in isolation.
Table 3. Shìxīng plain and nasalized vowels in Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 177)

Furthermore, Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 178) make the following observations:

i. [ȵ] is realized as [ŋ] after alveolars and as [ŋ] after blade-palatals.
ii. [ɘ] is realized as [ʉ] after bilabial initials, and as [ɯ] after velars.
iii. [u] is realized as [ʉ] after apical consonants. After the lateral [ɭ], [u] has the allophone [iu], e.g. the syllable [lu] in the word /ʰlɨu.lu/ ‘rabbit, hare’ is realized as [liu].
iv. [ɑ] and [ɑo] are in free variation, [ɑo] is attested the most.
v. [ŋ] and [ɘ] are often weakened in unstressed syllables, so that the initial consonant of such syllables is fused with the preceding, stressed syllable and realized as its coda. For example, [ʱli-ɭsi-ʰlɨu] ‘body’ is realized as [ʱlɨs-ʰlɨu]. The weakened [ɘ] is in free variation with [əɹ]. For example, the word ‘bone’, [ʱcæ-ɭɘ], may be variously realized as [ʱcæ-ʰɭɘ] and [ʱcæ-ʰɭəɹ].

Aside from the monophthongs in Table 3, Shìxīng has fifteen diphthongs, as presented in Table 4:

Table 4. Shìxīng diphthongs in Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 177-178)

Huáng et al. (1992) analysis closely follows that of Huáng & Rénzēng, with the following minor differences. Compared to Huáng & Rénzēng, Huáng et al. (1992) has two more vowels, [ʊ] and [ẽ], but no longer the vowel [ɵ]. The analysis in Huáng et al. also posits the vowel [ɪ] to replace Huáng & Rénzēng’s [e].

In my transcriptions, I essentially follow Huáng & Rénzēng’s analysis, including their additional observations and transcription conventions as listed above. Based on the actual pronunciation of my language consultants, I have slightly modified their analysis in the following fashion:

i. I use [ɪ] for Huáng & Rénzēng’s [e] and [ɪ] for Huáng & Rénzēng’s [ẽ].
ii. I do not posit [ɵ] as a distinct phoneme (as unattested).
iii. [ɪɛ] does not appear to be contrastive with [ɪɛ] and is therefore not included in my analysis.
iv. After back consonants, [ɜ] is an allophone of [o] and [uɑ] is an allophone of [ʊɑ].

The resulting rhyme inventory of Shìxīng is summed up in Tables 5-6:
2.2.1. Vowel harmony

Similar to many Qiangic languages, Shìxīng exhibits regressive vowel harmony, whereby the vowels of prefixes harmonize with the vowel of the root in terms of height and rounding. For example, the vowel of the directional prefix \([bɘ-]\) ‘outward’ assimilates in the following examples to the vowel of the root: \([^{1}bɘ-^{h}pʰɘ]\) ‘undo, untie (e.g. shoelaces)’, \([^{1}bɘ-^{h}pʰɘ]\) ‘pull out, (of noodles) make noodles by drawing out the dough by hand’ and \([^{1}bu-^{h}tsʰu]\) ‘spit out’. Compared to languages like Qiāng or Mùyà, vowel harmony in Shìxīng has very restricted productivity.

In addition to prefixes, the effects of vowel harmony can be observed in combinations of the third person pronoun, \([^{1}tʰi]\), and, to a lesser extent, of the first person pronoun, \([^{1}ŋɜ]\), when these are followed by nominal case markers and the plural suffix \([-rɘ]\). For example, the vowel /i/ of the third person pronoun \([^{1}tʰi]\) remains unchanged, if the pronoun is followed by a form with the root vowel /i/, e.g. \([^{1}tʰi=^{h}ji]\) ‘his’ (< the genitive marker [ji]). The more centralized vowel [ɨ] triggers a change to [ɜ], e.g. \([^{1}tʰɜ=^{h}sɿ]\) ‘to him’ (< the animate patient marker [sɿ]). Finally, /i/ assimilates to /u/ when followed by a syllable with the nucleus vowel /u/, e.g. \([^{1}tʰu-^{h}wu]\) ‘they, their family, they as a family’. The ablauted alternant of the first person pronoun \([^{1}ŋɜ]\) is [ŋa] in all cases above, except when followed by the genitive marker. In the latter case, the vowel of \([^{1}ŋɜ]\) remains unchanged, i.e. \([^{1}ŋɜ=^{h}ji]\) ‘mine’.

Vowel harmony is also to be seen, fossilized, in some polysyllabic words, which are no longer transparently analyzable into separate morphemes. Consider, for example, the locative nouns ‘front’, \([^{1}ki-^{h}ɿu]\), and ‘back’, \([^{1}kiæ-^{h}mɿæ]\). The second syllables of these words, \([ɿu]\) and \([mɿæ]\), mean ‘head, beginning’ and ‘below’, respectively. It is plausible that the first element is identical in both cases, and that its vowel assimilates to the vowel of the second element, \([ɿu]\) and \([mɿæ]\), respectively, in terms of height. The meaning of this first syllable is currently unclear.
2.3. Tone system

Shìxīng is a tonal language. It has three contrastive tones, namely (i) high, /H/, (ii) rising, /LH/, and (iii) falling, /HL/. The domain for tone in Shìxīng is the phonological word. A phonological word in Shìxīng is a unit, consisting of one to five syllables in length, which when larger than one syllable, is subject to the processes of consonant lenition and vowel harmony (§§2.1, 2.2.1). Phonological words in Shìxīng may coincide with lexical words and syntactic phrases. An average phonological (as well as lexical) word in Shìxīng is bisyllabic. For example, [Hgu-ɜ]-Hgu-ɜ/ ‘round’, [Htɕy-ɪ]-Htɕy-ɪ/ ‘drink tea’.14

Contrastive tone in Shìxīng is distributed over the word as a whole, irrespective of the number of syllables.

On monosyllabic phonological words, the contrast is realized as one level tone and two contour tones (syllable tone, hereafter quoted as H, LH and HL). For example: [Htsʰu] ‘milk, squeeze’, [LHdzõ-dzõ] ‘run’.

On phonological words of two syllables or more, the three contrastive tones are phonetically realized as sequences of level tones (word tone, hereafter quoted as /H/, /LH/ and /HL/).

i. /H/ is a sequence of H tones, e.g. [Hgu-ɜ]-Hgu-ɜ/ ‘round’

ii. /LH/ is a sequence of L tones on all syllables up to the penultimate and H on the last syllable, e.g. [dzō-Hdzö]-/Hdzō-dzö/ ‘run’

iii. /HL/ is realized as H on the first syllable and L on all remaining syllables, e.g. [Hcyz-Lcyz]-/Hcyz-cyz/ ‘stir’

Shìxīng word tones derive from syllable tones. Phonological words of two syllables or more may be composed of the following three types of monosyllables: (i) roots, (ii) affixes and (iii) enclitics.

Shìxīng (free and bound) roots are lexically specified for tone. For example, [Hhĩ] ‘person’, [Hhũ] ‘thick, rough’, [Hlňi] ‘you’. Shìxīng affixes (bound morphs that are not roots and which are constituent of words rather than phrases), on the other hand, are toneless by virtue of being units smaller than a (phonological) word. For example, the nominal suffix [-mi] and the verbal directional prefix [kʰu-] ‘inward’.

Enclitics, i.e. bound morphs that are constituent of phrases or sentences rather than words, can not stand alone as words and do not have citation tones. On the other hand, combinations of enclitics may form phonological words. For example, the agentive marker [rẽ] may form one phonological word with the topic marker [zũ], i.e. [prẽ = Hzũ], if the host word for these markers is two or more syllables in length, as in the following example:15

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14 Forms in slashes show the contrastive tones of polysyllabic phonological words.
15 Example sentences and sentences in the appended texts are presented each with four lines of analysis.

Line 1: Broad phonetic transcription
Line 2: Morpheme gloss
Line 3: Free translation

The meaning of most grammatical words in Shìxīng is transparently composed of the meanings of their constituent parts. Therefore, I do not include a separate line for word gloss in the analysis. In those infrequent cases, where the meaning of the word cannot be directly deduced from its morpheme glosses, the word gloss is provided below the morpheme gloss. If the example sentence in the analytic part is quoted from the two texts in
Given that surface tones of phonological words of two syllables or more (word tones) are derived from the tones of their constituting elements (syllable tones), I take enclitics to be lexically specified for tone.

The remainder of this section outlines those syllable tone to word tone derivation processes that are reasonably well understood at this stage, with reference to noted exceptions and cases that are currently less clear (see Chirkova & Michaud 2009 for a detailed experimental study of word tone derivation in di-, tri- and tetrasyllabic phonological words). Given that tone patterns of phrases containing noun and verb adjuncts (enclitics) may be derived through processes other than those operating on phonological words, tone derivation processes in phonological words (derivation of word tones from syllable tones) and those in phrases containing enclitics are considered separately.

2.3.1. Tones and tone derivation in phonological words

The following observations regarding tones in phonological words can be made:

First, HL tone on monosyllabic words is often simplified to H in continuous speech. For example: [tʰbɔ# lʰu-tʃʰi-tʃʰi = tʰi] ‘the white yak’ (< [tʰbɔ] ‘yak’), [tʰtsʰ# ldzʰ-θla] ‘a flock of sheep’ (< [tʰtsʰ] ‘sheep’).

Second, late realization of /LH/ tone on disyllabic words, e.g. [kʰu-lʰkʰɛ] ‘call in’ in running speech (Text 2, sentence 26) vs. [kʰu-lʰkʰɛ] ‘call in’ in isolation (see also example 90).

Surface tones in phonological words of two syllables or more for the most part regularly derive from the input tones of their constituting syllables through a number of tone derivation processes. The choice of the appropriate tone derivation process in phonological words of two syllables or more depends on whether the first element in the phonological word in question is toned (root) or toneless (affix). When the first element is toned, the tone of the phonological word is an expansion of the tone of that first toned element, adjusted to the number of syllables in the resulting combination.
Consider some examples of this tone derivation process in disyllabic phonological words with the first constituent carrying H tone (‘Ø’ stands for a toneless element, affix):

(2) H + H > /H/: \[Hq \ʰu \ɜ \] ‘steal’ + \[Hh \ĩ \] ‘person’ > \[Hq \ʰu \ɜ- \Hh \ĩ \], /\Hq \ʰu \ɜ / ‘thief’
(3) H + LH > /LH/: \[Ht \ɕ \yi \] ‘tea’ + \[LHbiæ \] ‘leaf’ > \[Ht \ɕ \yi -Hwæ \], /\Ht \ɕ \yi -wæ / ‘tea leaves’
(4) H + HL > /HL/: \[H \ʔɛ̃ \] ‘sheep’+ \[HLq \ʰɘ \] ‘excrement’ > \[H \ʔɛ̃ \Hq \ʰɘ \], /\H \ʔɛ̃ \q \ʰɘ / ‘sheep excrement’
(5) H + Ø > /H/: \[Hru \] ‘walk, go on foot’ + the nominal suffix [-mi] > \[Hru- \Hmi \], /\Hru-mi / ‘road’

At the same time, a small number of monosyllabic HL words have been noted to rather act as LH words in combinations, i.e. different to the regularity above. For example, \[Hl \ʰbõ \] ‘yak’ vs. \[Lbõ-Hmi \] ‘female yak’.

If the first element of a phonological word of two syllables or more is toneless (verbs formed through prefixation), the tone derivation process of this phonological word further depends on the number of attached affixes. The following regularities apply to verbs formed with one prefix.

If the tone of the root is H, the resulting word tone is also /H/, e.g.:

(6) Ø + H > /H/: [miae-] ‘downward’ + [Hʔũ] ‘swallow’ > [Hmiae-Hʔũ], /\Hmiae-ʔũ / ‘swallow’

If the tone of the root is LH or HL, the resulting word tone is /LH/, e.g.:

(7) Ø + LH > /LH/: the perfective suffix [lɜ-] + [HLdz] ‘eat’ > [Llɜ-Hdz], /\Llɜ-dz / ‘have eaten’
(8) Ø + HL > /HL/: [miae-] ‘downward’ + [HLdz] ‘sit’ > [Lmiae-Hzũ], /\Lmiae-zũ / ‘sit down’

In verbs containing two prefixes, on the other hand, the resulting word tone is /LH/, regardless of the inherent tone of the verb root. For example:

(9) Ø + Ø + H > /LH/: [či-Llɜ-Hsuũ] ‘have led to and fro’ (<[Hsuũ] ‘lead’)
(10) Ø + Ø + LH > /LH/: [či-Llɜ-Hbũ] ‘have rolled back and forth’ (<[HLbũ] ‘roll’)
(11) Ø + Ø + HL > /LH/: [či-Llɜ-Htsa] ‘have jumped to and fro’ (<[HLtsa] ‘jump’)

2.3.2. Tone derivation in phrases containing enclitics

Phrases containing enclitics may be treated as phonological words. The tone of the phrase in this case is an expansion of the tone of the first toned element of the phrase. For example:

(12) /H/ + enclitic > /H/, e.g. [Llɜ-Hzũ] ‘have caught’ + the perfect marker [s] > [Llɜ-Hzũ-s] ‘have caught’, see Text 2, sentence 7
(13) LH + enclitic > /LH/, e.g. \([^{\text{13}}\text{bi}^{\text{LH}}] \) ‘go’ + the perfect marker \([s]\) > \([^{\text{bi}^{\text{LH}}=\text{LH}}]\) ‘have gone’, see example (57) below or Text 1, sentence 23

(14) /LH/ + enclitic > /LH/, e.g. \([^{\text{13}}\text{lo}^{\text{LH}}]\) ‘have wrapped’ + the resultative marker \([\text{wu}]\) + the perfect marker \([s]\) > \([^{\text{13}}\text{lo}^{\text{LH}}\text{wu}=\text{LH}}]\) ‘have wrapped’, see example (65)

Alternatively, phrases containing enclitics may be subject to tone and stress interaction, with the following regularities applying. The host word for the enclitics is stressed and surfaces its inherent tone. The following enclitic or enclitics are unstressed. They lose their inherent tones and do not acquire any tone from the initial stressed foot. Given that these syllables invariably surface as low, I analyze them as supplied with a phonological L tone before the phonetics (cf. Yip 2006: 242-243 for Shanghainese). For example:

(15) \([^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}^{\text{H}}\text{hi}=\text{Ls}]\) (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}^{\text{H}}\text{hi}]\) ‘a Xùmǐ person’, the animate patient marker \([s]\))

(16) \([^{\text{L}}\text{ʐɿ}^{\text{L}}\text{bɜ}=\text{Ls}]\) (< \([^{\text{L}}\text{ʐɿ}^{\text{L}}\text{bɜ}]\) ‘plow ox’, the animate patient marker \([s]\))

(17) \([^{\text{H}}\text{hi}=\text{t̚i}=\text{rē}]\) ‘the man’ (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{hi}]\) ‘person’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{t̚i}]\) ‘that’, the agentive marker \([rē]\)), see Text 1, sentence 23

(18) \([^{\text{L}}\text{tsʰu}=\text{rē}=\text{Lz}]\) (< \([^{\text{L}}\text{tsʰu}]\) ‘ghost’, the agentive marker \([rē]\), the topic marker \([z]\)), see Text 2, sentence 10

(19) \([^{\text{H}}\text{pɜ}=\text{Ltsʰa}=\text{Llæ}]\) ‘have finished saying’ (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{pɜ}]\) ‘speak’, the terminative auxiliary \([\text{tsʰa}]\), \([\text{læ}]\) ‘become’), see Text 1, sentence 16

In addition, in phrases containing monosyllabic host words, followed by two or more enclitics, the first two syllables of the phrase (i.e. the host word and the first enclitic) may be stressed. The tone of this stressed domain is an expansion of the tone word of the host. The remaining syllables (enclitics) are unstressed and surface as low. For example:

(20) \([^{\text{H}}\text{qua}=\text{Hji}=\text{dzō}]\) ‘be crying’ (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{qua}]\) ‘cry, weep’, the progressive marker \([\text{jī}]\), the durative auxiliary \([\text{dzō}]\)), see example (42) below

(21) \([^{\text{L}}\text{tsʰu}=\text{t̚i}=\text{rē}]\) ‘the ghost’ (< \([^{\text{L}}\text{tsʰu}]\) ‘ghost’, \([^{\text{L}}\text{t̚i}]\) ‘that, the’, the agentive marker \([rē]\)), see Text 1, sentence 13

(22) \([^{\text{H}}\text{pɜ}=\text{tsʰa}=\text{læ}]\) ‘have finished saying’ (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{pɜ}]\) ‘speak’, the terminative auxiliary \([\text{tsʰa}]\), \([\text{læ}]\) ‘become’), see Text 1, sentence 16
is toned, the root of the word \([^{\text{H}}\text{rõ-}^{\text{L}}\text{mi}]\) ‘mare’ is expected to have HL tone. However, the inherent tone of this free root is LH, i.e. \([^{\text{L}}\text{H}\text{rõ}]\) ‘horse’.

In addition, tone derivation patterns in pronouns (§3.7), numerals (§3.8) and numeral-classifier combinations (§3.9) are not yet entirely understood. Such not yet understood cases are hereafter referred to as “irregular” (from the point of view of the synchronically common tone derivation processes described in this section).

3. THE NOUN PHRASE

3.1. Nominal morphology

Affixing and compounding represent the major derivational processes for polymorphemic nouns in Shìxīng. Important nominal prefixes and suffixes include:

(i) Vocative prefix \([a-]\) in kinship terms. For example, \([^{\text{H}}\text{a-}^{\text{H}}\text{wu}]\) (paternal) uncle, regardless of age; husband of father’s sister’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{a-}^{\text{H}}\text{gu}^{\text{g}}}\) ‘(maternal) uncle, regardless of age; husband of mother’s sister’, \([^{\text{ta-}^{\text{H}}}\text{ju}]\) ‘elder brother’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{a-}^{\text{H}}\text{zi}]\) ‘elder sister’. This suffix has a bleached meaning and is rather fossilized in kinship terms.

(ii) Feminine gender and agentive suffix \([-\text{mi}]\). This suffix has two distinct meanings and functions. On the one hand, it denotes the natural feminine gender in some nouns referring to people or animals. On the other hand, it appears to be a derivational suffix with restricted productivity, which at its more productive stage probably served to derive agentive nouns from both nouns and verbs. Given these two unrelated meanings and functions, it is conceivable that \([-\text{mi}]\) is a conflation of two suffixes with distinct origins.

It is first meaning, as a feminine gender suffix, \([-\text{mi}]\) appears to be semantically and functionally close to the nominal feminine gender suffix \([^{\text{me}^{\text{3}}}]}\) in Nàxì (Hé & Jiāng 1985: 27-28). Some examples of this suffix in Shìxīng are: \([^{\text{H}}\text{ʔɛ̃-}^{\text{H}}\text{mi}]\) ‘she-sheep’ (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{ʔɛ̃}]\) ‘sheep’), \([^{\text{H}}\text{bu-}^{\text{H}}\text{gõ}^{\text{H}}\text{mi}]\) ‘sisters’ (< \([^{\text{bu}]}\) (bound) ‘older brother’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{gõ}]\) ‘younger sister/brother’, cf. Yǒngníng Nà /gu-li-mi/).\(^{16}\)

Similar to Nàxì (as well as many East and Southeast Asian languages, Matisoff 1991: 299-330), the suffix \([-\text{mi}]\) in Shìxīng can be used as an augmentative, as in the names of celestial bodies, e.g. \([^{\text{H}}\text{ʔnɔ-}^{\text{H}}\text{mi}]\) ‘sun’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{ʔi}^{\text{H}}\text{mi}]\) ‘moon’.

In its second meaning, the suffix \([-\text{mi}]\) is likely to be related to the root \(\text{mi}\) ‘man, person’, shared by many Sino-Tibetan languages. Consider the following examples of the use of this suffix to derive nouns from nouns and nouns from verbs: \([^{\text{H}}\text{kʰɛ-}^{\text{H}}\text{li-Lmi}]\) ‘four limbs’ (< \([^{\text{H}}\text{kʰɛ}]\) ‘foot’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{li}]\) ‘hand’) and \([^{\text{H}}\text{dʒz-}^{\text{H}}\text{mi}]\) ‘wave’. The latter word can be analyzed as a subject-predicate verbal expression, consisting of the noun \([^{\text{H}}\text{dʒz}]\) ‘water’ and the bound verbal root \([^{\text{H}}\text{z}]\) ‘raise, rise’, nominalized by the suffix \([-\text{mi}]\).

(iii) Male gender suffix \([-\text{p}^{\text{h}3}]\). \([-\text{p}^{\text{h}3}]\) is the male gender suffix, corresponding to the female gender suffix \([-\text{mi}]\). \([-\text{p}^{\text{h}3}]\) is used to indicate the natural male gender. Compare the following examples: \([^{\text{H}}\text{kʰu}^{\text{H}}\text{u}^{\text{3}}}]\) ‘dog’, \([^{\text{H}}\text{kʰu}^{\text{H}}\text{u}^{\text{3}}-\text{p}^{\text{h}3}]\) ‘(male) dog’ vs.

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\(^{16}\) Yǒngníng Nà data throughout the paper are from Alexis Michaud, p.c.
20  
\[ Hernandez u^{1}\text{mi} \] ‘bitch’; \[ Hernandez z^{1}\text{zi} \] ‘cat’, \[ Hernandez z^{1}\text{hp}^{3}\text{zi} \] ‘male cat’, \[ Hernandez z^{1}\text{mi} \] ‘female cat’.  
\( iv \) Diminutive suffix [\text{-}z\text{o}] . This suffix derived from the word \[ Hernandez z\text{o} \] ‘(male) child, man, male’. For example, \[ Hernandez u^{1}\text{mi} z\text{o} \] ‘puppy’ (< \[ Hernandez p^{1}\text{zi} \] ‘dog’), \[ Hernandez z^{1}\text{mi} z\text{o} \] ‘kitten’ (< \[ Hernandez z^{1}\text{zi} \] ‘cat’).

Both [\text{mi}] and [\text{z\text{o}}] can be used in Shíxīng as nominal roots with the meaning ‘woman, female’ and ‘man, male’, respectively, as in the following nominal noun-adjective compounds for ‘mute’: \[ Hernandez \text{mi}^{1}\text{tcz} \] ‘female mute’ and \[ Hernandez z\text{o}^{1}\text{tcz} \] ‘male mute’.

3.2. Structure of the noun phrase

The maximum structure of a simple noun phrase in Shíxīng is represented in Table 7 (non-compatible or non-co-occurring elements are listed on separate lines):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dem phrase+Relative clause</th>
<th>Noun+ Adj</th>
<th>Num+Cl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dem</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\text{Table 7. The structure of a simple noun phrase in Shíxīng}

Following are some examples of possible combinations:

(23) Dem+Noun+Dem: \[ Hernandez \text{t}^{1}\text{h}^{3}\text{pi}^{1}\text{ha} \] ‘this story’ (the tone of \[ Hernandez \text{ha} \] ‘this’ appears to assimilate to that of the modified noun \[ Hernandez \text{pi}^{1}\text{ha} \] ‘story’)

(24) Relative clause+Noun: \[ Hernandez \text{t}^{1}\text{z}^{3}=\text{r}^{1}\text{e} \# \text{ts}^{1}\text{a}^{1}\text{ji}^{1}\text{t}^{1}\text{u} \] ‘a way (for me) to finish eating’ (note the irregular tone of the first phonological word, \[ Hernandez \text{t}^{1}\text{z}^{3}=\text{r}^{1}\text{e} \), \( < \[ Hernandez \text{t}^{1}\text{z}^{3} \])

(25) Noun+Adj+Def: \[ Hernandez \text{b}^{1}\text{bo}^{1}\text{p}^{1}\text{u}^{1}\text{tcz}\text{tcz}=\text{t}^{1}\text{pi} \] ‘the white yak’

(26) Noun+Adj+Indef: \[ Hernandez \text{fiu}^{1}\text{mo}^{1}\text{dz}^{1}\text{dz}^{1} \] ‘a big lake’

If functioning as a topic, the noun phrase can be followed by the topic marker \[ z\text{j} \]. Topic in Shíxīng is the first noun phrase in a clause, denoting the actor or the undergoer or establishing a spatial, temporal, or personal frame or domain for the following assertion.

3.3. Definite and indefinite marking

The definiteness and indefiniteness of the noun in Shíxīng is mostly signaled by contextual clues. In addition, the demonstrative pronoun \[ Hernandez \text{t}^{1}\text{pi}^{1} \] ‘that’ and the numeral \[ Hernandez \text{dz}^{1} \] ‘one’ can serve as an optional definite marker and an optional indefinite marker, respectively. In other words, \[ Hernandez \text{t}^{1}\text{pi}^{1} \] can be translated as ‘that’ or ‘the’ and \[ Hernandez \text{dz}^{1} \] as ‘one’ or ‘a’, depending on the context. These markers can fulfill some of the functions, which are commonly attributed to definite and indefinite markers cross-linguistically (Schachter & Shopen 2007: 39).
[\textit{HLt}ʰ\textit{i}] serves as reference indicator, signaling that the referent of the preceding noun that it modifies is assumed to have already been established and refers to something mentioned in the context. For example:

(27) \textit{HLt}ʰ\textit{i} = \textit{Lt}ʰ\textit{i}\# \textit{HLt}ʰ\textit{i}\# \textit{HL}ɕyɜ = \textit{Lli} = \textit{Ljõ}.

\textit{HLt}ʰ\textit{i} = \textit{Lt}ʰ\textit{i}\# \textit{HLt}ʰ\textit{i}\# \textit{HL}ɕyɜ = \textit{Lli} = \textit{Ljõ}.

\begin{tabular}{llll}
person & = & that & think = NMLZ.PST = COP \\
\end{tabular}

‘The man thought the following.’

[\textit{LHd}ʑĩ] ‘one’, on the other hand, serves to denote the meaning ‘a certain’ and is used in this meaning, for instance, when a new referent is introduced in the discourse. For example:

(28) \textit{LHd}ʑĩ \textit{Hji-}\textit{ԡibi} \textit{Hji-}\textit{ԡib} \textit{Hphi-}\textit{hwu} \textit{HL}zdĩ# \textit{Ldi-Hzu} \textit{Lj}i = \textit{Lzdō}.

\textit{LHd}ʑĩ \textit{Hji-}\textit{ԡibi} \textit{Hji-}\textit{ԡib} \textit{Hphi-}\textit{hwu} \textit{HL}zdĩ# \textit{Ldi-Hzu} \textit{Lj}i = \textit{Lzdō}.

\begin{tabular}{llllll}
previous-? & previous-? & place.name-family & person & one \\
\end{tabular}

‘A long time ago there lived in Píngwēng a family.’ (Text 1, sentence 1)

3.4. Number specification

Shǐxīng has an optional plural marker [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}]. Similar to comparable plural particles or suffixes in many Sino-Tibetan languages, the meanings and functions of [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] are markedly distinct from those of plural suffixes in Indo-European languages. Zero marking on a noun in Shǐxīng does not imply singularity. Instead, Shǐxīng nouns are rather unspecified for number. In this situation, the function of [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] is not to denote, but rather to emphasize plurality. [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] can be added to any countable noun regardless of its animacy, or even to a mass noun, although less frequently. For example: [\textit{HLh}i] ‘person’ vs. [\textit{HL}ʰ\textit{i} = \textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] ‘people’, [\textit{Htsō}] ‘thing’ vs. [\textit{Htsō} = \textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] ‘things’, [\textit{HL}cu] ‘meat’ vs. [\textit{HL}cu = \textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] ‘meat (all different parts of a slaughtered animal)’.

Furthermore, [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] appears to add the meaning ‘and the like’ to the noun it modifies. This meaning is likely to be directly related to the original meaning of the expression [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}]. The meaning of the first element of [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] is possibly related to the Sino-Tibetan root \textit{mi} ‘person, man’. The meaning of the second element, on the other hand, may be related to the (bound) element [\textit{zi}], the marker of equative comparison, tentatively ‘be similar, resemble’ (§3.5.6). This possibility is suggested by the occasional use of [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}] with nouns denoting non-human referents, which combinations in turn refer to groups of people associated with these non-human referents. For instance, the noun ‘house servants’, [\textit{Lzdō.}ʰ\textit{hō} = \textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}], is formed from the noun [\textit{Lzdō.}ʰ\textit{hō}] ‘house’ followed by the plural marker [\textit{Lm.}ʰ\textit{zi}]. The literal meaning of this expression is ‘people associated with the house’.
Similar to optional plural markers in many Sino-Tibetan languages, the use of \[ m\text{̀}zi \] precludes the definiteness of the noun it modifies. Consequently, \[ m\text{̀}zi \] is not compatible with a numeral and a classifier phrase and it does not co-occur with \[ h\text{́}i \] ‘the, that’.

### 3.5. Case markers

Shixing has a fairly elaborate inventory of case markers, consisting of:

i. the agentive and ablative marker \[ r\text{́} \]
ii. the animate patient marker \[ s\text{́} \]
iii. the instrumental and comitative marker \[ wu \]
iv. the genitive marker \[ ji \]

v. four locative markers: \[ r\text{̀}o \] ‘on’, \[ no \] ‘inside’, \[ k\text{́} \] ‘at’ and the general locative marker \[ la \]
vi. the standards of comparison \[ s\text{́}ʁɑ \] and \[ zi \]

These markers are outlined and exemplified presently, in that order. (Note that when co-occurring with personal pronouns, case markers may trigger ablauted alternants of the first and the third person pronouns, as discussed in §2.2.1).

Encoding of the semantic roles of agent and patient is governed in Shixing by their respective ranking on the empathy hierarchy (Silverstein 1976): speaker > hearer > non-participant > non-human animate > inanimate

The agent marker \[ r\text{́} \] and the animate patient \[ s\text{́} \] can be viewed as working in tandem to signal a highly transitive construction, that involves two maximally distinguished, independent participants (cf. Næss 2007). \[ r\text{́} \] marks the volitional and instigating agent, whereas \[ s\text{́} \] signals a highly individuated (definite and animate) patient, defined as affected and undergoing a change of state as a result of the event denoted by the verb. An additional patient marker in Shixing is \[ wu \], which, in contrast to \[ s\text{́} \], indicates effected patients, i.e. those that unlike affected patients, are indefinite and do not undergo a change of state.

#### 3.5.1. Agentive and ablative marker \[ r\text{́} \]

The agentive marker \[ r\text{́} \] is typically used to highlight the agentive character of an animate entity which is the controlling instigator of the action denoted by a transitive verb. It is required in the following scenarios:

\[ r\text{́} \] is obligatory when the (animate) patient outranks the agent argument on the empathy hierarchy, or if both are equally ranked, as in the following example:

(29) \[ 1\text{́}dzi-h\text{́}ma=1læ=1lɛ\text{́},\text{́} h\text{́}h\text{́i}=1t\text{́}i=1r\text{́}e\# 1ts\text{́}h\text{́}u=1s\text{́}j\text{́}# h\text{́}b\text{́}b\text{́}# 1h\text{́}k\text{́}e=1li=1n\text{̀}o.\]

\[ 1\text{́}dzi-h\text{́}ma=1læ=1l3,\text{́} h\text{́}h\text{́i}=1t\text{́}i=1r\text{́}e\# 1ts\text{́}h\text{́}u=1s\text{́}j\text{́} h\text{́}b\text{́}b\text{́} \]

one-day=become=LOC person=that=AGT ghost=PNT.ANM guest

\[ 1h\text{́}k\text{́}e=1li=1n\text{̀}o.\]
call=NMLZ.PST=COP

‘One day, the man invited the ghost to his place.’ (Text 1, sentence 18)

The agentive marker \[ r\text{́} \] is obligatory, when the patient is topicalized and precedes the agent. This happens when the action denoted by the verb is
presented from the perspective of its undergoer. Consider the following examples, sentence (30) with an inanimate and sentence (31) with an animate subject:

(30) Ɂni-Ɂwu# Ɂmi-Ɂzæ = Ɂji# Ɂku-Ɂtsõ# Ɂtæ-Ɂtsõ# Ɂtʰæ = ɁZɁ# Ɂki-Ɂmi = Ɂrɛ# Ɂqʰu = ɁsɁ, Ɂha-Ɂwu = ɁsɁ ɁHkɛ = Ɂli = Ɂŋḥ.
2SG-family female-?= GEN head-thing neck-thing that=TOP
daughter
eagle-NM=AGT steal=PRF this-family=PNT.ANM give=NMLZ.PST=COP
‘Your daughter’s head and neck ornaments have been stolen by the eagle, and given by it to this family.’

(31) “Ɂŋɜ = ɁsɁ# ɁsɁ = Ɂrɛ# Ɂdz Ɂtɕi-Ɂtɕi# Ɂbɛ = Ɂji#,” Ɂpɛ = Ɂli = Ɂŋḥ.¹⁷
”Ɂŋɜ = ɁsɁ ɁsɁ = Ɂrɛ Ɂdz Ɂtɕi-Ɂtɕi Ɂbɛ = Ɂji,”
1SG=PNT.ANM personal.name=AGT eat do-do make=GEN
HLp = Ɂli = Ɂŋḥ.
speak=NMLZ.PST=COP
‘The monk said: “I am about to be eaten by Shonshon!”’

Alternatively, [rɛ̃] can be used whenever the agentive character of an animate entity-instigator of the action denoted by the verb is to be stressed, for either semantic, pragmatic or structural reasons. For example, the agentive marker [rɛ̃] is required with non-human and inanimate agents (i.e. those ranked lower than the speaker, hearer and non-participant on the empathy hierarchy). For example:

(32) ɁhɁu# Ɂgu-ɁhɁu = Ɂrɛ̃# ɁŋɁ = Ɂji# Ɂru-Ɂmi# Ɂɛɡ-Ɂnɡa = Ɂdz ɁjɁ.
ɁhɁu Ɂgu-ɁhɁu = Ɂrɛ̃ ɁŋɁ = Ɂji Ɂru-Ɂmi
lake nine-lake=AGT 1SG=GEN walk-NM
HɁɛɡ-Ɂnɡa = Ɂdz ɁjɁ.
Pfv-block=DUR=PROG
‘Nine lakes are blocking my way.’

The agentive marker [rɛ̃] is obligatory in relative clauses, given that relative clauses in Shixǐng normally require all semantic roles of the participants to be overtly marked. For example:

(33) ɁŋɁ = Ɂrɛ̃# Ɂdz = ɁtʰɛɁa = Ɂji# ɁHɁu
¹⁷ Note that this clause is nominalized and made complement of the copular verb [ɁHŋɦ]. This is a frequent sentence type in story narrations, further discussed in §4.6.
One more typical context for the use of [r̥] is in direct speech sentences, where direct speech is positioned between the original speaker (marker by [r̥]) and the verb of speaking, as in the following example:

\[(34) \text{L} \text{ɬa.} \text{mo.} \text{Ts} \text{u} = \text{L} \text{r} \text{ɛ̃}: \text{“H} \text{ɲi# } \text{L} \text{ŋa=Hwu# } \text{Hd} \text{z} \text{u#}, \text{H} \text{ŋa# } \text{L} \text{ci=Hg3#,” H} \text{p} \text{z} = \text{L} \text{li} = \text{L} \text{ŋo}. \]

\[(35) \text{H} \text{hī# } \text{H} \text{ŋ3-} \text{mi } \text{L} \text{a-} \text{ba-} \text{t}s\text{jī# }(...) \text{H} \text{ŋ3-} \text{Hjī }= \text{L} \text{l3# } \text{L} \text{l3-} \text{m} \text{z-} \text{m} \text{z }= \text{H} \text{s} \text{jī# } \text{L} \text{ra.} \text{ka=Hno=Hr̥# } \text{L} \text{dz} \text{z }= \text{H} \text{no# } \text{L} \text{miæ-} \text{Htsa } \text{L} \text{ci=Hg3#,” H} \text{p} \text{z }= \text{L} \text{li} = \text{L} \text{ŋo}. \]

Shixing does not exhibit the widespread Sino-Tibetan isomorphism of the agentive and the instrumental (cf. DeLancey 1984; LaPolla 1995). Instead, it displays an isomorphism between the agentive and the ablative, both cases being marked by the enclitic [r̥]. The ablative use of this marker is illustrated in the following example:

\[(35) \text{H} \text{hī# } \text{H} \text{ŋ3-} \text{mi } \text{L} \text{a-} \text{ba-} \text{t}s\text{jī# }(...) \text{H} \text{ŋ3-} \text{Hjī }= \text{L} \text{l3# } \text{L} \text{l3-} \text{m} \text{z-} \text{m} \text{z }= \text{H} \text{s} \text{jī# } \text{L} \text{ra.} \text{ka=Hno=Hr̥# } \text{L} \text{dz} \text{z }= \text{H} \text{no# } \text{L} \text{miæ-} \text{Htsa } \text{L} \text{ci=Hg3#,” H} \text{p} \text{z }= \text{L} \text{li} = \text{L} \text{ŋo}. \]

The evil man shut his eyes and jumped from the cliff into the river.'
clauses (e.g. example 29 above) and the goal or beneficiary in ditransitive clause (e.g. example 30 above). \([s_1]\) denotes total affectedness of the object that typically undergoes a change of state as a result of the event denoted by the verb. Consider an additional example:

\[(36) \text{\textasciitilde}n_1^\text{\textcircled{s}}=Hs_1^1d_z^1m_i^1\text{\textcircled{z}}^1x_i=Ht_1^1c_e^1!\]

\(\text{\textasciitilde}n_1^\text{\textcircirol{s}}=Hs_1^2d_z^2=\text{\textcircled{n}o}^1m_i^1\text{\textcircled{z}}^1x_i=Ht_1^1c_e^1!\)

\(2\text{SG} \ 1\text{SG}=\text{PNT.ANM} \ \text{water=inside} \ \text{downward-fall=CAUS=MIR}\)

‘You have made me fall into the river!’

The animate patient marker \([s_1]\) is homophonous with the perfect auxiliary \([s_1]\), as further discussed in §4.4.1.

3.5.3. Instrumental and comitative marker \([wu]\)

The instrumental case, “the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the state or action identified by the verb” (Fillmore 1968: 24) is signaled in Shîxîng by the marker \([wu]\), as in the following example:

\[(37) \text{\textasciitilde}p_3^1t^1s^1h^1a^1l_e^1=Ht_1^1c_i-H_t^1c_i^\text{\textcircled{z}i}^1\text{\textcircled{z}i}^1h_1^1b_3^1=\text{\textcircled{l}i}^1\text{\textcircled{n}o}^1.\]

\(\text{\textasciitilde}p_3^1t^1s^1h^1a^1l_e^1, \ \text{\textasciitilde}b_i^1-m_i^1=\text{\textcircled{w}u}^1t^1h_3^1=Hs_1^1t_i^1H_t^1c_i-H_t^1c_i^\text{\textcircirol{z}i}^1\text{\textcircirol{z}i}^1h_1^1b_3^1=\text{\textcircirol{l}i}^1\text{\textcircirol{n}o}^1.\)

\(\text{\textasciitilde}b_i^1-m_i^1=\text{\textcircled{w}u}^1t^1h_3^1=Hs_1^1t_i^1\text{\textcircirol{n}o}^1.\)

speak=finish=become \ axe=\text{\textcircled{N}M}=\text{INSTR} \ that=\text{PNT.ANM} \ \text{chop}

\(\text{do-do make=\text{\textcircir{N}MLZ.PST}=\text{COP}\)"

‘Having said that he was about to chop him into pieces with an axe.’

The same marker serves to index the comitative case. The distinction between comitative and instrumental is based on animacy. An inanimate object involved in the action identified by the verb is read as expressing instrument (as in the examples above), whereas an animate object involved in the action identified by the verb is understood as human accompaniment.

Similar to the animate patient marker \([s_1]\), the comitative marker \([wu]\) marks animate patients of transitive verbs. In contrast to the definite and affected type of patients marked by \([s_1]\), however, those signalled by \([wu]\) are either indefinite, as in example (38), or due to their accompanying involvement in the event denoted by the verb, not conceived as totally affected by this event, as in example (39).

The type of patients signaled by \([wu]\) is thus reminiscent of “effected [patient] objects”, as defined by Hopper (1985: 69, quoted from Næss 2007; Næss 2007: 104).

\[(38) \text{\textasciitilde}r_o^1q_6^1=\text{\textcircir{b}a}^1H_r^1u^1t_1^1r^1=Hw_1^1u^1H_1^1p_u^1=\text{\textcircirol{x}a}^1\text{\textcircirol{l}i}^1\text{\textcircirol{n}o}^1.\)"
‘Halfway the mouse ran into a snake.’

(39) ¹Da.₁lŋ.₁ku.₁ku = ¹rē#: “¹la.₁mu.₁tsʰu = ¹wu# ʰdʒ = ʰgʒ#,”

³¹pʒ = ³¹lŋ = ¹nō.

³¹Da.₁lŋ.₁ku.₁ku = ¹rē: “¹la.₁mu.₁tsʰu = ¹wu ʰdʒ = ʰgʒ,”

personal.name=AGT moon=COM fight=VOL
³¹pʒ = ³¹lŋ = ¹nō
speak=NMLZ.PST=COP
(Once) Dalykuku said: “I will flight with the moon.””

The comitative marker [wu] is homophonous with the resultative auxiliary [wu] (§4.4.2).

3.5.4. Genitive marker [ji]

Genitive is a case whose basic role is to express possession, part-whole relationships and related semantic functions and thus to mark nouns or noun phrases which are dependent on another noun. A genitive noun phrase in Shîxîng precedes the noun it modifies.

Genitival relation in Shîxîng can be expressed by a simple juxtaposition of two nouns or noun phrases, e.g. [₁dzi.₁bu⁻Hwu# ¹Lhʒó] ‘king’s son’, [₁dzi.₁bu⁻Hwu# ₁dzó.₁hǒ] ‘king’s house’. Otherwise, genitival relation is expressed by the genitive marker [ji], as in the following example:

(40) ¹ni⁻Hwu# ¹Lhʒó# ¹kē = ¹kô = ¹ji# ¹ba.₁ru

³¹ni⁻Hwu ¹Lhʒó ¹kē = ¹kô = ¹ji ¹ba.₁ru
2SG-family son neck=on=GEN snake
‘the snake on the neck of your son’

The genitive particle [ji] can also produce noun phrases without an overt head noun, as in sentence (41):

(41) ʰha ʰgu ʰha# ¹tʰi = ʰji ¹nō.

ʰha ʰgu ʰha ¹tʰi = ʰji ¹nō.
this clothing this that=GEN COP
‘This piece of clothing is his.’

[ji] is also used in Shîxîng as a means of nominalization, converting verbal clauses into noun phrases. For example:

(42) ¹zʒ⁻Hmi# ʰtcʰi = ʰlæ = ʰʃj# ʰqua = ʰji = ₁dzó?
3.5.5. Locative markers

Shixing has a total of four locative enclitics: [ŋo], [no], [kɔ] and [lɔ~la]. The former two, [ŋo] and [no], transparently derive from the locative nouns [LHŋo] ‘on, up’ and [LHno] ‘inside’ (WT nang), respectively. [ŋo] and [no] signal both stative and dynamic location, i.e. the stative positioning of the entity in question, respectively, on or inside a location and, alternatively, the movement in the direction onto or inside a location. In addition to spatial location, [ŋo] and [no] also denote location in time. Consider some examples of the use of these markers:

(i) Spatial location ‘on’ or ‘in the direction onto’:

(43) … Hjī-Hzyæ=1ŋō# Ldz3-Lçi=Hsʃ …

field-side=on upward-stand=PRF
‘(The ghost) stood at the side of the field.’ (Text 2, sentence 66)

(44) … Hhī=1tʰi=1rē# Hsyi# Ldzī-Htsō# Hpu=1l3=1sʃ#, Ltsʰu=Hjį# Lli=1ŋō# Lkʰu-Ltsʃ-Hts3=Ltsʰa=1læ…

person=that=AGT pine.torches one-bundle bring=come.PST=PRF
ghost=GEN hand=on inward-bind-bind=finish=become
‘… the man took a bundle of pine torches and tied it to the ghost’s hands…’ (Text 1, sentence 23)

(ii) [kɔ] also marks the possessor in existential sentences with the verb [LHdzō] ‘exist’; this, in line with a cross-linguistically common tendency to case-mark the possessor as a location. For example:

(45) 1ʔō-Hrē=1kɔ# Hbō=1l3# Lba.Hkɑ#, Htyi-Hrō=1l3# Lba.Hkɑ.

self-PL=on yak=also many mule-horse=also many
‘We have a lot of yaks and mules.’

The locative marker [ŋo] is homophonic with the irrealis auxiliary [ŋo] (§4.5.2).

[no] ‘inside’

(i) Spatial location ‘inside’ or movement ‘in the direction inside’ (with noun phrases). For example:
Then the man told him: “No one in the whole world is closer than the two of us.” (Text 2, sentence 24)

Do not fly into the Shu river!” (Text 1, sentence 33)

In the absence of other clause connectors, [no] in this function is normally followed by the conjunction [LHni] ‘and’, e.g.:

“They are eating and chatting at the same time.’

More idiosyncratically, [no] is used to introduce the animate (direct or indirect) object of the verbs [lt'si] ‘like’, [Hm] ‘be named’, [Hsu] ‘understand’ and of verbs of speaking. For example:

“They are eating and chatting at the same time.’
The enclitic [k3], on the other hand, indicates the allative meaning, attainment of a location. Its etymology is currently unclear. For example:

\[(51) \text{Lt}^{h}u=H_{wu}=Lk\text{ɜ}\]
\[\text{Lt}^{h}u=H_{wu}=Lk\text{ɜ} \Rightarrow \text{Hp} \alpha=H_{læ} \]

that-family=at arrive=become

‘when he came to their place...’

Finally, the enclitic [lɜ~la] signals a general locative meaning. It is likely to be a loan from Tibetan, the locative marker la. For example, [hza=hl3] ‘here’, [dzũ=hl3] ‘in the mountains’, [dzi=hlæ=sl=hl3] ‘every night’, [ls=wi=ma=hl3] ‘on the second evening’. In addition, [l3~la] is also frequently used in place names, as in the names of Xùmǐ villages, e.g. [dō-Hla] ‘Dōnglā’ and [Hzê-Hla] ‘Xīnzàng’. The name [Hzê=Hla] is derived from the noun [Hzê] ‘bridge’. The village is situated at the place where an iron chain bridge once spanned the Shuǐlù River (cf. Rock 1947: 110).18

3.5.6. Standards of comparison: [sɿ.ʁɑ] and [zi]

Standard in comparative construction is marked by [sɿ.ʁɑ]. Based on standards of comparison in other Sino-Tibetan languages, the second element is likely to be related to the locative marker ‘on’, [sõ]. In addition, the first element, [sɿ], is possibly cognate with the comparative marker /-s/ in Qiāng (LaPolla with Huang 1996: 88-89). For example:

\[(52) \text{l1z-}H_{zj}=\text{l1s1}1\text{ka#} \text{l1miae-}zũ=H_{x}a\text{l1ht}sa\text#, \text{l1miae-}zũ=\text{l1s1}1\text{ka#} \text{l1dz3-}cĩ=H_{x}a\text{l1ht}sa\text#, \text{l1dz3-}cĩ=\text{l1s1}1\text{ka#} \text{l1bu-}ru=H_{x}a\text{l1ht}sa\text#.}]

PFV-sleep=CMPR downward-sit only superior
\[\text{l1miae-}zũ=\text{l1s1}1\text{ka#} \text{l1dz3-}cĩ=H_{x}a\text{l1ht}sa\text#, \text{l1dz3-}cĩ=\text{l1s1}1\text{ka#} \text{l1bu-}ru=H_{x}a\text{l1ht}sa\text#.}

downward-sit=CMPR stand only superior
\[\text{l1dz3-}cĩ=\text{l1s1}1\text{ka#} \text{l1bu-}ru=H_{x}a\text{l1ht}sa\text#, \text{l1bu-}ru=\text{l1ht}sa\text#.}

stand=CMPR outside-walk only superior

‘Sitting is better than sleeping, standing is better than sitting, walking is better than standing.’

---

18 Rock gives the name of the village as “Shen-dzong”, meaning ‘Iron Bridge’, cf. the current Chinese name of the village: 新藏 Xīnzàng. Judging by the original meaning, as indicated by Rock, the ShiXīng name of this village used to be [hũ-Hzê] ‘Iron Bridge’.
Standard of equative comparison is signaled by the marker [zi], tentatively ‘resemble’, e.g.:

(53) Hdzi.Htê.Hkʰo = I no# HndzjHhî = Hjzj# I ?ûô = Hdzj I na-I ku#
Lzî = I mi = Hjî = I dzô.

Hdzi.Htê.Hkʰo = I no,
Hndzj-Hhî = Hjzj,
I ?ûô = Hdzj,
I na-I ku
world=inside
intimate-person=TOP
self=DU
two-item
Lzî = I mi = Hjî = I dzô.
resemble=NEG=GEN=DUR

‘No one in the whole world is closer than the two of us.’ (Text 2, sentence 24)

3.6. Topic marker [zɿ]

A topic in Shìxīng (i.e. the first noun phrase in a clause: the actor, the undergoer or a scene-setting topic) may be followed by the topic marker [zɿ]. For example:

(54) I ?ûô = Hdzj# I na-I ku = Hjzj# Hka.Hpao# Hndzj-Hhî#, I zô-Hzô I dzy3 I nô.

I ?ûô = Hdzj,
I na-I ku = Hjzj,
Hka.Hpao,
Hndzj-Hhî,
I zô-Hzô
self=DU
two-item=TOP
very
intimate-person
man-man
Ldzy3
I nô.

friend COP

‘The two of us are so close, we are such great pals.’ (Text 2, sentence 20)

If a sentence has two topics, one scene-setting (time or location) or one the agent or the undergoer, the order of the two topics is normally as follows: the scene-setting topic first, followed by the agent or undergoer topic. The marker [zɿ] indexes the second topic, as in sentence (55). In addition, if the topic is followed by a case marker, [zɿ] occurs after the case marker.

(55) ... Hzwi# I nî = I sî = Hjzj# Htsb# I Htsb# u3 I dżi# Hqao = I tê...

 Hzwi
I nî = I sî = Hjzj
Htsb
I Htsb# u3
I dżi
Hqao = I tê
night
2SG=PNT.ANM=TOP
goat
fat
one

butcher=INST

‘Tonight, I will surely slaughter a fat goat for you.’ (Text 1, sentence 28)

3.7. Pronouns

Personal pronouns in Shìxīng distinguish singular, dual, and plural number in all persons. Shìxīng singular pronouns include: [Hn] ‘I’, [Hni] ‘thou’ and [Hth] ‘he, she, that’. In addition, Huáng & Rénzhēng (1991: 183) note separate variants of the first person pronoun, [nao], and of the second person pronoun, [nia]. These forms, however, have not been attested in my fieldwork. The form [Hth] is first and foremost the demonstrative pronoun ‘that’, which serves by semantic extension as the third person pronoun and as the definite marker, a common
feature of many Qiangic languages (Huáng 1991: 284-285) as well as cross-linguistically.

Plural forms are formed with the plural suffix [-rɛ̃], i.e. [Hŋa-Hrɛ̃] ‘we’, [Hni-Hrɛ̃] ‘you’ and [Htʰɛ̃] ‘they’ (note the irregular tones of these words, possibly due to analogical levelling). In addition, Shǐxīng has the inclusive-exclusive distinction in the first person plural pronoun, viz. the exclusive [Hŋa-Hrɛ̃] vs. the inclusive [Lʔo-Hrɛ̃] (< [Hlʔo] ‘self’, note the irregular tone of this word).

Collective plural for personal pronouns can be formed with the root [Hwu] ‘family, clan’. For example, [Hŋa-Hwu] ‘we (as a group/family)’, [Hni-Hwu] ‘you (as a group/family)’ and [Htʰu-Hwu] ‘they (as a group/family)’ (note the irregular tone of the latter two forms, possibly again, due to analogical leveling; in the form [Htʰu-Hwu], the vowel of the root [tʰi] assimilates to the vowel of the second element, as discussed in §2.2.1.).

All personal pronouns can form dual by adding the dual marker [HLdzɿ] to the singular personal pronoun form. The resulting form is often followed by the expression [Lɲa-Lku] ‘two items’ (< [ɲa] ‘two’ (bound) and the general classifier [ku]). For example: [Htʰu-Hdzɿ(Lɲa-Lku)] ‘the two of us (inclusive)’, [Hŋa-Hdzɿ(Lɲa-Lku)] ‘the two of you’ and [Htʰu-Hdzɿ(Lɲa-Lku)] ‘the three of them’.

Demonstrative pronouns in Shǐxīng are [Hha] ‘this’ and [HLtʰi] ‘that’. In addition, the bound form [tʂʰu] occurs in some words and set expressions in the meaning ‘this’, e.g. [Htʂʰu-Hbɘ] ‘this year’.

As noted by Huáng (1994: 187-188), the demonstrative pronouns in Shǐxīng can be placed (i) before, (ii) after and (iii) before and after the noun they modify. Based on the distribution of [Hha] and [HLtʰi] in the recorded texts, I note that the former is mostly restricted to the position before and after the noun it modifies, whereas the latter can variously appear after as well as before and after the modified noun. For example, [Hha Hhǐ Hha] ‘this man’, [Hha Hgu Hha] ‘this piece of clothing’; [Hlɦi Hlɦ# HLtʰi] ‘that man’, [Hlɦ# HLtʰi] ‘that man, the man’.

Contra Huáng (1994: 187-188), who attributes the same meanings and functions to these pronouns in all their positions in the noun phrase, I propose that there is a semantic and a functional difference associated with the positioning of the demonstrative pronoun [HLtʰi] ‘that’ in Shǐxīng. When framing the noun, [HLtʰi] is used in its function of the demonstrative pronoun ‘that’, whereas when placed after the modified noun, it rather serves the function of the definite marker as discussed in §3.3.

The plural forms of the demonstrative pronouns are formed with the plural suffix [-rɛ̃], i.e. [Hha-Hrɛ̃] ‘these’, [Htʰɛ̃] ‘those’ (note the irregular tones of these forms).

The demonstrative pronouns [Hha] ‘this’ and [HLtʰi] ‘that’ may be in an inflexional relationship with the locative nouns [Hɑ] ‘here’ and [Htʃ] ‘there’ respectively.

Shǐxīng main interrogative pronouns are [Hni] ‘who’, [Htʰi] ‘what’ (WT chi), [Htʰi=Hlæ] ‘why’, [HLzi] ‘which’, [HLza] ‘where’ and [Lnô-Hz] ‘when’ (for some examples, see sentences (1), (20) and (42) in §§3-4 and sentences (12) and (9) in the Appendix, texts 1 and 2, respectively).
3.8. Numerals

Shixīng cardinal numerals (numbers from 1 through 10) are native, while ordinal (numbers 1 through 9) are loans from Tibetan (see Table 8). Shixīng cardinal numerals distinguish between the free form [LHdʑĩ] ‘one’ and bound forms for the numerals 2 through 10. The latter forms always co-occur with the general (bound) numeral classifier [ku] ‘item’. Overall, tones in some numerals and numeral-classifier combinations are not entirely regular, and it is conceivable that some other factors than merely the synchronically regular tone derivation processes in phonological words (§2.3) have played a role in their derivation.

Table 8. Shixīng cardinal and ordinal numerals 1 to 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Shixīng</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Shixīng</th>
<th>WT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>L[dzĩ]</td>
<td>first</td>
<td>L[tõ-pu]</td>
<td>dang po</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>L[na-Hku]</td>
<td>second</td>
<td>L[ni-pao]</td>
<td>gnyis pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>L[sa-Hku]</td>
<td>third</td>
<td>L[sõ-pao]</td>
<td>gsum pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>L[zy3-Hku]</td>
<td>fourth</td>
<td>L[z1-pao]</td>
<td>bzhī pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td>L[fõ-Hku]</td>
<td>fifth</td>
<td>L[fõ-pao]</td>
<td>lingo pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six</td>
<td>L[cu-Hku]</td>
<td>sixth</td>
<td>L[dz1-pao]</td>
<td>drug pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>L[sa-Hku]</td>
<td>seventh</td>
<td>L[dã-pao]</td>
<td>bdun pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eight</td>
<td>L[ci-Hku]</td>
<td>eighth</td>
<td>L[dzã-pao]</td>
<td>brgyad pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nine</td>
<td>L[g3-Hku]</td>
<td>ninth</td>
<td>L[go-pao]</td>
<td>dgu pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ten</td>
<td>L[qa-lku]</td>
<td>tenth</td>
<td>[not attested]</td>
<td>bcu pa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shixīng numerals 1 through 10 are unique forms, whereas all numerals starting from ‘eleven’ are composite.

Numerals between 12 to 19 are formed by juxtaposing the number 10 with the numbers 2 to 9 (without the classifier [ku]), in that order (i.e. 10+2, 10+3 etc.). For example, [Hqa-Hni] ‘twelve’, [Hqa-Hfõ] ‘fifteen’, [Lqa-Hsa] ‘seventeen’ (all with irregular tone patterns, in view of the expected tone of [qa] ‘ten’ being /HL/). The form ‘eleven’ is formed by adding the (bound) stem [tã] ‘one’ to the stem [HLqɑ] ‘ten’, i.e. [Hqɑ-Htɜ] ‘eleven’ (again, with an irregular word tone). [tɜ] is a common Sino-Tibetan form for ‘one’, whereas the Shixīng form for ‘one’ [LHdʑĩ] is more unusual.


Numerals between two decades (e.g. 24, 35, 44 etc.) are formed by juxtaposing the decimal and the adjoined number, e.g. [Lna-ʁa# L[dzĩ] ‘twenty-one’, [Lna-ʁa# L[na-Hku] ‘twenty-two’, [Hfõ-lqa# Lsa-lku] ‘fifty-three’.

The word for ‘hundred’ is [HLca] ‘hundred’ (WT brgyad). Hundreds are formed by juxtaposing the numbers 1 to 9 to the root [HLca] (i.e. 1x100, 2x100 etc.), e.g. [L[dzĩ-Hca] ‘one hundred’, [L[ni-Hca] ‘two hundred’, [Hsũ-lca] ‘three hundred’, [Lzy3-lca] ‘four hundred’, [Hfõ-lca] ‘five hundred’, [Te-hu-lca] ‘six hundred’,

Numbers above one hundred are formed with the intrusive conjunction [⁹³] ‘and’ between the hundred and the adjoined number, e.g. [³³] ‘one hundred and one’, [³³] ‘one hundred and ten’.

The word for ‘thousand’ is [⁹³] (WT stong phrag?). Numbers above thousand are formed similarly to those above hundred, by adding numerals 1 through 9. The form for ‘ten thousand’ is [⁹⁹] ‘ten thousand’, literally ‘one time ten thousand’ (WT khri tsho), the form for ‘million’ is [⁹⁹] ‘million’, literally, ‘one hundred times ten thousand’. Finally, ‘one hundred million’ in Shixing is [⁹⁹] (WT khri tsho ‘bum ther’).

3.9. Classifiers and measure words

Shixing has a relatively well-developed numeral classifier system. Under the term ‘classifier’, I understand a form which has to accompany a numeral and which marks a noun as member of a specific class, based on the noun’s semantics. Shixing demonstrative pronouns do not require to be accompanied by a classifier.

Shixing classifiers combine with numerals to form numeral phrases, which follow the noun they modify, e.g. [³³] ‘one bowl of rice’ (< [⁹³] ‘bowl’), [³³] ‘two people’, [³³] ‘nine mountains’.

In counting, a numeral in Shixing is required to be followed by a classifier (with the only exception of the numeral ‘one’). In numeral-classifier phrases modifying a nominal head, the numeral [³³] ‘one’ may be variously used either with or without a classifier. This variability possibly has to do with the dual function of [³³] in Shixing: on the one hand, as the numeral ‘one’, and, on the other hand, as the indefinite marker. Consequently, a classifier is required when [³³] is used as the numeral ‘one’, and optional when [³³] serves in the function of the indefinite marker. Compare: [³³] ‘one snake’ vs. [³³] ‘a snake’. This rule reasonably applies only when the modified noun refers to discrete and individualized entities, which allow both readings. When, on the other hand, the modified noun refers to non-discrete, liquid or massy entities (i.e. those which correspond to mass nouns in Indo-European languages, e.g. ‘water’, ‘rice’, ‘meat’), [³³] requires to be followed by the appropriate measure- or receptacle classifier, e.g. [³³] ‘one bowl of rice’.

Shixing numeral classifiers fall into two classes: (i) free forms which denote a measure and which can lend themselves to classifier use (these forms denote for the most part a measure and are frequently referred to as mensural or quantitative classifiers in the linguistic literature), and (ii) bound forms which are used uniquely as a classifier—sortal or quantitative classifiers, which categorize by some inherent characteristic of the referent, such as its shape or texture.

The latter group, i.e. sortal classifiers, is fairly restricted and consists in Shixing of only two members: (i) the general classifier [ku] ‘item’, e.g. [³³] ‘two hands’, [³³] ‘nine forests’, [³³] ‘nine pans’;
and (ii) the classifier for elongated objects [rê] ‘strip’, e.g. [h着他-ši# dzi-Hrê] ‘one arrow’, [qʰoo-Hwu# ńi-Hrê] ‘two sticks’. Both classifiers appear to bear no morphophonemic relation to any free noun.

The former group (mensural classifiers), on the other hand, is large and can further be subdivided into the following groups on semantic and formal grounds:

(i) Group classifiers, i.e. classifiers which refer to aggregates or collectivities. For example, [h着他-la] ‘flock’, e.g. [h着他# dzi-Hla] ‘a group of people’, [tsʰ# dzi-Hla] ‘a flock of sheep’; [h着他,p3] ‘pair’, e.g. [h着他,kui# dzi-Hp3] ‘one pair of earrings’, [pʰa.h,za# dzi-Hp3] ‘a pair of shoes’; [wu] ‘family, couple’, e.g. [ʂ-jí-ba# dzi-Hwu] ‘a pair of plow oxen’.

(ii) Measure- or container-classifiers for nouns which refer to non-discrete, liquid or massy entities. For example, [dzi-Hpʰæ] ‘fingertip to fingertip of out-stretched arms’ (local Chinese dialect ‘bucket’), [Hhó dzi# miæ-Hzô] ‘one basket of vegetables’ (< [miæ-Hzô] ‘basket’).

Many units of measure in the domain of merchandise and commerce in Shîxîng are borrowings from Chinese. For example: [dzi-Hpʰæ] ‘fingertip to fingertip of out-stretched arms’ (local Chinese dialect ‘bucket’), [Hhó dzi# miæ-Hzô] ‘one basket of vegetables’ (< [miæ-Hzô] ‘basket’).

An interesting classifier among these borrowings, as pointed out by Huáng & Rêñêng (1991: 185), is [jí-Hmu] ‘one mû (a Chinese unit of measure for land, approximately equal to 0.067 hectare)’. [jí-Hmu] is a loan of the Chinese expression consisting in Chinese of the numeral one, yî, and the classifier mû, viz. yî mû ‘one mû’, borrowed into Shîxîng as one unsegmentable item. Having been borrowed into Shîxîng, this expression has turned into a noun, as it now requires to be followed by the general classifier [ku] ‘item’ when counted (with numerals above ‘one’), e.g. [jí-Hmu# dzi-H] (Huáng & Rêñêng 1991: 185) ‘one mû’, [jí-Hmu# sa-lku] ‘three mû’.

(iii) Autoclassifiers (“quasi-measures” or “autonomous measures”), Chao 1968: 608-609. These classifiers refer to forms that are both nouns and classifiers at the same time. Most Shîxîng autoclassifiers refer to units of time. For example, [dzi-Hl3] ‘one month’ (< [Hl3] ‘month’), [dzi-Hkʰ-u] ‘one year’ (< [Hkʰ-u] ‘year’, note that the initial [kʰ] is not lenited), [só-lma# só-lhæ] ‘three days and three nights’ (< [Hlæ] ‘night’) (note the irregular word tones).

(iv) Repeaters (Aikhenvald 2003 [2000]: 361-362). These classifiers have the same form as the noun they modify. For example [biæ# dzi-Hwæ] ‘one leaf’, [hâi# dzi-Hhâi] ‘one meal’, [fu# guš-fiu] ‘nine lakes’. Disyllabic nouns take their second syllable as their classifier, e.g. [si-lpô# dzi-Hpô] ‘one tree’.

(v) Classifiers for entities of a similar shape. For example, the noun [biæ] ‘leaf’ lends itself to the use of classifier for flat objects. For example, [só,šu# dzi-Hwæ] ‘one sheet of paper’ (WT shog shog ‘paper’).

Shîxîng classifiers are mostly of nominal origin, but some classifiers of verbal origin have also been attested. For example, [zê] ‘pile’ from the verb [l3-Hzê] ‘pile up, stock’ or [lu], classifier for pieces of clothing, from the verb [lLu-lu] ‘roll up, fold’, e.g. [gu# dzu-Hlu] ‘one piece of clothing’.
That Shīxing has classifiers of both nominal and verbal origin means that an entity in Shīxing may be conceptualized as being a member of a certain class (with nominal classifiers) as well as being produced or placed in a certain fashion (verbal classifiers). One and the same noun can be combined with different (nominal and deverbal) classifiers to denote different shades of meaning. For example, the noun [³tʰ’é-i,³rə] ‘book’ can combine both with the deverbal classifier [zə] ‘pile’ and with the nominal classifier [³Lʰ’bae] ‘leaf’. In the former case, the expression, [³tʰ’é-i,³rə# ³dzi-Hzə] ‘one book’, refers to a traditional handwritten Tibetan book, which is literally a pile of bound sheets, i.e. a book is conceptualized as something which is piled up. In the latter case, on the other hand, the expression [³tʰ’é-i,³rə# ³dzi-Hwə] presents a book as rather belonging to the class of objects with flat surfaces.

Verbal action classifiers precede the verb they modify. The most frequent general verbal action classifier is [³Lʰ’dza] ‘once’, as in the following example:

\[(56) \text{Hbō# Lnu-Lbæ-Lbæ=Htʰ# Ldzi-Hdza# Lbō=Hlæ#, Hfu-Ldzi-Hdza# Hlæ-Lfu# Hlæ=Lxα=Lli=Lj̄n̄ō#, Lmə. Hzi-Ldzi-Hdza# Hqua Ltcī=Lli=Lj̄n̄ō.}
\]

\[\text{Hbō Lnu-Lbæ-Lbæ=Htʰ# Ldzi-Hdza Lbō=Llæ, Hfu-Ldzi-Hdza Hqua Ltcī=Lli=Lj̄n̄ō.}
\]

\[\text{yak black?-?-?=that one-time win=become lake-water}
\]

\[\text{Hlʰ’ti Hsə=Hfu Hlæ=Lxα=Lli=Lj̄n̄ō,}
\]

\[\text{that blood-lake become=go.PST=NMLZ.PST=COP}
\]

\[\text{Lmə. Hzi Ldzi-Hqua Ltcī=Lli=Lj̄n̄ō.}
\]

\[\text{deity=PL one-time cry do=NMLZ.PST=COP}
\]

‘When the black yak was winning, the water of the lake was turning into blood, and the deities were weeping.’

4. THE VERB COMPLEX

Verbal marking in Shīxing encodes the features of tense, aspect, mood, modality and mirativity by means of auxiliaries as well as, to a minor extent, by verb inflection.

Shīxing has grammaticalized absolute tense, with a clear past and non-past contrast reflected in past/non-past stems of some high frequency verbs (§4.1) and in past/non-past distinction in patient nominalizers (§4.12). The unmarked present signals situations ongoing at the time of the utterance (present-habitual) as well as generic or gnomic situations. The past, signalled by past stems of some high frequency verbs, refers to situations prior to the time of the utterance. (‘Situation’ is used here as a cover-term for states, processes, and events, Comrie 1976: 13.) Overall, most Shīxing verbs have only one stem; a small number of high frequency verbs have two stems; the verbs ‘come’ and ‘go’ have three stems (in suppletive distribution).

The perfect aspect, which expresses a relation between two time-points: the time of the state resulting from a prior situation and the time of that prior situation, is signaled by the perfect auxiliary [sɿ] (§4.4.1). The following aspectual meanings are expressed in Shīxing: (i) imperfective aspect (denoting
on-going situations existing prior to the time of utterance), signaled by [pu] (§4.4.4), (ii) perfective aspect (which indicates the view of a situation as a single whole), expressed by the perfective prefix [lɔ-] (§4.2), (iii) resultative aspect (denoting the result of a situation holding at the utterance time), marked by [wu] (§4.4.2), (iv) terminative/teleic aspect, marked by [tsʰa] ‘finish’ (§4.4.3), (v) experiential aspect (signaling situations as experienced prior to the time of utterance), marked by [dzJones] (§4.4.5), (vi) two continuous aspects: (a) progressive (indicating the situation in progress at the reference time; with dynamic verbs), marked by [jĩ] and (b) durative (with stative verbs), signaled by [dzō] (§4.4.6) and (vii) the delimitative aspect (marking the situation as performed for a short period of time) signaled by the prefix [dzǐ-] ‘one’ (§4.2).

The expression of modality and mood in Shǐxīng is here described in terms of agent-oriented modalities and speaker-oriented modalities (Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994).

Agent-oriented modalities, which “report the existence of internal and external conditions on the agent with respect to the completion of the action expressed in the main predicate” (Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994: 177), including obligation, desire, ability, permission and root possibility, are signaled in Shǐxīng by means of the auxiliaries [gʃ] (volition and certainly) and [rɛ̃] (instigation and possibility) (§4.5.1).

The expression of speaker-oriented modalities, which in contrast to agent-oriented modalities “do not report the existence of conditions on the agent, but rather allow the speaker to impose such conditions on the addressee” (Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994: 178), including imperatives, optatives and permissives, includes in Shǐxīng the markers [liu] (strong command, realis) and [sõ] (polite request, irrealis) (§4.5.2).

Shǐxīng grammaticalizes the irrealis/realis distinction. (The realis mode applies to events or states portrayed as actualized, having occurred or currently occurring; whereas the irrealis mode signals events and states as unactualized, or as remaining within the realm of thought and imagination.) The realis mood in Shǐxīng is unmarked, whereas the irrealis mood is signaled by the auxiliary [sõ]. This marker represents the irrealis mood in a variety of contexts, including (i) subjunctive or counterfactual conditionals, the irrealis construction type par excellence (Mithun 1995: 384, 1999: 179), given that this construction signals contrary-to-fact situations, i.e. those that contradict what is known to be real, and which are classified as irrealis in most languages with distinct irrealis marking, (ii) commands, and (iii) the optative mood (that indicates a wish or hope) (§4.5.2).

The grammaticalization of the irrealis mood in Shǐxīng is interesting from the point of view of the presence of a full-fledged and uniformed marked inflectional irrealis morphology in another Qiangic language, rGyalrong, where the irrealis category is moreover posited as a pandialectal grammatical feature (Sun 2007). Notably, the formal marking (inflexional morphology in rGyalrong vs. auxiliary in Shǐxīng) and the respective origins of this marking in the two languages are distinct. Moreover, the range of irrealis contexts attested in rGyalrong is
considerably larger than that in Shìxīng, including imaginative conditionals, optative, object complements to deontic matrix verbs, dubitative future, irrealis imperative and jussives. In sum, while the semantic nature of the realis/irrealis distinction is stable in both languages, its precise application is distinct, reflecting the distinct diachronic development of this grammatical category in these two languages.

Shìxīng has a mirative marker [tɕæ] (§4.6).

Shìxīng has four existential or locative verbs used for purposes of nominal sub-classification, namely (i) [lHjì], expressing the existence, location or possession of animate beings; (ii) [lHdzō], expressing the existence or possession of inanimate beings; (iii) [lHkʰuɜ], expressing containment; and (iv) [lHdzi], signaling the position of an entity attached to some location (§4.7).

Unlike some other Qiangic languages (e.g. rGyalrong or Qiāng), Shìxīng verbs do not show agreement for person and number. Neither are they inflected for voice. Dissimilar to the Tibetic languages in its neighbourhood, Shìxīng does not demonstrate a conjunct-disjunct distinction, and its verbs do not have honorific counterparts.

Overall, the core of a verb phrase in Shìxīng is a verbal nucleus, which consists of one or more verbs. The possible order and the overall inventory of elements which may precede and/or follow this verbal nucleus are specified in Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverbial</th>
<th>Directional prefixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[dzi-] ‘upward’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[mie-] ‘downward’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[kʰu-] ‘inward; fro’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[bɘ-] ‘outward’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[ɕi-] ‘to’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Perfective prefix | [lɜ-] ‘have V-ed’ |
| Delimitative prefix | [dzi-] ‘V a little bit’ |
### Table 9. Verb complex in Shīxing

Some of the aforementioned categories may be redundantly signaled syntactically (by auxiliaries) and by means of inflection. For example, causatives in Shīxing may be formed by inflection (consonant alternation) and by the addition of the causative suffix [-xɬ] (§4.3). The imperative can in turn be formed by ablaut (in some irregular verbs) and by means of the imperative marker [tɕu] (§4.1).

Among auxiliaries, a distinction can be made between those that can be used sentence finally and can be preceded by the negator [mV] and the question particle [a] and those which cannot be used sentence-finally and be preceded by the negator [mV] and the question particle [a]. The latter group includes the imperfective marker [pu], the resultative marker [wu], the terminative marker [tsʰa] and the imperative marker [tɕu]. The former group includes the remaining auxiliaries in Table 9.

#### 4.1. Verbs of motion and irregular verbs

Shīxing has a large inventory of verbs of motion, including three verbs meaning ‘go’ or ‘walk’: [*Hru*] ‘walk, go on foot’, [*HLbi*] ‘go, walk’ and [*HLtsa*] ‘go, walk’; and three verbs meaning ‘come’: [*HLliu*]~[*Hli*] ‘come, enter’, [*Hwu*] ‘come, return’ and [*LHtɕʰũ*] ‘come’ (the use of this form is restricted to past situations). The verbs [*HLbi*] ‘go, walk’, [*HLliu*] ‘come, enter’ and [*Hwu*] ‘come, return’ have cognates in Nà, Ngwi and Burmic languages. For example, [*HLbi*] is likely to be related to the verb ‘go’ in Yǒngnínɡ Nàxī [biɿ] or Nuosu /bo/. The verbs [*HLliu*] ‘come, enter’ and [*Hwu*] ‘come, return’, on the other hand, are likely to be cognate with [la] ‘come’ and [waŋ] ‘enter’, respectively, in Written Burmese.

The Shīxing verbs ‘go’ and ‘come’ have each three stems, combining suppletive verb forms with verb stem derivation through vocalic alternation (ablaut).

The verb ‘go’ has [*HLbi*] as its non-past stem, [*HLxa*] as the past stem and [*LHxu*] as the imperative stem, the latter two stems are connected through ablaut.
The verb ‘come’ has the form \([LHliu]\) as its non-past and imperative stem and \([LHlζ]\) as its past stem (compare also the Proto-Loloish pair \(*la/*li^2\), Bradley 1979: 356, #649A-649B). One more (bound) form, \([læ]\), which my language consultants translate as ‘have become, have evolved into’ (but also as ‘good’, as in Text 1, sentence 19) and which serves mostly as a clause connector in the recorded texts, is also likely to be derived from \([LHliu]\) or \([LHlζ]\) through ablaut (i.e. \([iu]\) or \([ζ] < [æ]\)). Based on the semantics of the forms involved, I tentatively analyze \([læ]\) as derived through the process of perfectivization.

A limited number of Shǐxīng high frequency verbs use ablaut to form the imperative stem, whereby the original vowel of the verbal root changes to \(u\) in the imperative, as summarized in Table 10. This change is possibly related to the formation of the imperative stem in Written Tibetan through stem ablaut, whereby \(a\) or \(e\) in the present stem change to \(o\) in the imperative stem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Citation form</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>(tɕi)</td>
<td>(tcu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look, watch</td>
<td>(ɕĩ)</td>
<td>(ɕun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>(dz)</td>
<td>(dzu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>(tʰtʃu)</td>
<td>(tʰtʃun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td>(p)</td>
<td>(pu^9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>(b)</td>
<td>(bu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perform</td>
<td>(d)</td>
<td>(du)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit down</td>
<td>(mæ−Hzũ)</td>
<td>(mæ−Hzo)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come out</td>
<td>(bu−Lʃu−Hcu)</td>
<td>(bu−Lʃu−Hcu)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10. Imperative forms of some high frequency verbs

(Note that in two instances, the verbs \([LHtɕi]\) ‘do’ (WT byed) and \([LHb\) ‘make’, the formation of the imperative involves a change in tone.)

The presence of the coda \(-n\) in some verbs, viz. ‘look, watch’, ‘drink’, ‘speak’ and ‘come out’, may reflect the presence of the original nasal coda, cf. the corresponding Proto-Tibeto-Burman forms: respectively, \(*hyen\) ‘look’ (Matisoff 2003: 65), \(*m-danŋ \approx *m-danŋ\) (ibid., p. 123 123; note that these forms are only reconstructed to Proto-Lolo-Burmese) ‘drink’, \(*br(w)anŋ\) ‘speak’ (ibid., p. 523) and \(*hwanŋ\) for ‘come’ (ibid., p. 269).

The imperative form of the verb \([LHtɕi]\) ‘do’, \([Htcu]\) (in free variation with \([Htʃu]\)), serves as the general imperative marker for Shǐxīng verbs with one stem. For example:

\[(57) Hhǐ# Htʃζ = Hno#: “Lbi = Hsŋ#, Hlζ. Lsi = lwu# Hbō# Lnu−Lbae−Hba# Htʰti# Lʃζ−Hsi = Ltcu#,” Hlpu = lli = Hnό.\]

19 In addition to \([Hpu]\), Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 189) also quote the form \([ps−n^5]\) as the imperative stem of the verb \([Hpu]\) ‘speak’. This form has so far not been attested in my fieldwork.

20 This form consists of the directional prefix \([bu−]\) ‘outward’, the form \([Lʃu]\) ‘head, beginning’, and the verbal root \([cu]\), which is likely to be the lenited form of the verb \([Htebũ]\) ‘come’.
person that=inside go=PRF arrow=INSTR yak

(They said) to the man: “Go [literally, having gone] and kill the black yak with an arrow.”

4.2. Verbal prefixes

Shixing has a total of seven verbal prefixes, of which five are directional, namely [dzi-] ‘upward’, [mae-] ‘downward’, [khu-] ‘inward; fro’, [bø-] ‘outward’ and [ci-] ‘to’; one signals the perfective aspect, [l3-]; and one signals the delimitative aspect, [dzi-].

Of the five directional prefixes, the first four are used with high frequency, whereas the fifth has been noted only in set expressions (in combination with [khu-] ‘fro’), e.g. [ci-l3-hbæ# khu-l3-hbæ] ‘have rolled back and forth’ or [ci-l3-hsue# khu-l3-hsue] ‘have led to and fro’.

In contrast to the five directional prefixes, the prefix [l3-] does not imply any directional meaning. Its function is that of denoting the perfective aspect. In other words, the addition of this prefix typically adds nothing to the meaning of the verb other than perfective meaning, e.g. [l3-hdz] ‘eat’ vs. [l3-hdz] ‘have eaten’.

The co-existence of various directional prefixes with one specifically aspectual, perfective, prefix in Shixing is reminiscent of earlier stages of the development of the expression of the perfective aspect in the Slavonic languages—a stage where prefixing a simple verb does not in itself lead to perfectivisation, whereas certain prefixal usages have already come to be interpreted as specifically perfective (cf. Comrie 1976: 89-90).

Based on the cross-linguistic tendency for directional terms to develop the perfectivizing meaning by making a process telic or bounded (Comrie 1976: 89-90; Bybee & Dahl 1989: 85-86), the prefix [l3-] in Shixing is likely to have been connected to some directional meaning at an earlier period. Synchronically, the addition of [l3-] changes the aspect of the verb, as well as, in some isolated cases, the meaning of the verb, as in the pair [l3-hgu] ‘wear’ vs. [l3-hgu] ‘put on’.

The prefix [dzi-] marks the action denoted by the verb as performed ‘a little bit’, for a short period of time (i.e. the delimitative aspect, Li & Thompson 1981: 232). For example:

\[(58) \text{Hn} \text{i} \# \text{Hkhu-Hwu} = \text{Hs} \text{j} \# \text{dzi-Hci} = \text{ldu}!\]

\[\text{Hn} \text{i} \text{Hkhu-Hwu} = \text{Hs} \text{j} \quad \text{dzi-Hci} = \text{ldu}!\]

\[2SG \text{ inward-come=PRF} \quad \text{one-look=perform.IMP}\]

‘Come in take a look!’

The prefix [dzi-] is in all likelihood related to the numeral [ldzi] ‘one’, used with the verb as a measure. [dzi-] may attach to a single verb stem or, if one of the directional or the perfective prefix is present, follow them, as in the following example:
4.3. Causatives

Shixīng has two morphological processes marking causativization. One, marking causativization by consonant alternation, has restricted productivity. It is mostly attested in a limited number of verbal roots. Another process, causative formation with the causative suffix [-xi], is, on the other hand, fully productive.

4.3.1. Lexical causativization

Similar to most Sino-Tibetan languages, Shixīng has a number of lexical causative verbs, formed by consonant alternation. These causative verbs contain plain voiceless initials, whereas the corresponding non-causatives contain voiced ones.

A complete list of Shixīng lexical non-causative-causative pairs attested so far is provided below:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{lɜ}-\text{Hχɿ} & \text{‘eat, be eaten’} & \text{vs.} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{lɜ}-\text{Hχɛ}\text{ɪ} & \text{‘cause to eat’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{lɜ}-\text{Hχu} & \text{‘break, be broken’} & \text{vs.} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{lɜ}-\text{Hχu} & \text{‘cause to break’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{lɜ}-\text{Hχɑo} & \text{‘die out (e.g. fire)’} & \text{vs.} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{lɜ}-\text{Hχɑo} & \text{‘slaughter’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{dzů} & \text{‘stand, dwell’} & \text{vs.} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{tsů} & \text{‘cause to stand’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{gyi} & \text{‘be given, allowed’} & \text{vs.} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{gyi} & \text{‘give, dispatch, send’}
\end{align*}
\]

4.3.2. Productive causativization with the causative suffix [-xi]

The causative suffix [-xi], e.g. [\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}\text{dz3} ‘eat’ vs. [\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}\text{dz3}\text{ɪ} \text{‘cause to eat’}], is likely to be derived from the verb [\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}\text{kl} ‘throw, let go, release’ through the process of initial lenition. A combination of the verb and the causative suffix [-xi] may be further followed by aspectual or modal auxiliaries, as in the following sentence:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{wi} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{z3} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{N}}} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{yɿ} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{tsɜ} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{dzf} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{qɑo} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{yɿ} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{dz3} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{x1} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{g3}.
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{wi} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{z3} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{N}}} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{yɿ} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{tsɜ} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{dzf} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{qɑo} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{yɿ} & \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{L}}}\text{dz3} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{x1} & = \text{\textsuperscript{\textit{H}}}\text{g3}.
\end{align*}
\]

‘… tonight I will slaughter and offer you [cause you to eat] a goat.’ (Text 1, sentence 20)
4.4. Aspectual auxiliaries

4.4.1. The perfect auxiliary \[ s \]

The perfect auxiliary \[ s \] indicates the continuous present relevance of a past situation, relating some state to a preceding situation. For example:

$$H\etaʒ\# H\etaʒ H\etaʒ l^{d}z^{-1} b^{-1} m^{1} \rightarrow l^{13} c^{1} \rightarrow Hs_{1}.$$  

$$H\etaʒ H\etaʒ l^{d}z^{-1} b^{-1} m^{1} \rightarrow l^{13} c^{1} \rightarrow Hs_{1}.$$  

1SG day one-day ?-ox PFV-search=PRF plow.ox

‘I have been looking for the plow ox all day.’ (Text 2, sentence 8)

\[ s \] is also used for the purpose of determining the sequence of tenses (temporal succession of two events). For example:

$$L^{H} h^{t} s^{h} u^{1} l^{d} z^{i} = ^{t} r^{i} e^{1} l^{h} t^{u} H w^{u} l^{1} z^{-1} H b^{3} = Hs_{1}^{1}, H^{s} t^{h} a^{-1} k^{i} l^{m} u = ^{l} n o^{1} l^{c} i^{-1} l a^{-1} H s u^{e} l^{k} h^{u} l^{1} l a^{-1} H s u^{e} l^{1} h b^{3} = l^{1} l i = ^{1} n o^{1}.$$  

1SG day one-day ?-ox PFV-search=PRF plow.ox

‘A ghost had caught his plow ox and was now leading it to and fro in the thorny bushes.’ (Text 2, sentence 7)

In addition, if the first verb phrase contains a stative verb, the concatenation of the two verb phrases connected by \[ s \] may be interpreted as a resultative expression, where the first verb phrase modifies the second, describing the circumstances or the manner in which the second event has been performed, as in the following examples:

$$L^{1} z^{i} l^{1} w u = l^{1} w u = Hs_{1} H p^{1} h^{i} e^{1}.$$  

1SG day one-day ?-ox PFV-search=PRF escape

‘escape in fear’, literally ‘escape after having been scared’ (Text 1, sentence 7)

$$L^{H} h^{t} s^{h} o^{1} l b^{3} = ^{1} s_{1} H p^{1} h^{i} e^{1}.$$  

1SG day one-day ?-ox PFV-search=PRF escape

‘precipitously escape’
Overall, in form and meaning, the perfect auxiliary [ʂɿ] in Shǐxīng is strongly reminiscent of the Yǒngníng Nà perfective, change of state marker [ze³³~zς³³] (Lidz 2006: 21-25) and the Lisu marker [ʂɿ⁵⁵] (David Bradley, p.c.).

The perfect auxiliary [ʂɿ] can freely combine in Shǐxīng with other aspectual auxiliaries, more precisely (i) the durative (imperfective) auxiliary [dʑõ] (the perfect of persistent situation), e.g. [¹qao=hqao ¹dzõ=¹ʂɿ] ‘have been helping’; (ii) the resultative auxiliary [wu] (the perfect of result), e.g. [ʰʃyĩ ¹pu=¹wu=¹ʂɿ] ‘have brought pine torches’; and (iii) the expression of the perfective aspect by means of the perfective prefix [lɔ~], e.g. [ʰlɔ²zĩ=ʰʂɿ] ‘have caught’. The combinability and the resultant meaning of these aspectual distinctions are consistent with the meaning and functions of the perfect cross-linguistically. The perfect links a present state to a past situation, whether this past situation was an individual event, or a state, or a process not yet completed (Comrie 1976: 62).

The perfect auxiliary [ʂɿ] is homophonous with the animate patient marker [ʂɿ] (§3.5.2). The two can be said to be related through the meaning of ‘change of state’. While the former, propositional, marker indicates a temporal change of state, describing a situation as relevant at the moment of speech or another point of reference; the latter, nominal marker, signals that the patient that it modifies undergoes a change of state as a result of the action of the verb.

4.4.2. Resultative [wu]

The resultative auxiliary [wu] signals that a state or an event exists as a result of a transition in the past. In contrast to the perfect aspect, it implies the presence of a direct result of the reported event, where the nature of the result is directly defined by the meaning of the verb (Bybee & Dahl 1989: 68). [wu] is possibly related to the verb [ʰwu] ‘come, return’. For example (in the following sentence, the form [wu] is the resultative auxiliary on its first occurrence and the verb ‘return’ on the second occurrence):

(65) ¹sɿ.ʰji# ʰʂɿ # ¹lɔ²lɔ-¹lʊ = ¹wu = ʰʂɿ # ʰtɔ.ʰbaọ ¹bʒ = ¹ʂɿ #, ¹dzõ.ʰhɔ# ʰlɔ²wu # ʰtɕi-ʰtɕi # ʰlǚ = ¹li = ʰɲɔ.

then  fishinNg.net PFV-fold-fold=RES=PRF empty.handed
¹bʒ = ¹ʂɿ, ¹dzõ.ʰhɔ ʰlɔ²wu ʰtɕi-ʰtɕi ʰlǚ bʒ = ¹li = ʰɲɔ.
make=PRF house PFV-return do-do make=NMlz.PST=COP

‘Then, having wrapped the fishing net, he was about to return home empty-handed.’

The resultative auxiliary [wu] is formally identical to the comitative marker [wu] (§3.5.4).

4.4.3. Terminative [tˢʰa] ‘finish’

The terminative/telic marker [tˢʰa] ‘finish’ indicates that an activity or action has come to an end, and focuses on its termination. This form is in all likelihood a
borrowing from Tibetan, \textit{tshar}, where it also serves as a terminative auxiliary. For example:

\begin{align*}
(66) & \text{1}s\text{o\#} \text{1}h^\text{a\#} \text{1}h^\text{za\#} \text{H} \text{ru} = \text{1}s\text{\#}, \text{1}bu-\text{H} \text{zû} = \text{1}ts^\text{h}\text{a} = \text{1}x\text{i\#}, \text{1}t^\text{h3} = \text{1}l\text{æ} = \text{H} \text{zq\#} \text{H} \text{ni\#} \\
& \text{H} \text{dz3\#} \text{H}\text{ma\#} \text{H} \text{bu-\text{H}wu} \text{H} \text{gyi.}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{1}s\text{o} & \text{1}h^\text{a\#} \text{za} \\
\text{iron} & \text{shoe} \\
\text{walk=PRF} & \text{outward-go.through=finish=CAUS} \\
\text{that=become=TOP} & \text{2SG outside-below outward-return} \\
\text{be.allowed} \\
‘\text{Only when you wear down the iron shoes, will you be allowed to return to the earth.}’ (\text{1}bu-\text{H} \text{zû} = \text{1}ts^\text{h}\text{a} = \text{1}x\text{i}, \text{literally ‘cause to finish wearing down’})
\end{align*}

4.4.4. Imperfective [pu]

The imperfective meaning is expressed by the marker [pu] followed by the past stem of the verb ‘go’, [H\text{xa}], or the past form of the verb ‘come’, [H\text{t}c\text{h\#}]. [pu] is possibly related to the verb [H\text{hu\#}] ‘bring’. Consider the following examples:

\begin{align*}
(67) & \text{1}t\text{sa\#} \text{H}w\text{3\#} \text{H}a-\text{H}ka\# \text{H}d\text{zî\#} \text{H}d\text{zî\#} (\ldots) \text{1}bu-\text{H} \text{dzu-\text{H}dzô\#} \text{1}bu-\text{H} \text{dzu-H} \text{dzô\#} = \text{H} \text{pu} = \text{1}x\text{a} = \text{1}l\text{i} = \text{1}n\text{ô}. \\
\text{1}t\text{sa\#} \text{H}w\text{3} & \text{H}a-\text{H}ka \\
\text{monk} & \text{INTSF-small?} \\
\text{one-one outward-run-run} \\
\text{outward-run-run=IPFV=go.PRPF=NMLZ.PST=COP} \\
‘\text{The small monks were running out one after the other.’}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{1}d\text{zi-\text{H}ma\#} & \text{1}d\text{zy3-\text{H}za\#} \text{H} \text{pu} = \text{1}t\text{c\#} \text{H} = \text{1}l\text{i} = \text{1}n\text{ô}. \\
\text{1}d\text{zi-\text{H}ma} & \text{1}d\text{zy3-\text{H}za} \\
\text{one-day snow-fall} & \text{IPFV-come.PST=NMLZ.PST=COP} \\
‘\text{One day, the snow started to fall.’}
\end{align*}

4.4.5. Experiential [dz3]

The experiential auxiliary verb [dz3] marks an event as having been experienced in the past. For example:

\begin{align*}
(69) & \text{1}t\text{s} = \text{1}s\text{\#} = \text{H} \text{lî\#} \text{H} \text{ru-\text{H}ri-\text{H}hî\#} \text{H} \text{dzî\#} = \text{1}r\text{ê\#} \text{H} \text{qô\#} \text{1}l\text{ç-\text{H}cu} \text{H} \text{dz3\#}, \text{H} \text{hî\#} \\
& \text{H} \text{t\#} \text{i\#} \text{H}l\text{hî\#} \text{1}h^\text{a\#} = \text{1}n\text{ô?}
\end{align*}
4.4.6. **Progressive** \([\text{jî}]\) and **durative** \([\text{dzô}]\)

Shîxîng has two auxiliaries that signal present situations as being in effect or in progress, i.e. \([\text{jî}]\) and \([\text{dzô}]\). Both markers have grammaticalized from existential verbs, the former from the verb \([\text{LHjî}]\) for animate nouns (§4.7.1), and the latter from the verb \([\text{LHdzô}]\) for inanimate nouns (§4.7.2), in line with the widespread cross-linguistic pattern of progressive aspect developing out of expressions referring to the place where something is located (see for example Bybee & Dahl 1989: 77, 83-86; Heine & Kuteva 2001: 202-203, \text{LOCATIVE} > \text{CONTINUOUS}).

Overall, \([\text{jî}]\) tends to be mostly used with dynamic verbs, whereas \([\text{dzô}]\) is more often used with stative verbs. Therefore, I analyze the former as ‘progressive’ and the latter as ‘durative’.\(^{21}\) For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(70) } & H\text{nò} & H\text{ri} & \text{hao } L\text{dzô} = ^{1}\text{jî}. \\
& H\text{nò} & H\text{ri} & \text{hao } L\text{dzô} = ^{1}\text{jî}. \\
& 1\text{SG} & \text{now} & \text{rice} & \text{eat=PROG} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘I am eating right now.’

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(71) } & H\text{sī} & L\text{dzi} & \text{hō} & H\text{dzô} = ^{1}\text{dzô}. \\
& H\text{sī} & L\text{dzi} & \text{hō} & H\text{dzô} = ^{1}\text{dzô}. \\
& \text{wood} & \text{one-pile} & \text{door} & \text{outside-below} & \text{pile=DUR} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘Outside of the door there was a pile of firewood.’, literally ‘One pile of wood was piling up outside of the door.’

4.5. **Mood and modality**

4.5.1. **Agent-oriented modalities**: \([\text{gò}]\) and \([\text{rê}]\)

To signal volition and certainty, and instigation and possibility, Shîxîng makes use of the auxiliaries \([\text{gò}]\) and \([\text{rê}]\), respectively. \([\text{gò}]\) is used to signal events that are certain to take place. \([\text{rê}]\), on the other hand, presents an event as instigated by the speaker. In contrast to \([\text{gò}]\), the event signaled by \([\text{rê}]\) is unspecified as to its realization.

The marker \([\text{gò}]\) is likely to be derived from a verb of volition. This presumably original meaning of \([\text{gò}]\) is still clearly observed in some contexts, as in the following example:

\(^{21}\) Alternatively, the distinction between the two markers may be in distinguishing a high-transitivity and a low-transitivity continuous aspect, as is the case with two progressive markers in rGyalrong (Sun 2007: 811). The applicability of this analysis to Shîxîng is to be confirmed in future fieldwork.
In most contexts, however, \[g\] represents, in a more neutral fashion, an event, which is certain to take place in the future, as in the following sentence:

\[(73) \text{H} \text{ɲɜ-Lmi} \text{H} \text{ɕĩ=Hg} \text{ɜ} \text{Hp} \text{ɜ}\text{=Ls} \text{ɿHqua=Lji=Ld} \text{ʑõ.}\]

The baby is crying, because it wants to see your heart.

In the recorded texts, \[g\] is predominantly used with agentive (volitional) subjects, referring to immediate future events. For example:

\[(74) \text{H} \text{ɲɜ-Lmi} \text{H} \text{tsʰɿ} \text{Hdzy3} \text{L} \text{ŋɛ=Lwu=Hg}.\]

1SG wife call=RES=VOL
life-friend
‘I will call my wife.’ (Text 2, sentence 22)

The development from a volitional verb to a modal auxiliary and a future marker is well documented cross-linguistically (e.g. Bybee et al. 1991). For example, \[g\] has a close analogy in Mandarin Chinese, the volitional verb and the immediate future marker \[yào\] ‘want, request’, which has followed a similar grammaticalization path. The latter marker presented itself as a convenient point of departure for discussions on the meanings and functions of \[g\] during elicitation sessions.

Unlike all other aspectual and modal markers, questions with the marker \[g\] are not formed by preposing the question marker \[a\] (§4.11), i.e. *[a=g]. Instead, a sentence with \[g\] can be made into a question by changing \[g\] into the form \[HLgæ\] (attested only with the first and the second person subjects). Here are some examples:

\[(75) \text{H} \text{ɲɜ} \text{H}sɨ\text{H} \text{ku3}=\text{L} \text{wu=H} \text{gæ?}\]

1SG wood chop=RES=VOL.Q
‘Should I chop some firewood?’

\[(76) \text{L} \text{ɲi} \text{H} \text{hao}=\text{H} \text{dz3=H} \text{gæ?}\]
In contrast to [\text{g3}], which presents events as certain to happen, the auxiliary [rɛ̀] signals prospective situations, instigated by the agent, but the realization of which is further unspecified. In the recorded texts, [rɛ̀] is typically used with the so-called non-factive verbs (such as ‘think’, ‘believe’ or ‘suspect’). For example:

(77) \text{Ltsʰu}=\text{Htʰu}^{(...)} \text{Htʰu}^{Lbɔ;i} \text{hzî} \text{Ltsʰu}=\text{Hno}^{Hl3} \text{wu}=\text{Hrɛ̀}^{ HLɕy}=\text{Lli}=\text{iŋô}.

\text{ghost}=\text{that other.side} \text{ghost-den}=\text{inside} \text{Hl3} \text{wu}=\text{Hrɛ̀}^{ HLɕy}=\text{li}=\text{iŋô}.

‘The ghost thought he would return to his ghost village on the other side of the river.’ (Text 1, sentence 31)

I analyze this marker as being polysemous with the agentive and ablative marker [rɛ̀] (§3.5.1). The auxiliary [rɛ̀] is related to the agentive/ablative marker [rɛ̀] through the semantic feature ‘source’ or ‘instigation’.

4.5.2. Speaker-oriented modalities: [liu] and [ŋô]

In the expression of speaker-oriented modalities, strong commands are formed by the use of the imperative or of the auxiliary [liu] ‘let me/you (come and) V’. The use of [liu] is restricted to the first and second person subjects. This auxiliary is likely to be related to the imperative form of the verb ‘come’, [LHliu]. Consider some examples of its use with the first and the second person subjects:

(78) ... \text{Lʔô}=\text{Hzju}^{ Lzó} \text{Hzju}^{ HLdzju}^{ bɔ}=\text{Hliu}...

\text{Lʔô}=\text{Hzju}^{ Lzó} \text{Hzju}^{ HLdzju}^{ bɔ}=\text{Hliu}

self=DU man-man friend make=come.IMP

‘Let’s be friends.’ (Text 2, sentence 16)

(79) ... \text{Hni}=\text{Lcyi} \text{Lsu}=\text{Hliu}...

\text{Hni} \text{Lcyi} \text{Lsu}=\text{Hliu}

2SG tea boil=come.IMP

‘Make tea! (Come and make tea!)’ (Text 2, sentence 29)

Polite requests are signaled by the irrealis auxiliary [ŋô], which in addition to polite commands, is also used to form subjunctive or counterfactual conditionals as well as to mark the optative mood.

(i) Counterfactual conditionals. Indicative and counterfactual conditional sentences in Shīxing are homogeneously formed with the marker [zu] at the end of the condition clause (protasis). Shīxing further draws a distinction between
indicative (real) conditionals with the condition clause marked as realis, as in example (80), and counterfactual (irrealis) conditionals with the condition clause marked as irrealis, as in sentence (81). The consequent (apodosis) clause in both types of conditionals occurs in the realis.

(80) \( Hɲi# Hqao = ʟs1# Lh dz3 ʟzu# , ʟl3 = ʟth a = Hχao 1 b3 = 1 s1# , 1 ci-1 l3- Hsu# 1 k h u-1 l3- Hsu# Htci Hw3 = Hji? \)

\( Hɲi Hqao = 1 s1 Lh dz3 1 zu , 1 l3 = 1 th a = Hχao 2SG slaughter=PRF eat COND PFV=PROH=slaughter 1 b3 = 1 s1 # 1 ci-1 l3- Hsu 1 k h u-1 l3- Hsu Htci Hw3 = Hji? \)

make=PRF to-PFV-lead fro-PFV-lead what make=PROG

‘If you want to kill and eat the plow ox, why are you leading it to and fro [in the thorny bushes]?’ (Text 2, sentence 11)

(81) \( Ls1 Hji# Hls1 = 1 r t e = 1 z3# ; “Hŋ̅z3# Hhî# 1 fuń = Hbũ # 1 zu = Hz3# , Hŋ̅z3 = Hl3# Hlæ = Hji Ht h u# b3 = Hg3 = 1 dzô. “ \)

\( Ls1 Hji Hts1 = 1 r t e = 1 z3 ; “Hŋ̅z3 Hhî# 1 fuń = Hbũ \)

then leopard=AGT=TOP 1 SG person COP.EMPH=IRR

\( 1 zu = Hz3 , Hŋ̅z3 = Hl3 Hlæ = Hji Ht h u # 1 b3 = Hg3 = 1 dzô. “ \)

COND=TOP 1 SG=also good=GEN way make=VOL=DUR

‘Then the leopard said: “If I were a human being, I would have also found a way to cure the old father.”’

(ii) Commands. Similar to the realis-irrealis distinction in conditional clauses, Shixing distinguishes between strong commands (imperatives and hortative, classified as realis) and polite requests (classified as irrealis). A similar distinction is attested in many languages with the grammaticalized irrealis mood, e.g. North American languages (Mithun 1995: 376-378, 1999: 173-180) or rGyalrong (postponed imperative, Sun 2007: 809-810). Compare, for example, the following Shixing examples: strong command in the imperative: [\( 1 ^{t}m i æ- Hzô \)] ‘Sit down!’ (Text 1, sentence 22) vs. polite request in the irrealis: [\( 1 ^{t}m i æ- 1 ^{t}zu = Hbũ \)] ‘Would you be seated?’

Overall, commands can easily be conceived of as expressing thoughts of actions rather than the realization or actualization of them and as expressing expectation. The realis-irrealis distinction conveniently offers an option of overtly marking this distinction: with strong certainty of their immediate actualization classified as realis and expectation of compliance classified as irrealis.

(iii) The optative mood. The optative mood is expressed in Shixing by a combination of the irrealis auxiliary [bũ] with the instigation auxiliary [rē]. The irrealis auxiliary [bũ] signals the reported situation as not actualized, in the realm of thought, whereas the instigation auxiliary [rē] expresses the speaker’s desire for the reported situation to be actualized. For example:
The expression of the irrealis mood is likely to be a recent grammaticalization in Shixing. Given the formal similarity between the locative marker [ɾ̩o] ‘on’ and the irrealis auxiliary [ɾ̩o], I propose that the latter is a grammaticalization of the former. This type of grammaticalization follows the markedness/prototypicality clines from a more concrete (less marked, common and diversified, and hence more prototypical) locative meaning, to a more abstract and less prototypical propositional meaning (cf. LaPolla 1995).

4.6. Mirativity: [tɕæ]

Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 188) analyze the grammatical category of evidentiality in Shixing as expressed by three evidential auxiliaries: (i) [tɕæ], which signals that the speaker has witnessed the event or process denoted by the verb, and (ii) [wu] and [dʑo], which together signal that the speaker has witnessed the outcome of the event or process denoted by the verb. These auxiliaries are thus deemed to be sensory (visual) evidentials, denoting information obtained through seeing (cf. Aikhenvald 2004: 191).

The principal reason not to treat these markers as such, in my analysis, is that all of them may be employed in sentences with the first-person subject, i.e. a conscious, volitional instigator of the event in question, who is therefore expected to have the first-hand knowledge of this event (see the examples below). As argued by Anderson (1986: 277) (see also discussion in Sun 1993: 955-959), one of the salient features of evidential systems is to omit (or zero-mark) evidentials when the knowledge of the event is direct and the resulting proposition therefore has the highest degree of certainty of evidence. It is therefore unlikely that Shixing would use special evidential markers in such contexts, especially given an otherwise little developed evidential system.

Based on the meanings and functions of these three markers in the recorded texts, [wu] and [dʑo] rather denote aspectual meanings, signaling the resultative and the durative aspect respectively, as discussed above.

The auxiliary [tɕæ], on the other hand, is used to emphasize a predicate (and can be analyzed as an emphasis marker, Schachter & Shopen 2007: 55). Its function appears to be to signal contexts, in which the speaker’s discovery of the reported situation is recent, consequently expressing surprise, unexpectedness, unprepared mind and new knowledge. All of these meanings are traditionally
attributed to the category mirativity in the linguistic literature. Consider the following examples:

(84) \( \text{ŋɜ} = \text{Hji} \quad \text{ʁɛ̃} = \text{H} \quad \text{ʁõ} = \text{H} \quad \text{ba} = \text{H} \quad \text{dʒi} = \text{rē} \quad \text{a} = \text{H} \quad \text{tʂ} = \text{tca} \).

\( \text{ŋɜ} = \text{Hji} \quad \text{ʁɛ̃} = \text{H} \quad \text{ʁõ} \quad \text{ba} = \text{H} \quad \text{dʒi} = \text{rē} \quad \text{a} = \text{H} \quad \text{tʂ} = \text{tca} \).

1SG=GEN neck=on snake one=AGT here=LOC

inward-bind-bind=MIR

‘A snake wrapped around my neck!’

(85) \( \text{ŋɜ} = \text{Hno} \quad \text{ʁhō} = \text{H} \quad \text{ʁpao} \quad \text{tɕi} \quad \text{ŋi} \quad \text{ӿ} \quad \text{za} = \text{tca} \).

\( \text{ŋɜ} = \text{Hno} \quad \text{ʁhō} \quad \text{ʁpao} \quad \text{tɕi} \quad \text{ŋi} \quad \text{ӿ} \quad \text{za} = \text{tca} \).

1SG house=inside inward-arrive do and rain fall=MIR

‘I came in, and it began to rain.’

The auxiliary [tca] in Shîxing is possibly related to the verb \([LIHtɕi]\) ‘do’ through ablaut in a fashion analogous to that by which the root [læ] ‘have come, become’ is derived from the verb \([LIHliu]\)~\([LIHlɜ]\) ‘come’. In other words, [tca] is possibly a perfective form of the verb \([LIHtɕi]\).

The development of the mirative marker [tca] in Shîxing is likely to have proceeded from a perfective auxiliary to an inferential marker (given widespread grammaticalization paths of mirative markers from perfect or perfective constructions to markers with inferential status, Comrie 1976: 108-110; Guentchéva 1996: 12), and finally to a mirative marker.

In addition to the mirative marker [tca], the nominalization of the clause with the past patient nominalizer [li] and its use as complement of the copular verb \([LIHpō]\) may be viewed as another way to denote inferential meaning in Shîxing. This type of sentences is illustrated in examples (27), (29-31), (34-35), (37-39), (50), (56-57), (62), (65), (67-68), (77), (87) and (96-97) as well as throughout the texts in the appendix.

4.7. Existential verbs

Similar to many Qiangic as well as Ngwi-Burmese languages, Shîxing differentiates its existential verbs for the purpose of nominal sub-classification. Cross-linguistically, existential (or suppletive classificatory verbs) are understood as verbs that can categorize the S/O argument in terms of its inherent properties (e.g. animacy, shape, form and consistency) as well as its orientation or stance in space (Aikhenvald 2003 [2000]: 153). Shîxing has four existential verbs conforming to this definition, as exemplified below.
4.7.1. Existence/location of animate beings: \([L^Hj\bar{i}]\)

The existence, location or possession of animate beings is expressed by the verb \([L^Hj\bar{i}]\) ‘be there, have (an animate being)’. The negative form of this verb is \([l^m=Lj\bar{i}]\). For example:

\[(84) \text{Hji-L} \text{ɲi} \# \text{Hji-L} \text{ɲi} \# \text{Ht} ^{\text{u.Lliu}} \text{LHd} \text{ʑĩ} \# \text{LHj} \text{ĩ=Ld} \text{ʑ} \text{õ.}\]

\[\text{previous-? previous-? rabbit one exist.ANM=DUR}\]

‘A long time ago there was a rabbit.’

4.7.2. Existence/location of inanimate entities: \([L^Hd\bar{z}\bar{o}]\)

The existence or possession of inanimate entities is expressed by the verb \([L^Hd\bar{z}\bar{o}]\) ‘be there, exist; possess’. The negative form of this verb is \([l^m=Hz\bar{o}]\). Consider the following examples of the use of this verb in its different meanings:

(i) Existence:

\[(85) \text{Hŋɜ} \# \text{Ht} ^{\text{u.}LHd} \text{ʑ} \text{õ.}\]

\[\text{HSG way exist}\]

‘I know how to do it.’ (Literally, ‘I have a way to do it./There is a way to do it.’)

(ii) Possession. In sentences expressing possession with the verb \([L^Hd\bar{z}\bar{o}]\), the possessor is usually marked by the locative marker \([\text{ʁ}\bar{o}]\) ‘on’, as in the following example:

\[(86) \text{Hpu-Lmi} \# \text{Lha}=H\text{ʁo}=H\text{hæ}=H\text{ba.}^\text{ha}=H\text{ka} \# \text{LHd} \text{ȥo}=L\text{dzo}.\]

\[\text{frog-NM this=LOC gold many exist=DUR}\]

‘This frog has a lot of money.’

4.7.3. Containment \([H^Lk^h_{\bar{z}3}]\)

The existence of an entity inside a location (container) is expressed by the verb \([H^Lk^h_{\bar{z}3}]\) ‘be inside, contain’, as in the following sentences. The negative form of this verb is \([l^m=Hk^h_{\bar{z}3}]\) (note that the initial \([k^h]\) is not lenited).

\[(87) \text{Hh} ^{\text{i}=Ld} \text{ȳ} \# \text{Hh} ^{\text{i}=Ld} \text{ʒæ-Hh} ^{\text{i}=Ll} \text{ɜ}=L\text{mu}=L\text{ʃ3-Hh} ^{\text{i}=Ld} \text{ʒ}=L\text{n}=L\text{n}=L\text{n}=L\text{n}=L\text{n}=L\text{n}.\]

\[\text{Hi} ^{\text{k=Hh} \text{u}=L\text{l}=L\text{n}}=L\text{n}.\]
Inside the fishing net, there was a man who had fallen in the water, but had not drowned.

4.7.4 Position attached to a location \([LHdzi]\)

The verb \([LHdzi]\) expresses the position of an entity attached to a location. The negative form of this verb is \([Lmu=Ldzi]\) (note that this expression does not exhibit vowel harmony). For example:

\[(88) \ Htɕũ# \ mo-\ Hdzi# \ Ht忤# \ Ldzi = \ jĩ = \ dzô.\]

wasp-nest INTSF-big one below be.attached= GEN=DUR

‘Below there was a giant wasp nest.’

4.8. Copular verbs

In sentence elicitation, simple nominal expressions have been recorded as occasionally used predicatively without a copular verb, as in example (89), elicited from Chinese:

\[(89) \ Htɕũ \ mo \ Hdzi \ Ht忤 \ Ldzi = \ jĩi = \ dzô.\]

\[\text{this=TOP table that=TOP cupboard} \]

‘This is a table, that is a cupboard.’

In connected speech and story narrations, however, in order to function as predicates, nouns and noun phrases require to be accompanied by one of the three Shixing equational copulars, namely the positive \([LHŋō]\), the negative \([HLmō]\) (a fusion of the negator and the copular \([LHŋō]\)), and the emphatic or contrastive copular \([LHfuē]\). For example:

\[(90) \ Hŋɜ = \ Hmō.\]

\[\text{this clothing this that=GEN COP} \]

‘This piece of clothing is his.’

\[(91) \ Hŋɦ# \ HLmō.\]

\[\text{1SG NEG.COP} \]

‘I am not (the rabbit who made you fall into the water).’
The use of the emphatic copular \([\text{LH} ūɛ]\) ‘be certainly/definitely the case that’ is exemplified in the following sentence, drawn from a story about a cunning rabbit, who plays tricks on a gullible bear. In this story, the rabbit tricks the bear to hit a wasp nest with a stick, so that the bear gets severely stung by wasps. Thereafter, the rabbit returns to the bear, but claims that it is not the rabbit which the bear spoke to first.

\[(92)  \text{1SG=TOP red-?-? rabbit COP.EMPH 'There are many kinds of rabbits, the one who swindled you was a white rabbit.) As for me, I am a brown rabbit.'}\]

The positive and the emphatic copulars can co-occur in one sentence, only in this order. For example:

\[(93)  \text{2SG rabbit 2SG=TOP red-?-? COP.EMPH=COP 'So you are a brown rabbit, and the rabbit just now was a white one.'}\]

\([\text{LH} ūɛ]\) and \([\text{LH} ūɛ]\) are likely to have developed from the same root, with cognates in many Sino-Tibetan languages, e.g. Tangut ŋwu, Qiāng ŋuə, rGyalrong (Japhug) ŋu, Nàxī yī. Synchronously, \([\text{LH} ū]\) is semantically neutral, whereas \([\text{LH} ūɛ]\) expresses the emphatic and/or contrastive meaning.

### 4.9. Adjectives

Adjectives in Shìxīng are a subtype of verbs, and can be distinguished from the latter predominantly on semantic grounds, as well as, to a minor extent, syntactically and morphologically.

Semantically, adjectives refer to the properties or attributes of a noun, whereas verbs denote actions, processes or states of being.

Syntactically, Shìxīng adjectives do not co-occur with all verbal auxiliaries as outlined above. In the recorded texts, adjectives are mainly nominalized with the genitive marker [ji] and co-occur with the durative auxiliaries to denote a state, or co-occur with the resultative and the perfect auxiliaries to denote a transition to a state. For example:
In addition, adjectives were adnominally generally follow the noun they modify, e.g. [Hgĩ# Lnu-Lbæ-Hbæ] ‘a black yak’, [Lτcũ-Hkʰu-Ldu] ‘a big wasp nest’; whereas verbs modifying nouns normally precede them, e.g. [Hqʰu-Lh]-Ld] ‘thief’, literally ‘a man who steals’.

Morphologically, adjectives are more restricted than verbs with regard to their co-occurrence with verbal prefixes and tend to be used for the most part with the perfective prefix [Lɜ-], e.g. [Lɜ-Ltɕɿ-Hs] ‘having become small’, or with the directional prefix [bɘ-] ‘outward’, e.g. [Lbu-Hdu] ‘grow big’. Furthermore, adjectives in Shǐxīng employ a special set of intensifying prefixes, which are not attested on verbs.

(i) Intensifying prefix [mV-] (subject to vowel harmony), e.g. [Hmo-Hdu] ‘(very) big’ (< [Hdu] ‘big’), [Hma-Hrõ] ‘(very) tall’ (< [Hrõ] ‘tall’), [Hmɘ-] ‘(very) thick’ (< [Hb]-) ‘thick’). The Shǐxīng prefix [mV-] is close in meaning and function to the suffix [mɯ33] in Nàxī. However, dissimilar to Shǐxīng, Nàxī [mu33] attaches only to reduplicated adjectival stems. Compare the Shǐxīng examples above with the corresponding examples from Nàxī: [mu33dɯ33] ‘very big’ (< [dɯ31] ‘big’), [mu33bɘmbe33] ‘very thin’ (< [mbe33] ‘thin’).

(ii) Intensifying prefix [a-]. This prefix is added to a reduplicated adjective stem, e.g. [La-Ltɕɿ-Ltɕɿ] ‘low’ (< [Ltɕɿ] ‘low’), [La-Lbɘ-Hb] ‘shallow, thin’ (< [Lb] ‘thin’), [La-Ldɘ-Hdɛ] ‘short’ (< [Ldɛ] ‘short’). This suffix has again a close parallel in Nàxī, namely the intensifying suffix [ɘ33]. Compare the Shǐxīng examples above with the corresponding examples from Nàxī: [ɘ33tɕi55] ‘very small, tiny’ (< [tɕi55] ‘small’), [ɘ33mbe55] ‘very thin’ (< [mbe33] ‘thin’).

The two types of reduplication appear to be restricted in both Shǐxīng and Nàxī to positive and negative extensives, respectively (i.e. positive-negative polar opposites of stative verbs of dimensional extent, e.g. ‘far/near’, ‘long/short’, ‘thick/thin’, cf. Bradley 1995), and is thus a morphological feature shared between these two languages.

Adjectives in Shǐxīng are mostly bound stems. A small number of forms are free. They may be quoted in isolation and have citation tones, e.g. [Hdu] ‘big’, [Ht] ‘small’. Free forms may be directly preceded by one of the directional prefixes or by the aspectual perfective prefix, e.g. [Hdu] ‘big’ < [bu-Hdu] ‘grow big’, [Ht] ‘small’ < [lɜ-Lt] ‘become small’. In addition, free adjectival
forms may be followed by the perfect and progressive auxiliaries, e.g. 
\[ [^{H}du_{3}=^{H}s] \] ‘(have become) big’, \[ [^{H}t_{51}=^{H}j] \] ‘(be) small’.

In order for bound forms to be used as free forms, Shîxing adjectives require:

i. to be preceded by one of the two intensifying adjectival prefixes above

ii. to be reduplicated (via complete, AA, or partial, AB, stem reduplication), e.g. 
\[ [^{d}y_{i}=^{d}y_{i}i] \] ‘oval’, \[ [^{H}y_{3}=^{H}y_{3}] \] ‘old’, \[ [^{b}a=^{b}a_{-}r_{a}] \] ‘fuzzy’, \[ [^{H}a_{-}r_{u}=^{b}r_{u}] \] ‘smooth’.

Shîxing color terms are ideophonic. They belong to the second type of reduplication (partial stem reduplication) and occur only in the ABB form. For example, \[ [^{H}n_{u}=^{H}b_{a}=^{H}b_{a}] \] ‘black’, \[ [^{H}p_{u}=^{H}t_{c}=^{H}t_{c}] \] ‘white’, \[ [^{H}p_{u}=^{H}t_{u}=^{H}t_{u}] \] ‘grey’, \[ [^{H}t_{1}=^{H}t_{1}=^{H}t_{1}] \] ‘red’, \[ [^{H}h_{1}=^{H}t_{1}=^{H}t_{1}] \] ‘blue, green’, \[ [^{H}c_{a}=^{H}c_{a}=^{H}q_{u}=^{H}q_{u}] \] ‘yellow’. Overall, it appears that the first syllable in each case denotes the shade, whereas the following reduplicated syllable indicates its intensity, compare: \[ [^{H}p_{u}=^{H}t_{c}=^{H}t_{c}] \] ‘white’ vs. \[ [^{H}p_{u}=^{H}t_{u}=^{H}t_{u}] \] ‘grey’. This entails that Shîxing has five non-ideophonic undervived colour terms, namely \[ [^{H}n_{u}=^{H}b_{a}=^{H}b_{a}] \] ‘black’, \[ [^{H}p_{u}=^{H}t_{c}=^{H}t_{c}] \] ‘white’, \[ [^{H}h_{1}=^{H}t_{1}=^{H}t_{1}] \] ‘red’, \[ [^{H}h_{1}=^{H}t_{1}=^{H}t_{1}] \] ‘green, blue’ and \[ [^{H}c_{a}=^{H}c_{a}=^{H}q_{u}=^{H}q_{u}] \] ‘yellow’.

Finally, adjectives Shîxing share many cognates with Nàxì and Nà, e.g. ‘big’: Shîxing \[ [^{H}l_{u}=^{H}b_{a}=^{H}b_{a}] \], Yǒngnìng Nà \[ [^{d}q_{u}=^{d}q_{u}] \]; ‘small’: Shîxing \[ [^{H}t_{51}] \], Yǒngnìng Nà \[ [^{t}_{c}=^{t}_{c}] \]; ‘long’: Shîxing \[ [^{H}s_{c}] \], Yǒngnìng Nà \[ [^{s}_{c}=^{s}_{c}] \]; ‘short’: Shîxing \[ [^{H}d_{c}] \], Yǒngnìng Nà \[ [^{d}_{c}=^{d}_{c}] \]. Overall, Shîxing adjectives do not show evidence of Ngwi innovations in the grammaticalization of extensives, as presented in Bradley (1995).

4.10. Negation

4.10.1. Negator \[ [m v] \]

Negation in Shîxing is expressed by the negator \[ [m v] \], which is in many cases subject to vowel harmony. The vowel of the negator assimilates to the vowel of the verb it is attached to, e.g. \[ [^{H}n_{i}] \] ‘be there, have (an animate being)’ < \[ [^{m}i=^{m}j] \] ‘not be there, do not have’. In addition, the negator \[ [m v] \] fuses in one form with the copular \[ [^{H}n_{o}] \], \[ [^{H}m_{o}] \]. The negator \[ [m v] \] prefixes to the last verb in the sentence (the main verb or the sentence-final auxiliary). For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
(96) \quad & ^{1}b_{i}=^{H}m_{i} & ^{1}g_{u}=^{H}j & ^{1}b_{i}=^{H}m_{u} =^{H}k_{e} =^{1}l_{i} =^{1}n_{o} . \\
^{1}b_{i}=^{H}m_{i} & ^{1}g_{u}=^{H}j & ^{1}b_{i}=^{H}m_{u} =^{H}k_{e} =^{1}l_{i} =^{1}n_{o} . \\
& \text{pig-F} & \text{answer} & \text{NEG=give=NMLZ.PST=COP} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘The sow did not answer.’ (Text 2, sentence 28)

\[
\begin{align*}
(97) \quad & ^{1}d_{z}=^{H}h & ^{1}l_{z}=^{1}m_{u} =^{H}p_{o} =^{1}l_{i} =^{1}n_{o} . \\
^{1}d_{z}=^{H}h & ^{1}l_{z}=^{1}m_{u} =^{H}p_{o} =^{1}l_{i} =^{1}n_{o} . \\
& \text{house} & \text{PFV=NEG=arrive=NMLZ.PST=COP} \\
\end{align*}
\]

‘He has not made it home.’
(98) \( L_{z3}^{-H}mi# L_{l3}^{-H}z_{l} = L_{tc\AE}#, L_{l3}^{-H}t_{e}u = L^{mo} = L^{r\E}. \)

\( L_{z3}^{-H}mi \quad L_{l3}^{-H}z_{l} = L_{tc\AE}, \quad L_{l3}^{-H}t_{e}u = L^{mo} = L^{r\E}. \)

child-NM PFV-sleep=MIR PFV-wake.up=NEG=INST

‘The child has fallen asleep, you should not wake him up.’

4.10.2. Prohibitive \([t^{ha}]\)

The prohibitive (negative imperative) marker in Shîxîng is \([t^{ha}]\). \([t^{ha}]\) prefixes to the verb stem, or affixes between the directional, aspectual or tentative prefix and the verb stem. For example:

(99) \( H_{ni}# H_{pu^{-l}mi# H^{t^{ha}}=H^{h\u}u=H^{h\K\O#}, \quad H_{hi} \quad L_{fu=H^{h\K\O!}}. \)

\( H_{ni} \quad H_{pu^{-l}mi \quad H^{t^{ha}}=H^{h\u}=H^{h\K\O}, \quad H_{hi} \quad L_{fu=H^{h\K\O!}} \)

2SG frog-NM PROH=COP.EMPH=IRR person COP.EMPH=IRR

‘Please, don’t be a frog, be a man!’ (A princess addressing her husband, a magic frog.)

4.11. Question particle \([a]\)

Questions are formed in in Shîxîng with the question particle \([a]\), prefixed to the sentence-final auxiliary or verb. Compare the following pair of sentences: a declarative simple sentence and a corresponding interrogative sentence:

(100) \( H_{t^{hi}}# H^{Lh_{dz} = H^{ts^{ha} = H^{s_{1}}.} \)

\( H_{t^{hi}} \quad H^{Lh_{dz} = H^{ts^{ha} = H^{s_{1}}.} \)

that eat=finish=PRF

‘He has finished eating.’

(101) \( H_{t^{hi}}# H^{Lh_{dz}# = H^{HLts^{ha#} = H^{a = H^{s_{1}}.}} \)

\( H_{t^{hi}} \quad H^{Lh_{dz} = H^{HLts^{ha} = H^{a = H^{s_{1}}.}} \)

that eat=finish=Q=PRF

‘Has he finished eating?’

4.12. Relative clauses and nominalization

Shîxîng has two types of relative clauses: (i) headless relative clauses, which may be followed by the demonstrative pronouns \([L^{H}ha]\) ‘this’ and \([HLt^{h}i]\) ‘that’ or followed by the topic marker \([z_{l}]\), as in sentences (102) and (103), and (ii) headed relative clauses that take the nouns \([t^{h}i]\) ‘person’ or \([t_{s}]\) ‘place’ (bound) as the nominal head, as in examples (104) and (105).

(102) \( H_{t^{s}h=H}L^{h\u# H_{c^{h}=H^{ha = H^{s_{1}}.}} \)

\( H_{t^{s}h=H} L^{h\u} \quad L^{c^{h}=H^{ha = H^{s_{1}}} \}

rice.gruel drink=this=CMPR good

‘Drinking rice porridge is better (than eating rice).’
You burned my skin a little bit too early.

‘I am not the one who made you fall into the river.’

‘the place where the crow cawed’

In addition, clauses may be nominalized with patient nominalizers to function as subjects or complements to complement-taking verbs. Shíxīng patient nominalizers differentiate between the past patient nominalizer [li], which signals events that took place before the time of utterance, and the future or purpose patient nominalizer [g3], which signals situations that are to take place after the time of utterance. The latter marker is transparently related to the volitional modal auxiliary [g3]. The etymology of the former marker is currently unclear. The two nominalizers are illustrated in the following examples: (in sentence (106), the modifying clause modifies both conjoined nouns, i.e. ‘rice and bacon’):

... threw all of the rice and bacon he used to have at his house (in the field)...’ (Text 2, sentence 69)

‘... bring along things to eat and things to wear...’
This section concludes the grammatical sketch of Shǐxīng. The following Appendix contains two annotated and translated Shǐxīng texts. These texts were recorded in Mūlǐ in November 2005 with my principal language consultant Lǔróng Duǒdīng as narrator. The texts were transcribed, translated and analyzed in November 2006.

ABBREVIATIONS (NOT INCLUDED IN THE LEIPZIG GLOSSING RULES)

<  
>  
-  
.  
=  
#  
?  
AGT  
ANM  
EMPH  
EXP  
INST  
INTSF  
MIR  
NM  
PNT  
RES  
VOL  
WT

derived from
shows the direction of development
separates syllables within a word
separates syllables within a monomorphemic polysyllabic word
separates an enclitic from its host word
indicates a juncture between two tone domains
indicates a morpheme whose meaning is unclear or, if attached to a word, signals that the meaning or the etymon that this word represents is tentative
agentive
animate
emphatic
experiential
instigation
intensifying
mirative
nominal
patient
resultative
volition
Written Tibetan

APPENDIX: TWO SHÌXÌNG TEXTS

1. A GHOST AND A MAN (I)


Hji-Lɲɪ  
Hji-Lɲɪ  
Lpʰi-Hwu  
Hhĩ  
LHɗzĩ
previous-?  
previous-?  
place.name-family  
person  
one
in.the.past  
in.the.past
Lɗz-Hzu  
Ljǐ=Ldɔ̄.

one-household  
exist.ANM=DUR

‘A long time ago there lived in Pingwēng a family.’

(2) Ltʰu-Hwu# H-a-Hmɪ= Lrɛ# Lɗz-Hhæ=Lsɿ=Lɗ-Thɛ# Lqɛ-Htɛ# Ldɜ=Lxɨ= Hsɿ# Hsʊ# LHtu=Llɨ=Lnɔ̄.
'The mother of the family spin wool every night, making ‘tok-tok’ sounds.'

(3) $^{1}t^{h}_{3} = ^{1}l_{æ} # ^{1}s_{³}h^{u}. ^{1}b_{œ}. ^{1}za. ^{1}h_{î} # ^{1}ts^{h}_{u} # ^{1}dz^{î} = ^{1}n_{o} # ^{1}q_{ø} - ^{1}t_{ø} # ^{1}m_{a} = ^{1}j_{i} = ^{1}d_{z^{o}}.$

'At the same time, on the opposite side of the river, there lived a ghost by the name of Tok.'

(4) $^{1}a^{h}_{m} = ^{1}l^{h}_{i} # ^{1}s_{³}h^{u}. ^{1}l_{æ} = ^{1}l_{i}, ^{1}f_{i}^{ë} = ^{1}j_{î} # ^{1}k^{o} . ^{t_{ø} # ^{1}c_{y}^{î} = ^{1}l_{i} l_{jö}.$

'So, (whenever) the mother was spinning wool, the ghost thought she was calling his name.'

(5) $^{1}s^{i}_{j} # ^{1}h_{î} # ^{1}t^{h}_{u} - ^{1}w_{u} # ^{1}q^{h}_{a} . ^{1}t_{î}$

'Then, the ghost came (one night) to their doorstep.'

(6) $^{1}k_{i} - ^{1}s^{u} # ^{1}t^{h}_{u} - ^{1}w_{u} = ^{1}l_{i} # ^{1}t^{h}_{u} - ^{1}w_{u} = ^{1}t^{h}_{o} . ^{1}r^{ë} = ^{1}d_{z}^{î} - ^{1}j_{î} ^{1}d_{z} ^{î} - ^{1}j_{î} ^{1}d_{3} ^{î} - ^{1}l_{jö}.$

'Let go = NMLZ.PST = COP.'
The ghost was scared and ran away.

'The second night, the ghost came again.'

But then, the rooster of the family crowed.

'And the ghost ran away again.'

'The third night the ghost came again. This time he managed to enter the house.'
person that-family VOC-mother wool-weave-person

that=AGT 2SG here=LOC what make=DUR

speak=NMLZ.PST=COP

'The mother, who was spinning wool, asked him: “What are you doing here?”'

(13) `Htʰi=Lrɛ̃ #: Hɔi Ldʑi-Hhæ=Lsɛ̃=Ltʰ salvage

ghost=that=AGT 2SG one-night=PRF=LOC tok-tok

tok-tok sound-sound=CAUS=PRF 1SG=GEN name

call=PROG

'The ghost said: “Every night you make ‘tok-tok’ sounds, and call my name.”'


'After the ghost had said that, the mother told him: “This is good.”'
"Would you be seated!"

"Having said that, the man got up and chopped up some pine torches."

'He brought a bundle of pine torches and said to the ghost: “It’s very good that you came to our place tonight.”'

"We do not meet often, tonight I will slaughter and offer you a goat.”"
Having said that, he told the ghost: “Help me pick up a goat in the goat pen.”

So, the man took a bundle of pine torches and tied it to the ghost’s hands. Then he lit them up and said to the ghost: “Light me the way, let’s go downstairs to the goat pen to pick up a goat.”

So, the ghost and the man went down to the goat shed to pick up a goat.
In the shed, the man stroked left and right (in the darkness), saying that the goats he could feel were not fat enough. He procrastinated time by pretending that he was looking for a goat.

Then, the fire on the pine torches which the man bundled to the ghost’s hands started approaching the hands.

Then the ghost said to the man: “Pal, can’t you be any quicker? The fire is about to burn my hands!”
To what the man said: “Tonight, I will surely slaughter a fat goat for you, hold on just a little, I will get us a fat and big goat and we will slaughter and eat it.”

(29) $^{hp}_3 = ^{1}ts^h_a = ^{1}la^e$ $^{LH}_l u$ $^{HL}_t$ $s^h_j$ $^{1}li = ^{1}ji = ^{1}no$.

(30) $^{1t}_h^3 = ^{Hl}_e$ $^{SYI}$ $^{k}b^h$ $^{HNGA}$ $^{hp}_o = ^{L}_3$ $^{s}_1$, $^{1}ts^h_u = ^{H_j}_1$ $^{li} = ^{H_k}_0$ $^{k}b^h$ $^{H_2}$ $^{z_2}$ $^{pu} = ^{L}_1$ $^{t}_c$ $^{H_u}$ $^{u}$ $^{1}li = ^{1}no$.

(31) $^{1t}_h^3 = ^{Hl}_e$ $^{ts}_2^h$ $= ^{H_l}_i$ $^{H_2}$ $^{ts}_2$ $= ^{H_3}$ $^{s}_1$ $^{no}$ $^{bu}$ $^{H_2}$ $^{dz_2} = ^{L}_1$ $^{pu} = ^{L}_2$ $^{wu} = ^{L}_1$ $^{s}_1$, $^{H_2}$ $^{ts}_2$ $= ^{H_2}$. $^{za}$. $^{H_i}$ $^{ts}_2$ $= ^{H_3}$ $^{no}$ $^{1}_3$ $^{L}_3$ $^{wu} = ^{H_r}_e$ $^{H_3}$. $^{cy}_3 = ^{1}li = ^{1}no$.

‘The ghost moaned painfully “ouch!”’, flew out of the goat pen and rushed to the ghosts’ village on the opposite side of the river.’
"Seeing him approaching, the ghosts on the other side cried: "Do not come here, fly into the river instead!"

"At the same time, the man shouted to the ghost: "Do not fly into the river, fly to the other side of the river!"

'The ghost did not hear what the ghosts at the opposite side of the river had told him.'

'But instead, he heard what the man had told him to do.'
And carrying the burning pine torches, he flew into the ghost village at the other side of the river and set fire to the ghost houses.

And the houses of the ghosts and all ghosts burned down.

A long time ago there was a man herding his animals in the mountains.

In the afternoon, when he drove the animals back into the shed, one plow ox was missing.
So the man went back to the place where he had been herding the animals to look for the ox.

Soon he discovered the hoofprints of his plow ox leading into a grove of thorny bushes.

As he tried to see whether his plow ox was there, he saw this.
His plow ox was caught by a ghost, who was leading it to and fro in the thorny bushes.

'So the man said to the ghost: "I have been looking for my plow ox all day, is it you who led it away?"'

'The ghost replied: "I want to kill your plow ox and eat it."'
that=become person=that=AGT 2SG slaughter=PRF

LHdz3  

eat COND PFV=PROH=slaughter make=PRF

to-PFV-lead fro-PFV-lead what make=PROG

‘The man asked: “If you want to kill and eat it, why are you leading it to and fro?”’

(12) LHts’h u=1t’h i=1r ē# HLt’h i# HLp3 =1li =1nō.
ghost=that=AGT that speak=NMLZ.PST=COP

‘The ghost replied thus.’

(13) “H nj-1r ē# H hi=1Z j# H sē. H tē# H qao =1læ#, 1t’h z=1h sō# H miæ=1dzi-

wound one-little=LOC PROH=appear make=PRF

neck=cut=PRF PFV-kill=finish=become PFV-slaughter=PRF

dz3 =1ji =1zdō."

eat=GEN=DUR

“‘When you, people, kill animals, you do not injure them [let them bleed] first, but cut their necks, kill, slaughter them and then eat them.’”

(14) “1nj-1r ē# 1ts’u=1Z j# H sē. H tē# 1qao =1læ#, H ḻa. H ka# H miæ=1dzi-1ts’j=1læ-

wound one-little=LOC PROH=appear make=PRF

neck=cut=PRF PFV-kill=finish=become PFV-slaughter=PRF

dz3 =1ji =1zdō."

slaughter=RES=PRF eat=GEN=DUR

“‘When we, ghosts, slaughter animals, we first let them bleed a little, and only then slaughter and eat them.’”

(15) “H nj# 1h a=H no# 1ni-H wu# 1Z j- H b3=1s j# 1c i-1l3- H suē# 1k’u-1l3- H suē#

slaughter=RES=PRF eat=GEN=DUR

“‘When we, ghosts, slaughter animals, we first let them bleed a little, and only then slaughter and eat them.’”
“The reason I am leading your family’s plow ox here and forth here is that I want to injure it on the thorns first, so that it bleeds, and then I will slaughter and eat it.”

(16) This=inside 2SG-family  ox=PNT.ANM  plow.ox

to-PFV-lead  that=TOP  first  ox=PNT.ANM  thorn.bush  pric=CAUS=PRF  to-PFV-lead  that=TOP

man-man  friend  ox=PNT.ANM  plow.ox

night=TOP  ox=PNT.ANM  at=at  downward-lead=PRF

one-eat  ox=PNT.ANM  to-PFV-lead  that=TOP

‘Then, the man said: “No problem, let’s be friends, and tonight, let’s drive the plow ox to your place and eat it together.”’

(17) this=inside  2SG-family  ox=PNT.ANM  plow.ox  ox=PNT.ANM  at=at  downward-lead=PRF

one-eat  ox=PNT.ANM  to-PFV-lead  that=TOP

‘Then, the man said: “No problem, let’s be friends, and tonight, let’s drive the plow ox to your place and eat it together.”’
So, the two of them drove the plow ox down (to the ghost’s house), slaughtered it at the ghost’s place and ate it.

One day, the man invited the ghost to his place.
The ghost came to the man’s house.

The man said: “The two of us are so close, we are such great pals.”

Tonight, I will kill my wife and the two of us will eat her together.”

‘So, the two of them drove the plow ox down (to the ghost’s house), slaughtered it at the ghost’s place and ate it.’

‘One day, the man invited the ghost to his place.’

‘The ghost came to the man’s house.’

‘The man said: “The two of us are so close, we are such great pals.”’

‘Tonight, I will kill my wife and the two of us will eat her together.”’
The man said to the ghost: "Please take a seat here and I will call my wife."

(23) ʰtʰɜ = Hlæ # ʰhĩ = ʰtʰi # ʰbə = ʰtsa = ʰwu = ʰs], ʰtsʰ # ʰdzỹ # ʰmiae # ʰla. ʰnga = HLx₁ = ʰtsʰa = ʰlæ #, ʰbi - ʰkʰu = ʰno # ʰbiʒ # ʰmo - ʰduʒ ʰdzī # ʰlɜ = ʰsl #, ʰbi - ʰmi = ʰs] # ʰri - ʰũ # ʰlɜ = ʰxi #, ʰpʰa # ʰlɜ = ʰs #, ʰdz u = ʰtsʰa = ʰlæ #, ʰbə. ʰz₁ # ʰki = ʰk₀ # ʰbə - ʰts₁ = ʰtsa #, ʰtʰɜ = ʰlæ #, ʰtsʰ u = ʰtʰi = ʰrē #: "ʰʔ = ʰdz₁ # ʰtʰi = ʰdz₃ # ʰzu #, ʰlɜ = ʰs #, ʰr₃ = ʰs₃, ʰni = ʰji # ʰtsʰ # ʰdzỹ = ʰz₁ # ʰqao = ʰmu = ʰrē #, " HLʰi # HLʰp = ʰli = ʰnõ.

The man went out, hid his wife outside, killed a big sow in the pig shed, clothed it in a cotton gown, wrapped cloth over its head and fastened it to a pillar. At that time, the ghost said: "We can eat anything you want, you needn’t kill your wife."

(24) ʰtʰɜ = ʰlæ # ʰhĩ = ʰtʰi = ʰrē #: "ʰdz₁ # ʰtʰi = ʰdz₃ # ʰduʒ # ʰhĩ = ʰz₁ # ʰʔ = ʰdz₁ # ʰja - ʰku # ʰzi = ʰz₁ # ʰm = ʰji = ʰdz₃ #. " 
(25) "Hwi=Lzq# LHgɑ Lbɜ=Lsɿ Lŋɜ=Lji Ltsu=Hj,# Htsu-1Ls=Hji Lksu=Lji,” HlP=1Li=1ŋō.

(26) HlP=1Ls# Hlæ, Hhĩ=1tʰi=1rē# 1bi-Hmi# 1lɔ-1Ls# 1ts#=Hhĩ# 1tʰ=1no# 1kʰ-u-1Lkɛ=1li=1ŋō.

(27) 1Ls# Hl-dzyζ#, Hni# 1bu-1Lkɛ-1cũ=Hs# , Hhao 1wɜ=1liu#,” HlP=1Li=1ŋō.

(28) 1bi-Hmi# 1gu3.Hjẽ# Hmu=1kɛ=1li=1ŋō.

(29) Hlhu# 1kɛ=Hs#, “1Ls# Hl-dzyζ#, Hni# 1tɛyi 1ts=1liu#,” HlP=1Li=1ŋō.
The man shouted again: “Woman, make tea!”

Again, the sow did not answer.

Then, saying: “You don’t listen to me, you don’t cook and you don’t make tea,” the man grabbed a knife and cut off the head of the sow.

After that, he extracted the sow’s inner organs, made lung and liver sausages, boiled them and the ghost and the man ate them together.
Having eaten them, the man asked the ghost: “Are my wife’s lungs and liver tasty?”

The ghost replied: “Very tasty.”

On the second day, the ghost invited the man to his place.

The man came to his place, and the ghost offered him to sit down.

Then, the ghost said: “Dear friend, you are so hospitable.”

Then, the ghost said: “Dear friend, you are so hospitable.”
"You killed your own wife to offer me her liver and lungs."

"Tonight, I will kill my wife too, and will offer you her lungs and liver."

"Having said that, he got up, called his wife into the house and tied her to a pillar."

"After that the ghost said: "Woman, come out and cook.""
The wife of the ghost said: “How can I cook?”

“You fastened me, I can’t even move.”

After she had said that, the ghost told his wife again: “Make tea!”

Then, the ghost’s wife told him again: “You fastened me here, I can’t even move, let me go and I will make you tea.”
that-become ghost=that oneself=GEN life-friend wife

“At that time, the ghost greatly pitied his wife.”

He wanted to let her go, but then again he thought that it would probably not be good.’

‘So, with a heavy heart, he got up, took out his knife and cut off his wife’s head.’

‘Having done that, he butchered his wife’s corpse, took out her inner organs, and crying, made sausages of his wife’s lungs and liver.’
The ghost prepared sausages of his wife's lungs and liver and the man and the ghost ate them together.

While eating them, the man pretended to eat, but hid all the pieces he took under the floor boards.

While eating, the ghost asked the man.

"Pal, your wife's lungs and liver were very tasty, so why are my wife's lungs and liver so bitter?"
Then the man answered the ghost in the following way: “Your wife’s lungs and liver are not bitter at all, they are very tasty, maybe you find them bitter, because they are your own wife’s.”

‘Then the man answered the ghost in the following way: “Your wife’s lungs and liver are not bitter at all, they are very tasty, maybe you find them bitter, because they are your own wife’s.”’

‘On another day, the ghost and the man decided to play hide-and-seek.’

‘When they were about to begin, the man asked the ghost: “What are you most afraid of in the world?”’

The ghost said: “I am most afraid of the barley undulating with the wind.”’
'Then, the ghost asked the man: "And what are you most afraid of in the world?"

The man answered: "As for me, I am most afraid of cooked rice and bacon."

Having said that, the two began playing hide-and-seek.'
The ghost entered the field, but did not dare to look for the man.

Then the ghost thought of a way to make the man come out.

He thought a while and then recalled that the man had told him that he was most afraid of cooked rice and bacon.

So, the ghost went to his own house, cooked some rice and bacon, took them down to the field and standing at its side, threw them into the field.

The ghost entered the field, but did not dare to look for the man.
So, the man in the field ate the cooked rice and bacon thrown by the ghost and slept in the field afterwards.

Then, seeing that the man did not come out, the ghost returned to his own home, cooked more rice and bacon and threw them again in the field.

Thereafter, while still hoping to scare the man out of the field, the ghost threw all of the rice and bacon he used to have at his house into the field.
As for the man, day after day he sat in the field and ate what the ghost brought him.

In the end, the ghost thus dispensed all the food he had at home and died of hunger.


Shirai Satoki. 2006. *A study of the “point of view” system in nDrapa*. Kyoto: Kyoto University, PhD dissertation.


