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Ekaterina Chirkova

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

Katia Chirkova
Centre de Recherches Linguistiques sur l’Asie Orientale, CNRS

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 & Rénzhēng’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; Mūlī

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 Shuīluò 水洛 river in Shuīluò Township of Mūlī 茫溪藏 (WT smi li rang skyong rdzong). This county is part of Liángshān Yí Autonomous Prefecture in Sichuān Province in the People’s Republic of China (PRC).

* My fieldwork on Shīxing in 2005 and 2006 was sponsored by the Royal Netherlands Academy of Sciences and the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences in the framework of the Sino-Dutch 2005-2008 research programme “Trans-Himalayan database development: China and the Subcontinent”. Fieldwork on Shīxing in 2008 has been supported by the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (France) as part of the research project “What defines Qiang-ness? Towards a phylogenetic assessment of the Southern Qiangic languages of Mūlī” (acronym PASQi) (ANR-07-JCJC-0063). I would like to thank Sun Hōngkāi 孙宏开, Huáng Xīng 黄行 and Zhōu Fāchéng 周发成 for their help in the organization of the fieldtrips, and David Bradley, Guillaume Jacques, Alexis Michaud, Randy LaPolla, Caroline Weckerle, Franz Huber and the anonymous reviewers of LTBA for helpful comments on earlier drafts.
Shuīluò Township, where the Shīxīng language is being spoken, is situated in the western part of Mūlǐ (WT, variously, smi li, rmi li, mu li or mu le). Mūlǐ 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, Mūlǐ 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 Mūlǐ, Chote Chaba (Tsultrim Dakpa), and visited Mūlǐ 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, Mūlǐ’s geographic isolation and poor infrastructure withheld researchers from accessing the region until recent decades (Wellens 2006: 23-27).

The Shīxīng 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 “Shīxīng” 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 $[^{\text{H}}\text{ʂ}]-^{\text{H}}\text{hǐ}$.² Huáng Bûfân 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 $[^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}]-^{\text{H}}\text{hǐ}$ (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 Mûlî, where the group resides. In Mûlî the group is known as Xûmî 旭米 (currently their official denomination in Chinese) or Sûmû 粟母, both of which are Chinese renderings of the group’s name in Prinmi (Pûmî), i.e. [‘co-’mu]; Prinmi being the language of Mûlî’s ethnic majority.³ In the following, I use ‘Xûmî’ 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 Xûmî people reside in eleven villages in the Shuîlûò Valley, alongside the Shuîlûò River (Chîngtiânhê 冲天河 or Wûliânghé 无量河). The name of the river in Shîxîng is $[^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}]-^{\text{H}}\text{dzɜ}$, from $[^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}]$, river name (this element is possibly related to the word for ‘iron’, $[^{\text{H}}\text{sō}$]; see footnote 10) and $[^{\text{H}}\text{dzɜ}$ ‘water, river’;⁴ The autonym of the Xûmî is taken from the name of this river: $[^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}]^{\text{H}}\text{hĩ}$, which literally means ‘people of the river Shu’ (< $[^{\text{H}}\text{hĩ}$] ‘person’).

The five largest Xûmî villages are (from north to south on the map):
- $[^{\text{H}}\text{ɕi}-^{\text{H}}\text{wa}]$ Xîwâ 西瓦⁵
- $[^{\text{H}}\text{dō}-^{\text{H}}\text{la}]$ Dōnglâ 东拉
- $[^{\text{H}}\text{lã}-^{\text{H}}\text{mã}]$ Lánmân 兰满
- $[^{\text{H}}\text{pʰi}-^{\text{H}}\text{wu}]$ Pingwêng 平翁
- $[^{\text{H}}\text{ru}-^{\text{H}}\text{hǐ}]$ Liângbâo 两保

Based on lexical and phonological differences, Sûn and Huáng & Rénzhēng divide the area inhabited by the Xûmî into two parts: (1) Upper Reaches of the Shuîlûò River, which includes the villages Xîwâ, Dōnglâ and Lánmân, and (2) Lower Reaches of the Shuîlûò River, which includes the villages of Pingwêng and Liângbâo. The two sub-varieties of Shîxîng are mutually intelligible.

The lifestyle of the Xûmî 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 Shuîlû, who concentrate on other staple foods (Weckerle et al. 2005b, 2006). The Xûmî 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 Prinmi is a member of the Qiângic subgroup of the Sino-Tibetan language family. The Prinmi dialect of Shuîlû, who supposedly close to the Tàôbâ桃巴 Prinmi dialect of Mûlî, as described in Lû (2001).

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

⁵ This village is also known as $[^{\text{H}}\text{ʂu}-^{\text{H}}\text{wu}]$ ‘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 Shuiluo river.

Shuiluo is a multi-ethnic township, inhabited by five different ethnic groups:
- ethnic Tibetans: locally known as ‘Kami’ Tibetans, the autonym of the group is [ka-hmi], in Chinese 嘎米藏族 Gāmǐ 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 Mósùo 摩梭 or Mōxiē 麼些), 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 Kham 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 Hōngkāi (1983a) and one by Huáng Būfán & Rénzēng Wāngmǔ (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 Jirén and Jiāng Zhǔyì (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 Shìxīng as well as approximately 1,000 and 1,800 Shìxīng words, respectively.\(^8\)

Shìxīng 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 Sìchuān and Yùnnán 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). Shìxīngs belong to the Southern Qiangic group, as detailed in Figure 1:

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Figure 1: Qiangic subgroup of the Sino-Tibetan language family (adapted from Sūn 2001: 160)
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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 Shìxīng 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 Mùyā, Nǎmūyī, Qiāng, Quèyù and Prinmi (Sun 1992: 76). The label “Qiangie”, under which the group is currently known, was introduced by Chinese linguists in the 1960s as an umbrella term for the Qiāng, Prinmi and rGyalrong languages (Sūn 1962: 561; 2001). The Qiangic group expanded in the 1970s, when new languages discovered in Western Sichuan (e.g. Shìxīng, Guīqiōng, Nǎmūyī 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 Shǐxīng, 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. Shǐxīng and its neighboring languages

Shǐxīng is spoken at the border areas with mixed Tibetan and Hǎn 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 Lēshān County) in Sìchuān. In the Qīng dynasty (1644-1911), they continued to migrate further south, reaching present-day Dàlǐ and Ninglāng Counties in Yǔnnán, where the dominant languages for several centuries have been Nàxī, Báí (Dàlǐ) and Nà (Ninglāng). Then, from the shores of Lake Lúgū, following the flow of the Jīnshājīāng (Yangtse) to the north they arrived to the Shūlǔ 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 Zìzhìshū 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 Mù Kings from their capital at Lijiāng. The Mù shì huànpu 《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 Shūlǔ 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 Mùlǐ in the early years of the Qīng dynasty (Wellens 2006: 26-27). Yet, a substantial number of Nàxī watchtowers have been preserved in Shuiliuò to the present day.

While the Xùmǐ’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 Xùmǐ as part of the Nàxī group. For example, Guō Dàliè & Hé Zhiwū (1994: 8-9) in their Nàxī zú shǐ [History of the Nàxī] straightforwardly list the Xùmǐ group as a branch of the Nàxī, thereby also suggesting a genetic link between the Nàxī and Shīxīng languages.

In view of the complex history of the Xùmǐ group, no language of the groups with which Shīxīng has been in close contact (Tibetan, Nà and Nàxī) can be excluded a priori from a discussion on the genetic affiliation of Shīxīng. However, salient structural differences between Tibetan and Shīxīng in all linguistic sub-systems preclude a close genetic link between these two languages. Nonetheless, Tibetan has exercised a profound influence on Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng and Yǒngnìng 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 Shīxīng and Nà may be warranted in future research. In sum, the question of the genetic affiliation of Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng in 2005, 2006 and 2008. I worked in close cooperation with my principal language consultant, Mr. Lùróng Duōdīng 鲁绒多丁 [ičি-Hšě Hlu-Hzǔ Hto-Hď], where [ičি-Hšě] is a place name, and [Hlu-Hzǔ Hto-Hď] is a personal name (WT blo bzang stobs ldan).11 We worked together on the Upper Reaches sub-variety of Shīxīng, which Lùróng Duōdīng speaks natively. Lùróng Duōdīng provided most of the data and background information on the Shīxīng language and its speakers. Together we verified Shīxīng data (word lists and sentences) by previous authors (Sūn 1983a; Huáng & Rénzĕng 1991), collected new vocabulary (our Chinese-

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10 Rock draws a direct connection between the Xùmǐ people and the Nàxī (1947: 110, footnote 60): “Shu-khin (Iron people), named after the river [alongside which they live] are said to be descendants of soldiers placed there as guards by the Na-khi chiefs.” According to Rock, the group speaks “a mixture of Na-khi and Tibetan, but their language is understood neither by the Na-khi nor the Hsi-fan”.

11 Xùmǐ names generally consist of two parts: (i) a house name, the house being the basic unit of social organization of the Xùmǐ, and (ii) two Tibetan names given at birth. For example, the full name of my principal language consultant consists of the house name [ičি-Hšě] and the given names [Hlu-Hzǔ] (WT blo bzang) and [Hto-Hď] (WT stobs ldan). Official Chinese transliterations of Xùmǐ names normally do not reflect house names. For example, the official Chinese name of my principal language consultant is simply 鲁绒多丁 Lùróng Duōdīng.
Shixīng 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 Shixīng 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 & Rénzhēng’s (1991) concise but insightful outline of the Shīxīng Upper Reaches sub-variety. It adopts Huáng & Rénzhēng’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 Shīxīng to date.

Despite the preliminary nature of the present analysis, this new outline of Shīxīng, 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 Guiqióng (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 Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng word [bie][] ([bie][]-IHSH] (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 [IHSH] ‘fat’. The Shīxīng word for ‘meat’ is ‘meat’. The present outline of Shīxīng intends to correct inaccuracies in previous analyses as well as to bring to light some new phenomena, such as irrealis (§4.5.2), unrecognized in previous work.

Second, the genetic classification of Shīxīng (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 Shīxīng 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 [bie][] (in my transcription: [bie][]-[HSH]) occurs in the appended texts and therefore deserves a short note. It refers to strips of specially preserved pig fat. [bie][] is a local speciality of the region, including also the neighbouring Yōngning 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. Shǐxing: A bird’s eye view

Shǐxing 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 Shǐxing 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. [⁴[H]cĩ] ‘look’ > [⁴[H]cun] ‘look!’ (§4.1). Shǐxing 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 Shǐxing is the phonological word. Hence, the tone system of Shǐxing is word-based rather than syllable-based (§2.3).

Shǐxing is by and large an agglutinative language with little inflexional morphology. Shǐxing is phonologically monosyllabic with a strong tendency towards disyllabicity in the lexicon. Shǐxing’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. [⁴[H]tɛæ] ‘earth’, [⁴[H]tɛʰɨ] ‘drink’. Polysyllabic monomorphemic words also occur, but they are essentially borrowings into Shǐxing from another language, e.g. [⁴[H]ʰa.ʰpɑo] ‘head’ (WT thod pa). Overall, words in Shǐxing are mostly mono- and disyllabic. Longest words normally do not exceed five syllables in length, e.g. [⁴[H]ɛæ-⁴[H]tsʰɨ]-⁴[H]mu-⁴[H]dz3-⁴[H]kɔ] ‘afternoon’, literally, ‘before having lunch’ (< [⁴[H]ɛæ-⁴[H]tsʰɨ] ‘lunch’, the negator [mu], [⁴[H]dz3] ‘eat’, the locative marker [ɾsɔ] ‘on’).

Affixation, compounding and reduplication are the three major word-formation processes in Shǐxing. Shǐxing is mostly prefixing on verbs and suffixing on nouns. The majority of suffixes are derivational. Affixation processes in Shǐxing are accompanied in some cases by the phonological processes of vowel harmony and lenition. Shǐxing 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. [⁴[H]cy3-⁴[H]cy3] ‘stir’, [⁴[H]dz0-⁴[H]dz0] ‘run’. An additional meaning of reduplication is reciprocity, e.g. [⁴[H]qɑo-⁴[H]qɑo] ‘help (each other)’. The meaning of reduplication for stative verbs (adjectives) is intensification, e.g. [⁴[H]gu3-⁴[H]gu3] ‘round’.

Shǐxing major open word classes include nouns and verbs, with standard Sino-Tibetan criteria for noun- and verb-ood applicable to Shǐxing. Nouns in Shǐxing 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 Shǐxing 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 Shǐxing are those forms that can
take directional prefixes, the negator [mV] ‘not’ (subject to vowel harmony) and the causative suffix [-xi]. 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 Shīxīng 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, adverbializers, negators and interjections.

In terms of their positioning in relation to other sentence elements, noun and verb adjuncts in Shīxīng are enclitics. Shīxīng nominal case markers and verbal auxiliaries are for the most part recent grammaticalizations, mostly of locative origin. Overall, Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng must have a verb phrase, whereas noun phrases are optional.

The present overview focuses on the Shīxīng variety spoken in the Upper Reaches of the Shūlù 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 Shīxīng, such as verb serialization, have not been included and will await future publications.

2. PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

The present study essentially adopts Huáng & Rényēng (1991) and Huáng et al. (1992) phonological analyses of the Upper Reaches variety of Shīxīng. Both analyses are based on the same data, collected by Huáng & Rényēng in the late 1980s. On the whole, Huáng & Rényēng (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 & Rényēng and Huáng et al. analyses, Shīxīng has a total of forty-nine initials. The inventory of initials includes six prenasalized initials, viz. nb nd ng ndz ndz ndz (where “n” stands for a homorganic nasal: m, n, ɲ, n, ɳ and ɲ, respectively). Based on my fieldwork, I add to this inventory one additional phoneme, /ŋɡ/, [nɡ].

The overall initial inventory of Shīxīng is presented in Table 1:
The following observations concerning Shīxīng 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 Shīxīng native vocabulary.

(ii) Alveo-palatals. Similar to the three-way complementary distribution of the alveo-palatal series in Mandarin, the alveo-palatal series in Shīxīng 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 /ɪ/, and retroflexes with /ɿ/. Dentals do not co-occur with /y/. Retroflexes do not co-occur with /æ/. Alveo-palatalas 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)’, [Htʰu-Lzũ] ‘shiver, tremble’, [Htʰu-Lcu] ‘stroke, touch’, [Htʰu-Lku] ‘can, know (how to do something)’.

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

(iv) Consonant lenition. Similar to Qiāng (the Mǎwō variety, Liú 1998: 58-63 and Sun 2003: 236-238; or the Yǎdū variety, LaPolla with Huáng 1996: 31-32), Shīxīng has a set of productive lenition rules, which transform some initial stops and (mostly aspirated) affricates into spirants. This happens when these initials appear intervocally—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</td>
<td>q qxʰ ng</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nasal</td>
<td>m m</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td>ts tsʰ dz ndz</td>
<td>tʃ tʃʰ dz ndz</td>
<td>ʃ ʃʰ dz ndz</td>
<td>ך ךʰ dz ndz</td>
<td>ˀŋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affricate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fricative</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>lateral fricative</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateral approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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>[LI][bˈia] ‘leaf’ &gt; [H][sɨʔ-waɭ], /H-sɨʔ-waɭ/ ‘tree leaves’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dz &gt; z</td>
<td>[H][d zo] ‘sit; live, reside’ &gt; [H][miae-]-[H][z u], /H-miae-]-H-[z u]/ ‘sit down’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tɕʰ &gt; ɕ</td>
<td>[L][tɕʰ iɨ] ‘drink’ &gt; [H][tɕ iɨ-][ɕ iɨ], /H-[tɕ iɨ-]-H-[ɕ iɨ]/ ‘drink tea’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kʰ &gt; x</td>
<td>[H][kʰ iɨ] ‘throw’ &gt; [L][miae-]-[H][x u], /L-miae-]-H-[x u]/ ‘fill, pour’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qʰ &gt; χ</td>
<td>[L][qʰ u] ‘bowl’ &gt; [H][dzi]-[H][q u], /H-dzi-]-H-[q u]/ ‘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 [tsʰ] to [s] is not attested. The changes of [dz] to [z], [tʂʰ] to [ʂ] and [dz] to [z] are sporadic and marginal. For example, when preceded by a prefix, the verb [L][dzi]-[H][z u] ‘hit’ preserves its initial unchanged in most cases, e.g. [L][dzi]-[H][z u] ‘hit one time’, but the lenition of [dz] to [z] is also occasionally attested in this environment, e.g. [L][dzi]-[H][z u] ‘hit one time’.

Moreover, the noted changes are not without exceptions. For example, the initial [kʰ] of the words [H]-[kʰ u] ‘year’ and [H]-[kʰ u] ‘contain’ does not undergo the otherwise pervasive change to [x], e.g. [L]-[dzi]-[H]-[kʰ u] ‘one year’ and [L]-[mu]-[H]-[kʰ u] ‘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 [L]-[miae]-[H]-[x i] ‘pour’ (< [miae-] ‘downward’, [H]-[kʰ i] ‘throw’) is transcribed as [L]-[miae]-[H]-[x i] ‘fill, pour’, i.e. with the derived allomorph [x i], rather than /H-miae-]-H-[kʰ u]/ ‘fill, pour’.

(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. [H]-[j u] ‘bark, yap’ vs. [H]-[ʔ u] ‘fish’.

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

13 Affixes, bound roots and enclitics are not marked for tone, if quoted in isolation.
Furthermore, Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 178) make the following observations:

i. \([ɨ]\) is realized as \([ɨ\)] after alveolars and as \([i]\) after blade-palatals.

ii. \([ɛ]\) is realized as \([u]\) after bilabial initials, and as \([u]\) after velars.

iii. \([u]\) is realized as \([u]\) after apical consonants. After the lateral \([l]\), \([u]\) has the allophone \([iu]\), e.g. the syllable \([lu]\) in the word /ʰlu.lu/ ‘rabbit, hare’ is realized as \([liu]\).

iv. \([ə]\) and \([ao]\) are in free variation, \([ao]\) is attested the most.

v. \([ŋ]\) and \([œ]\) 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, \([li-şf-ʰlu]\) ‘body’ is realized as \([lis-ʰlu]\). The weakened \([rœ]\) is in free variation with \([œ]\). For example, the word ‘bone’, \([čæ-ʳœ]\), may be variously realized as \([čær]\) and \([čæ-ʳœ]\).

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

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### Table 3. Shīxīng plain and nasalized vowels in Huáng & Rénzēng (1991: 177)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i)</th>
<th>ɿ</th>
<th>æ</th>
<th>ə</th>
<th>ʊ</th>
<th>ɑ</th>
<th>(ao)</th>
<th>ɔ</th>
<th>ĵ</th>
<th>ū</th>
<th>ū</th>
<th>ū</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>ũ</td>
<td>ũ</td>
<td>ŵ</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>ū</td>
<td>ū</td>
<td>ū</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4. Shīxīng 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 \([i\)] 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 \([i\)] for Huáng & Rénzēng’s \([e]\) and \([i]\) for Huáng & Rénzēng’s \([œ]\).

ii. I do not posit \([œ]\) as a distinct phoneme (as unattested).

iii. \([iɛ]\) does not appear to be contrastive with \([iɛ]\) and is therefore not included in my analysis.

iv. After back consonants, \([ɔ]\) is an allophone of \([ô]\) and \([uû]\) is an allophone of \([uû]\).

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

Similar to many Qiangic languages, Shǐxing 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: [tʰbɘ-hpʰs] ‘undo, untie (e.g. shoelaces)’, [tʰbɘ-hpʰs] ‘pull out, (of noodles) make noodles by drawing out the dough by hand’ and [tʰbu-hsʰu] ‘spit out’. Compared to languages like Qiāng or Mùyà, vowel harmony in Shǐxing has very restricted productivity.

In addition to prefixes, the effects of vowel harmony can be observed in combinations of the third person pronoun, [tʰi], and, to a lesser extent, of the first person pronoun, [ŋi], when these are followed by nominal case markers and the plural suffix [-r]. For example, the vowel /i/ of the third person pronoun [tʰi] remains unchanged, if the pronoun is followed by a form with the root vowel /i/, e.g. [tʰi=ji] ‘his’ (< the genitive marker [ji]). The more centralized vowel [i] triggers a change to [ɛ], e.g. [tʰɛ=ŋi] ‘to him’ (< the animate patient marker [s]). Finally, /i/ assimilates to /u/ when followed by a syllable with the nucleus vowel /u/, e.g. [tʰu=ŋi] ‘they, their family, they as a family’. The ablauted alternant of the first person pronoun [ŋi] is [ŋ] in all cases above, except when followed by the genitive marker. In the latter case, the vowel of [ŋi] remains unchanged, i.e. [ŋi=ŋi] ‘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’, [ki-ŋu], and ‘back’, [kiæ-ŋiæ]. The second syllables of these words, [ŋu] and [ŋiæ], 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, [ŋu] and [ŋiæ], respectively, in terms of height. The meaning of this first syllable is currently unclear.
2.3. Tone system

Shǐxīng 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 Shǐxīng is the phonological word. A phonological word in Shǐxīng 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 Shǐxīng may coincide with lexical words and syntactic phrases. An average phonological (as well as lexical) word in Shǐxīng is bisyllabic. For example, [Hguɜ-Hguɜ] ‘round’, [Htɕĩ-Htɕĩ] ‘drink tea’.

Contrastive tone in Shǐxīng 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’, [LHtsʰu] ‘ghost’, [HLtsʰu] ‘lungs’.

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. [Hguɜ-Hguɜ] /Hguɜ-guɜ/ ‘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-Hdzō], /Hdzō-dzō/ ‘run’
iii. /HL/ is realized as H on the first syllable and L on all remaining syllables, e.g. [Hɕyɜ-Lɕyɜ], /HLɕyɜ-ɕyɜ/ ‘stir’

Shǐxīng 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.

Shǐxīng (free and bound) roots are lexically specified for tone. For example, [Hhi] ‘person’, [Hbũ] ‘thick, rough’, [Hni] ‘you’. Shǐxīng 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 [zq], i.e. [rẽ = Hzq], if the host word for these markers is two or more syllables in length, as in the following example:15

---

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 Shǐxīng 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
‘The mountain god asked the tiger: “What did you see today in the mountains? Please tell me.”’

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: \[\text{Hbõ# Lp}^\text{ʰ} \text{u-Lt} \text{ɕʰ} \text{i-Ht} \text{ɕʰ} \text{i=Lt} \text{ʰi}\] ‘the white yak’ (< \[\text{HLbõ}\] ‘yak’), \[\text{Hts}^\text{ʰɿ} \text{# Ld} \text{ʑi-Hl} \text{ɑ}\] ‘a flock of sheep’ (< \[\text{HLts}^\text{ʰɿ}\] ‘sheep’).

Second, late realization of /LH/ tone on disyllabic words, e.g. \[\text{Lk}^\text{ʰ} \text{u-LH} \text{ʁɛ̃}\] ‘call in’ in running speech (Text 2, sentence 26) vs. \[\text{Lk}^\text{ʰ} \text{u-H} \text{ʁɛ̃}\] ‘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):

1. 


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, [Hʰbõ] ‘yak’ vs. [bo- 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/: [miæ-] ‘downward’ + [Hʔʊ] ‘swallow’ > [Hmiæ-Hʔʊ], /Hmiæ-ʔʊ/ ‘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-] + [Lʰdz] ‘eat’ > [lɜ- Lʰdz], /Llɜ-Lʰdz/ ‘have eaten’

8. Ø + HL > /HL/: [miæ-] ‘downward’ + [HLdz] ‘sit’ > [miæ- HLdz], /Hmiæ-zu/ ‘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/: [ci-lɜ- H-suē# kʰ-u-lɜ-H-suē] ‘have led to and fro’ (< [suē] ‘lead’)

10. Ø + Ø + LH > /LH/: [ci-lɜ- Hbē# kʰ-u-lɜ-Hbē] ‘have rolled back and forth’ (< [bē] ‘roll’)

11. Ø + Ø + HL > /LH/: [ci-lɜ- Htsa# kʰ-u-lɜ-Htsa] ‘have jumped to and fro’ (< [tsa] ‘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. [Hlɜ-Hz] ‘have caught’ + the perfect marker [s] > [Hlɜ-Hz-s] ‘have caught’, see Text 2, sentence 7
(13) LH + enclitic > /LH/, e.g. [⁴⁴bi] ‘go’ + the perfect marker [s₁] > [⁴⁴bi=Ls₁] ‘have gone’, see example (57) below or Text 1, sentence 23
(14) /LH/ + enclitic > /LH/, e.g. [⁴¹⁴bi-⁴¹⁴lo=⁴¹⁴lu] ‘have wrapped’ + the resultative marker [wu] + the perfect marker [s₁] > [⁴¹⁴bi-⁴¹⁴lo-⁴¹⁴lu=⁴¹⁴wu=Ls₁] ‘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) [⁴⁴H-H] + enclitic > [⁴⁴H-H-L], e.g. [⁴⁴⁴ʂu-⁴⁴⁴hǐ=⁴⁴⁴s₁] (< [⁴⁴⁴ʂu-⁴⁴⁴hǐ] ‘a Xùmǐ person’, the animate patient marker [s₁])
(16) [⁴⁵L-H] + enclitic > [⁴⁵L-H-L], e.g. [⁴⁵⁴zj-⁴⁵⁴bʒ=⁴⁵⁴s₁] ‘[lead] the plow ox’ (< [⁴⁵⁴zj-⁴⁵⁴bʒ] ‘plow ox’, the animate patient marker [s₁]), see Text 2, sentence 9
(17) H + enclitic + enclitic > [⁴⁵H-L-L], e.g. [⁴⁵⁴hǐ=⁴⁵⁴tʰi=⁴⁵⁴rɛ̃] ‘the man’ (< [⁴⁵⁴hǐ] ‘person’, [⁴⁵⁴tʰi] ‘that’, the agentive marker [rɛ̃]), see Text 1, sentence 23
(18) LH + enclitic + enclitic > [⁴⁴⁴LH-L-L], e.g. [⁴⁴⁴tsʰu=⁴⁴⁴rɛ̃=⁴⁴⁴zj] (< [⁴⁴⁴tsʰu] ‘ghost’, the agentive marker [rɛ̃], the topic marker [zj]), see Text 2, sentence 10
(19) HL + enclitic + enclitic > [⁴⁴⁴HL-L-L], e.g. [⁴⁴⁴pʒ=⁴⁴⁴li=⁴⁴⁴nŋ] ‘said’ (< [⁴⁴⁴pʒ] ‘speak’, the past patient nominalizer [li], the copular verb [⁴⁴⁴HLŋŋ]), see Text 1, sentence 12

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) H + enclitic + enclitic > [⁴⁴⁴H-H-L], e.g. [⁴⁴⁴qua=⁴⁴⁴ji=⁴⁴⁴dzō] ‘be crying’ (< [⁴⁴⁴qua] ‘cry, weep’, the progressive marker [jǐ], the durative auxiliary [dzō]), see example (42) below
(21) LH + enclitic + enclitic > [⁴⁴⁴L-H-L], e.g. [⁴⁴⁴tsʰu=⁴⁴⁴tʰi=⁴⁴⁴rɛ̃] ‘the ghost’ (< [⁴⁴⁴tsʰu] ‘ghost’, [⁴⁴⁴tʰi] ‘that, the’, the agentive marker [rɛ̃]), see Text 1, sentence 13
(22) HL + enclitic + enclitic > [⁴⁴⁴HL-L-L], e.g. [⁴⁴⁴pʒ=⁴⁴⁴tsʰa=⁴⁴⁴læ] ‘have finished saying’ (< [⁴⁴⁴pʒ] ‘speak’, the terminative auxiliary [tsʰa], [læ] ‘become’), see Text 1, sentence 16

Finally, tone derivation processes in a small number of cases appear to be different from those described above and require further investigation. For example, tones in some lexical words are idiosyncratic. For instance, based on the tone derivation process applying to phonological words in which the first element
is toned, the root of the word $[^{\text{Hrō-}}]$ ‘mare’ is expected to have HL tone. However, the inherent tone of this free root is LH, i.e. $[^{\text{LHrō}}]$ ‘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 Shîxing. Important nominal prefixes and suffixes include:

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

(ii) Feminine gender and agentive suffix [-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 [-mi] is a conflation of two suffixes with distinct origins.

It is first meaning, as a feminine gender suffix, [-mi] appears to be semantically and functionally close to the nominal feminine gender suffix [me$^{33}$] in Nàxì (Hé & Jiāng 1985: 27-28). Some examples of this suffix in Shîxing are: $[^{\text{H}}]$-mi $[^{\text{H}}]$-mi ‘she-sheep’ (< $[^{\text{H}}]$- $[^{\text{H}}]$ ‘sheep’), $[^{\text{H}}]$-bu $[^{\text{H}}]$-mi ‘sisters’ (< [bu] (bound) ‘older brother’, $[^{\text{H}}]$gō ‘younger sister/brother’, cf. Yǒngníng Nà /gu-ml/.).

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

In its second meaning, the suffix [-mi] is likely to be related to the root 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: $[^{\text{H}}]$-li $[^{\text{H}}]$-mi ‘four limbs’ (< $[^{\text{H}}]$- $[^{\text{H}}]$ ‘foot’, $[^{\text{L}}]$-li ‘hand’) and $[^{\text{H}}]$-dz $[^{\text{H}}]$-li $[^{\text{H}}]$-mi ‘wave’. The latter word can be analyzed as a subject-predicate verbal expression, consisting of the noun $[^{\text{L}}]$-dz ‘water’ and the bound verbal root $[^{\text{L}}]$ ‘raise, rise’, nominalized by the suffix [-mi].

(iii) Male gender suffix [-p$^{33}$]. [-p$^{33}$] is the male gender suffix, corresponding to the female gender suffix [-mi]. [-p$^{33}$] is used to indicate the natural male gender. Compare the following examples: $[^{\text{H}}]$-p$^{33}$ ‘dog’, $[^{\text{H}}]$-p$^{33}$ ‘(male) dog’ vs.

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16 Yǒngníng Nà data throughout the paper are from Alexis Michaud, p.c.
[\(^{-}k^{h}u^{3}_{-}mi\) ‘bitch’; \([^{l}ma.^{H}z_{1}]\) ‘cat’, \([^{l}ma.^{Z}_{1}^{H}p^{b}_{3}]\) ‘male cat’, \([^{l}ma.^{Z}_{1}^{H}mi\) ‘female cat’.

(iv) Diminutive suffix \([-z\tilde{o}]\). This suffix derived from the word \([^{H}z\tilde{o}]\) ‘(male) child, man, male’. For example, \([^{H}k^{h}u^{3}_{-}z\tilde{o}]\) ‘puppy’ (< \([^{H}k^{h}u^{3}]\) ‘dog’), \([^{l}ma.^{Z}_{1}^{H}z\tilde{o}]\) ‘kitten’ (< \([^{l}ma.^{H}z_{1}]\) ‘cat’).

Both \([mi\) and \([z\tilde{o}]\) can be used in Shixing as nominal roots with the meaning ‘woman, female’ and ‘man, male’, respectively, as in the following nominal noun-adjective compounds for ‘mute’: \([^{H}mi-{l}t\tilde{c}_{3}]\) ‘female mute’ and \([^{l}z\tilde{o}-{l}t\tilde{c}_{3}]\) ‘male mute’.

3.2. Structure of the noun phrase

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

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

Table 7. The structure of a simple noun phrase in Shixing

Following are some examples of possible combinations:

(23) Dem+Noun+Dem: \([^{H}h^{a}^{H}t\tilde{o}^{H}pi^{H}h^{a}]\) ‘this story’ (the tone of \([^{H}h^{a}]\) ‘this’ appears to assimilate to that of the modified noun \([^{H}t\tilde{o}^{H}pi]\) ‘story’)

(24) Relative clause+Noun: \([^{l}\eta_{3}={H}r\tilde{e}^{l}d{z}_{3}={l}ts^{h}a={H}ji^{H}t^{H}u]\) ‘a way (for me) to finish eating’ (note the irregular tone of the first phonological word, \([^{l}\eta_{3}={H}r\tilde{e}, <^{l}\eta_{3}]\))

(25) Noun+Adj+Def: \([^{H}b^{o}\#^{H}p^{b}_{u}^{l}t\tilde{c}_{1}^{H}t\tilde{c}_{i}={l}^{H}i]\) ‘the white yak’

(26) Noun+Adj+Indef: \([^{H}fiu\#^{H}mo^{H}d{z}_{i}^{l}d{z}_{i}]\) ‘a big lake’

If functioning as a topic, the noun phrase can be followed by the topic marker \([z_{i}]\). Topic in Shixing 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 Shixing is mostly signaled by contextual clues. In addition, the demonstrative pronoun \([^{H}t^{H}i]\) ‘that’ and the numeral \([^{H}d\tilde{z}_{i}]\) ‘one’ can serve as an optional definite marker and an optional indefinite marker, respectively. In other words, \([^{H}t^{H}i]\) can be translated as ‘that’ or ‘the’ and \([^{H}d\tilde{z}_{i}]\) 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).
[\text{HLt\text{hi}}] 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) $^{1}\text{hī} = ^{1}\text{t\text{hi}} \quad ^{1}\text{hl\text{t\text{hi}}} \quad ^{1}\text{cy\text{3}} = ^{1}\text{li} = ^{1}\text{ŋō}.$

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

'The man thought the following.'

[\text{LHd\text{zi}}] ‘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) $^{1}\text{ji} - ^{1}\text{mi} \quad ^{1}\text{ji} - ^{1}\text{mi} \quad ^{1}\text{phi} - ^{1}\text{wu} \quad ^{1}\text{hi} \quad ^{1}\text{hī} \quad ^{1}\text{dzi\text{zi}}$

\begin{tabular}{llllll}
\text{previous-?} & \text{previous-?} & \text{place.name-family} & \text{person} & \text{one} \\
\text{in.the.past} & \text{in.the.past} & & & \\
$^{1}\text{dzi\text{zi}}$ & $^{1}\text{ji}$ & $^{1}\text{dzi\text{zi}}$. \\
one-household & exist.& ANM = DUR \\
\end{tabular}

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

### 3.4. Number specification

Shīxīng has an optional plural marker [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}. Similar to comparable plural particles or suffixes in many Sino-Tibetan languages, the meanings and functions of [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}} are markedly distinct from those of plural suffixes in Indo-European languages. Zero marking on a noun in Shīxīng does not imply singularity. Instead, Shīxīng nouns are rather unspecified for number. In this situation, the function of [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}} is not to denote, but rather to emphasize plurality.

[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}] can be added to any countable noun regardless of its animacy, or even to a mass noun, although less frequently. For example: [\text{[^{1}\text{hī}]} ‘person’ vs. [\text{[^{1}\text{hī} = ^{1}\text{m\text{os}.\text{dzi}]}} ‘people’, [\text{[^{1}\text{tsō}] ‘thing’ vs. [\text{[^{1}\text{tsō} = ^{1}\text{m\text{os}.\text{dzi}]}} ‘things’, [\text{[^{1}\text{cu}] ‘meat’ vs. [\text{[^{1}\text{cu} = ^{1}\text{m\text{os}.\text{dzi}]}} ‘meat (all different parts of a slaughtered animal)’.

Furthermore, [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}} 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 [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}}. The meaning of the first element of [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}} is possibly related to the Sino-Tibetan root mi ‘person, man’. The meaning of the second element, on the other hand, may be related to the (bound) element [zi], the marker of equative comparison, tentatively ‘be similar, resemble’ (§3.5.6). This possibility is suggested by the occasional use of [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}} 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’, [\text{[^{1}\text{dzi\text{zi}}.\text{hō} = ^{1}\text{m\text{os}.\text{dzi}]}} is formed from the noun [\text{[^{1}\text{dzi\text{zi}}.\text{hō}] ‘house’ followed by the plural marker [\text{[^{1}\text{m\text{os}}.\text{dzi}]}}. 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 
\[\text{[mə Hayden]}\] precludes the definiteness of the noun it modifies. Consequently, 
\[\text{[mə Hayden]}\] is not compatible with a numeral and a classifier phrase and it does not 
co-occur with \[\text{[ℍi Hayden]}\] ‘the, that’.

### 3.5. Case markers

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

1. the agentive and ablative marker \[\text{[r̥]}\]
2. the animate patient marker \[\text{[s̥]}\]
3. the instrumental and comitative marker \[\text{[wu]}\]
4. the genitive marker \[\text{[ji]}\]
5. four locative markers: \[\text{[k̥̄]}\] ‘on’, \[\text{[n̥]}\] ‘inside’, \[\text{[k̥]}\] ‘at’ and the general 
   locative marker \[\text{[l̥̄-l̥]}\]
6. the standards of comparison \[\text{[s̥-ʁɑ]}\] and \[\text{[z̥]}\]

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 Shìxīng by 
their respective ranking on the empathy hierarchy (Silverstein 1976):

speaker > hearer > non-participant > non-human animate > inanimate 

The agent marker \[\text{[r̥]}\] and the animate patient \[\text{[s̥]}\] can be viewed as working 
in tandem to signal a highly transitive construction, that involves two maximally 
distinguished, independent participants (cf. Næss 2007). \[\text{[r̥]}\] marks the volitional 
and instigating agent, whereas \[\text{[s̥]}\] 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 Shìxīng is \[\text{[wu]}\], 
which, in contrast to \[\text{[s̥]}\], 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 \[\text{[r̥]}\]

The agentive marker \[\text{[r̥]}\] 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:

\[\text{[r̥]}\] 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:

\[(29) \text{[dʒi-]}^{\text{H}} \text{ma} = \text{[l̥e]}^{\text{H}}, \text{[ʰh̄]}^{\text{H}} \text{hi} = \text{[¹t̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{i} = \text{[¹r̥]#}^{\text{H}} \text{ʃu} = \text{[ʰs̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{b̥ə#}^{\text{H}} \text{[¹h̄]} \text{̄k̥̄} = \text{[¹l̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{i} = \text{[¹n̥]},\]

\[\text{[dʒi-]}^{\text{H}} \text{ma} = \text{[l̥e]}^{\text{H}}, \text{[ʰh̄]}^{\text{H}} \text{hi} = \text{[¹t̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{i} = \text{[¹r̥]}^{\text{H}}, \text{[¹t̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{ʃu} = \text{[ʰs̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{b̥ə}
\text{ one-day=become=LOC person=that=AGT ghost=PNT.ANM guest\text{[¹h̄]} \text{̄k̥̄} = \text{[¹l̥]}^{\text{H}} \text{i} = \text{[¹n̥]},\]

\[\text{[call]=NMLZ.PST=COP}\]

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

The agentive marker \[\text{[r̥]}\] 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) Lɲi-Hwu# Hmi-Lʑæ=Lji# Lʁu-Htsõ# Lʁɛ̃-Htsõ# Lʰɜ=Hʐɿ# Hkɪ=Lmi=Lʁɛ̃# Hqʰu=ɿ, Lha-Lwu=Hsɿ# LHkɛ̃# Lli=ɿŋō.
Lɲi-Hwu# Hmi-Lʑæ=Lji# Lʁu-Htsõ# Lʁɛ̃-Htsõ# Lʰɜ=Hʐɿ# Hkɪ=Lmi=Lʁɛ̃# Hqʰu=ɿ, Lha-Lwu=Hsɿ# LHkɛ̃# Lli=ɿŋō.

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.’

“Lŋɜ=Hsɿ# Lʂõ-Hʂõ=Lrɛ̃ 
1SG=PNT.ANM personal.name=AGT eat do-do make=GEN

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) Hɦu# Lgu-Hɦu=ɿrɛ̃# Lŋ3=Hji# Hru-Hmi# Lɜ-Hngɑ=ɿdzõ=ɿjî.
Hɦu# Lgu-Hɦu=ɿrɛ̃ 
1SG=GEN lake nine-lake=AGT 1SG=GEN walk-NM

PFV-block=DUR=PROG

‘Nine lakes are blocking my way.’

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

(33) Lŋ3=Hrɛ̃# Ldz3=Htsʰɑ=Lji# HLʰu
Lŋ3=Hrɛ̃# Ldz3=Htsʰɑ=Lji# HLʰu

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

(34) L\text{a.l.mu.Hts}u = L\text{rê#}: “H\text{ni#} L\text{ŋa} = H\text{wu#} H\text{d3} L\text{zu#}, H\text{ŋ3#} L\text{ŋi} = H\text{sgj#} H\text{miæ-H} H\text{tj} = H\text{g3#},” H\text{p3} = H\text{li} = H\text{ŋo}.

moon=AGT 2SG 1SG=COM fight COND 1SG
L\text{ni} = H\text{sgj} H\text{miæ-H} H\text{tj} = H\text{g3#},” H\text{p3} = H\text{li} = H\text{ŋo}.
2SG=PNT.ANM downward-swallow do=VOL speak=NMLZ.PST=COP

‘The moon said: “If you fight with me, I will swallow you.”’

Shìxìng does not exhibit the widespread Sino-Tibetan isomorphysm 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 [rê]. The ablative use of this marker is illustrated in the following example:

(35) H\text{hi#} H\text{ŋ3-lmi} L\text{a-lba-ltsj#} (...) H\text{ŋ3-Hj} = H\text{l3#} H\text{l3-lm3-lm3} = H\text{sgj#}
L\text{ra.lka} = H\text{no} = H\text{rê#} H\text{d3} = H\text{no#} H\text{miæ-Hts}a L\text{tci} = H\text{li} = H\text{ŋo}.

H\text{hi} H\text{ŋ3-lmi} H\text{a-lba-ltsj} H\text{ŋ3-Hj} = H\text{l3} H\text{l3-lm3-lm3} = H\text{sgj}
person heart-NM ITSF-bad-? eye=also PFV-shut-shut=PRF
L\text{ra.lka} = H\text{no} = H\text{rê}
H\text{d3} = H\text{no} H\text{miæ-Hts}a
L\text{tci} = H\text{li} = H\text{ŋo}.
do=NMLZ.PST=COP

‘The evil man shut his eyes and jumped from the cliff into the river.’

In both cases (the agentive and the ablative), the marker [rê] can be analyzed as signaling the source of the action denoted by the verb. In the case of the agentive case, it marks the agent, the instigator of the action; whereas in the case of the ablative, it indexes the location-source of the event. Of these two meanings, the ablative meaning is likely to have arisen first and to have subsequently spread through metaphorical extension to that of the agentive case marker, following the markedness/prototypicality clines (LaPolla 1992, 1995: 1170-1177; see also §4.5.1 for the isomorphism of the agentive/ablative marker [rê] with the instigation auxiliary [rê]).

3.5.2. Animate patient marker [s\text{f}]

[s\text{f}] is a marker of a high degree of affectedness and individuation in objects (cf. Næss 2007). It indexes both the (definite and animate) patient in monotransitive
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:

\[(36) \, H_{\text{ni}} \, 1_{\text{nd}} = H_{\text{s}} \, 1_{\text{dz}} = H_{\text{no}} \, 1_{\text{miae}} - l_{\text{zyae}} = l_{\text{x}} = H_{\text{tcae}}!\]

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
H_{\text{ni}} & 1_{\text{nd}} = H_{\text{s}} \\
1_{\text{dz}} & = H_{\text{no}} \\
1_{\text{miae}} - l_{\text{zyae}} & = l_{\text{x}} = H_{\text{tcae}}!
\end{array}
\]

\[2SG \, 1SG=PNT.ANM \, \text{water}=\text{inside} \, \text{downward-fall}=\text{CAUS}=\text{MIR}\]

‘You have made me fall into the river!’

The animate patient marker \([s_1]\) is homophonous with the perfect auxiliary \([s]\), 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:

\[(37) \, H_{\text{p}} = l_{\text{ts}a} = l_{\text{a}e}!, \, H_{\text{bi}-l_{\text{mi}} = l_{\text{wu}} \\
1_{\text{t}} = H_{\text{s}} \\
H_{\text{t}} = l_{\text{tci}} - l_{\text{tci}} \, l_{\text{H}} = l_{\text{b}} = l_{\text{l}i} = l_{\text{n}}.\]

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
H_{\text{p}} & = l_{\text{ts}a} = l_{\text{a}e}! \\
H_{\text{bi}} & l_{\text{mi}} = l_{\text{wu}} \\
1_{\text{t}} & = H_{\text{s}} \\
H_{\text{t}} & = l_{\text{tci}} - l_{\text{tci}} \\
1_{\text{H}} & = l_{\text{b}} = l_{\text{l}i} = l_{\text{n}}.
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{speak}=\text{finish}=\text{become} \, \text{axe-NM}=\text{INSTR} \, \text{that}=\text{PNT.ANM} \, \text{chop} \]

\[\text{do-do} \, \text{make}=\text{NM}LZ.PST=\text{COP} \]

‘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).

\[(38) \, H_{\text{ro}} - l_{\text{qf}} - l_{\text{of}} - l_{\text{ba}}.H_{\text{ru}} - l_{\text{dz}} - l_{\text{t}} = H_{\text{wu}} - l_{\text{wu}} - H_{\text{pu}} = l_{\text{x}a} = l_{\text{l}i} = l_{\text{n}}.\]
26

```
Hrō-¹qē ¹ba.⁶ru ¹dzi-¹rē = ¹wu
road-half snake one-strip=COM
¹ku-²pu = ²xa = ²li = ²ŋō.
head-bring?=go.PST=NMLZ.PST=COP
meet

‘Halfway the mouse ran into a snake.’
```

(39) ¹Da.⁶lœ.¹ku.¹ku = ¹rē#: “¹la.¹mu.⁶tsʰu = ¹wu# ¹dʒ = ¹gʒ#,”
⁶l⁷p₃ = ¹li = ¹ŋō.

```
¹Da.⁶lœ.¹ku.¹ku = ¹rē:

‘¹la.¹mu.⁶tsʰu = ¹wu ¹dʒ = ¹gʒ,”
```

personal.name=AGT
moon=COM
fight=VOL

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 Shūxing precedes the noun it modifies.

Genitival relation in Shūxing can be expressed by a simple juxtaposition of two nouns or noun phrases, e.g. [¹dzi.¹bu-²wu# ²Lzô] ‘king’s son’, [¹dzi.¹bu-²wu# ¹dzô.⁶hō] ‘king’s house’. Otherwise, genitival relation is expressed by the genitive marker [ji], as in the following example:

(40) ¹ni-²wu# ²Lzô# ¹kē = ¹kō = ¹ji# ¹ba.⁶ru

```
¹ni-²wu ²Lzô ¹kē = ¹kō = ¹ji ¹ba.⁶ru
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) ⁶ha ⁶hu # ¹tí = ¹ji ¹ŋō.

```
⁶ha ⁶hu ¹tí = ¹ji ¹ŋō.
this clothing this that=GEN COP
```

‘This piece of clothing is his.’

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

(42) ¹z₃-⁶mi# ⁶þçi = ⁶læ = ⁶šič# ⁶qua = ⁶ji = ¹dzô?

```
Lzɜ-Hmi Htɕʰi=Hlæ=Hsɿ Hqua=Hji=1dzô?
child-NM what=become=PRF cry=GEN=DUR
‘Why is the child crying?’

3.5.5. Locative markers
Shixīng has a total of four locative enclitics: [ʁõ], [no], [kɔ] and [lɔ~la]. The former two, [ʁõ] and [no], transparently derive from the locative nouns [LHʁõ] ‘on, up’ and [LHnõ] ‘inside’ (WT nang), respectively. [ʁõ] 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, [ʁõ] 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)…̃jī-Hzyæ=1ʁõ# 1dz3-1ɕi=1sɿ …
̄jī-Hzyæ=1ʁõ 1dz3-1ɕi=1sɿ
field-side=on upward-stand=PRF
‘(The ghost) stood at the side of the field.’ (Text 2, sentence 66)

(44) …̃hī=1tʰi=1rē# Hsyi# 1dz3-Htśõ# 1pu=1l3=1sɿ#, 1tsʰu=1ji# 1li=1ʁõ# 1kʰu-1tsɿ1ts3=1tsʰa=1læ…
̄hī=1tʰi=1rē Hsyi 1dz3-Htśõ 1pu=1l3=1sɿ, 1tsʰu=1ji 1li=1ʁõ 1kʰu-1tsɿ1ts3=1tsʰa=1læ, 
person=that=AGT pine.torches one-bundle bring=come.PST=PRF 1tsʰu=1ji 1li=1ʁõ 1kʰu-1tsɿ1ts3=1tsʰa=1læ…
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 [LHdzõ] ‘exist’; this, in line with a cross-linguistically common tendency to case-mark the possessor as a location. For example:

(45) 1ʔõ-Hrē=1kɔ# 1bõ=1l3# 1ba.ʰka#, 1tyi-Hrõ=1l3# 1ba.ʰka.
1ʔõ-Hrē=1kɔ 1bõ=1l3 1ba.ʰka, 1tyi-Hrõ=1l3 1ba.ʰka
self-PL=on yak=also many mule-horse=also many
‘We have a lot of yaks and mules.’

The locative marker [ʁõ] is homophonous with the irrealis auxiliary [ʁõ] (§4.5.2).

[i] ‘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)

(ii) Temporal location (with verb phrases). [no] can be used in Shēxīng to signal an event as temporally located at the time of some other event, indicating the simultaneity of two events. In this function, it is attached to the main verb of the clause describing the first of the two events. For example:

(48) ... ḥqua=ḥno ḥb3=ḥs= ḥtsʰu-师事务# ḥkyi=ḥli=ḥjō.

‘... crying, the ghost prepared sausages of his wife’s lungs and liver.’

(Text 1, sentence 26)

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

(49) ḥʰ₃-ʰrē# ḥdʒ3=ḥno ḥₘ́j=ḥtō-ʰtō=ḥjǐ.

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

(iii) More idiosyncratically, [no] is used to introduce the animate (direct or indirect) object of the verbs [Ḥtsʰ] ‘like’, [Ḥₘ] ‘be named’, [Ḥₕ] ‘understand’ and of verbs of speaking. For example:

(50) ḥtsʰu=ḥᵗʰᵢ# ḥdʒ3=ḥno ḥₘ́j, ḥhǐ# ḥʰ₃=ḥno# ḥₚ=ḥli=ḥjō.
While eating, the ghost asked the man. (Text 2, sentence 52)

The enclitic [k3], on the other hand, indicates the allative meaning, attainment of a location. Its etymology is currently unclear. For example:

(51) ... \( ^{1}t^h_{u}\)-\( ^{1}w_{u} = ^{1}k_{3} \) \( ^{1}p_{ao} = ^{1}l_{æ}... \)

Finally, the enclitic \([l_{z} \sim l_{a}]\) signals a general locative meaning. It is likely to be a loan from Tibetan, the locative marker \( l_{a} \). For example, \( [^{1}h_{a} = ^{1}l_{a}] \) ‘here’, \( [^{1}h_{dzu} = ^{1}l_{z}] \) ‘in the mountains’, \( [^{1}d_{zi} \- ^{1}s_{i} = ^{1}l_{z}] \) ‘every night’, \( [^{1}sa \- ^{1}wi- ^{1}ma = ^{1}l_{z}] \) ‘on the second evening’. In addition, \( [l_{z} \sim l_{a}] \) is also frequently used in place names, as in the names of Xùmǐ villages, e.g. \( [^{1}d_{o} \- ^{1}l_{a}a] \) ‘Dōnglā’ and \( [^{1}z_{e} \- ^{1}l_{a}] \) ‘Xīnzàng’. The name \( [^{1}z_{e} \- ^{1}l_{a}] \) is derived from the noun \( [^{1}z_{e}] \) ‘bridge’. The village is situated at the place where an iron chain bridge once spanned the Shuǐlù River (cf. Rock 1947: 110).

3.5.6. Standards of comparison: \([s_{i} . r_{a}]\) and \([z_{i}]\)

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

\[ \begin{align*}
^{1}l_{z} \- ^{1}z_{i} & = ^{1}s_{i} \- ^{1}r_{a} \quad ^{1}m_{i}a \- ^{1}z_{u} \quad ^{1}l_{h}t_{s}a, \\
^{1}m_{i}a \- ^{1}z_{u} & = ^{1}s_{i} \- ^{1}r_{a} \quad ^{1}d_{z_{i}} \- ^{1}c_{i} \quad ^{1}l_{h}t_{s}a, \\
^{1}d_{z_{i}} \- ^{1}c_{i} & = ^{1}s_{i} \- ^{1}r_{a} \quad ^{1}b_{u-} \- ^{1}r_{u} \quad ^{1}l_{h}t_{s}a.
\end{align*} \]

PFV-sleep=CMPR downward-sit only superior

downward-sit=CMPR stand only superior

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 \( [^{1}h_{s}u \- ^{1}z_{e}] \) ‘Iron Bridge’.
Standard of equative comparison is signaled by the marker [zi], tentatively ‘resemble’, e.g.:

(53) $^{\text{Hd}z\text{i}.^\text{Ht}ê.^\text{Hk}ⁿô = ^\text{H}^\text{no} # ^\text{Hndzq}^\text{Hi}î = ^\text{H}^\text{zq} # ^\text{L}^\text{?ô} = ^\text{H}^\text{dz}^\text{l} ^\text{j}^\text{na} - ^\text{l}^\text{ku} #}
$ $^{\text{l}^\text{zi} = ^\text{l}^\text{mi} = ^\text{H}^\text{jî} = ^\text{l}^\text{dzô}.}$

$^{\text{Hd}z\text{i}.^\text{Ht}ê. ^\text{Hk}ⁿô = ^\text{l}^\text{no} # ^\text{Hndzq}^\text{Hi}î = ^\text{H}^\text{zq} # ^\text{L}^\text{?ô} = ^\text{H}^\text{dz}^\text{l} ^\text{j}^\text{na} - ^\text{l}^\text{ku} #}$

world=inside

intimate-person=TOP

self=DU

two-item

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) $^{\text{L}^\text{ʔô} = ^\text{H}^\text{dz}^\text{j} # ^\text{l}^\text{na} - ^\text{l}^\text{ku} = ^\text{H}^\text{zq} # ^\text{H}^\text{ka}.^\text{pao} # ^\text{Hndzq}^\text{Hi}î #, ^\text{l}^\text{zô} - ^\text{H}^\text{zô} ^\text{l}^\text{dzy}^\text{3} ^\text{l}^\text{jô}.}
$ $^{\text{l}^\text{ʔô} = ^\text{H}^\text{dz}^\text{j} # ^\text{l}^\text{na} - ^\text{l}^\text{ku} = ^\text{H}^\text{zq} # ^\text{H}^\text{ka}.^\text{pao} # ^\text{Hndzq}^\text{Hi}î # ^\text{l}^\text{zô} - ^\text{H}^\text{zô} ^\text{l}^\text{dzy}^\text{3} ^\text{l}^\text{jô}.}

self=DU
two-item=TOP

very

intimate-person

man-man

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) $^{\text{H\text{wi} # ^\text{l}^\text{ni} = ^\text{l}^\text{s}^\text{j} = ^\text{H}^\text{zq} # ^\text{H}^\text{ts}^\text{b}^\text{h} # ^\text{l}^\text{H}^\text{ts}^\text{b}^\text{h}^\text{u}^\text{3} ^\text{l}^\text{dz}^\text{i} # ^\text{H}^\text{qao} = ^\text{l}^\text{rê}...}
$ $^{\text{H\text{wi} # ^\text{l}^\text{ni} = ^\text{l}^\text{s}^\text{j} = ^\text{H}^\text{zq} # ^\text{H}^\text{ts}^\text{b}^\text{h} # ^\text{l}^\text{H}^\text{ts}^\text{b}^\text{h}^\text{u}^\text{3} ^\text{l}^\text{dz}^\text{i} # ^\text{H}^\text{qao} = ^\text{l}^\text{rê}...}

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: [t̚³ η̚j] ‘I’, [t̚³ η̚j] ‘thou’ and [t̚³ η̚i] ‘he, she, that’. In addition, Huáng & Rénzēng (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 [t̚³ η̚i] 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 (Huang 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 [Htʰi-Hrɛ̃] ‘they’ (note the irregular tones of these words, possibly due to analogical levelling). In addition, Shixing has the inclusive-exclusive distinction in the first person plural pronoun, viz. the exclusive [Hŋa-Hrɛ̃] vs. the inclusive [Hʔo-Hrɛ̃] (< [Hʔo] ‘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 [Htʰi-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: [Lʔo=Hdzɿ( Lɲa-Lku)] ‘the two of us (inclusive)’, [Hni=Hdzɿ( Lɲa-Lku)] ‘the two of you’ and [Htʰi=Hdzɿ( Lɲa-Lku)] ‘the three of them’.

Demonstrative pronouns in Shixing are [Hlha] ‘this’ and [Hltʰi] ‘that’. In addition, the bound form [tsʰu] occurs in some words and set expressions in the meaning ‘this’, e.g. [Htʃʰu-Hbə] ‘this year’.

As noted by Huang (1994: 187-188), the demonstrative pronouns in Shixing can be placed (i) before, (ii) after and (iii) before and after the noun they modify. Based on the distribution of [Hlha] 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, [Hlha Hhĩ Hlha] ‘this man’, [Hlha Hgu Hlha] ‘this piece of clothing’; [Htʰi Hlfi Hltʰi] ‘that man’, [Hlfi Hltʰi] ‘that man, the man’.

Contra Huang (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 Shixing. 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. [Hlha-Hrɛ̃] ‘these’, [Htʰi-Hrɛ̃] ‘those’ (note the irregular tones of these forms).

The demonstrative pronouns [Hlha] ‘this’ and [Hltʰi] ‘that’ may be in an inflexional relationship with the locative nouns [Hlha] ‘here’ and [Htʃʰu] ‘there’ respectively.

Shixing main interrogative pronouns are [Hlfi] ‘who’, [Htᶜʰi] ‘what’ (WT chi), [Htᶜʰi=Hlæ] ‘why’, [Hlzi] ‘which’, [Hlza] ‘where’ and [Hnʔ-Hlzi] ‘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 [₁Hdzî] ‘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>
<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>L₁dzî</td>
<td>first</td>
<td>₁tô-₁pu</td>
<td>dang po</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td>L₁na-₁ku</td>
<td>second</td>
<td>₁nì-₁pao</td>
<td>gnyis pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three</td>
<td>L₁sa-₁ku</td>
<td>third</td>
<td>₁sô-₁pao</td>
<td>gsum pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>four</td>
<td>L₁zy3-₁ku</td>
<td>fourth</td>
<td>₁zì-₁pao</td>
<td>bzhi pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>five</td>
<td>L₁hô-₁ku</td>
<td>fifth</td>
<td>₁hô-₁pao</td>
<td>lnga pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>six</td>
<td>L₁cu-₁ku</td>
<td>sixth</td>
<td>₁dzì-₁pao</td>
<td>drug pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seven</td>
<td>L₁sa-₁ku</td>
<td>seventh</td>
<td>₁dê-₁pao</td>
<td>bdun pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eight</td>
<td>L₁ci-₁ku</td>
<td>eighth</td>
<td>₁dzê-₁pao</td>
<td>brgyad pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nine</td>
<td>L₁gu3-₁ku</td>
<td>ninth</td>
<td>₁go-₁pao</td>
<td>dgu pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ten</td>
<td>L₁qa-₁ku</td>
<td>tenth</td>
<td>[not attested]</td>
<td>bcu pa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Shixīng cardinal and ordinal numerals 1 to 10

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, [₁Hqa-₁nì] ‘twelve’, [₁Hqa-₁hô] ‘fifteen’, [₁qa-₁sa] ‘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 [₁tɜ] ‘one’ to the stem [₁Htɜ-₁sa] ‘ten’, i.e. [₁Hq₁-₁tɜ-₁sa] ‘eleven’ (again, with an irregular word tone). [₁tɜ] is a common Sino-Tibetan form for ‘one’, whereas the Shixīng form for ‘one’ [₁Hdzî] 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. [₁na-₁Hkₐ# ₁Hdzî] ‘twenty-one’, [₁na-₁Hkₐ# ₁na-₁ku] ‘twenty-two’, [₁Hhô-₁qa# ₁Hsa-₁ku] ‘fifty-three’.

The word for ‘hundred’ is [₁Hkₐ] ‘hundred’ (WT brgya). Hundreds are formed by juxtaposing the numbers 1 to 9 to the root [₁Hkₐ] (i.e. 1x100, 2x100 etc.), e.g. [₁dzî-₁kₐ] ‘one hundred’, [₁nì-₁kₐ] ‘two hundred’, [₁sù-₁kₐ] ‘three hundred’, [₁zy3-₁kₐ] ‘four hundred’, [₁hô-₁kₐ] ‘five hundred’, [₁te₃-₁kₐ] ‘six hundred’,
‘seven hundred’, [Hçi¹-ça] ‘eight hundred’ and [Hgu3-¹-ça] ‘nine hundred’.

Numbers above one hundred are formed with the intrusive conjunction [LHni] ‘and’ between the hundred and the adjoined number, e.g. [¹dzí-¹-ça Hni# LHdzí] ‘one hundred and one’, [¹dzí-Hçi¹-Hqu¹-¹-ku] ‘one hundred and ten’.

The word for ‘thousand’ is [Htô.Htsa] (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 [Htsʰɿ.Htsu¹ Ldzí¹] ‘ten thousand’, literally ‘one time ten thousand’ (WT khri tsho), the form for ‘million’ is [Htsʰɿ.Htsu¹ Ldzí¹-Hçi] ‘million’, literally, ‘one hundred times ten thousand’. Finally, ‘one hundred million’ in Shîxing is [Htsʰɿ.Htsu¹ Lbõ.Htsa] (WT khri tsho ‘bum ther’).

3.9. Classifiers and measure words

Shîxing 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. Shîxing demonstrative pronouns do not require to be accompanied by a classifier.

Shîxing classifiers combine with numerals to form numerical phrases, which follow the noun they modify, e.g. [Hhao¹ Ldzí¹-Hçi] ‘one bowl of rice’ (< [Hq¹ Hçi¹] ‘bowl’), [Hhi¹ ¹na-Hçi] ‘two people’, [Hdzú¹ ¹gu3-Hçi] ‘nine mountains’.

In counting, a numeral in Shîxing 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 [¹dzí] ‘one’ may be variously used either with or without a classifier. This variability possibly has to do with the dual function of [¹dzí] in Shîxing: on the one hand, as the numeral ‘one’, and, on the other hand, as the indefinite marker. Consequently, a classifier is required when [¹dzí] is used as the numeral ‘one’, and optional when [¹dzí] serves in the function of the indefinite marker. Compare: [¹ba.Hru¹ Ldzí¹-Hçi] ‘one snake’ vs. [¹ba.Hru¹ Ldzí¹] ‘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’), [¹dzí] requires to be followed by the appropriate measure- or receptacle classifier, e.g. [Hhao¹ Ldzí¹-Hçi] ‘one bowl of rice’.

Shîxing 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 Shîxing of only two members: (i) the general classifier [ku] ‘item’, e.g. [¹li¹ ¹na¹-¹-ku] ‘two hands’, [Hmu Lgu3¹-¹-ku] ‘nine forests’, [¹çi¹-bʒ³ Lgu3¹-¹-ku] ‘nine pans’;
and (ii) the classifier for elongated objects [ɾɛ̃] ‘strip’, e.g. [ʰl˧˧-si#_dʒi-ɾɛ̃] ‘one arrow’, [qʰɔo-ɦwu#_nɪ-ɾɛ̃] ‘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, [ʰl˧˧-la] ‘flock’, e.g. [ʰhᵊ#_dʒi-ɦla] ‘a group of people’, [ʰtsʰ#_dʒi-ɦla] ‘a flock of sheep’; [ʰpʰɜ] ‘pair’, e.g. [ʰl˧˧-kui#_dʒi-ʰpɜ] ‘one pair of earrings’, [pʰa.ʰza#_dʒi-ʰpɜ] ‘a pair of shoes’; [ʰwu] ‘family; couple’, e.g. [z̃-z̃ʰb˧_dʒi-ʰwu] ‘a pair of plow oxen’.

(ii) Measure- or container-classifiers for nouns which refer to non-discrete, liquid or massy entities. For example, [ʰdʒi-ʰpʰə] ‘fingertip to fingertip of out-stretched arms’ (local Chinese dialect pʰəs̚i), [tˢʰ,htsʰ#_dʒi-ʰ] ‘foot, one-third of a meter’ (Chinese ɦu). An interesting classifier among these borrowing, as pointed out by Huáng & Rénzêng (1991: 185), is [ji-ʰmu] ‘one mǔ (a Chinese unit of measure for land, approximately equal to 0.067 hectare)’. [ji-ʰmu] is a loan of the Chinese expression consisting in Chinese of the numeral one, yī, and the classifier mǔ, viz. yī mǔ ‘one mǔ’, borrowed into Shìxiāng as one unsegmentable item. Having been borrowed into Shìxiāng, this expression has turned into a noun, as it now requires to be followed by the general classifier [kʊ] ‘item’ when counted (with numerals above ‘one’), e.g. [ji-ʰmu#_dʒi-ʰ] (Huáng & Rénzêng 1991: 185) ‘one mǔ’, [ji-ʰmu#_sa-ʰkʊ] ‘three mǔ’.

(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 Shìxiāng autoclassifiers refer to units of time. For example, [dʒi-ʰ] ‘one month’ (< [ʰ] ‘month’), [dʒi-ʰ] ‘one year’ (< [ʰkʊ] ‘year’, note that the initial [kʰ] is not lenited), [sə-ʰ] ‘three days’ (< [ʰma] ‘day’), [sə-ʰ] ‘three days and three nights’ (< [ʰmə] ‘night’) (note the irregular word tones).

(iv) Repeaters (Aïkhenvald 2003 [2000]: 361-362). These classifiers have the same form as the noun they modify. For example [ʰbəx#_dʒi-ʰwə] ‘one leaf’, [hᵊ#_dʒi-ɦhə] ‘one meal’, [fu#_gus-ɦfu] ‘nine lakes’. Disyllabic nouns take their second syllable as their classifier, e.g. [si-ʰpə#_dʒi-ʰpə] ‘one tree’.

(v) Classifiers for entities of a similar shape. For example, the noun [ʰbəx] ‘leaf’ lends itself to the use of classifier for flat objects. For example, [so.ʰsù#_dʒi-ʰwə] ‘one sheet of paper’ (WT shog shog ‘paper’).

Shìxiāng classifiers are mostly of nominal origin, but some classifiers of verbal origin have also been attested. For example, [z̃ɛ] ‘pile’ from the verb [l˧˧-z̃ɛ] ‘pile up, stock’ or [lu], classifier for pieces of clothing, from the verb [lu-ʰlu] ‘roll up, fold’, e.g. [gu#_dʒu-ʰlu] ‘one piece of clothing’.
That Shíxīng has classifiers of both nominal and verbal origin means that an entity in Shíxīng 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 \[
\text{[}\text{t}\text{c}\text{h}\text{i} \text{L}\text{r}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘book’}\]
‘book’ can combine both with the deverbal classifier \[
\text{[}\text{z}\text{e}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘pile’}\]
‘pile’ and with the nominal classifier \[
\text{[}\text{H}\text{b}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘leaf’}\]
‘leaf’. In the former case, the expression, \[
\text{[}\text{t}\text{c}\text{h}\text{i} \text{L}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{[}\text{d}\text{z}\text{i}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘one book’}\]
‘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 \[
\text{[}\text{t}\text{c}\text{h}\text{i} \text{L}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{[}\text{d}\text{z}\text{i}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘book’}\]
‘book’ presents a book as rather belonging to the class of objects with flat surfaces (pages).

Verbal action classifiers precede the verb they modify. The most frequent general verbal action classifier is \[
\text{[}\text{H}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘once’, as in the following example:}\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Hb}\text{o} & \text{Lnu-}\text{l}\text{b}\text{ae-}\text{l}\text{b}\text{ae} = \text{Ht}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{d}\text{z}\text{i-}\text{Hdza} & \text{L}\text{b}\text{o} = \text{Hl}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{f}\text{u-}\text{d}\text{z} & \text{H}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{s}\text{ae-} \\
\text{L}\text{fu} & \text{Hl}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{x}\text{a} = \text{l}\text{i} & \text{L}\text{j}\text{o} & \text{l}\text{i} \\
\text{tci} & = \text{l}\text{i} & = \text{L}\text{j}\text{o}.
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Hb}\text{o} & \text{Lnu-}\text{l}\text{b}\text{ae-}\text{l}\text{b}\text{ae} = \text{Ht}\text{ originate}\text{]} \\
\text{d}\text{z}\text{i-}\text{Hdza} & = \text{l}\text{k} & \text{o} = \text{Hl}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{f}\text{u-}\text{d}\text{z} & 3
\end{align*}
\]

‘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 Shíxīng encodes the features of tense, aspect, mood, modality and mirativity by means of auxiliaries as well as, to a minor extent, by verb inflection.

Shíxīng 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 Shíxīng 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 \[
\text{[}\text{s}\text{ originate}\text{]} \text{‘perfect’}\]
‘perfect’. The following aspectual meanings are expressed in Shíxīng: (i) imperfective aspect (denoting
on-going situations existing prior to the time of utterance), signaled by \([\text{pu}]\) (§4.4.4), (ii) perfective aspect (which indicates the view of a situation as a single whole), expressed by the perfective prefix \([\text{is-}]\) (§4.2), (iii) resultative aspect (denoting the result of a situation holding at the utterance time), marked by \([\text{wu}]\) (§4.4.2), (iv) terminative/telic aspect, marked by \([\text{ts}^b\text{a}]\) ‘finish’ (§4.4.3), (v) experiential aspect (signaling situations as experienced prior to the time of utterance), marked by \([\text{dz}]\) (§4.4.5), (vi) two continuous aspects: (a) progressive (indicating the situation in progress at the reference time; with dynamic verbs), marked by \([\text{j}i\text{ǐ}]\) and (b) durative (with stative verbs), signaled by \([\text{dzō}]\) (§4.4.6) and (vii) the delimitative aspect (marking the situation as performed for a short period of time) signaled by the prefix \([\text{dzi-}]\) ‘one’ (§4.2).

The expression of modality and mood in Shìxīng 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 Shìxīng by means of the auxiliaries \([\text{g}ɜ]\) (volition and certainly) and \([\text{r}ɛ̃]\) (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: 179), including imperatives, optatives and permissives, includes in Shìxīng the markers \([\text{liu}]\) (strong command, realis) and \([\text{sō}]\) (polite request, irrealis) (§4.5.2).

Shìxīng 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 Shìxīng is unmarked, whereas the irrealis mood is signaled by the auxiliary \([\text{sō}]\). 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 Shìxīng 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 Shìxīng) 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 Shǐxīng, 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.

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

Shǐxīng has four existential or locative verbs used for purposes of nominal sub-classification, namely (i) [LHjĩ], expressing the existence, location or possession of animate beings; (ii) [LHdʑũ], expressing the existence or possession of inanimate beings; (iii) [HLkʰũ], 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), Shǐxīng verbs do not show agreement for person and number. Neither are they inflected for voice. Dissimilar to the Tibetic languages in its neighbourhood, Shǐxīng does not demonstrate a conjunct-disjunct distinction, and its verbs do not have honorific counterparts.

Overall, the core of a verb phrase in Shǐxīng 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>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Directional prefixes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[dzi-] ‘upward’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[mie-] ‘downward’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[kʰu-] ‘inward; fro’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[bɘ-] ‘outward’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɕi-] ‘to’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfective prefix</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[lɜ-] ‘have V-ed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delimitative prefix</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[dzi-] ‘V a little bit’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbal nucleus (one or more verbs)
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 [-xī] (§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’: [LH bi] ‘walk, go on foot’, [LH wu] ‘go, walk’ and [Hl-ting] ‘go, walk’; and three verbs meaning ‘come’: [LH liu]~[Hl] ‘come, enter’, [H wu] ‘come, return’ and [LH tcʰu] ‘come’ (the use of this form is restricted to past situations). The verbs [LH bi] ‘go, walk’, [LH liu] ‘come, enter’ and [H wu] ‘come, return’ have cognates in Nà, Ngwi and Burmese languages. For example, [LH bi] is likely to be related to the verb ‘go’ in Yōngníng Nàxī [bi] or Nuosu /bo/. The verbs [LH liu] ‘come, enter’ and [H wu] ‘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 [LH bi] as its non-past stem, [LH xa] as the past stem and [LH xu] 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 [^LHl3] as its past stem (compare also the Proto-Loloish pair *la1/*li2, 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 [^LHl3] through ablaut (i.e. [iu] or [ɛ] < [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>^LHtɕi</td>
<td>^Htɕu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look, watch</td>
<td>ɨɕĩ</td>
<td>ɨɕun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>ɨLHdz3</td>
<td>ɨLHdzu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>ɨLHtɕʰɨ</td>
<td>ɨLHtɕʰun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td>ɨLHp3</td>
<td>ɨLHpu9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make</td>
<td>ɨLHb3</td>
<td>ɨLHbu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perform</td>
<td>ɨLHd3</td>
<td>ɨLHdu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit down</td>
<td>ɨmɕe-Hzũ</td>
<td>ɨmɕe-Hzō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come out</td>
<td>ɨbu-Lushing</td>
<td>ɨbu-Lushing</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 [^LHb3] ‘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-daŋ < *m-ðaŋ (ibid., p. 123 123; note that these forms are only reconstructed to Proto-Lolo-Burmese) ‘drink’, *br(w)aŋ ‘speak’ (ibid., p. 523) and *hwawŋ for ‘come’ (ibid., p. 269).

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

(57) ^Hhĩ# ɨtʰ3 = ɨno#: “^Lb=b=Hsʪ#, ^Hl3.ɨs=ɨwu# ɨbǒ# ɨnu-ɨbɛ-ɨbɛ# ɨL^thi# ɨLɨ3-ɨs=ɿ^tcu#, ” ɨH^p3=ɿ^li=ɿ^nō.

19 In addition to [^HLpə], Huáng & Rénzhēng (1991: 189) also quote the form [pə-n^5] as the imperative stem of the verb [^HLpə] ‘speak’. This form has so far not been attested in my fieldwork.
20 This form consists of the directional prefix [bu-] ‘outward’, the form [^Lʰtɕu] ‘head, beginning’, and the verbal root [cu], which is likely to be the lenited form of the verb [^HLtɕu] ‘come’.
Hhĩ \( = \) Hno: “Lbi=Hs arrow=INSTR yak
\( \text{person that=inside go=PRF} \)
\( \text{nu-\( ^{-1} \)bæ-\( ^{-1} \)bæ} \)
\( \text{black-?-? that PFV-kill=do.IMP} \)
‘(They said) to the man: “Go [literally, having gone] and kill the black yak with an arrow.”’

4.2. Verbal prefixes

Shínxing has a total of seven verbal prefixes, of which five are directional, namely [dzi-] ‘upward’, [miæ-] ‘downward’, [kʰu-] ‘inward; fro’, [bɘ-] ‘outward’ and [ɕi-] ‘to’; one signals the perfective aspect, [lɜ-]; and one signals the delimitative aspect, [dʑi-].

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. [ɕi-\( ^{-1} \)kʰu-\( ^{-1} \)bæ] ‘have rolled back and forth’ or [ɕi-\( ^{-1} \)kʰu-\( ^{-1} \)suê] ‘have led to and fro’.

In contrast to the five directional prefixes, the prefix [lɜ-] 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. [\( ^{-1} \)dz\( ^{-1} \)ɜ] ‘eat’ vs. [lɜ-\( ^{-1} \)dz\( ^{-1} \)ɜ] ‘have eaten’.

The co-existence of various directional prefixes with one specifically aspectual, perfective, prefix in Shínxing 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 [lɜ-] in Shínxing is likely to have been connected to some directional meaning at an earlier period. Synchronically, the addition of [lɜ-] changes the aspect of the verb, as well as, in some isolated cases, the meaning of the verb, as in the pair [\( ^{-1} \)gu] ‘wear’ vs. [\( ^{-1} \)lɜ-\( ^{-1} \)gu] ‘put on’.

The prefix [dзи-] 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{Hnį# kʰu-\( ^{-1} \)wu = Sį# dзи-Hcį = du!}
\]

\[
\text{Hnį kʰu-\( ^{-1} \)wu = Sį dзи-Hcį = du!}
\]

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

‘Come in take a look!’

The prefix [dзи-] is in all likelihood related to the numeral [\( ^{-1} \)dzį] ‘one’, used with the verb as a measure. [dзи-] 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

Shixjing 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 [\-xɪ], is, on the other hand, fully productive.

4.3.1. Lexical causativization

Similar to most Sino-Tibetan languages, Shixjing 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 Shixjing lexical non-causative-causative pairs attested so far is provided below:

\[
\begin{align*}
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{ɜ}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{ʁ}}}\text{ɛ̃}}] & \text{ ‘snap, be snapped’} & \text{vs.} & \text{[\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{ɜ}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{χ}}}\text{ɛ̃}}] & \text{ ‘cause to snap’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{ɜ}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{ʁ}}}\text{u}}] & \text{ ‘break, be broken’} & \text{vs.} & \text{[\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{ɜ}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{χ}}}\text{u}}] & \text{ ‘cause to break’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{ɜ}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{ʁ}}}\text{ɑo}}] & \text{ ‘die out (e.g. fire)’} & \text{vs.} & \text{[\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{ɜ}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{χ}}}\text{ɑo}}] & \text{ ‘slaughter’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{dzǔ}] & \text{ ‘stand, dwell’} & \text{vs.} & \text{[\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{tsǔ}}] & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{h}}}\text{gyi}] & \text{ ‘be given, allowed’} & \text{vs.} & \text{[\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{h}}}\text{kyi}] & \text{ ‘give, dispatch, send’} \\
\end{align*}
\]

4.3.2. Productive causativization with the causative suffix [-\textit{xɪ}]

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

\[
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{wi}}-\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{z}}}\text{i}}] & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{dz3}} & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{h}}}\text{gyi}] & \text{ ‘give, dispatch, send’} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{wi}}=\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{z}}}\text{i}} & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{dz3}} & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
[\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{gyi}] & \text{ ‘give, dispatch, send’} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{wi}}=\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{z}}}\text{i}} & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{hl}}}\text{dz3}} & \text{ ‘cause to stand’} \\
\text{\textsuperscript{\textcolor{red}{\texttt{h}}}\text{gyi}] & \text{ ‘give, dispatch, send’} \\
\end{align*}
\]
4.4. Aspectual auxiliaries

4.4.1. The perfect auxiliary \([s_1]\)

The perfect auxiliary \([s_1]\) indicates the continuous present relevance of a past situation, relating some state to a preceding situation. For example:

(61) \(^{1}HAnother\ 3\ 1^h\ ma\ 1^d\ dzi\ -\ 1^h\ ma\ 1^l\ z\ -\ 1^l\ cae\ =\ 1^h\ s\).

\(^{1}HAnother\ 3\ ma\ 1^d\ dzi\ -\ ma\ 1^l\ z\ -\ 1^l\ cae\ =\ 1^h\ s\).

\(^{1}S\ G\ day\ one\ -\ day\ \ ?-\ ox\ \ PFV\ -\ search\ =\ PRF\ plow\ .ox\)

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

\([s_1]\) is also used for the purpose of determining the sequence of tenses (temporal succession of two events). For example:

(62) \(^{1}Let\ Another\ 3\ u\ 1^d\ z\ -\ 1^l\ re\ 1^t\ h\ -\ u\ 1^h\ wu\ 1^l\ z\ -\ 1^l\ z\ -\ 1^l\ z\ -\ 1^l\ re\ =\ 1^h\ s\), \(^{1}HLet\ h\ a\ -\ ki\ l\ mu\ =\ 1^l\ no\ 1^l\ ci\ -\ 1^l\ la\ -\ 1^l\ su\ -\ 1^l\ k\ -\ u\ 1^l\ la\ -\ 1^l\ su\ -\ 1^l\ h\ =\ 1^l\ li\ =\ 1^l\ no\).

\(^{1}Let\ h\ u\ 1^d\ z\ -\ 1^l\ re\ 1^t\ h\ -\ u\ 1^h\ wu\ 1^l\ z\ -\ 1^l\ h\ -\ 1^l\ re\ =\ 1^h\ s\), \(^{1}Let\ h\ a\ -\ ki\ l\ mu\ =\ 1^l\ no\ 1^l\ ci\ -\ 1^l\ la\ -\ 1^l\ su\ -\ 1^l\ k\ -\ u\ 1^l\ la\ -\ 1^l\ su\ -\ 1^l\ h\ =\ 1^l\ li\ =\ 1^l\ no\).

\(^{1}H\ 3\ h\ a\ -\ ki\ l\ mu\ =\ 1^l\ no\ 1^l\ ci\ -\ 1^l\ la\ -\ 1^l\ su\ -\ 1^l\ k\ -\ u\ 1^l\ la\ -\ 1^l\ su\ -\ 1^l\ h\ =\ 1^l\ li\ =\ 1^l\ no\ .\)

\(^{1}H\ 3\ make\ =\ PRF\ escape\)

‘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 \([s_1]\) 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:

(63) \(^{1}Hz\ -\ 1^l\ wu\ =\ 1^l\ wu\ =\ 1^h\ s\ 1^l\ p\ h\ e\)

\(^{1}Hz\ -\ 1^l\ wu\ =\ 1^l\ wu\ =\ 1^h\ s\)

\(^{1}Hbe\ .afraid\ =\ RES\ =\ PRF\ escape\)

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

(64) \(^{1}Ht\ h\ 1^l\ b\ 3\ =\ 1^s\ 1^l\ p\ h\ e\)

\(^{1}Ht\ h\ 1^l\ b\ 3\ =\ 1^s\)

\(^{1}Hquick\ make\ =\ PRF\ escape\)

‘precipitously escape’
Overall, in form and meaning, the perfect auxiliary [s₇] in Shëxëng is strongly reminiscent of the Yǒngning Nà perfective, change of state marker and clause linker [ze³³~z₅³³] (Lidz 2006: 21-25) and the Lisu marker [s₅⁵] (David Bradley, p.c.).

The perfect auxiliary [s₇] can freely combine in Shëxëng with other aspectual auxiliaries, more precisely (i) the durative (imperfective) auxiliary [dzō] (the perfect of persistent situation), e.g. [ldaqo-ʰqao ʰdzō=ʰs₇] ‘have been helping’; (ii) the resultative auxiliary [wu] (the perfect of result), e.g. [ʰsyi ʰpu=ʰwu=ʰs₇] ‘have brought pine torches’; and (iii) the expression of the perfective aspect by means of the perfective prefix [ł₃-], e.g. [ʰł₃-ʰz₁=ʰs₇] ‘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 [s₇] is homophonous with the animate patient marker [s₁] (§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):

\[(65) \text{Lsi.\text{ji} # Hs₇# $l₃$-\text{lo-lo$-$lu} = \text{wu=Hs₇# Htō.Ḥb₃o} $b₃=Hs₇$, $dzō.Ḥhō# H₃-wu# tci-$tci$ # Hb₃ = Hli = Hnō.}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Lsi.\text{ji}} & \text{Hs₇} \\
\text{Hz₃-lo-lo$-$lu} & \text{Hwu=Hs₇} \\
\text{Hz₃-wu} & \text{Htō.Ḥb₃o} \\
\text{Hz₃-tci} & \text{Htci} \\
\text{tb₃} & \text{Hli} & \text{Hnō.}
\end{array}
\]

\[\text{Then, having wrapped the fishing net, he was about to return home empty-handed.}\]

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, *tshar*, where it also serves as a terminative auxiliary. For example:

(66) \(1^s\bar{\text{o}} \ 1^p\text{ha}^{\text{H}} \text{za} \# ^{\text{H}} \text{ru} = 1^s\text{q} \#. \ 1^b\text{u}^{\text{H}} \text{zù} = 1^t\text{s}^\text{H} \text{a} = 1^x \text{i} \#. \ 1^t\text{h}^3 = 1^l\text{æ} = ^{\text{H}} \text{zq} \#. ^{\text{H}} \text{ji} \#^{\text{H}} \text{dz3} \#^{\text{H}} \text{miæ} \#^{\text{H}} \text{bu}^{\text{H}} \text{wu} 1^\text{gyi}.\)

\[\begin{array}{l}
1^s\bar{\text{o}} & 1^p\text{ha}^{\text{H}} \text{za} & ^{\text{H}} \text{ru} = 1^s\text{q} \#,
1^b\text{u}^{\text{H}} \text{zù} = 1^t\text{s}^\text{H} \text{a} = 1^x \text{i},
n\text{iron shoe} & \text{walk=PRF outward-go.through=finish=CAUS}
1^t\text{h}^3 = 1^l\text{æ} = ^{\text{H}} \text{zq} \# & ^{\text{H}} \text{ji} \#^{\text{H}} \text{dz3} \#^{\text{H}} \text{miæ} \#^{\text{H}} \text{bu}^{\text{H}} \text{wu}
\text{that=become=TOP} & 2\text{SG outside-below outward-return}
1^\text{gyi}.
\end{array}\]

‘Only when you wear down the iron shoes, will you be allowed to return to the earth.’ ([\(1^b\text{u}^{\text{H}} \text{zù} = 1^t\text{s}^\text{H} \text{a} = 1^x \text{i}\)], literally ‘cause to finish wearing down’)

4.4.4. Imperfective [\(\text{pu}\)]

The imperfective meaning is expressed by the marker [\(\text{pu}\)] followed by the past stem of the verb ‘go’, [\(^{\text{L}}\text{Hxa}\)], or the past form of the verb ‘come’, [\(^{\text{L}}\text{Ht}^\text{b} \text{ũ}\)]. [\(\text{pu}\)] is possibly related to the verb [\(^{\text{H}}\text{pu}\)] ‘bring’. Consider the following examples:

(67) \(1^t\text{sa}^{\text{H}} \text{w3} ^\text{H} \text{a} ^\text{H} \text{ka} ^\text{LH} \text{dzi}^\text{L} \text{dzi}^\text{H} \# (...) 1^b\text{u}^\text{L} \text{dzu}^{\text{H}} \text{dzò}^\text{L} \# = ^{\text{H}} \text{pu} = 1^x \text{a} = 1^l \text{li} = 1^n\text{o} .\)

\[\begin{array}{l}
1^t\text{sa}^{\text{H}} \text{w3} & ^{\text{H}a} ^{\text{H}ka} & ^{\text{LH} \text{dzi}^\text{L} \text{dzi}^\text{H}} 1^b\text{u}^\text{L} \text{dzu}^{\text{H}} \text{dzò}^\text{L} \
\text{monk} & \text{INTSF-small?} & \text{one-one outward-run-run}
1^b\text{u}^\text{L} \text{dzu}^{\text{H}} \text{dzò}^\text{H} = ^{\text{H}} \text{pu} = 1^x \text{a} = 1^l \text{li} = 1^n\text{o} .
\text{outward-run-run=} \text{IPFV=} \text{go.PRIF=} \text{NMLZ.PST=} \text{COP}
\text{‘The small monks were running out one after the other.’}
\end{array}\]

(68) \(1^\text{dzi}^{\text{H} \text{ma}^\text{H}} \text{dzy}3^{\text{H} \text{za}^\text{H}} ^{\text{H}} \text{pu} = 1^t\text{c}^\text{H} \text{ũ} = 1^l \text{li} = 1^n\text{o} .\)

\[\begin{array}{l}
1^\text{dzi}^{\text{H} \text{ma}^\text{H}} \text{dzy}3^{\text{H} \text{za}^\text{H}} & ^{\text{H}} \text{pu} = 1^t\text{c}^\text{H} \text{ũ} = 1^l \text{li} = 1^n\text{o} .
\text{one-day snow-fall} & \text{IPFV-come.PST=} \text{NMLZ.PST=} \text{COP}
\text{‘One day, the snow started to fall.’}
\end{array}\]

4.4.5. Experiential [\(\text{dz3}\)]

The experiential auxiliary verb [\(\text{dz3}\)] marks an event as having been experienced in the past. For example:

(69) \(1^n\text{q} = 1^s\text{q} = ^{\text{H}} \text{lu}^{\text{H} \text{ri}^\text{H} \text{hī}^\text{H}} ^\text{LH} \text{dzi} = 1^r\text{è}^\text{H} \text{qō}^\text{H} 1^l\text{z}^\text{L} \text{cu} ^{\text{H} \text{dzi}^\text{H}} 1^t\text{h}^i ^{\text{H} \text{hī} ^{\text{HL}}} ^{\text{H}t\text{i}^\text{H}} ^{\text{H} \text{a} = 1^n\text{o} ?\)}
4.4.6. Progressive [ji] and durative [dzô]

Shîxîng has two auxiliaries that signal present situations as being in effect or in progress, i.e. [ji] and [dzô]. Both markers have grammaticalized from existential verbs, the former from the verb [LHji] for animate nouns (§4.7.1), and the latter from the verb [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, LOCATIVE > CONTINUOUS).

Overall, [ji] tends to be mostly used with dynamic verbs, whereas [dzô] is more often used with stative verbs. Therefore, I analyze the former as ‘progressive’ and the latter as ‘durative’. For example:

(70) Hŋɜ# Hi# Hao Ldz3 = Ljì.

‘I am eating right now.’

(71) Hsì# Ldzì-Hzē# Hcì-Hhū# Ldz3-H mie# LHzē = Ldzô.

‘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: [g3] and [rē]

To signal volition and certainty, and instigation and possibility, Shîxîng makes use of the auxiliaries [g3] and [rē], respectively. [g3] is used to signal events that are certain to take place. [rē], on the other hand, presents an event as instigated by the speaker. In contrast to [g3], the event signaled by [rē] is unspecified as to its realization.

The marker [g3] is likely to be derived from a verb of volition. This presumably original meaning of [g3] 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.
(72) \text{H}ɲɜ-Lmi# \text{H}ɕĩ=\text{H}\text{g}3# \text{H}pɜ=\text{L}s_{1}\# \text{H}qua=\text{L}ji=\text{L}dzõ.

\text{H}ɲɜ-Lmi \quad \text{H}ɕĩ=\text{H}\text{g}3 \quad \text{H}pɜ=\text{L}s_{1} \quad \text{H}qua=\text{L}ji=\text{L}dzõ.

heart-NM watch=VOL speak=PRF cry=GEN=DUR

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

In most contexts, however, \text{g}3 represents, in a more neutral fashion, an event, which is certain to take place in the future, as in the following sentence:

(73) \text{LH}dzyʒ# \text{Lgu}3-\text{H}ma# \text{Lgu}3-\text{H}æ# \text{L}za=\text{H}g3#, \text{H}ɲɜ-Lmi# \text{Lgu}3-\text{H}ku#

\text{H}tc^{h}u=\text{H}g3.

\text{H}dzyʒ \quad \text{Lgu}3-\text{ma} \quad \text{Lgu}3-\text{H}æ \quad \text{L}za=\text{H}g3, \quad \text{H}ɲɜ-Lmi \quad \text{Lgu}3-\text{H}ku

\text{H}tc^{h}u=\text{H}g3.

snow nine-day nine-night fall=VOL sun nine-item

come=VOL

‘It will snow nine days and nine nights and nine suns will come out.’

In the recorded texts, \text{g}3 is predominantly used with agentive (volitional) subjects, referring to immediate future events. For example:

(74) \text{H}ɲɜ# \text{Lts}_{1}^{h}\text{H}dzyʒ# \text{Lkɛ}\text{=}\text{L}wu=\text{H}g3.

\text{H}ɲɜ \quad \text{Lts}_{1}^{h}\text{H}dzyʒ \quad \text{Lkɛ}\text{=}\text{L}wu=\text{H}g3.

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, \text{g}3 has a close analogy in Mandarin Chinese, the volitional verb and the immediate future marker \text{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 \text{g}3 during elicitation sessions.

Unlike all other aspectual and modal markers, questions with the marker \text{g}3 are not formed by preposing the question marker [a] (§4.11), i.e. *[a=\text{g}3]. Instead, a sentence with \text{g}3 can be made into a question by changing \text{g}3 into the form [\text{LH}gæ] (attested only with the first and the second person subjects). Here are some examples:

(75) \text{H}ɲɜ# \text{H}s_{1}\text{# Lkʊ3=Lwu=H}gæ?

\text{H}ɲɜ \quad \text{H}s_{1} \quad \text{Lkʊ3=Lwu=H}gæ?

1SG wood chop=RES=VOL.Q

‘Should I chop some firewood?’

(76) \text{L}ɲi \text{H}h₃o# \text{L}dz₃=\text{H}gæ?
In contrast to \[\text{gɜ}\], which presents events as certain to happen, the auxiliary \[\text{re}\] signals prospective situations, instigated by the agent, but the realization of which is further unspecified. In the recorded texts, \[\text{re}\] is typically used with the so-called non-factive verbs (such as ‘think’, ‘believe’ or ‘suspect’). For example:

(77) \[\text{Lts}^h\text{u} = ^h\text{ti} # (\ldots) ^h\text{ts}^h\text{u}.^l\text{b}^g.\text{l}.\text{za}.^l\text{h}^h # ^l\text{ts}^h\text{u}.^l\text{k}^h\text{u}_{3} = ^h\text{no} # ^l\text{i}_{3} ^h\text{wu} = ^h\text{re} # ^h\text{i}^c_{y}^3 = ^l\text{li} = ^l\text{pō}.

\[\text{ghost=that other side} \quad \text{ghost-den=inside} \quad \text{PFV-return=INST} \quad \text{think=NMLZ.PST=COP}
\]

‘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 \[\text{re}\] (§3.5.1). The auxiliary \[\text{re}\] is related to the agentive/ablative marker \[\text{re}\] through the semantic feature ‘source’ or ‘instigation’.

4.5.2. Speaker-oriented modalities: \[\text{liu}\] and \[\text{bō}\]

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

(78) \[\ldots ^l\text{ʔō} = ^h\text{dzį} # ^l\text{zō} ^h\text{zō} # ^h\text{dzy}_{3} # ^l\text{b}^g. = ^h\text{liu} \ldots
\]

\[\text{self=DU} \quad \text{man-man friend} \quad \text{make=come.IMP}
\]

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

(79) \[\ldots ^l\text{ni} # ^l\text{tci} # ^l\text{ts} = ^h\text{liu} \ldots
\]

\[\text{PFV-return=INST} \quad \text{think=NMLZ.PST=COP}
\]

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

Polite requests are signaled by the irrealis auxiliary \[\text{bō}\], 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 Shīxiesheng are homogeneously formed with the marker \[\text{zu}\] at the end of the condition clause (protasis). Shīxiesheng 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) Ḍni# Ḍqao = Ḍs3# Ḍd3z Ḍzu#, Ḍl3 = Ḍtʰa = Ḍχɑo Ḍb3 = Ḍs3#, Ḍci-_BUSY-Ḥsu�# Ḍkʰu-BUSY-Ḥsu�# Ḍtʰi Ḍw3 = Ḍjí?

‘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) Ḍsi# Ḍji Hts = Ḍr3 = Ḍz3#: “Hŋi# Ḍhī# Ḍfuuc = Ḍbō# Ḍzu = Ḍz3#, Ḍŋ3 = Ḍl3# Ḍlae = Ḍji Ḍtʰu# β3 = Ḍg3 = Ḍdɔ.”

‘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 Ṣgyalrong (postponed imperative, Sun 2007: 809-810). Compare, for example, the following Shixing examples: strong command in the imperative: [miæ-Hzɔ] ‘Sit down!’ (Text 1, sentence 22) vs. polite request in the irrealis: [miæ-_BUSY-Hzɔ] ‘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 [bɔ] with the instigation auxiliary [rɛ]. The irrealis auxiliary [bɔ] signals the reported situation as not actualized, in the realm of thought, whereas the instigation auxiliary [rɛ] expresses the speaker’s desire for the reported situation to be actualized. For example:
(82) \(^4\text{Hi}^\# \quad ^3\text{I}^3 \quad ^3\text{I}^3 = ^3\text{Kr} = ^4\text{R}\).

\( ^4\text{Hi} \quad ^3\text{I}^3 \quad ^3\text{I}^3 = ^3\text{Kr} = ^4\text{R}\).

3SG PFV-come.PST=IRR=INST

‘I wish he had come.’

(83) \(^3\text{ma}\)-Hs \( ^\# \quad ^3\text{xu}^\# \quad ^4\text{HA} = ^4\text{B}^\# = ^4\text{R}\).

\(^3\text{ma}\)-Hs \( ^\# \quad ^3\text{xu} \quad ^4\text{HA} = ^4\text{B}^\# = ^4\text{R}\).

tomorrow rain PROH=fall=IRR=INST

‘I wish it would not rain tomorrow.’

The expression of the irrealis mood is likely to be a recent grammaticalization in Shixing. Given the formal similarity between the locative marker \([\text{Kr}] \) ‘on’ and the irrealis auxiliary \([\text{Kr}] \), 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: \([\text{tcae}]\)

Huáng & Rénzěng (1991: 188) analyze the grammatical category of evidentiality in Shixing as expressed by three evidential auxiliaries: (i) \([\text{tcae}]\), which signals that the speaker has witnessed the event or process denoted by the verb, and (ii) \([\text{wu}] \) and \([\text{dzō}] \), 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 Shixīng 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, \([\text{wu}] \) and \([\text{dzō}] \) rather denote aspe ctual meanings, signaling the resultative and the durative aspect respectively, as discussed above.

The auxiliary \([\text{tcae}]\), 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) \( ^1\eta_3 = ^H\text{i}j\# ^1\kappa\text{e} = ^H\kappa\text{ö}\# ^1\text{ba}.^H\text{ru} \quad ^1\text{dzǐ} = ^1\text{rē}\# ^H\text{a} = ^H\text{l}\# ^1\text{k}\#^H\text{u}.^1\text{ts}_1^H\text{ts}_3 = ^1\text{tcae}. \)

\( ^1\eta_3 = ^H\text{i}j \quad ^1\kappa\text{e} = ^H\kappa\text{ö} \quad ^1\text{ba}.^H\text{ru} \quad ^1\text{dzǐ} = ^1\text{rē} \quad ^H\text{a} = ^H\text{l}\# \)
\( ^{1\text{SG}=\text{GEN}}\text{neck=on} \quad ^{\text{snake one=AGT}} \quad ^{\text{here=LOC}} \quad ^{1\text{k}\#^H\text{u}.^1\text{ts}_1^H\text{ts}_3 = ^1\text{tcae}.} \)
\( ^{\text{inward-bind-bind=MIR}} \)

‘A snake wrapped around my neck!’

(85) \( ^H\eta_3# ^1\text{dzō}.^1\text{hō} = ^H\text{no}\# ^H\kappa\#^H\text{pao} \quad ^1\text{tci} \quad ^1\text{ji}# ^H\text{xu}\# ^H\text{za} = ^1\text{tcae}. \)

\( ^H\eta_3 \quad ^1\text{dzō}.^1\text{hō} = ^H\text{no} \quad ^H\kappa\#^H\text{pao} \quad ^1\text{tci} \quad ^1\text{ji} \quad ^H\text{xu} \quad ^H\text{za} = ^1\text{tcae}. \)
\( ^{1\text{SG}=\text{house=inside}} \quad ^{\text{inward-arrive} \quad ^{\text{do and rain fall=MIR}} \quad ^{\text{‘I came in, and it began to rain.’}} \)

The auxiliary [tcae] in Shīxǐng is possibly related to the verb \( [^H\text{tci}] \) ‘do’ through ablaut in a fashion analogous to that by which the root [læ] ‘have come, become’ is derived from the verb \( [^H\text{liu}]-[^H\text{li}] \) ‘come’. In other words, [tcae] is possibly a perfective form of the verb \( [^H\text{tci}] \).

The development of the mirative marker [tcae] in Shīxǐng 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 [tcae], the nominalization of the clause with the past patient nominalizer [li] and its use as complement of the copular verb \( [^H\text{pō}] \) may be viewed as another way to denote inferential meaning in Shīxǐng. 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, Shīxǐng 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). Shīxǐng has four existential verbs conforming to this definition, as exemplified below.
4.7.1. Existence/location of animate beings: \([^{\text{LH}}\text{ji}]\)

The existence, location or possession of animate beings is expressed by the verb \([^{\text{LH}}\text{ji}]\) ‘be there, have (an animate being)’. The negative form of this verb is \([^{\text{Lmi}}=^{\text{Hj}}\text{ji}]\). For example:

(84) \(^{\text{Hj}}\text{i-}^{\text{Lji}}\text{u}^{\text{Lhi}}\text{u}^{\text{Lhi}}\text{i}^{\text{Lli}}\text{u}^{\text{LHzi}}^{\text{LHj}}=^{\text{Ld}o}\).

previous-? previous-? in.the.past rabbit one exist.ANM=DUR
‘A long time ago there was a rabbit.’

4.7.2. Existence/location of inanimate entities: \([^{\text{LH}}\text{zd}o]\)

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

(i) Existence:

(85) \(^{\text{H}}\text{ŋ}^{\text{H}}\text{u}^{\text{LHz}d}^{\text{LHz}d}\).

1SG 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 \([^{\text{LH}}\text{zd}o]\), the possessor is usually marked by the locative marker \([^{\text{k}d}\text{o}]\) ‘on’, as in the following example:

(86) \(^{\text{H}}\text{pu}^{\text{Lmi}}^{\text{Lha}}=^{\text{H}k^{\text{d}}\text{o}}^{\text{LHz}d^{\text{LHz}d}}^{\text{Lba}^{\text{H}a}}^{\text{LHz}d^{\text{LHz}d}}=^{\text{Ld}o}\).

frog-NM this=LOC gold many exist=DUR
‘This frog has a lot of money.’

4.7.3. Containment \([^{\text{HL}}\text{k}^{\text{h}u3}]\)

The existence of an entity inside a location (container) is expressed by the verb \([^{\text{HL}}\text{k}^{\text{h}u3}]\) ‘be inside, contain’, as in the following sentences. The negative form of this verb is \([^{\text{Lmu}}=^{\text{H}k^{\text{h}u3}]\) (note that the initial \([^{\text{kh}}]\) is not lenited).

(87) \(^{\text{H}}\text{hi}^{\text{Ld}o}^{\text{H}x}^{\text{H}}\text{hi}^{\text{L}l}^{\text{L}3}^{\text{Lmu}}=^{\text{Lcz}^{\text{H}hi}^{\text{LHz}d^{\text{LHz}d}}^{\text{H}z}^{\text{Lno}}}^{\text{H}k^{\text{h}u3}^{\text{Lli}}}^{\text{Lj}^{\text{n}o}}}.)
The verb \( L^Hdzî \) expresses the position of an entity attached to a location. The negative form of this verb is \( L^mu=Hdzî \) (note that this expression does not exhibit vowel harmony). For example:

\[ (88) \ L^tçû-L^kûu=L^mo-H^duu=L^dzî=L^h^ae=L^Hdzî=L^ji=L^dzî \]

\[ (89) \ L^ha=H^zî=L^sa.H^ra, \ L^t^h^a=L^zî=L^ta.H^tsû. \]

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

‘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 \( L^Hnô \), the negative \( L^Hmô \) (a fusion of the negator and the copular \( L^Hnô \)), and the emphatic or contrastive copular \( L^Hfuê \). For example:

\[ (90) \ L^ha \ L^gu \ L^ha=L^Hji \ L^nô. \]

\[ \ L^ha \ L^gu \ L^ha=L^Hji \ L^nô. \]

‘This piece of clothing is his.’

\[ (91) \ L^nô=L^Hmô. \]

\[ 1SG \ \text{NEG/cop} \]

‘I am not (the rabbit who made you fall into the water).’
The use of the emphatic copular [LHɯɛ̃] ‘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) 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) 2SG=TOP rabbit COP.EMPH=COP ‘So you are a brown rabbit, and the rabbit just now was a white one.’

[1Hɲõ] and [1Hɦɯɛ̃] 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 yi22. Synchronically, [1Hɲõ] is semantically neutral, whereas [1Hɦɯɛ̃] expresses the emphatic and/or contrastive meaning.

4.9. Adjectives
Adjectives in Shìxìng 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, Shìxìng 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:
(94) \[\text{Hg} = \text{Hq} \# \text{He} = \text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \]

\[\text{Hg} = \text{Hz} \# \text{He} = \text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \]

\[\text{bear} = \text{TOP} \quad \text{heavy} = \text{GEN} = \text{DUR} \]

'(The rabbit was light.) As for the bear, it was heavy.'

(95) \[\text{Hp} = \text{Hq} \# \text{He} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \]

\[\text{Hp} = \text{Hq} \# \text{He} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \]

\[\text{face} = \text{RED} = \text{RES} = \text{DUR} \]

'Her face got red.'

In addition, adjectives used adnominally generally follow the noun they modify, e.g. \[\text{Hb} = \text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'a black yak', \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'a big wasp nest'; whereas verbs modifying nouns normally precede them, e.g. \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] '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 \[\text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \], e.g. \[\text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'having become small', or with the directional prefix \[\text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'outward', e.g. \[\text{Hr} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'grow big'. Furthermore, adjectives in Shixing employ a special set of intensifying prefixes, which are not attested on verbs.

(i) Intensifying prefix \[\text{mV} - \] (subject to vowel harmony), e.g. \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'big', \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'tall', \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'thick'. The Shixing prefix \[\text{mV} - \] is close in meaning and function to the suffix \[\text{m} \# \text{V} \] in Naxi. However, dissimilar to Shixing, Naxi \[\text{m} \# \text{V} \] attaches only to reduplicated adjectival stems. Compare the Shixing examples above with the corresponding examples from Naxi: \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'very big' (< \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'big'), \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'very thick' (< \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'thick').

(ii) Intensifying prefix \[\text{a} - \]. This prefix is added to a reduplicated adjective stem, e.g. \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'low' (< \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'low'), \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'shallow, thin' (< \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'thin'), \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'short' (< \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'short'). This suffix has again a close parallel in Naxi, namely the intensifying suffix \[\sigma \# \] . Compare the Shixing examples above with the corresponding examples from Naxi: \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'very small, tiny' (< \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'small'), \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'very thin' (< \[\text{a} - \text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'thin').

The two types of reduplication appear to be restricted in both Shixing and Naxi to positive and negative extensive, 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 Shixing are mostly bound stems. A small number of forms are free. They may be quoted in isolation and have citation tones, e.g. \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'big', \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'small'. Free forms may be directly preceded by one of the directional prefixes or by the aspectual perfective prefix, e.g. \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'grow big', \[\text{Ht} = \text{Hz} \# \text{Hs} \] 'become small'. In addition, free adjectival
forms may be followed by the perfect and progressive auxiliaries, e.g. [\(^{H}duʒ = ^{H}s\)] ‘(have become) big’, [\(^{H}tʃi = ^{H}jî\)] ‘(be) small’.

In order for bound forms to be used as free forms, Shìxìng 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. [\(^{d}yì^{H}dyì\)] ‘oval’, [\(^{I}lyù^{H}lyù\)] ‘old’, [\(^{ba}^{I}-ra^{I}-ra\)] ‘fuzzy’, [\(^{H}æ^{I}-ru^{I}-ru\)] ‘smooth’.

Shìxìng color terms are ideophonic. They belong to the second type of reduplication (partial stem reduplication) and occur only in the ABB form. For example, [\(^{I}nu^{I}-bæ^{H}bæ\)] ‘black’, [\(^{I}p^{I}u^{I}-tçì^{H}tçì\)] ‘white’, [\(^{I}p^{I}u^{I}-tu^{I}-tu\)] ‘grey’, [\(^{H}i^{I}-lì^{H}lì\)] ‘red’, [\(^{H}hì^{I}-tšù^{H}tšù\)] ‘blue, green’, [\(^{H}ça^{I}-qu^{I}-qù\)] ‘yellow’. Overall, it appears that the first syllable in each case denotes the shade, whereas the following reduplicated syllable indicates its intensity, compare: [\(^{p^{I}u^{I}}^{H}tçì^{H}tçì\)] ‘white’ vs. [\(^{p^{I}u^{I}}^{I}-tu^{I}-tu\)] ‘grey’. This entails that Shìxìng has five non-ideophonic underived colour terms, namely /\(^{H}nu/ ‘black’, /\(^{H}p^{I}u/ ‘white’, /\(^{H}hi/ ‘red’, /\(^{H}hì/ ‘green, blue’ and /\(^{H}ça/ ‘yellow’.

Finally, adjectives Shìxìng share many cognates with Nàxì and Nà, e.g. ‘big’: Shìxìng [\(^{H}duʒ\)], Yōngnìng Nà [\(dù\)]; ‘small’: Shìxìng [\(^{H}tʃì\)], Yōngnìng Nà [\(tçì\)]; ‘long’: Shìxìng [\(^{H}šē\)], Yōngnìng Nà [\(sæ\)]; ‘short’: Shìxìng [\(^{H}dē\)], Yōngnìng Nà [\(dæ\)]. Overall, Shìxìng 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 [\(mV\)]

Negation in Shìxìng is expressed by the negator [\(mV\)], 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. [\(^{H}jî\)] ‘be there, have (an animate being)’ < [\(^{m}i = ^{H}jî\)] ‘not be there, do not have’. In addition, the negator [\(mV\)] fuses in one form with the copular [\(^{H}Ņô\)], [\(^{H}mô\)]. The negator [\(mV\)] prefixes to the last verb in the sentence (the main verb or the sentence-final auxiliary). For example:

(96) \(^{1}bi^{H}mi\# ^{1}gu₃^{H}jē\# ^{H}mu = ^{H}kē = ^{1}li = ^{1}ņô\).

\(^{1}bi^{H}mi\) pig-F answer \(^{NEG=\text{give}=\text{NMLZ.PST=COP}}\)

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

(97) \(^{1}dzō.^{H}hō\# ^{1}l₃ = ^{1}mu = ^{H}pao = ^{1}li = ^{1}ņô\).

\(^{1}dzō.^{H}hō\) house \(^{PFV=\text{NEG=arrive}=\text{NMLZ.PST=COP}}\)

‘He has not made it home.’
4.10.2. Prohibitive \[tʰa\]

The prohibitive (negative imperative) marker in Shīxīng is \[tʰa\]. \[tʰa\] prefixes to the verb stem, or affixes between the directional, aspectual or tentative prefix and the verb stem. For example:

\[(99) \text{H}ni\# \text{hp}u-l\text{mi}\# \text{h}^{t}a=\text{H}^{t}u\varepsilon=\text{H}^{t}\ddh, \text{H}^{t}h\ddh \text{L}^{t}u\varepsilon=\text{L}^{t}\ddh!\]

\[\text{H}^{t}n\ddh \text{hp}u-l\text{mi} \text{h}^{t}a=\text{H}^{t}u\varepsilon=\text{H}^{t}\ddh, \text{H}^{t}h\ddh \text{L}^{t}u\varepsilon=\text{L}^{t}\ddh!\]

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 Shīxīng 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:

\[(100) \text{H}^{t}h^{t}\text{d}z=\text{L}^{t}s^{t}a=\text{L}s^{t}.\]

\[\text{H}^{t}h^{t}\text{d}z=\text{L}^{t}s^{t}a=\text{L}s^{t}.\]

that eat=finish=PRF

‘He has finished eating.’

\[(101) \text{H}^{t}h^{t}\text{d}z=\text{H}^{t}s^{t}a=\text{H}s^{t}?.\]

\[\text{H}^{t}h^{t}\text{d}z=\text{H}^{t}s^{t}a=\text{H}s^{t}?.\]

that eat=finish=Q=PRF

‘Has he finished eating?’

4.12. Relative clauses and nominalization

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

\[(102) \text{H}^{t}s^{t}h^{t}\ddh,\text{h}^{t}\ddh=\text{H}^{t}h\ddh=\text{L}s^{t},\text{h}^{t}\ddh=\text{H}^{t}\ddh.\]

\[\text{H}^{t}s^{t}h^{t}\ddh,\text{h}^{t}\ddh=\text{H}^{t}h\ddh=\text{L}s^{t},\text{h}^{t}\ddh=\text{H}^{t}\ddh.\]

rice.gruel drink=his=CMPR good

‘Drinking rice porridge is better (than eating rice).’
(103) \( \text{H}_ \text{ni}^\text{1} \text{ŋ}_ \text{z}^\text{1} = \text{H}_ \text{ji}^\text{1} \text{r}_ \text{ŋ}^\text{1} \text{t}_ \text{z}_ \text{ŋ}_ \text{q}_ \text{q}^\text{1} = \text{L}_ \text{z}_ \text{ŋ}_ \text{t}_ \text{a}_ \text{t}_ \text{s}_ \text{ŋ}^\text{1} \text{r}_ \text{ŋ}^\text{1} \text{H}_ \text{t}_ \text{ŋ}^\text{1} \text{h}_ \text{ŋ}^\text{1} \text{d}_ \text{u} = ^\text{1} \text{wu} = ^\text{1} \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{o} \). \\
\( ^\text{2} \text{SG} \text{1} \text{SG} = \text{GEN} \text{skin} \text{PFV} = \text{fire} = \text{burn} = \text{TOP} \text{a}-\text{little}-? \text{quick} = \text{RES} = \text{DUR} \) \\
‘You burned my skin a little bit too early.’

(104) \( \text{H}_ \text{ni}^\text{1} \text{ŋ}_ \text{z}^\text{1} = \text{H}_ \text{ji}^\text{1} \text{m}_ \text{a}_ \text{x}_ \text{a}^\text{1} \text{z}_ \text{y}_ \text{a}_ \text{e} = ^\text{1} \text{xi}^\text{1} \text{H}_ \text{hi}^\text{1} \text{ŋ}_ \text{z}_ \text{ŋ}_ \text{q}_ \text{q}^\text{1} = \text{H}_ \text{j}_ \text{i}^\text{1} \text{m}_ \text{o}^\text{1}. \) \\
\( ^\text{2} \text{SG} = \text{PNT.ANM} \text{downward-fall} = \text{CAUS-person} ^\text{1} \text{SG} \text{NEG.COP} \) \\
‘I am not the one who made you fall into the river.’

(105) \( ^\text{H}_ \text{q}_ \text{h}^\text{u}. ^\text{1} \text{la}^\text{1} \text{ba}_ \text{e}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{t}_ \text{s}^\text{1} \) \\
\( ^\text{H}_ \text{q}_ \text{h}^\text{u}. ^\text{1} \text{la} \text{ba}_ \text{e}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{t}_ \text{s}^\text{1} \) \\
crow caw = place \\
‘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. Shixing 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’):

(106) \( ^\text{H}_ \text{h}_ \text{e}_ \text{h}^\text{u}. ^\text{L}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{o}. ^\text{H}_ \text{h}_ \text{o}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{o} = ^\text{1} \text{li}^\text{1} ^\text{z}_ \text{o} \text{H}_ \text{ni}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{t}_ \text{z}_ \text{ŋ}_ \text{t}_ \text{b}_ \text{3}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{no}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{ŋ}_ \text{t}_ \text{j} \text{i} \text{i}^\text{1} ^\text{no}^\text{1} ^\text{L}_ \text{k}_ \text{u}^\text{1} \text{t}_ \text{c}_ \text{3}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{wu} \ldots \) \\
\( ^\text{L}_ \text{h}_ \text{e}_ \text{h}^\text{u}. ^\text{L}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{o}. ^\text{H}_ \text{h}_ \text{o} = ^\text{1} \text{li} ^\text{z}_ \text{o} \text{H}_ \text{ni} \) \\
oneself-family house exist=NMLZ.PST cooked.rice and \\
\( ^\text{L}_ \text{b}_ \text{i}_ \text{3}^\text{1} \text{H}_ \text{t}_ \text{s}_ \text{b}_ \text{3}^\text{1} \text{L}_ \text{no} \text{H}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{ŋ}_ \text{t}_ \text{j} \text{i} \text{i} \text{i}^\text{1} \text{no} \text{L}_ \text{k}_ \text{u}^\text{1} \text{t}_ \text{c}_ \text{3}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{wu} \) \\
pig-fat altogether wheat-field=inside inward-place \\
‘... threw all of the rice and bacon he used to have at his house (in the field)...’ (Text 2, sentence 69)

(107) \( ^\text{L}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{3} = ^\text{L}_ \text{g}_ \text{3} = ^\text{H}_ \text{ni}^\text{1} ^\text{L}_ \text{g}_ \text{u} = ^\text{H}_ \text{g}_ \text{3}^\text{1} ^\text{H}_ \text{pu} \ldots \) \\
\( ^\text{L}_ \text{d}_ \text{z}_ \text{3} = ^\text{L}_ \text{g}_ \text{3} ^\text{H}_ \text{ni} ^\text{L}_ \text{g}_ \text{u} = ^\text{H}_ \text{g}_ \text{3} ^\text{H}_ \text{pu} \) \\
eat=NMLZ.VOL and \\
‘... bring along things to eat and things to wear...’
This section concludes the grammatical sketch of Shīxīng. The following Appendix contains two annotated and translated Shīxīng texts. These texts were recorded in Mùlǐ in November 2005 with my principal language consultant Lǔróng Duōdīng 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 SHĪXĪNG TEXTS

1. A GHOST AND A MAN (I)

(1) \( ^{1}hji^{1}\text{̄}ni^{1} # ^{1}hji^{1}\text{̄}ni^{1} # ^{1}p^{1}hi^{1}^{1} \text{wu} ^{1}h\text{̄}h^{1} # ^{1}Hd^{1}\text{̄}zi^{1} # ^{1}dzi^{1}^{1} Hzu ^{1}ji^{1} = ^{1}dz^{1} o. \)

\begin{align*}
^{1}hji^{1} \text{̄}ni & \quad ^{1}hji^{1} \text{̄}ni & \quad ^{1}p^{1}hi^{1} \text{wu} & \quad ^{1}h\text{̄}h^{1} & \quad ^{1}Hd^{1}\text{̄}zi^{1} \\
\text{previous-?} & \quad \text{previous-?} & \quad \text{place-name-family} & \quad \text{person} & \quad \text{one} \\
^{1}dzi^{1} \text{̄}z^{1}u & \quad ^{1}ji^{1} = ^{1}dz^{1} o. \\
\text{one-household} & \quad \text{exist.ANM=DUR} \\
\text{‘A long time ago there lived in Pingwēng a family.’}
\end{align*}

(2) \( ^{1}t^{1}hu^{1} \text{̄} \text{wu} # ^{1}a^{1} \text{̄} \text{hm}^{1} = ^{1}r\text{̄} \text{̄} # ^{1}dzi^{1} \text{̄} \text{hæ} = ^{1}s^{1}l^{1} \text{̄} = ^{1}l\text{̄} \text{̄} # ^{1}q^{1} \text{̄} - ^{1}Ht^{1} \text{̄} \text{̄} \text{̄} # ^{1}q^{1} \text{̄} - ^{1}Ht^{1} \text{̄} \text{̄} # \\
^{1}d^{1}z^{1} = ^{1}x^{1} = ^{1}h^{1} \text{̄} \text{̄} # ^{1}hs^{1} \text{̄} # ^{1}l^{1}tu = ^{1}li = ^{1}l\text{̄} \text{̄} o. \)

\begin{align*}
^{1}t^{1}hu^{1} \text{̄} \text{wu} & \quad ^{1}a^{1} \text{̄} \text{hm}^{1} & \quad ^{1}r\text{̄} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}dzi^{1} \text{̄} \text{hæ} & \quad ^{1}s^{1}l^{1} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}l\text{̄} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}q^{1} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}Ht^{1} \text{̄} \text{̄} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}q^{1} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}Ht^{1} \text{̄} \text{̄} \\
^{1}d^{1}z^{1} & \quad ^{1}x^{1} & \quad ^{1}h^{1} \text{̄} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}hs^{1} \text{̄} & \quad ^{1}l^{1}tu & \quad ^{1}li & \quad ^{1}l\text{̄} \text{̄} o. \\
\end{align*}
The mother of the family span wool every night, making 'tok-tok' sounds.

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

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

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

The first night he came, the donkey brayed “hee-haw”.

let.go=NMLZ.PST=COP

'The first night he came, the donkey brayed “hee-haw”.'
‘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.’
‘The mother, who was spinning wool, asked him: “What are you doing here?”

(13) \( Lts^h_u = H^t_i = Lr^e: \) “\( H^ni \) \( dz^i \)-\( hae = ls = l_3 \), \( Hq^e - Hta^i \) \( Hq^e - Hta^i \) \( Hs^e - l^s^e \)-\( xi = Hs^j \) \( nj = j^i \) \( ma = Hj^i \) \( H^h^e = Hj^i. \)”

(14) “\( H^nj^e \) \( H^nu \) \( H^m^u \) \( H^k^u \) \( H^h^e = Hl^e \), \( H^r^a - p^h^e = l^r^e \) \( k^h^u - l^3 = Hx^i \) \( mi = Hj^i. \)”

‘I was trying to come, but the first two nights, the donkey and the rooster scared me away (prevented me from coming).’

(15) “\( H^wi = l^z^j \) \( H^nj^e \) \( H^a = Hl^3 \) \( H^k^h^u - Htsa = l^d^o = ls^j. \)”

‘Tonight, I have finally made it here.’

(16) \( Lts^h_u = H^t_i \) \( H^t_i \) \( H^p^e = lts^h_u = l^3 \), \( H^h^i \) \( l^h^u - Hwu \) \( H^a - Hmi = Hr^e^#: \)

‘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."

(22) $L^h_\text{ts}_h^u = L^r_\text{ts}^h$ "L$^h_\text{ja} \# L^h_\text{ja} \#$" $^L^h_\text{p}_3 = L^l_i = L^l_\text{n}_\text{û}.$

that-become ghost=AGT agree-agree speak=NMLZ.PST=COP

'The ghost agreed.'

(23) $L^s_i \text{ji} \ H^h_\text{h}_i = L^r_\text{bi} = L^r_\text{t}_i \ # L^h_\text{sy}_i \ # L^h_\text{dz} \# L^h_\text{ts}_h^o \ # ^L^h_\text{pu} = L^l_3 = L^s_\text{j}_i,$ $L^h_\text{ts}_h^u = L^h_\text{ji} \ # L^h_\text{is}_\text{ô} \ # L^k_\text{hu} \ # L^h_\text{ts}_h \ # L^h_\text{ts}_h^a = L^l_\text{æ} \# L^h_\text{p}_3 \ # L^k_\text{hu} \ # L^h_\text{ts}_h^i = L^h_\text{ji} \ # L^s_\text{j}_i,$

then person=that=AGT pine.torches one-bundle bring=come.PST=PRF

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

(24) $L^s_i \text{ji} \ H^h_\text{h}_i = L^r_\text{t}_i = L^r_\text{bi} \ # L^h_\text{sy}_i \ # L^h_\text{dz} \# L^h_\text{ts}_h^o \ # ^L^h_\text{pu} = L^l_3 = L^s_\text{j}_i,$

then person=that=AGT pine.torches one-bundle bring=come.PST=PRF

'Go, the man took a bundle of pine torches and tied it to the ghost’s hands. Then let him up and said to the ghost: “Light me the way, let’s go downstairs to the goat pen 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.'

(26) ₁ᵗʰ₃ = ʰlæ ₁ᵗˢʰᵤ = ʰtʰᵢ # ʰhi # ʰkₐ # ʰmᵢₐ # ʰsᵱ #, ʰsᵱ # # ʰŋ₃ # ʰnɡₐ = ʰno # ʰb₃ = ʰs₃ #, ʰli = ʰk₃ # ʰp áo #, ʰtᵯᵱ # # ʰb₃ = ʰlᵯ = ʰɲō.

₁ᵗʰ₃ = ʰlæ ₁ᵗˢʰᵤ = ʰtʰᵢ # ʰhi # ʰkₐ # ʰmᵢₐ # ʰsᵱ #, ʰsᵱ # # ʰŋ₃ # ʰnɡₐ = ʰno # # ʰb₃ = ʰs₃ #.

light.up = become ʰsᵱ # # ʰp áo # ʰtᵯᵱ # # ʰb₃ = ʰlᵯ = ʰɲō. hand = at arrive do-do # make = NMLZ.PST = COP

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

(27) ₁ˢᵗᵠ.₁jᵱ = ʰzᵱ # ʰhᵱ # ₁ᵗʰ₃ = ʰn₀ #: “ʰʔō-ʰhᵱ,” ʰnᵱ # ʰtˢʰₒ # # ₁ᵇ₃ = ʰkₒ #, ʰsᵱ # = ʰrᵱ # # ʰŋ₃ # ʰnₒ # # ʰlᵱᵱ # # ʰjᵱ # # ʰkₐ # ʰmᵢₐ # # ʰqᵱ # # ₁ᵗₑᵱ - ₁ᵗₑᵱ # # ₁ᵇ₃ = ʰjᵱ # # ʰlᵯ # # ʰp₃ = ʰlᵯ = ʰɲō.

₁ˢᵗᵠ.₁jᵱ = ʰzᵱ # ʰhᵱ # ₁ᵗʰ₃ = ʰn₀ #: “ʰʔō-ʰhᵱ,” ʰnᵱ # ʰtˢʰₒ # then = TOP person that = inside own-person 2SG quick ₁ᵇ₃ = ʰkₒ #, ʰsᵱ # = ʰrᵱ # ʰŋ₃ # = ʰjᵱ # ʰlᵱᵱ # ʰp₃ = ʰlᵯ = ʰɲō.

make = IRR ʰp₃ = ʰlᵯ # # ʰtᵯᵱ # # ʰkₐ # ʰmᵢₐ # # ʰp áo # # hand fire-burn do-do make = PROG speak = NMLZ.PST = COP

'Then the ghost said to the man: “Pal, can’t you be any quicker? The fire is about to burn my hands!”'

(28) ʰhᵱ = ¹ᵗʰᵱ # = ʰrᵱ #: “ʰwᵱ # ʰjᵱ = ¹ˢᵱ # ʰzᵱ # ʰtˢʰᵱ # # ʰtˢʰᵤₐ # ʰdᵱ # # ʰqᵱ = ¹ʳᵱ #, ʰnᵱ # ʰdᵱ # # ʰn ngàn # ʰsᵱ # = ¹ʳᵱ #:” ʰnᵱ # ʰdᵱ # # ʰn ngàn # ʰsᵱ # # ʰlᵱᵱ # # ʰkₐ # ʰdᵱ # # ʰqᵱ = ¹ˢᵱ # # ʰdᵱ # # ʰlᵱᵱ # # ʰp₃ = ʰlᵯ = ʰɲō.
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)  

‘Having said that, he continued to look for a goat.’

(30)  

‘At that time, the pine torches burned out and the fire spread over on the ghost’s hands.’

(31)  

‘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.'

(37) Htʂʰu.Lbɘ.Lza.Lhĩ # Ltsʰu-Lkʰuɜ=Hno Lkʰu-Hdʑɛ̃ Hpu=Lwu=Lsɿ,
Hmu=Hʐõ# Lbɜ=Hxɪ Ltɕi=Lli=Hl

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

2. A GHOST AND A MAN (II)

(1) Hji-Lɲɪ Hji-Lɲɪ Hhĩ Ldʑĩ=Lrɛ̃ Hdʑũ=Hl Lgu-Hliu=Lli=Hl

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

(2) Lmʒ=Ls # Lgu=Lرعا LLa-Hhô=Lsɿ Lʒ=Lsɿ, Lkʰu-ɿ=Hl Lʒ=Lʒ #
Lmʒ=Lmu=Ltsʰô=Lli=Hl

‘In the afternoon, when he drove the animals back into the shed, one plow ox was missing.’

(3) Htʰʒ=Hla# Hhĩ=ɿ Hliu-ɿ=Hno Hlʒ-ɿ ça# xa=Hli=Hl
‘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.'

(8) `So the man said to the ghost: “I have been looking for my plow ox all day, is it you who led it away?”'

(9) "What do you have in mind, leading my plow ox to and fro like that?”'

(10) ‘The ghost replied: “I want to kill your plow ox and eat it.”'
'The man asked: “If you want to kill and eat it, why are you leading it to and fro?”'

'The ghost replied thus.'

'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.’

'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. “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.'

(18) ᴰᶻⁱ-ʰᵐᵃ = ʰˡᵃ-₁ ʰˢˡ, ᴬʰʰⁱ = ᴲᵗʰⁱ = ᵲᵗ.charCodeAt(130)ʰᵘ = ᵲˢˡ# ʰᵇᵃ# ᵲʰᵏᵉ = ᵱˡⁱ = ᵱɲᵒ.

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

(19) ᴬᵗʰᵘ-ʰʷᵘ = ᵲᵏ₃# ᵲᵖᵃᵒ = ᵱᵗᶜʰʰᵘ = ᵱˡⁱ = ᵱɲᵒ.

‘The ghost came to the man’s house.’

(20) ᴬʰʰⁱ = ᵲᵗʰⁱ = ᵲᵗCharCode(250)ʰᵉ#: ‘_#{³}ᵈᵒ = ᴱʰᶻˡ# ʰⁿᵃ-ˡ⁻ᵏᵘ = ᴲᶻˡ# ʰᵏᵃᵃ,ʰᵖᵃᵒ# ᵲⁿᵈᶻˡ = ᴲʰʰⁱ#, ᵲᶻᵒ-ʰᶻᵒ ʰᵈᶻʸḏ ʰɲᵒ.’

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

(21) ᴶᵖᵃᶻ = ᴱˢˡ# ʰᵗˢʰᵘ = ᵲⁿᵒ#: ‘ʰʷⁱ = ᵲᶻˡ# ʰʸᶻᵃ = ᴲʰⁱ # ʰᵗˢʰᵘ = ᵲᶻˡ# ʰˡᵃ # ᵲᵗʰˡ⁻ʰᵈᶻʸᶻ_LOGGERFIELD # ʰˡᵃ # ᵲᵗʰˡ⁻ʰᵈᶻʸᶻ_LOGGERFIELD # ʰˡᵃ # ᵲᵗʰˡ⁻ʰᵈᶻʸᶻ_LOGGERFIELD ’ ᵲʰᵏᵉ = ᵱˡⁱ = ᵱɲᵒ.

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

(22) ᴶᵗʰᵘ = ᵲⁿᵒ#: ‘ʰⁿⁱ# ʰᵃ = ᴲʰˡ⁻ʰᵐᵃ⁻ʰᶻᵒ#, ᵲʸᶻᵃ # ʰᵗˢʰˡ⁻ʰᵈᶻʸᶻ_LOGGERFIELD # ᵲʰᵏᵉ = ᵱˡʷᵘ = ᵲᵍᵃ#,’ ᵲʰᵖᵃᶻ = ᵱˡⁱ = ᵱɲᵒ.
'The man said to the ghost: “Please take a seat here and I will call my wife.”'

(23) $^{1}t_{\theta}^{3} = ^{1}t_{\hat{\beta}}^{3} - ^{1}t_{\beta}^{6}$, $^{1}t_{\theta}^{3} = ^{1}t_{\hat{\beta}}^{3} - ^{1}t_{\beta}^{2}$

The man said to the ghost: “Please take a seat here and I will call my wife.”

(24) $^{1}t_{\theta}^{3} = ^{1}t_{\hat{\beta}}^{3}$, $^{1}t_{\theta}^{3} = ^{1}t_{\hat{\beta}}^{3}$

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.”
"Then the man told him: "No one in the whole world is closer than the two of us."

"Tonight, I absolutely want to treat you on sausages made of my wife’s lungs and liver."

"Having said that, the man shouted to the fastened sow."

"Woman, come here and cook."

"The sow did not answer."
again call=PRF life-friend 2SG tea boil=come.IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

Again, call PRF life-friend 2 SG tea boil=come. IMP

wife

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: “Are my wife’s lungs and liver tasty?”
“You killed your own wife to offer me her liver and lungs.”

“Young 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.”’
ghost=GEN  life-friend=AGT   1 SG   rice   what
wife
make=VOL.Q
'The wife of the ghost said: “How can I cook?”'

make=VOL.Q
'You fastened me, I can’t even move.”'

outward-let.go=come.IMP  1 SG that=become  tea  boil=come.IMP
‘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.”’
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."

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 man said to the ghost: "You look for me first."

The man walked away and hid himself in a barley field.
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.
that=become person=that barley-field=inside ghost=AGT
cooked.rice and pig-fat inward-throw=NMLZ.PST that
PFV-eat=PRF barley-field=inside PFV-sleep do=NMLZ.PST=COP

'So, the man in the field ate the cooked rice and bacon thrown by the
ghost and slept in the field afterwards.'
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.

REFERENCES


