

行政院國家科學委員會專題研究計畫 期中進度報告

噶瑪蘭語言談與認知研究(1/2)

計畫類別：整合型計畫

計畫編號：NSC93-2411-H-002-095-MG

執行期間：93年08月01日至94年07月31日

執行單位：國立臺灣大學語言學研究所

計畫主持人：黃宣範

報告類型：精簡報告

處理方式：本計畫可公開查詢

中 華 民 國 94 年 5 月 27 日

Chapter One Word Order

1.0 Introduction

Kavalan is a predicate-initial language with predicate-argument order as well as most other Formosan languages. Predicates can be a variety of syntactic categories such as verbs, nouns, existential markers, different kinds of interrogatives, negators, etc. Verbs are the typical predicate.

Taking the arguments into consideration, word order can be realized in terms of 3 valency roles, A, S, and O. A and O refer to the typical agent and patient of a transitive verb, abbreviated as Vt, and S to the only one argument of an intransitive verb Vi. Different constructions bring forth different kinds of NP alignment. So in this chapter, we would like to investigate the Kavalan word order in some particular constructions.

The data observed consists of 3 narratives (1 Frog Story and 2 Pear Stories). Only word order pattern in the main clauses is considered in this study.

1.1 Patterns & Distributions

In this section, we would like to discuss patterns of word order in three texts; we would also tabulate each pattern's distribution. Let's first start with the discussion on AF intransitive clauses.

1.1.1 Patterns & Distributions of AF Intransitive Clauses

Patterns and distribution of AF intransitive clauses are tabulated in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of word order patterns: Main Verb as an AF Vi Verb

AF: Vi	Frog_buya	Pear_buya	Pear_imui	Total
V	4	4	2	10
V S	10	3	3	16
V Loc S	0	0	2	2
Loc V S	0	0	1	1
Loc Vi S Loc	1	0	0	1
S V Loc	1	0	0	1
S V _{Adv.} V	0	1	0	1
S V _{Adv.} V Loc	1	0	0	1
V Loc	3	2	0	5
V _{Adv.} V	3	1	0	4
Total	23	11	8	42

As can be seen in Table 1, with regard to the proportion, pattern which consists of one verb and the only one argument- the SV pattern, are the most; the second is the V pattern. The whole sum of AF intransitive clauses is 42.

We have examples for each pattern as follows.

(1) AF: Vi

nakuni t-em-ibuk-ti nani. (Frog_buya: 23)
 how AF-fall-Pfv DM
 "... and somehow it falls."

wiya-ti, (Pear_buya_44)
 leave-Pfv
 "..., went away."

(2) AF: Vi S

Ramneng sunis 'nay atu wasu-na nani. (Frog_buya: 12)
 wake child that and dog-3S.G DM
 "The child and his dog wake up."

t-m-ibuk-ti penay 'nay. (Frog_buya: 45)
 AF-fall-Pfv bee that
 "The bee falls."

(3). AF: Vi Loc S

tangi nani ..suRaw-ti ta-bataz-an na razan .. ‘nay sunis
 today DM fall-Pfv Loc-halfway-Loc Gen road that child
 a yawu.\

Link that

“Then the child stumbled halfway.” (Pear_imui: 15)

(4). AF: Loc Vi S

ta tibuR sayza s-em-aqay ‘nay kintulu ay sunis
 Loc south maybe AF-walk that three.human RV child
 a yawu.\

Link that

“Those three children came over, perhaps toward the south. “ (Pear_imiu: 27)

(5). AF: Loc Vi S Loc

ta- nani ta=zian ta=-pa-paRin-an mazmun .. muaza paRin
 FS DM here Loc-Red-tree-Loc FS many tree
 tayan nani.\

there DM

“There are lots of trees in the forest.” (Pear_imui: 32)

(6). AF: S Vi Loc

wasu ‘nay ...t-em-ugaz ta-tengat-an. (Frog_buya : 22)

dog that AF-go_up Loc-window-Loc

“The dog climbs up to the window”

(7). AF: S VAdv. Vi

baqi-an ‘nay pameng-ti me-nga-ngaR tya t-em-ita,
 grandfather-AN that this.way-Pfv AF-Red-slack.jawed DM AF-see

“... while he slack-jawed and looked.” (Pear_buya: 70)

(8). AF: S VAdv. Vi Loc

‘nay biat ‘nay, pa=qanas-ti me-zukat ta-peRasku-an,
 that frog that careful-Pfv AF-go_out Loc-bottle-Loc

“That frog...slowly (jumps) out the bottle.” (Frog_buya: 9-10)

(9). AF: Vi Loc

me-lazyu ta-kinil-an-na,/ (Pear_buya: 14)
 AF-pass Loc-side-Loc-3S.Gen
 "... passing him by."

(10). AF: V_{Adv.} Vi

pameng-ti me-nga-ngaR tya t-em-ita.\ (Pear_buya: 65)
 this.way-Pfv AF-Red-slack.jawed DM AF-see
 "(He) slack-jawed and looked (at the children)."

1.1.2 Patterns & Distributions of AF Transitive Clauses

Table 2 below shows a result on the distribution of AF transitive clauses in Kavalan texts.

Table 2. Distribution of word order patterns: Main Verb as an AF Vt Verb

AF: Vt	Frog_buya	Pear_buya	Pear_imui	Total
V	2	2	0	4
V A	2	0	0	2
V O	0	6	0	6
A V O	1	2	0	3
Vt-O _{pro} A	0	0	1	1
Vt Loc	2	0	0	2
V _{Adv.} Vt A _{pro}	1	0	0	1
A <i>yau</i> Loc Vt O	1	0	0	1
Total	9	10	1	19

Comparing all patterns in Table 2, the VO pattern has the highest frequency and its token is 6. The V pattern which has no any one argument is in the second rank; following the V pattern is the AVO pattern.

We also list examples for each pattern below.

(11). AF: Vt

q-em-Ras...nani. \ (Frog_buya: 41)
 AF-yell DM
 "... and calls (it)."

(12). AF: Vt A

t-em-anuz-ti turiq 'nay sayza nani.\ (Frog_buya: 50)
 AF-chase -Pfv wasp that maybe DM
 "... and the wasps chase (them)."

(13). AF: Vt O

q-em-usqus tu quRu.\ (Pear_buya: 71)
 AF-scratch Obl head
 "... scratched head."

(14). AF: A Vt O

razat 'nay k-em-awit tu sizi._ (Pear_buya: 13)
 person that AF-pull_along Obl goat
 "... a man pulled along a goat..."

(15). AF: Vt-O_{pro} A

qay- ..qay-byabas 'nay,_ razat 'nay nani.\ (Pear_imui: 5-6)
 QAY- QAY-guava that person that DM
 "That person picked guavas."

(16). AF: Vt Loc

k-em-irin tayan... nani.\ (Pear_buya: 34)
 AF-find there DM
 " They look for the frog there."

(17). AF: V_{Adv}. Vt A_{pro}

pameng-ti k-em-i-ki-kirim qanyawu, (Frog_buya: 14)
 no_other_choice-Pfv AF-Red-find 3Pl.Nom
 "They keep looking for (the frog)."

(18). AF: A_{yau} Loc Vt O

razat-na nani yau tayan ta- t-m-ita tu tangan nani.\
 person-3Sg.Gen DM Exist there FS AF-see Obl hole DM
 "That person sees a hole there." (Frog_buya: 53)

1.1.3 Patterns & Distributions of LF Clauses

Table 3 display the distribution of valency role orders of LF clauses in Kavalan texts.

Table 3. Distribution of word order patterns: Main verb as a LF verb

LF	Frog_buya	Pear_buya	Pear_imui	Total
V	2	0	0	2
V O	1	0	0	1
V-S _{pro}	0	1	0	1
V-A _{pro}	2	5	2	9
V-A _{pro} O	2	5	2	9
V-O-A _{pro}	0	1	0	1
V-A _{pro} A O	0	1	0	1
V-A _{pro} O _s	1	2	1	4
V-A _{pro} O _{yau}	2	3	0	5
V Loc	1	0	0	1
V-A _{pro} Loc	1	1	1	3
A V-A _{pro} Loc	1	0	0	1
V-A _{pro} Loc O	0	0	1	1
V Loc O _s	0	0	1	1
V _{Adv.} V-A _{pro}	0	1	0	1
Neg V _{LF-A_{pro}} A O	0	1	0	1
Loc V _{LF-A_{pro}} Neg	1	0	0	1
Total	14	21	8	43

Based on Table 3, we found that the V-A_{pro} pattern takes rank with the V-A_{pro} O one; the two patterns occur more frequently than others. The second-ranked two patterns are the V-A_{pro} O_{yau} pattern and the V-A_{pro} O_s pattern; both the two patterns have a complement as the O role or the O role in a complement respectively. The sum of LF clauses in texts is 43, which is higher than the sum of AF intransitive clause.

Following the same pattern in Sec. 2.1 and Sec. 2.2, we have examples for each Kavalan LF pattern below.

(19). LF: V

ri=zaq-an nani.\

happy-LF DM

“(The child) is happy.”

(Frog_buya: 97)

(20). LF: V O

sinunu=ng-an penay ‘nay, _

along-LF bee that

“(They) follow the bees.”

(Frog_buya: 36)

(21). LF: V-S_{pro}taliqut-an-na

si-qubu-an-na-ti

nani.\ (Pear_buya: 53)

look_back-LF-3S.Gen SI-hat-LF-3S.Gen-Pfv

DM

“He looked back and wore the hat.”**(22). V-A_{pro}**

pipi=t-an-na nani.\

pluck-LF-3S.Gen DM

“(He) kept plucking.”

(Pear_buya: 5)

(23). V-A_{pro} O

kyara-an-na-ti ...

’nay byabas a yawu, /

(Pear_imui: 7)

pick_up-LF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv that guava Link that

“He picked up that guava.”

(24). V-O-A_{pro}

taliqut-an-na

si-qubu-an-na-ti

nani.\ (Pear_buya: 53)

look_back-LF-3S.Gen SI-hat-LF-3S.Gen-Pfv

DM

“He looked back and wore the hat.”**(25). V-A_{pro} A O**

ara-an-na

sunis

‘nay usiq ‘nay qanas

‘nay=, _

take-LF-3S.Gen

child

that one that basket

that

sinsuli ‘nay, /

plum that

“The child took a basket of plum.”

(Pear_buya: 24)

(26). V-A_{pro} O_s

nani ala-an-na-ti usiq ‘na=y, _ (Frog_buya : 91-92)
 DM take-LF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv one that
 iza- an-na nani ni-qulu-an-na masang o.\
 that.way-3Sg.Gen DM NI-breed-AN-3Sg.Gen before DM
 “The child takes a frog, which seems to be the one he used to raise.”

(27). V-A_{pro} O_{yau}

maseq ..<F tita-an-na F>._
 arrive see-LF-3S.Gen
 baqi-an ’nay yau ta babaw na paRin./
 elder_male-AN that Exist Loc above Gen tree
 na sinsuli nani.\
 Gen plum DM
 “(He) saw the old man is up on the plum tree.” (Pear_buya: 17-19)

(28). V Loc

suzit-an-ti ta libeng.\ (Frog_buya: 55)
 fall_backwards-LF-Pfv Loc below
 “The child falls backwards.”

(29). V-A_{pro} Loc

tuqaz-an-na-ti ‘nay z- ‘nay ..‘nay suRna nani.\
 go_up-LF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv that FS that that ice DM
 “And he climbs up to the ice.” (Frog_buya: 61)

(30). A V-A_{pro} Loc

nani wasu ‘nay nani pa-susuR-an-na (Frog_buya: 17-18)
 DM dog that DM Cau-enter-LF-3Sg.Gen
 ta= -peRasku-an quRu-na,_
 Loc-bottle-Loc head-3Sg.Gen
 nani.\
 DM
 “The dog puts his head in the bottle.”

(31). V-A_{pro} Loc O

qalisinpu-an-na-ti ta= qaypi-an ‘nay .. ‘nay te- ‘nay
 gather-LF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv Loc-basket-Loc FS FS FS that

byabas a yawu nani.\ (Pear_imui: 21)
 guava Link that DM
 “He gathered the guavas in the big basket.”

(32). V Loc Os

mu-zaqis pa-zaqis ta-= zitinsya-an.\ (Pear_imui: 11-13)
 AF-take(FS) Cau-take Loc- bicycle-Loc
 ’nay ni-kyara-an na tama-na tu byabas,
 that NI-pick_up-AN Gen father-3Sg.Gen Obl guava
 ta-bunguR-an na paRin.\
 Loc-trunk-Loc Gen tree
 “put the guavas picked up by his father around the trunk on the bicycle.”

(33). V_{Adv} V-A_{pro}

azu-ti sa- supa- supaR-an-na.___ (Pear_buya: 20)
 seem-Pfv SA- FS know-AN-3S.Gen
 “(It seems that he) knew him.”

(34). Neg V_{LF}-A_{pro} A O

mai ma tita-an-na baqi-an ‘nay sezay nani.\
 Neg DM see-an-3S.Gen elder.male-AN that this_way DM
 “The old man was not paying attention.” (Pear_buya: 23)

(35). Loc V_{LF}-A_{pro} Neg

mai ma tita-an-na baqi-an ‘nay sezay nani.\
 Neg DM see-an-3S.Gen elder.male-AN that this_way DM
 “The old man was not paying attention.” (Pear_buya: 23)

1.1.4 Patterns & Distributions of other Clauses

Except for the AF and LF clauses, other constructions may also display in a variety of patterns in Kavalan texts. So, this section contains the discussion on constructions including negation, existential construction, equational construction and quotative construction, and interrogative construction. Table 4 shows the patterns and distribution of these constructions. Following Table 4 are their corresponding examples.

Table 4. Distribution of word order patterns: Other Patterns

	Frog_buya	Pear_buya	Pear_imui	Total
<i>Negation</i>				
Neg	2	1	1	4
Neg NP	1	1	0	2
Neg V	0	1	0	1
Neg V _{LF} -A _{pro} A O	0	1	0	1
Loc V _{LF} -A _{pro} Neg	1	0	0	1
Total	5	3	1	9
<i>Existential Construction</i>				
<i>yau</i> S	1	1	0	2
<i>yau</i> Vt O	0	0	1	1
<i>yau</i> Vt O _s	1	0	0	1
Loc <i>yau</i> S Vi	0	1	0	1
<i>yau</i> Loc	1	0	1	2
<i>yau</i> Loc S	2	0	0	2
<i>A yau Loc Vt O</i>	1	0	0	1
Total	6	2	2	10
<i>Equational Construction</i>				
Vpred S	0	2	0	2
Total				
<i>Quotative Construction</i>				
Direct Quotation	2	5	0	7
Indirect Quotation	2	2	0	4
Total	4	7	0	11
<i>Interrogative Construction</i>				
<i>mana</i> ‘why’ V _{pred}	0	2	0	2
<i>NP V semani</i> ‘where’	0	1	0	1
Total	0	3	0	3

(36). Negation: Neg

ma=i, nani.\

(Frog_buya: 20-21)

Neg DM

“... but it is not there.”

(37). Negation: Neg NP

mai-ti biat 'nay.\ (Frog_buya: 13)
 Neg-Pfv frog that
 “The frog has disappeared.”

(38). Negation: Neg VP

mai tu ni-imet-an,/ (Pear_buya: 64)
 Neg Obl NI-touch-AN
 “(The children) did not touch (anything).”

(39 (=34)). Negation: Neg V_{LF}-A_{pro} A O

mai ma tita-an-na baqi-an 'nay sezay nani.\
 Neg DM see-an-3S.Gen elder.male-AN that this_way DM
 “The old man was not paying attention.” (Pear_buya: 23)

(38 (=35)). Negation: Loc V_{LF}-A_{pro} Neg

tanian ki-kirim-an-na mai.\ (Frog_buya: 16)
 where Red-find-LF-3Sg.Gen Neg
 “They cannot find it anywhere.”

(39). Existential: *yau* S

yau baqi-an 'nay usiq._ (Pear_buya: 1)
 Exist elder.male-AN that one
 “There was an old man.”

(40). Existential: *yau* Vt O

yau-ti q-em-an tu byabas a yawu ... (Pear_imui: 26)
 Exist-Pfv AF-eat Obl guava Link that
 “Those three persons ate the guavas.”

(41). Existential: *yau* Vt O_s

yau ni-qulu-an-na tu= tu biat,/ (Frog_buya : 4-5)
 Exist NI-breed-AN-3Sg.Gen Obl Obl frog
 “He keeps a frog in the bottle.”

(42). Existential: Loc *yau* S Vi

Raylikuz-na uman nani yau-ti sunis 'nay qa-zitinsya._
 behind-3S.Gen again DM Exist-Pfv child that QA-bicycle

“A child rode a bicycle in the backside.” (Pear_buya: 17)

(43). Existential: *yau* Loc

yau-ti ta-paRin-an sayza na qanyawu sa=--, / (Frog_buya: 79)
 Exist-Pfv Loc-tree-Loc maybe Gen 3Pl.Nom FS
 “Fortunately, there is a trunk.”

(44). Existential: *yau* Loc Ss

yau ta-kinir-an-na yau [X‘nay ‘nayX] tangan (Frog_buya:38)
 Exist Loc-side-Loc-3Sg.Gen Exist FS FS hole
 ‘nay nani. \ that DM
 “There is a hole near the beehive,…”

(45 (=18). Existential: A *yau* Loc Vt O

razat-na nani yau tayan ta- t-m-ita tu tangan nani.\
 person-3Sg.Gen DM Exist there FS AF-see Obl hole DM
 “That person sees a hole there.” (Frog_buya: 53)

(46). Quotation: Indirect Quotation

pasi yau tayan biat ‘nay zin-su nani. \ (Frog_buya: 33)
 likely Exist there frog that say-2Sg.Gen DM
 “The frog might be there.”

(47). Quotation: Direct Quotation

t-em-ugaz-pa-iku ‘nay k-em-i-kirim zin-na nani,\
 AF-go_up-Fut-1.Sg.Nom that AF-Red-find say-3Sg.Gen DM
 “He said, “I will climb up to look for the frog.”” (Frog_buya: 60)

(48). Interrogative Construction: *mana* ‘why’ *Vpred*

uzusa-ti ta-qanas-an nani. \ (Pear_buya: 61-62)
 two.nonhuman-Pfv Loc-basket-Loc DM
 ..mana usiq-ti ma zin-na.\
 why one-Pfv DM say-3S.Gen
 “Why the two baskets of plums of mine becomes one basket?” He said.”

(49). **Interrogative Construction: NP V *semani* ‘where’**

Utulun pasani semani._ (Pear_buya: 68)
 three.nonhuman toward where
 “Where run (the three)?”

1.2 A comparison between transitive clauses and intransitive clauses with different focus verbs

In this section, we would like to make a word-order-pattern comparison between transitive and intransitive clauses in Kavalan AF/LF constructions. The basis comes from the result from sections 1.1.1 to 1.1.3. After counting the frequency of each pattern, we get the following table which may display the distinction between transitive clauses and intransitive clauses.

Table 5. A comparison between transitive clauses and intransitive clauses

	AF	LF	Sum	Percentage (*106)
Vi	19	3	22	20.8%
V S	20	0	20	18.9%
V-S _{pro}	0	5	5	4.7%
S V	3	0	3	2.8%
<i>Sum of intransitive clauses</i>	42	8	50	47.2%
Vt	6	0	6	5.6%
V O	6	1	7	6.6%
V Os	0	1	1	0.9%
V A	3	11	14	13.2%
A V O	3	0	3	2.8%
A O V	1	0	1	0.9%
V O A	2	1	3	2.8%
V A O	0	12	12	11.3%
V A Os	0	9	9	8.5%
<i>Sum of transitive clauses</i>	21	35	56	52.8%
Total	63	43	106	100%

As shown in Table 5, the sum (52.8%) of transitive clauses is higher than that (47.2%) of intransitive clauses; however, the distinction isn't significant.

Compare all patterns, the Vi pattern occurs most frequently (with the percentage of 20.8%) and following the Vi pattern is the VS pattern (18.9%); the third one is the VA pattern (13.2%). So, taking the second-ranked and third-ranked patterns into consideration, we can find that the language tends to take the S or A role, i.e., the agent, as its only one argument; that is, the construction that consists of a main verb and an agent is preferable ($18.9\%+13.2\%=32.1\%$) in Kavalan. If the clause contains two participants, the VAO pattern is the best candidate; the percentage of the VAO pattern stands at 11.3%.

1.3 Summary

This chapter examined the word order in Kavalan. We had concluded all patterns of word order in different constructions, including AF, LF, negation, existential construction, equational construction and quotative construction, and interrogative construction and gave each pattern one example.

We have also compared transitive clauses to intransitive clauses. We found that the frequency between the two ones is similar; besides, the Vi pattern occurred most frequently. Also, if adding one argument into a clause, the best candidate must be the agent; thus, if adding another one into a clause, the word order tended to be a VAO type. In sum, Kavalan is a predicate-initial language with predicate-argument order.

This study is a short result based on three texts, lasting for no more than 10 minutes. The whole observation on word order in Kavalan is believed to be not displayed. We would like to trace the issue by means of further study.

Chapter Two Noun Phrases

2.0 Introduction

In this preliminary chapter we will discuss the basic construction of Kavalan noun phrases, nominalization, relativization, numerals, and kinship terms. Based on limited data, we will construct a tentative basic word order of noun phrases in Kavalan, which will be covered in section 1 of this chapter. Section 2 will touch on nominalization. Nominalization involves many issues; in this section, we will first look at how the language forms lexical items for novel concepts. In section 3, where we discuss relativization, we find that the relativizer *ay* in Kavalan appears directly after the verb in Agent-focus relative clauses; in non-agent relative clauses, the relativizer *ay* attaches after the clause consisting of the verb and the Agent/genitive phrase. In Section 4, we provide a preliminary account of the numeral system in Kavalan. Section 5 deals with kinship terms; we will show that kinship terms can be categorized into two groups: one indicating genealogical relation and the other one indicating relationship acquired through marriage, and both groups can be further functionally classified into terms for addressing and terms for indicating relationship.

This preliminary report will by no means exhaust all the issues on Kavalan noun phrases. In future reports, we hope to include more topics for discussion. For example, we will try to construct a more comprehensive schema of noun phrases in Kavalan that would include case markers, numerals, demonstratives, and so on. We will also augment the section on the counting system and numerals in Kavalan. Moreover, a more in-depth inquiry into nominalization and relativization in Kavalan will also be conducted.

2.1 Basic Construction of Kavalan NP

Simple noun phrases in Kavalan are usually composed of a head noun and a demonstrative usually following it. The demonstrative *'nay* can appear even in newly-mentioned referents in a discourse, as in (1), and may be sometimes employed as a pause filler, as in (2).

(1) Pear Buya 1

yau	baqi-an	'nay	usiq._
Exist	elder.male-AN	that	one

'There was an old man.'

(2) Pear Buya 24-25

24. ... (0.5)	ara-an-na	sunis	'nay usiq	'nay qanas	'nay=.___
	take-PF-3S.Gen	child	that one	that basket	that

25. ... (0.88)	sinsuli	'nay,/'
	plum	that

'The child took a basket of plums.'

Word order seems to be flexible in noun phrases with one or two modifiers, especially when one of them is the demonstrative *'nay*. For example,

(3)

usiq betu 'nay '(that/a) (one) stone'
usiq betu / betu usiq / 'nay betu / betu 'nay

However, when the noun phrase involves two adjective modifiers, word order is restricted. For example,'

(4) usiq Raya-ay betu 'one big stone'

But, usiq betu Raya-ay '(there is) one stone (that is) big'

?*Raya-ay betu usiq* '(a) big stone there is one'

Certain classes of nouns seem to be more integrated or less integrated with a

head noun. For example,

- (5) kintulu Raya-ay sunis ‘three big children’
 But, *Raya kintulu-ay sunis ‘big three children’
 Raya-ti kintulu-ay sunis ‘the three children have grown’

As in (5), modifiers are more integrated to the head noun than numerals. If they are positioned preceding the numerals referring to the head noun, then the modifiers become predicates. Although the modifiers usually precede the head noun, they can also follow the head noun in spontaneous speech, as in (6):

- (6) Frog Buya 54
 54. ...me-zukat qaya ‘nay.. alam Raya nani. \
 AF-go.out also that bird big DM
 ‘The big bird flew out too.’

Based on limited data, a tentative word order of noun phrases can be made:

- (7) Numeral-Attribute-head noun-Demonstrative

Noun phrase connectors in Kavalan may include *atu* ‘and’ and *u* ‘or,’ as in (8) and (9), respectively. There is also a ligature *a*, which usually appears between a head noun and a demonstrative (usually *yawu*), as in (9).

- (8) Frog Buya 1-2
 1. ..ma=sang nani yau usiq sunis ‘nay,_
 before DM Exist one child that
 2. ...(1.7)atu wasu-na, /
 and dog-3Sg.Gen
 ‘Long time ago, there was a child, and his dog.’

(9) Pear Imui 2-4

2. ...qay-byabas ay razat a yawu ta- .. ta-iza-an u.\
 QAY-guava Rel person Lig that ta- Loc-somewhere-Loc
 or

3. ... ta-= pa-
 FS FS

4. ... ta-bunguR-an na na= byabas a yawu,_
 Loc-trunk-Loc na Gen guava Lig that
 ‘that person picking guavas there *or* around that guava tree’

2.2 Nominalization

There are various Noun-formation strategies in Kavalan, One is through morpho-syntactic means, namely, reduplication. The first syllable is usually reduplicated to form a noun that is plural in meaning. For example, *ta-pa-paRin-an* ‘place of many trees’ > ‘forest’; *ta-zan-zanum-an* ‘place with much water’ > ‘pond/river/sea’; and *na-nawung* ‘mountains.

Moreover, non-traditional concepts and objects that are the result of modern technology and civilization are most usually expressed in Kavalan through a number of ways: categorization and the use of traditional terms; grammatical means, which includes relativization; and the use of loan words from Japanese and from Chinese.

a. Categorization and the use of traditional terms

If a novel object can be categorized as belonging to a certain group then the super-ordinate term is used for naming the item. For example, anything that resembles a pair of shoes may be called *zupu*; anything that is worn on the body is *kulus*.

Traditional terms are also used in naming novel concepts. In ancient times, the Kavalan people call their tribal leaders *oRoq* ‘head’ or *tama* ‘father.’ As the democratic way of government is introduced into their system, all the leaders at

any level, e.g., of a county or village, are named *oRo na damu* or *tama na damu*. Another example has to do with dental hygiene. Before the introduction of the toothbrush, the people used sand to brush their teeth, which they termed *sakoRowan tu bangRaw*, the action of which is now used to refer to the action of brushing the teeth with a modern toothbrush.

b. Grammatical means

One way of forming nouns is to employ the nominalizer *-an* (10) or the locative *ta-V/N-an*. A modifier (in the form of a genitive NP) is often added (11) to distinguish the referents of a novel noun phrase by the object that the nominalized verb takes. For example, *sepaw-an* is a place for putting (things). Either *na kaytun* ‘of cars’ or *na hikoki* ‘of airplanes’ is added to distinguish a ‘parking lot’ from an ‘airplane port/hangar.’ Moreover, some concepts can only be expressed by using verbal phrases, such as in (12).

(10) Nominalizer *-an*

taksi-an ‘place for studying’ > ‘school’

pa-kiskis-an ‘place for (having hair) trimmed’ > ‘barber shop/beauty parlor’

ta-ising-an ‘at the doctor’s place’ > ‘hospital/clinic’

(11) Nominalizer *-an* with a modifier

sepaw-an na kaytun ‘place for putting cars’ > ‘parking place’

tegez-an na kaytun/jitinsia ‘place for stopping cars/bicycles’

> ‘parking place for cars/bicycles’

pa-kurut-an tu bokes ‘place for curling hair’ > ‘beauty salon’

saseniz-an na hikoki = saseniz-an-ay tu hikoki ‘place for descending planes’

> ‘airport’

kulus na pataksi’an ‘clothes worn for studying’ > ‘school uniform’

mahong-ay tusongan na kulus ‘long sleeves of clothes’ > ‘long-sleeved clothes’

(12) verbal phrases

see a doctor/dentist/ophthalmologist
matiw sa isin (pa-kita' tu bangRaw/mata)

Sometimes, relativization, through the use of the relativizer *ay*, is used instead of genitive phrases, as in (13):

(13) relativization

si-kuvu-ay razat 'person wearing a hat' > 'policeman'
temanbaseR-ay putit 'flying object' > 'airplane'
pa-kiskis-an-ay tu bokes (razat) '(person) trimming hair' > 'barber'
saseniz-an na hikoki = saseniz-an-ay tu hikoki 'place for descending planes'
> 'airport'

c. Use of loan words

Loan words are abundant in Kavalan, especially lexical words borrowed from Japanese and Chinese, particularly Taiwanese. Some Japanese loan words include *hikoki* 'airplane'; *ripyoin* 'legislator'; *terebi* 'television'; *zitinsya* 'bicycle'; and *shinbun* 'newspaper.' Chinese (Taiwanese loan words) include *taizin* 'policeman'; *sabon* 'soap'; *jiazhao-su* 'your driver's license'; *shenfenzheng-ku* 'my identification card'; *taksi* 'study'; and *zongtong* 'president.'

Morphemes in Kavalan nominalization

In forming nouns that refer to 'people who V,' certain Formosan and Philippine Austronesian languages distinguish between people who V as a profession/habit (by the use of a special marker), and people who V at a given time (by nominalization of regular focus markers by employing the case markers), as in English *thief* and *one who steals something*, respectively. Kavalan seems to make use of the morpheme *qay*.

For example,

(14)

Tagalog: *mag-na-nakaw* person.who-Red-steal > ‘thief’Kavalan: *qay-Ruziq-ay (Razat)* ‘do-steal’ > ‘thief’

2.3 Relativization

Relativization in Kavalan is marked by the relativizer *ay* in AF clauses, as in (15). In (16), the relativizer *ay* is covert because the head is zero. If the head is mentioned, the relativizer *ay* would attach behind the verb in the relative clause and come before the object taken by the verb, if any, as in (17).

(15) Pear Imui 2

[**qay-byabas** [GAP]] **ay razat** **a yawu** ta- .. ta-iza-an u.\
 QAY-guava [Nom] Rel person Lig that ta- Loc-there-Loc or
 ‘that person *who is* picking guavas there’

(16) Pear Imui 26

26. ... yau-ti [q-em-an [GAP] tu byabas] ø a yawu
 Exist-Pfv AF-eat [Nom] Acc guava Link that
 ‘Those (three boys) eating the guavas.’

(17)

yau-ti [q-em-an **ay** *(tu) byabas] **sunis** a yawu

In non-Agent focus relative clauses, as in (18) and (19), the relative clause is directly expressed through a non-agent focus verb affixed with Aspect markers (*ni-* which is Perfective, in both examples) and followed by the cliticized genitive pronoun. The constituent composed of the verb and the Genitive phrase, which is also a possessive noun phrase, is followed by the object marked by *tu* or the relativizer *ay*.

(18) Pear Buya 9-10

9. .. uzusa pungiR-ti ni-izan-an-na nani.\
 two.nonhuman fill-Pfv Past-load-AN-3S.Gen DM

10. ... (1.10) [*ni-pipit-an-na* [GAP]] *tu/ay* *sinsuli,/*
 Past-pluck-AN-3S.Gen [Nom] Acc/Rel plum
 ‘Two (of the three baskets) were filled (with) the plums *that* he had plucked.’

(19) Pear Imui 11-13

11. ... *mu-zaqis pa-zaqis ta- zitinsya-an.*
 AF-take.(FS) Cau-take Loc-bicycle-Loc
12. ... *'nay [ni-kyara-an na tama-na* [GAP]] *tu/ay byabas, _*
 that Past-pick-AN Gen father-3Sg.Gen [Nom] Acc/Rel guava
13. ... *ta-bunguR-an na paRin.*
 Loc-trunk-Loc Gen tree
- ‘(He) put the guavas ***that were picked by his father*** around the trunk on the bicycle.’

2.4 Numerals

In this section we will discuss the Kavalan numeral system. By observing expressions of counting, the principles listed in (20) are found to represent the operation of the numeral system in Kavalan. The counting form of Saisiyat is decimal, and its numeral expressions are combinations of numbers receiving lexical representation by addition. From ten onwards, the tens digit is expressed by the combination of a number and the lexical representation of ten.

(20) generating rules for numbers in Kavalan

- a) below 10: terms with lexical representation
- b) from 10 to 99:
X yau a)
 X: lexical term consisting of a lexical representation of a numeral and the lexical representation of ten (*betin*)
- c) from 100 to 999:
Y yau b)
 Y: lexical term consisting of a lexical representation of a numeral and the lexical representation of one hundred (*Rasibu*)
- d) from 1000 to 9999
Y yau c)

Y: lexical term consisting of a lexical representation of a numeral and the lexical representation of one thousand (*mararazan*)

e) 10,000 on wards

Y *yau* d)

Y: lexical term consisting of a lexical representation of a numeral and the lexical representation of ten thousand (*banan*)

Numerals more than ten require a conjunctive *yau* between two lexical items; the order followed in a complex numeral expression is: the larger numeral precedes the smaller numeral. The lexical representation for the number 9,999 would be *usiwa mararazan yau usiwa' kasibu yau usiwa betin yao usiwa*. Table 1 below lists the numeral expressions in Kavalan.

Table 1. Numeral expressions in Kavalan

Numeral	Cardinal		Ordinal	Number of times
	[-Human]	[+Human]		
1	usiq	paknanem	saka-usiq	ka-usiq 'once'
2	dusa	kin-ausa	saka-dusa	ka-dusa 'twice'
3	туру'	kin-turu	saka-turu	ka-turu 'thrice'
4	sepat	kin-sepat	saka-sepat	ka-sepat 'four times'
5	lima	kin-lima	saka-lima	ka-lima 'five times'
6	'nem	kin-anem	saka-'nem	ka-'nem 'six times'
7	pitu	kin-pitu	saka-pitu	ka-pitu 'seven times'
8	waru	kin-waru	saka-waru	ka-waru 'eight times'
9	siwa	kin-siwa	saka-siwa	ka-siwa 'nine times'
10	habetin	habetin	saka-betin	ka-betin 'ten times'

In counting objects [-Human] the cardinal system, as in the second column in Table 1, is used. There is a separate system for counting persons from one to nine, as in the third column in Table 1. Numeral expressions can be used as verbs.

(21) Numerals as verbs

saka-dusa-ti q-em-an aizipna

Ord-two-Pfv eat-AF 3S

‘He has eaten his second (serving).’ (Elicited)

ka-dusa-ti q-em-an aizipna

times-two-Pfv eat-AF 3S

‘He has eaten twice.’ (Elicited)

2.5 Kinship terms

Kinship terms in Kavalan are basically nominal kind terms. The terms indicating genealogical relation and those indicating relations through marriage are basically the same. Moreover, there is no difference between terms for addressing and terms indicating relationship.

Kinship terms indicating genealogical relationship refer to terms used in one group of people who are related to each other by blood. Terms for addressing are how members in the same blood group address each other. These terms for addressing are often extended to second- and third- degree relations, and even to familiar persons in the community and to strangers. Although people living in the same community can identify each other’s complicated relations, e.g., ‘sister of wife’s uncle’s mother-in-law,’ it is interesting to note that they have not developed expressions to refer to such complicated relationships. Addressing terms are usually binary, and these are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Addressing terms in Kavalan

Kinship term	gloss	Kinship term	gloss
baki’	grandfather	bai’	grandmother
tama’	father	tina’	mother
tma’	uncle	tna’	aunt
kaka’	elder sibling	suani’	younger sibling

The terms in Table 2 can basically function both to address and to indicate specific relationship between members in one genealogical group. These can

oftentimes be extended to distant relations as well as to addressing strangers on the street. Similar to Saisiyat, there is no extra lexical item in current use coding ‘parent’ as the lexical item in English. However, an old person’s terms for addressing one’s grandchildren are the same as how they are addressed by these grandchildren. That is, grandsons are addressed *baki*’ while granddaughters are *bai*’. There is no specific lexical item indicating ‘son’, ‘daughter’, ‘grandchildren;’ in actual use, the addressing form is the individual’s name.

The only kinship term indicating relationship acquired through marriage is *kdavu*, which indicates as well as is used for addressing ‘sons-/daughters-in-law.’ Other relationships and terms of address follow the basic pattern in Table 2. Therefore there is basically no difference in the term and form of address between blood relations and relationship acquired through marriage. Again, the same forms of address are used to address people not related at all to the address-er.

2.6 Summary

In this chapter we have discussed the basic construction of Kavalan noun phrases, nominalization, relativization, and kinship terms. We constructed a tentative basic word order of noun phrases in Kavalan based on limited data. We also looked at how the language forms lexical items for novel concepts. In the section discussing relativization, we found that the relativizer *ay* in Kavalan appears directly after the verb in Agent-focus relative clauses; in non-agent relative clauses, the relativizer *ay* attaches after the clause consisting of the verb and the Agent/genitive phrase. As for kinship terms, they can be categorized into two groups: one indicating genealogical relation and the other one indicating relationship acquired through marriage, and both groups can be further functionally classified into terms for addressing and terms for indicating relationship. The addressing terms in both groups can also function to

denote the relation between people, but terms indicating relationship do not function to address people.

This study has by no means exhausted the issues on Kavalan noun phrases to be investigated and discussed. There are more topics that need to be addressed; for example, we still have to construct a more comprehensive schema of noun phrases in Kavalan that would include case markers, numerals, demonstratives, and so on. We will also have to investigate the counting system and numerals in Kavalan. Moreover, a more in-depth study into nominalization and relativization in Kavalan has to be conducted.

Chapter Three Case Marking System

3.0. Introduction

According to previous studies (cf. Li 1978; Lee 1997; Chang 1997, 2000), the case marking system for the Kavalan nominals are Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, and Locative case, of which each can be divided into common nouns and proper and personal names, as shown in Table 1.

In Kavalan, *tu* often marks the ‘Patient’ of a dyadic clause (in the AF or the so-called *m*- clause). *Tu* has been analyzed as an accusative case marker (Li 1978; A. Lee 1997; Hsin 1996; Y. L. Chang 1997, 2000), or as an oblique marker (Li 1996; Liao 2002, 2004). A crucial presupposition underlying the debate is: are actor-focus (or actor-voice) clauses in Kavalan transitive or intransitive? And the extended question is: is Kavalan an ergative, accusative, or split ergative language typologically?¹

Based on Dixon and Aikhenvald’s (2000) theory on verb valency and transitivity and Hopper and Thompson’s (1980) study on the Transitivity in Grammar and Discourse, Liao interprets *tu* as an oblique marker and nicely classifies Kavalan as a purely ergative language.

The main arguments she holds are (1) the distribution of the marker *tu* is varied and (2) the *tu* marked arguments tend to be indefinite and thus better be analyzed as a non-core argument; thus, the marker *tu* better be analyzed as an oblique marker. The result may be true though; she did not provide any statistic evidence to support the argument (i.e. she did not say to what degree that the *tu* marked argument tends to be

¹ It is believed that there are three levels of ergativity: morphological, syntactical, and discorsal; therefore, when talking about ergativity, we have to specify which level we are in. Though she does not specify which level is her main concern, Liao (2002, 2004) seems to restrict her discussion on the syntactic ergativity of Kavalan.

indefinite). Besides, unlike English and Eskimo data Liao provides, as repeated in (1) and (2), there is no morphosyntactic evidence to identify the *tu* marked argument in Kavalan as an extended (non-core) argument, as in (3)-(6):

(1) English (data from Dixon & Aikhenvald (2000:3))

1a. dyadic transitive with a direct object theme O

Harry kicked the ball

Agent Object

1b. dyadic intransitive with an oblique theme E

Harry kicked **at** the ball

Agent Extension

(2) Central Arctic Eskimo (data from Manning 1996:15)

2a. antipassive clause with an indefinite theme

Jaani **tuktumik** takuvuq

Janni.NOM **caribou.MOD** see.IND.INTR.?3S

“Janni sees a caribou.”

2b. canonical transitive with a definite theme

Janniup **tuktu** takuvaa

Janni.ERG **caribou.NOM** see.IND.TR.?3S.?3S

“Janni sees the caribou.”

Besides, she is so ready to reach to the conclusion that *tu* is an oblique marker that she neglects and oversimplifies the behavior of the marker *tu*. The main problem in her argument is that it is not un-often to find *tu* marked arguments to be definite, as shown in (3) to (6).

(3) (Kav, 040414_imui, 66)

t-em-ita=iku **tu razat ‘nay**

AF-see=1Sg.Nom TU person that

“I saw that person.”

(4) (Kav, 040519_imui, 12)

m-abuth **tu sunis ‘nay** aizipna

AF-fight TU child that 3Sg.Nom

“He is fighting with that child.”

(5) (Kav, 040519_imui, 77)

m-ara=iku **tu taqan a zau**

AF-take=1Sg.Nom TU table Lin this

“I took this table.”

(6) (Kav, 040519_abas, 75)

m-etung ci-abas **tu sunis-na**

AF-kill Ncm-ABAS TU child-3Sg.Gen

“Abas killed her child”

On the one hand, she lacks of the morpho-syntactic evidence; on the other hand, she does not tell us the percentage of the definiteness of the *tu* marked argument in her texts. Even if she did, the problem still remains: to what degree of the definiteness of the *tu* marked argument can the marker *tu* be claimed to be an oblique marker? Therefore, we can see that the challenge confronted Liao in her analysis is hardly surmountable.

The main purpose of this paper is thus twofold: (1) to provide another perspective to look at some important issues neglected by Liao (2002, 2004) concerning the marker *tu* in Kavalan, and (2) to give a uniform account to explain the distribution and functions of Kavalan *tu*. This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 first gives a brief sketch of the case marking system on nominals and personal pronominals in Kavalan, and then, reviews previous studies, with a particular focus laid in Liao (2002; 2004), on the analysis of Kavalan *tu*. Section 3 gives a detailed account of the distribution and the functions of the marker *tu* with an attempt to provide a uniform framework to explain Kavalan *tu*. Some concluding remarks and questions for further study are given in Section 4.

3.1 Previous Studies on Kavalan *tu*

3.1.1 A Brief Sketch of the Case Marking System in Kavalan

Kavalan has been identified to have four cases: Nominative, Accusative (or

Oblique), Genitive, and Locative, as shown in Table 1, with a corresponding marking system on personal pronouns, as shown in Table 2. Personal pronouns are mainly of two forms: bound forms (analyzed as clitic pronouns by some linguists) and free forms.

Table 1 The Case Marking System in Kavalan (cf. Chang 2000:68)

	Nominative	Accusative/Oblique	Genitive	Locative
Common noun	ya/a	tu	na	ta...an (in/on/at) sa- (to) maq- (from)
Personal Name & Proper Name	ya/a	tu	ni	...an

Table 2 The Personal Pronominal System in Kavalan (cf. Chang 2000:84)

			Bound		Free Form			
			Nom	Gen	Nom	Acc	Loc	Poss
	Number							
1 st	Singular		=iku	-ku	aiku	timaiku	timaiukuan tamaiku	zaku
2 nd			=isu	-su	aisu	timaisu	timaisuan tamaisu	zasu
3 rd			---	-na	aizipna	timaizipana	tamaizipana	zana
1 st	Plural	Incl.	=ita	-ta	aita	timaita	timaitaan tamiata	zaita
1 st		Exc.	=imi	-niq	aimi	timaimi	timainian tamaimi	zaimi
2 nd			=imu	-numi	aimu	timaimu	timaimuan tamaimu	zaimu
3 rd			---	-na	qaniau	qaniau	qaniauan	zana

3.1.2 Previous Studies on Kavalan *tu*

The *tu* marked argument in Kavalan has long been a source of puzzlement and thus a hot debate among Formosanists. Generally speaking, there are three proposals concerning Kavalan transitivity and actancy: a passive analysis (Li 1978; Hsin 1996), a split ergative analysis (Lee 1997; Chang 1997, 2000; Chang & Tsai 2001), and an

ergative analysis (Li 1996; Liao 2002, 2004). The debate is decided on the grammatical status of the marker *tu*. Passive analysis treats the *tu* marked argument in the AF constructions as an accusative object of an active transitive construction but the genitive marked argument in the NAF constructions as a demoted agent. Split analysis treats the *tu* marked argument in the AF construction as an accusative object, and the genitive-marked argument as an agent of the other type of transitive construction.² The ergative analysis treats the *tu* marked argument in the AF constructions an oblique (non-core, or extended core) argument and the genitive marked argument as an agent of a canonical transitive construction.

By employing Dixon and Aikhenvald's (2000) Basic Linguistic Theory and Hopper and Thompson's (1980) theory outlined in Transitivity in Grammar and Discourse, Liao analyzes Kavalan *tu* as an oblique case marker. Therefore, the transitivity of the AF clauses (or *m*- clauses) is closely related to the ergativity of the language. Yet, as pointed out by Ross (2002), 'transitive' has come to be used in at least two different senses: one semantic, the other morphosyntactic. Semantic transitivity derives from the work of Hopper and Thompson (1980) and consists of features of the clause which includes agentivity, perfective aspect, and individuation of the 'Patient'. 'Individuation' includes, among other things, specificity (definiteness).

Inspired by Chang's (2000:68-9) observation that the *tu* marked argument tends to be indefinite, repeated here as (7), Liao pursues the line and claims that the *tu* marked argument is usually indefinite.

² This is what Ross (2002:24) called the *Symmetrical-Voice Hypothesis*: both AF and NAF clauses are transitive.

(7) (data from Chang 2000: 68-69)

a. q-em-al **tu rasung** ya sunis
AF-dig TU well Nom child
“The child is digging a well.”

b. qal-an na sunis **ya rasung**
dig-PF Gen child Nom well
“The/a child dug the well.”³

She argues that since the *tu* marked ‘Patient’ is usually indefinite, the clause is of low transitivity according to Hopper and Thompson’s (1980) semantic criterion of ‘Nonindividuation’ (indefinite); and since it is of low transitivity, it is a non-core argument, and thus, *tu* is an oblique marker. As a matter of fact, as we mention previously, even though the *tu* marked argument tends to be indefinite⁴, there is no substantial evidence, both morphological and syntactic, to support that the marker *tu* is grammaticized as an indefinite marker. Concerning this, Liao also admits that the determination of definiteness of Kavalan noun phrases is based on discourse cues. (Liao 2002: 150, footnote 16)

Though she gives quite a few examples to illustrate the fact that *tu* can mark an indefinite or a nonindividuated theme of a dyadic (or triadic) clause (cf. Liao 2002: 150-1, examples 17-22), she does not give any statistics to show the overall percentage of the indefiniteness of the *tu* marked ‘Patient’. As we may see in (8)–(10), counterexamples are as many as (perhaps outnumber) the examples Liao provides.

³ It is very interesting to note that Liao glosses the genitive marked argument with ‘the/a’, which obviously is against her own argument that genitive marked agent is a core argument, since it is not usually definite. (cf. Liao 2002: 149, example 15)

⁴ The definiteness of the TU marked argument in our narrative texts (four Pear stories and four Frog stories) is as follows:

definite	57 (64.77%)
indefinite	31 (35.33%)

(8) (Kav, 040517_abas, 13)

m-uRing=ti sunis a yau **tu tina-na**
 AF-cry=Pfv child Lin Exist **TU mother-3Sg.Gen**

“The child cries for **his mother**.”⁵

(9) (Kav, 040519_abas, 75)

m-etung ci-abas **tu sunis-na**
 AF-kill Ncm-ABAS **TU child-3Sg.Gen**

“Abas killed **her child**.”

(10) (Kav, Frog_imui2)

12... wiya-ti qanyawu q-em-eRas **tu ... biat a yawu** atu=,_
 leave-Pfv 3Pl.Nom AF-yell **Acc frog Lin that** and
 13... wasu a yawu nani, /
 dog Link that DM

“They went to call that frog, and so did the dog. Then,..”

Furthermore, as pointed out by Ross, crosslinguistically, trivalent verbs usually have three core arguments, as in *I gave the man the apple*, or two core and one oblique, as in *I gave the apple to the man*. Ross contends that he is “not aware of languages that have trivalent verbs with one core and two oblique arguments”. (Ross 2002:30) Therefore, the following Kavalan trivalent clause might have been at odds should the *tu* marked arguments be both oblique.

(11) (Kav, 040519_imui, 44)

t-um-ungaw=iku tu mian tu sunis ‘nay
 AF-deliver=1Sg.Nom TU salt TU child that

“I delivered salt to that child/those children.”

At last, in both Liao (2002) and Liao (2004), she does not touch upon the corresponding personal pronominal arguments at all. Please note the following pair:

⁵ Please note that, like most Formosan languages, the case marking system on both nominals and pronominals in Kavalan does not provide such information as definiteness, gender, and number. Only Atayal (cf. L. Huang 1995), Tsou (cf. S. Huang, and L. Sung 1999; Zaitoun 2000), and Puyuma (cf. L. Huang 2000) specify the definiteness of the case marked nominals and pronominals.

(12) a. (Kav, 040519_abas, 75)

m-etung ci-abas **tu sunis-na**
AF-kill Ncm-ABAS **TU child-3Sg.Gen**

“Abas killed **her child(ren)**.”

b. (Kav, 040519_abas, 76)

m-etung ci-abas **timaisu/timaisuan**
AF-kill Ncm-ABAS **2Sg.Acc/2Sg.Loc**

“Abas killed **you**.”

(13)

a. (Kav, 040519_imui, 12)

m-abuth **tu sunis ‘nay** aizipna
AF-fight **TU child that** 3Sg.Nom

“He is fighting with **that child/those children**.”

b. (Kav, 040519_imui, 13)

m-abuth **timaizipana** ya sunis ‘nay
AF-fight **3Sg.Acc** Nom child that

“That child is fighting with **him/her**.”

If the *tu* marked argument were treated as oblique and the AF clauses (*m-* clauses) intransitive, we could not explain the occurrence of the accusative personal pronominals in the AF construction, as in (12)b and (13)b.

I have no objection in labeling Kavalan *tu* as an ‘Oblique’ marker should these questions thus aroused receive justified accounts.

3.2 Reinterpretation of Kavalan *TU*

In both Liao (2002) and Liao (2004), Liao just lists out the functions and the examples of each distribution of the marker *tu* without providing any account to explain the interrelationship among these various functions (distributions). Putting all the distribution of a marker together without further delineating and explaining the interrelations and, thus, stating that this is an oblique may obscure the real linguistic phenomenon.

It is not uncommon to find a case marker (the form) be used in a wide range of

distributions (functions), as discussed in Comrie (1991) and Blake (2001); perhaps the most widely known is the Dative.⁶ With a limited set of case markers to encode the thematic roles that are varied in type and in amount, it is quite often to observe several distributions (functions) are syncretized in a single formal case crosslinguistically. Therefore, what concerns us here is to delineate the intriguing relations among the various distribution and functions. As pointed out by Comrie, “[w]here a number of distributional cases merge into a single formal case, this implies that these distributional cases have some property in common.” (Comrie 1991:47) In other words, distributional cases can be split into features, so that a given pair of distributional cases may have some features in common.

In Liao (2002:150ff; 2004:232ff) she gives a list of the various distributions of Kavalan *tu*, as summarized below:

- (a) *Tu* marks an indefinite theme of a dyadic *m-* or *-um-* clause
- (b) *Tu* can mark a location noun (a place name or a common location noun)
- (c) *Tu* can mark an (inanimate) actor of a dyadic *-an* clause
- (d) *Tu* can mark a temporal phrase
- (e) *Tu* can mark an instrumental noun
- (f) *Tu* marks a comitative NP
- (g) *Tu* can mark an (inanimate) possessor

Among these functions identified by Liao, our texts shows that (c) and (g) are not acceptable. When the agent is an inanimate actor (very often, an instrument) in the PF clauses (or *-an* clauses), the genitive case marker, *na*, is preferred, as in (14) and (15).

(14) (Kav, 040519_imui, 74)

tnuqiq-an-na	<u>na bul</u>	ya	punuz-ku
pierce-PF-3Sg.Gen	<u>Gen bamboo.stick</u>	Nom	buttock-1Sg.Gen

“The bamboo stick pierced my buttock.”

⁶ Please see the discussions in the two volumes of *The Dative*, eds. by William Van Belle and Willy Van Langendock, 1996, and 1998, published by John Benjamins.

(15) (Kav, 040519_abas, 91)

tnuqiq ***tu / na bul** ya punuz
 AF-pierce ***TU / Gen bamboo.stick** Nom buttock
 “A bamboo stick pierced (his) buttock.”

As to the function (g), it is almost not found in our texts; our texts show that, as in

(16), Kavalan speakers usually use genitive marker, *na*, to mark inanimate possessor.

(16) (Kav, Frog_imui)

72...(1.1) yau qu a yawu ta babaw na paRing nani.\
 Exist owl Lin that Loc above **Gen** tree DM
 “There was an owl on the tree.”

73...me-Retut=ti sunis a yawu suzitan,_
 AF-scared-Pfv child Lin that fall.backward
 “The child was frightened and fell backwards.”

74..si-quling-ti sunis ‘nay nayzi ta= babaw na paRing
 SI-roll-Pfv child that from Loc above **Gen** tree
 “The child rolled down from the tree.”

Moreover, the function (f), comitative reading, is derived from the semantic-pragmatic cues (and the translations), rather than from the morpho-syntactic information, as in (17)-(20).

(17) (Kav, 040519_imui, 66)

m-asawa=imi **tu ‘laq**
 AF-at.war=1Pl.Nom TU other
 “We are at war with others.”

(18) (Kav, 040519_imui, 16)

m-atapun **timaizipana** ya sunis ‘nay
 AF-together 3Sg.Acc Nom child that
 “That child is together with him.”

(19) (Kav, 040407_buya, 52)

me-pukun=iku **tu wasu**
 AF-hit=1Sg.Nom TU dog
 “I hit a/the dog.”

(20) (Kav, 040407_buya, 57)

me-pukun=iku **ci-abas-an**
 AF-hit=1Sg.Nom Ncm-ABAS-Loc

“I hit Abas.”

In addition to the distribution identified in Liao (2002; 2004), we have found other functions of Kavalan *tu* in our texts: as a complementizer and as a discourse marker.

Therefore, we may summarize the distributions of the marker *tu* in our texts below:

- a. *tu* marks the Patient in the AF clauses (*m*- clauses)
- b. *tu* marks the Recipient or Theme in the PF clauses (*-an* clauses)
- c. *tu* marks the location
- d. *tu* marks the temporal
- e. *tu* as a complementizer
- f. *tu* as a discourse marker

Although Liao uses Chang’s observation on the indefiniteness of the *tu* marked argument, she totally ignores Chang’s another important argument that the *tu* marked argument can never be oblique.

As noted in William (1980), oblique arguments cannot serve as obligatory controller:

(21) English (data from Chang 1997:89)

- a. John_i promised Mary [PRO_i to leave].
- b. *Mary was promised by John_i [PRO_i to leave].
- c. John_i struck Mary [PRO_i as pompous].
- d. *Mary was struck by John_i [PRO_i as pompous].

Chang points out that the matrix verb in (22) is marked with AF affix and the direct object of the matrix verb, i.e. ‘that child’, is required to control the reference of the missing subjects (labeled as PRO) in the complement clauses. This suggests that ‘that child’ must remain a direct argument of the matrix verb rather than demoted to an oblique phrase. (Chang 1997:89)

(22) (data from Chang 1997: 89)

a. pawRat tama tu sunis ‘nay [___ q-em-an tu baut]
 force-AF father Acc child that_i PRO_i eat-AF Acc fish
 “Father forced that child to eat fish.”

b. p-um-upup tina-na tu sunis ‘nay [___ m-atiw sa bakung]
 persuade-AF mother-3Sg.Gen Acc child that_i PRO_i AF-go SA Bakung
 “That child’s mother persuaded him to go to Bakung.”

Furthermore, what catches our attention is the syntactic behavior of the corresponding personal pronominals and personal names, as in (23)-(28). When the personal name or personal pronoun is substituted for the *tu* marked nominal, it can take either accusative case or locative case.

(23) (Kav, 040407_buya, 57)

me-pukun=iku ci-abas-an
 AF-hit=1Sg.Nom Ncm-ABAS-Loc
 “I hit Abas.”

(24) (Kav, 040407_buya, 38)

m-etung azipna ci-abas-an
 AF-kill 3Sg.Nom Ncm-ABAS-Loc
 “He killed Abas.”

(25) (Kav, 040519_abas, 76)

m-etung ci-abas timaisu/timaipuan
 AF-kill Ncm-ABAS 2Sg.Acc/2Sg.Loc
 “Abas killed you.”

(26) (Kav, 040519_abas, 21)

bura-an-na=ti ni utay ya hana timaisu/timaipuan
 give-PF-3Sg.Gen=Pfv Gen UTAY Nom flower 2Sg.Acc/2Sg.Loc
 “Utay gave you (a) flower(s).”

(27) (Kav, 040519_imui, 34)

m-Roin=ti tina-ku timaiku/timaikuan
 AF-give.birth.to=Pfv mother-1Sg.Gen 1Sg.Acc/1Sg.Loc
 “My mother gave birth to me.”

(28) (Kav, 040517_abas, 20)

m-tawa=iku **timaisu/timaisuan**
 AF-laugh=1Sg.Nom 2Sg.Acc/2Sg.Loc
 “I laughed at you.”

Therefore, based on the syntactic evidence mentioned above, it is justified to analyze *tu* as an accusative case with locative feature. In various Indo-European case languages the accusative expresses destination as well as direct (and sometimes indirect) object. In Latin, for example, one can say *Misi legatos Romam* (sent. I legates.ACC Rome.ACC) where *legatos* is the direct object and *Romam* a complement expressing destination. (Blake 2001:172) Therefore, it is not uncommon to find the accusative to encode the Theme or the Recipient in a trivalent clauses; this is exactly what we found in our Kavalan texts, as in (29)-(34):

(29) (Kav, 040519_abas, 41)

t-um-ungaw=iku tu beRas ci-abas-an
 AF-deliver=1Sg.Nom TU rice Ncm-ABAS-Loc
 “I delivered rice to Abas.”

(30) (Kav, 040519_abas, 42)

t-um-ungaw=iku tu beRas timaizipana
 AF-deliver=1Sg.Nom TU rice 3Sg.Acc
 “I delivered rice to him.”

(31) (Kav, 040519_abas, 43)

tungaw-an-ku tu beRas ci-abas
 deliver-PF-1Sg.Gen TU rice Ncm-ABAS
 “I delivered rice to Abas.”

(32) (Kav, 040519_abas, 44)

tungaw-an-ku tu beRas aizipna
 deliver-PF-1Sg.Gen TU rice 3Sg.Nom
 “I delivered rice to him.”

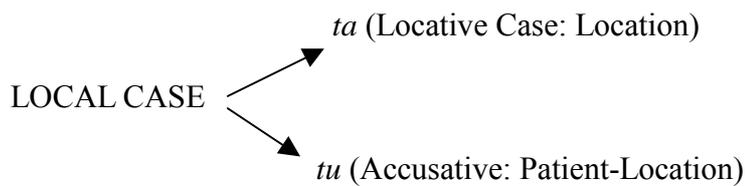
(33) (Kav, 040519_abas, 6)

bura-an-ku=pa tu ‘laq ya taqoq (zau)
 give-PF-1Sg.Gen=Fut TU other Nom chicken (this)
 “I will give this chicken to others.”

(34) (Kav, 040519_abas, 11)

bura-an-ku tu taqoq ya ‘laq ‘nay
 give-PF-1Sg.Gen TU chicken Nom other that
 “I gave (a) chicken(s) to others.”

From the above examples, we can see that either an accusative or a locative personal pronominal can be substituted for the *tu* marked Recipient or Theme; also, the personal name is also marked with the locative suffix *-an*. Such syntactic evidence leads us to hypothesize that Kavalan *tu* is an accusative-locative marker. Though we lack of historical data, it is not unreasonable to hypothesize the local case split into *ta* and *tu* in Kavalan:



This may explain the syntactic behavior of the *tu* marked location. While Liao (2002; 2004) identifies that *tu* can mark a location (both common nouns and proper names), she does not give any explanations, nor does she distinguish the *tu* marked location from the *ta* marked location. As our Kavalan texts reveal, the *tu* marked location is usually the goal of a motion verb, or at the time the inanimate ‘Patient’ which the activity denoted by the verb acts upon, as in (35)-(38) and (42)-(45):

(35) (Kav, Frog_imui)

90...(2.8) m-zaqis **tu,**\
 AF-climb
 91...’nay siRmuq ‘nay sunis ‘nay/
 deer child
 “That child climbed upon the deer.”

(36) (Kav, Frog_imui)

86...t-m-alawma=ti sayza.. **tu=** iza u,
 AF-cross=Pfv maybe something or

- 87... tu iRuR.\
 TU river
 “Maybe to cross something or... a river.”
- (37) (Kav, 040604_imui, 54)
 t-m-uzus=ti ya kubarán tu lamu-na
 AF-reach=Pfv Nom kavalan TU hometown-3Sg.Gen
 “Kavalan reached their hometown.”
- (38) (Kav, 040604_imui, 55)
 t-m-uzus=ti ya kubarán ta-lamu-an-na
 reach=Pfv Nom kavalan Loc-hometown-Loc-3Sg.Gen
 “Kavalan reached their hometown.”

Nevertheless, when it refers to the indigenous Location, e.g. the place where some activity takes place (say, swimming or sleeping), the selection of the marker *tu* may result in ungrammaticality, as in (39) and (41):

- (39) (Kav, 040606_imui, 27)
 m-nangui=iku **ta-lazing-an** /***tu lazing**
 AF-swim=1Sg.Nom **Loc-sea-Loc** /* **TU sea**
 “I swim in the sea.”
- (40) (Kav, 040604_imui, 20)
 m-aynep=iku **ta-zna-an-ku**
 AF-sleep=1Sg.Nom **Loc-field-Loc-1Sg.Gen**
 “I sleep in my field.”
- (41) (Kav, 040604_imui, 18)
 *m-aynep=iku **tu zna**
 AF-sleep=1Sg.Nom **TU field**
 “I sleep in my field.”
- (42) (Kav, 040604_imui, 30)
 m-Risiu=iku **tu paRing**
 AF-fell=1Sg.Nom **TU tree**
 “I fell trees.”
- (43) (Kav, 040604_imui, 31)
 m-Risiu=iku **ta-paRing-an**
 AF-fell-1Sg.Nom **Loc-tree-Loc**
 “I fell trees.”
- (44) (Kav, 040604_imui, 4)
 glawglaway ci-abas **ta-zna-an**
 AF-work Ncm-ABAS **Loc-field-Loc**
 “Abas works in the field.”

(45) (Kav, 040604_imui, 17)

glawglaway=iku tu zna
 work=1Sg.Nom **TU field**
 “I work in the field.”

When someone fells trees, trees are the ‘Patient’ as well as the ‘Location’ where the activity takes place; the same is also applicable to the activity of ‘working in the field; doing the farming’. As pointed out by Blake (2001:172), in all of these examples of local forms extending their range to cover syntactic relations, “the redundancy that arises from lexical choices plays a part”.

In our texts, we also found several cases where the marker *tu* marks temporal argument, as in (46). Such a usage won’t surprise us too much shall we treat *tu* as an Accusative with Locative feature, since as pointed out by Blake (2001:180), it is quite easy for a local case to extend its usage to cover temporal domain.

(46) (Kav, Frog_imui2)

6...(0.8) nani tita-an na .. qanyawu **tu... taRbabi,**
 DM see-PF Gen 3Pl.Nom **TU1 morning**
 “Then they saw in the morning.”
 7...tita-an na sunis ‘nay **tu taRbabi,**
 see-PF Gen child that **TU1 morning**
 “That child saw in the morning.”

Last, from our texts, we have identified the marker *tu* be used as a complementizer, as in (47)-(49), and as a discourse marker, as in (50):

(47) (Kav, Frog_imui2)

53...(1.0) Rayngu-an-na tu=...’nay= ...iza sayza u ‘nay=... ruqanaw
 not.know-PF-3Sg.Gen **TU** that something maybe or that tiger
 Rana ‘nay siRemuq...’nay=
 FS that deer that

54...(1.2) ni-imet-an-na ay nani,
 NI-touch-AN-3Sg.Gen RV DM

“He didn’t know what he touched was (something or) a deer.”

(48) (Kav, Frog_imui2)

57...Rayngu-an-na **tu=**.siRemuq sayza paRing zin-na,
 not.know-PF-3Sg.Gen TU deer maybe tree say-3Sg.Gen

“He didn’t know it was a deer and thought it may be a piece of wood.”

(49) (Kav, Frog_imui2)

2...(1.6) biat ‘nay **tu..** ni-qulu-an-na ta- ... peRasku-an ... nani,
 frog that TU2 NI-breed-AN3Sg.Gen Loc-bottle-Loc DM

“There is a child seeing the frog raised in the bottle. Then,”

(50) (Kav, Frog_imui2)

11...wasu a yawu.. ta-peRasku-an.. ‘nay quRu-na.. **tu.**\
 dog Link that Loc-bottle-Loc that head-3Sg.Gen DM

“The dog stuffed his head into the bottle.”

...

37...(0.8) **tu=.** yau-ti sunis ‘nay .. t-em-uqaz pasazi ta=.\
 DM exist-Pfv child that AF-go_up toward_here Loc-

38...(1.2) ta-bunguR-an na na= paRing ‘nay.\
 Loc-root-Loc Gen Gen tree that

“That child climbed the tree from the roots.”

In her study on the clausal complements in Paiwan, Tang (1997:8) also reports that Paiwan *tu* may be said to mark a tensed clausal complement as Accusative. As stated in Noonan (1985), complementizers are found to be derived historically from pronouns, conjunctions, adpositions or case markers; therefore, Tang contends that, “[t]aking into consideration all the Paiwan data with *tu* discussed so far, we claim that *tu* with the object noun phrase acts as Accusative marker, while that with the finite clausal complement serves as complementizer.” (1997:18)

It is generally agreed that semantic cases, especially local cases, can expand their territory and come to cover syntactic relations such as direct object, thereby becoming grammatical cases; e.g. the Latin preposition *ad* ‘to’ is reflected in Spanish as *a*, as shown in (51) to (52):

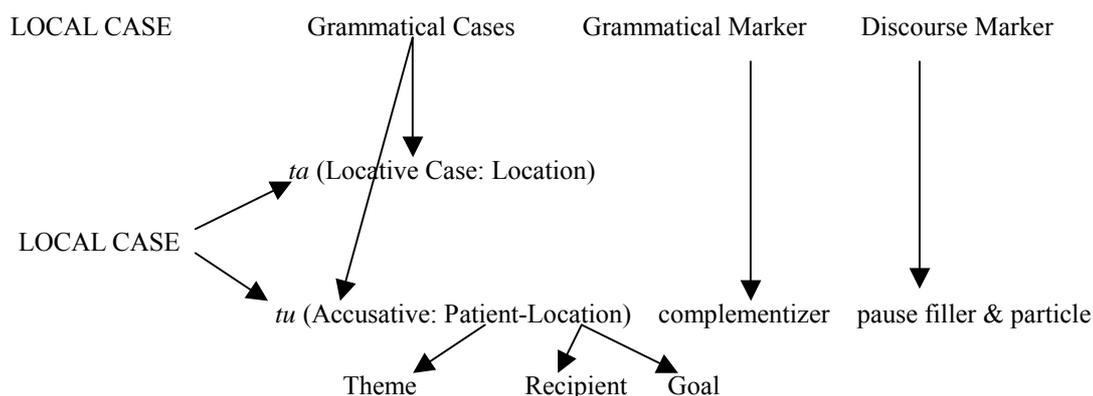
(51) (data from Blake 2001:17-1)

Juan vuelve a so hotel
 Juan return.3Sg. to his hotel
 “Juan returns to his hotel.”

(52) Le explique el caso a mi hermano
 3Sg.IO explain.PAST.3Sg. the case to my brother
 “He explained the matter to my brother.”

(53) Vi a mi hermano
 saw.1Sg. A my brother
 “I saw my brother.”

In sum, we may use the following diagram to illustrate the interrelationship among the various functions of the marker *tu*:



3.3 Concluding Remarks

In the first part of this paper, we have demonstrated the oblique analysis of Kavalan *tu* is not an optimal analysis when taking into consideration such factors as the determination and the degree of the definiteness of the *tu* marked arguments and the morpho-syntactic evidence. The definiteness is determined by the pragmatic inference, rather than by the case marker per se. When the same criterion set by Liao (2002; 2004) applies to the genitive marked argument in the PF clauses (-an clauses), the PF clauses is not at all canonical transitive construction, since the genitive marked

argument in the PF clauses (-an clauses) is not always definite. However, many Formosanists, including Liao (2002; 2004), take it for granted to regard it as a core argument.

Since it is not uncommon for a formal case to be used in a wide range of distributions (the functions), we have managed to explain the various functions of the marker *tu* in the second part of this paper, by identifying its core function as an Accusative-Locative.

Of course, we do not solve all the problems in this small paper, particularly with the personal pronominal system. For example, there are two variants of the locative personal pronoun; we still do not know whether they are free variations or there are any restrictions in selecting each variant. Also, in some of the trivalent clauses, the Recipient can take Nominative, Accusative or Locative case, when it is in pronominal form, as in (54) and (55):

- (54) pa-liway-an-ku tu qelisiu-ku aisu/timaisu/timaisuan
 PA-borrow-PF-1Sg.Gen TU money-1Sg.Gen 2Sg.Nom/2Sg.Acc/2Sg.Loc
 “I lent you my money.”
- (55) bura-an-ku aizipna/timaizipana ya taqoq
 give-PF-1Sg.Gen 3Sg.Nom/3Sg.Acc Nom chicken
 “I gave him (a) chicken(s).”

This paper may open up more questions than what are answered; however, we think it is on the right track to delineate the various functions of the marker *per se* before we make any claim on it.

Chapter Four Deixis

4.0 Introduction

Deixis refers to how speakers indicate personal, spatial and temporal relation between themselves and the outside world. To this issue, one task for descriptive linguistic studies is to find out specific linguistic forms (deitics) used in deitic expressions in specific language, and furthermore to discuss how much information are coded in this language. In this chapter, we focus on the referential usage of lexical deixis. Except for presenting the paradigmatic sets of deitics in Kavalan, we will also illustrate how these deitics are used in actual narrative data.

4.1 Person deictics

There are two sets of pronominal form in Kavalan: bound form and free form, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Pronominal system in Kavalan (Chang, Yung-Li 2000:84)

		bound form		free form			
person	Number	Nom	Gen	Nominative	Accusative	locative	possessive
1	singular	iku	ku	aiku	timaiku	timaikuan tamaiku	zaku
2	singular	isu	su	aisu	timaisu	timaisuan tamaisu	zasu
3	singular	---	na	aizipna	timaizipana	tamaizipana	zana
1	plural(inclusive)	ita	ta	aita	timaita	timaitaan tamaita	zata
1	plural(exclusive)	imi	niq	aimi	timaimi	timaimian tamaimi	zaimi
2	plural	imu	numi	aimu	timaimu	timaimuan tamaimu	zaimu
3	plural	---	na	qaniau	qaniau	qaniauan	zana

Based on Chang (1997), in Kavalan, genitive bound pronouns differ from

nominative bound pronouns in distribution. Genitive bound pronouns, in his study, are identified as agreement affixes, and nominative bound pronouns behave like pronominal clitics. The distribution is summarized as follows (Chang 1997:120):

1. Nominative bound pronouns can adjoin to preverbal elements while genitive bound pronouns must remain with the main verbs.
2. In some cases, nominative bound pronouns can either remain with the main verbs or adjoin to the preverbal elements. This option is, however, not open to genitive bound pronouns.
3. Genitive bound pronouns must precede tense/aspect marker markers, which in turn must precede nominative bound pronouns.
4. Genitive bound pronouns are more selective as to their hosts than nominative bound pronouns: the former can only attach to NAV verbs while the latter can attach to either NAV or AV verbs.
5. Genitive bound pronouns may have peculiar phonological forms while nominative bound pronouns always occur in regular forms.

Chang (1997, 2000) clearly illustrates the distribution of bound pronoun. However, his discussion is rather restricted to clausal level. For a deixis study, we need to focus on discourse. In languages and interaction, 1st and 2nd person pronouns are usually presumed that they have implicit pointing references: 1st personal pronoun refers to Speaker, and 2nd personal pronoun refers to Addressee. As to the 3rd person nouns, to understand how they are correlated with the pronominals, and how these pronominals are used, we need to investigate their interaction in actual context.

Table 2 is a discourse-based observation of pronouns and bound pronouns attaching to verbs. The data are collected from two retelling narratives after watching a film *Pear*, and from two narrations about a story in the comic book ‘Frog, where are you?’ These four narratives can be used to investigate the anaphoric and cataphoric phenomena.

Based on Chang’s (2000, 1997) description, in AF clauses, there should be only

nominative bound pronoun attaching to verb, and in NAF clauses, genitive bound pronouns obligatorily occur, because it is agreement to the genitive cased actor. Therefore, we expect that the distribution of bound pronouns is different in AF and NAF clause. In addition, according to Table 1, since there is no bound form for 3rd person nominative pronoun, most of the ‘bound pronouns’ in Table 2 refer to 3rd genitive pronoun. The ‘full NP’ in Table 2 only refers to the NP expected to co-reference with bound pronouns on verb. In addition, Kavalan pronouns are basically [+human]; in the four narrations, the clausal patients are mostly related to [-human] animal or object. Therefore, the oblique marked patients in AF clauses and the nominative patient in NAF clause are not investigated in Table 2. ‘verb alone’ refers to verbs without any attached bound pronoun, and without any expected free pronoun or full NP.

Table 2 Occurrence patterns of bound and free pronouns in verbs

Agent/Subject		Frog_imui	Frog_buya	Pear_imui	Pear_buya	total
Verb alone	AF	23	23	7	18	71
	NAF	2	5	0	1	8
Verb + bound pron	AF	0	2	0	3	5
	NAF	6	12	8	22	48
Verb + Free pron	AF	2	4	0	1	7
	NAF	0	0	0	0	0
bound & free pron co-occur	AF	0	0	0	0	0
	NAF	1	0	1	3	5
Verb + Full NP	AF	40	14	6	10	70
	NAF	6	0	0	0	6
bound & full NP co-occur	AF	0	0	0	0	0
	NAF	8	3	2	2	15
total		88	63	24	60	235
	AF	65	43	13	32	153
	NAF	23	20	11	28	82

Since these four narrations all focus on plot description, 1st person, referring to the speaker, and 2nd person, referring to the narrative data collector, are basically not mentioned. In AF clauses, there are 5 clauses (5/153= 3.27%) with only a bound pronoun (excerpt 1). They are all 1st person nominative bound pronouns, used in a direct quotation for describing a thought of one character in the story line. The frequency meets our prediction. On the other hand, in AF clauses, there are 7 (7/153=4.57%) free pronouns co-occur with verb without any bound pronoun. (excerpt 2) These free pronouns, as expected, are all 3rd person plural nominative pronouns.

(1) tuqaz-pa-**iku** ’nay k-em-i-kirim zin-na
 AF-go_up-Fut-1S.Nom that AF-Red-find say-3S.Gen
 ‘He said, “I will go up to look for (the frog).’ (Frog_buya:60)

(2) wiya-ti.. **qanyawu..** tangi (Frog_imui:112)
 leave-Pfv 3Pl.Nom now
 ‘They left.’

The most frequent pattern occurring in AF clauses are verbs without both attached bound pronoun and co-reference nominative free pronoun (71/153=46.41%). In texts these verbs are usually motion verbs or intransitive verbs, and their nominative NPs are usually occurs in zero. (excerpt 3) These nominative NPs have high topicality, so they usually occur in zero. The second frequent pattern occurring in AF clauses are a full noun co-occurring with a bare AF verb without any bound pronoun attaching to (70/153=45.75%). (excerpt 4) Comparing to the pattern occurring with only a bare verb, the frequency is very close. From the frequency, we can conclude that in narratives, the nominative NPs prefer to occur either in zero or in full NP. Free pronoun is not preferred, except for they refers to plural referents.

- (3) ...wiya-ti.. qanyawu.. tangi (Frog_imui:112-113)
 leave-Pfv 3Pl.Nom now
 ...**(0.9) s-em-aqay.**
 AF-walk
 ‘They left, and walked away.’

- (4) wiya-ti wasu ’nay o.
 leave.PFv dog that Interjection
 ‘The dog left.’

In NAF clauses, there is not any nominative bound pronoun found to attach to verb. This can be attributed to no nominative form for 3rd person in Kavalan. The most frequent pattern is verb attached with a genitive bound pronoun and without a co-reference full noun (49/82=59.76%). (excerpt 5) The second most frequently occurring pattern is that the genitive bound pronoun co-occurs with its coreferring full NP. (excerpt 6) The frequency shows in NAF clauses, Kavalan speakers prefer to use a genitive bound pronoun rather than a genitive free pronoun. If a verb without a genitive bound pronoun, than the coreferencing genitive free pronoun is also not present (in Table 2, the frequency is zero). As to Chang’s claim (1997): the genitive bound pronoun on NAF verbs is agreement, in Table 2, there are still 8 cases (8/153=5.22%) where neither genitive bound pronoun nor the co-referential free pronoun occur. (excerpt 6) As shown in excerpt 6, the genitive pronoun occurs in zero form because they have high topicality.

- (5) ...**(1.0)pa-zaqis-an-na** uman t-em-anan (Pear_imui:22)
 Cau-take-PF-3S.Gen again AF-return
 ‘He put (the basket on the bicycle) again and was on his way home.’

- (6) ...tita-an-na yau penay ’nay nani
 see-PF-3S Exist bee thay DM
sinunung-an benay ’nay
 along-PF bee that

‘The saw bees (and) follow the bees.’

To sum up, based on Table 2, in Kavalan narratives, for more topical agent or subject, pronoun are less preferred patterns for deitic expression. In a total of 235 clauses, only 80 (80/235=34.04%) clauses occur with either bound pronoun or free pronoun. Zero or full pronouns are more frequently present in narrative texts. In NAF clauses, genitive bound pronoun, which indicates an agent in clause, occurs frequently. This outcome doesn’t only show the tendency that genitive bound pronouns in NAF clauses function grammatical agreement to actor, it also displays that genitive bound pronoun plays important role for anaphoric function to co-reference with a noun mentioned in previous discourse.

4.2 Nominal demonstratives indicating people and objects

In Kavalan, there are two pairs of nominal demonstratives indicating people or objects in discourse, as shown in Table 3. Except for their location in clauses a bit different, they are similar in function.

Table 3 Nominal Demonstratives in Kavalan

Distance	Proximate	remote
	<i>zau</i> ‘this’	<i>'nay</i> ‘that’
	<i>a zawu</i> ‘this’	<i>a yawu</i> ‘that’

These nominal demonstratives usually occur on the left of a noun. *zau* ‘this’ and *'nay* ‘that’ also appear in pre-nominal position in discourse. In our corpus data, the nominal demonstratives always appear in an NP with a noun. These nominal demonstratives tend not to represent a full NP. (excerpt 7 and excerpt 8)

(7) Raytunuz a wasu **a yawu** tu siRemuq **a yawu**
 bark Nom dog that Obl deer that

‘The dog barked to the deer.’ (Frog_imui: 116-117)

- (8) masang nani yau usiq sunis **'nay** atu wasu-na
 before DM Exist one child that and dog-3S.gen
 ‘Long time age, there is a child and a dog.’ (Frog_buya:1)

Based on our discourse corpus data, a noun co-occur either with a nominal demonstrative, as *sunis 'nay* in excerpt 8, or a genitive suffix, as *wasu-na* in excerpt 8. There is no single noun present alone in discourse. Even in narrative initial, as shown in excerpt 8, a newly present noun also needs to co-occur with a nominal demonstrative.

4.3 Deitic morpheme *-zi-* and *-zui-* in spatial expressions

-zi and *-zui* are morphemes usually attaching to local or directional predicates related to deitic spatial expressions. They denote a speaker-centered description to a reference point. *-zi* can be roughly interpreted as ‘here’, indicating a location is near the speaker, and *-zui* can be roughly interpreted as ‘there’, indicating a location is far from the speaker (excerpt 9, excerpt 10, excerpt 11).

- (9)a. ni-zi-ka mara (fieldnotes)
 things_be_here-Imp AF-take
 ‘Take (all) things here.’

- (10)a. meqa-zi-iku matiw ci buya-an (fieldnotes)
 from-here-1S.Nom AF-reach CI PN-Loc
 ‘I moved from this place to Buya’s place.’

- b. meqa-zui-iku matiw ci buya-an (fieldnotes)
 from-there-1S.Nom AF-reach Ci PN-Loc
 ‘I moved from that place to Buya’s place.’

- (16) ta-zi-an ta-pa-paRin-an mazmum.. muaza paRin **ta(w)ian** nani
here Loc-Red-tree-Loc FS many tree there DM
‘There are lots of trees in the forest.’

To sum up, *-zi* and *-zui* are morphemes usually appearing in spatial deitics. *-zi* indicates a spatial relation near speaker or certain reference point. On the contrary, *-zui* represents a location far from speaker or certain reference point.

4.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, we discuss the function and distribution of various deitics, including personal pronouns, nominal demonstratives and two spatial deitic morphemes. Based on corpus investigation, personal pronouns are not the first preferred patterns Kavalan speakers intend to use in discourse, although in NAF clauses, the genitive bound pronouns reflect an agreement relation to the clausal actor. As to nominal demonstratives, we noticed that all object nouns appearing in our discourse data co-occur either with a nominal demonstratives or a genitive bound pronoun indicating a possessive relation. In Kavalan, there are two morphemes *-zi* and *-zui* often appearing in deitic expressions to indicate a spatial relation to a speaker or a reference point. Their functions and behaviors in discourse need further investigation.

Chapter Five Spatial Language in Kavalan

5.0 Introduction

Space, spatial reference, or most specifically spatial representation in language has become a well-attended and frequently-researched topic over the recent two decades in Cognitive Linguistics as well as other Cognitive sciences. Among the many reasons to study spatial language, Levinson (2003) points out two of the most crucial importance. One is the established fact that space, or spatial thinking, plays a central role in human cognition. This is evidenced by the tremendous number of cross-domain spatial metaphors across languages. The other is that language as a communication systems provides us with the access to the inner world of spatial concepts where are difficult, if not impossible, to investigate by mere observation of other human behaviors.

Although space is a universally valid conceptual domain, spatial reference, or to some degree spatial thinking, has been shown heterogeneous across languages. Almost all research papers dealing with spatial language refers the literature back to Talmy (1985, 1991, 2000), who analyzes a Motion event into a Core-event consisting of Figure, Motion, Path, and Ground, and a Co-event that bears various relations to the Core-event, such as Manner, Cause, etc., as schematized below.

(1) The Motion event schema (Talmy 1985, 1991, 2000):

[Figure Motion Path Ground] Internal Core-event	[Relation] External Co-event
Move	Manner
BE _{LOC}	Cause
	Enablement

Languages are thus classified as either Verb-framed or Satellite-framed ones according to “event integration”, that is, what grammatical category (verb or satellite) the Path information is integrated into. The Talmian bipartite typology has since generated a considerable cross-linguistic research on Motion events. As the empirical data accumulate, however, the dichotomy turns out to be untenable, or at least problematic. Huang (2001), for instance, unsatisfied with the current typology, analyzes Tsou, a Formosan language, as a Macro-event language since Path and Manner together constitute a conceptual complex in Tsou. Moreover, Slobin (2004) also proposes a new category for the Motion-event typology, named Equipollently-framed languages where Path and Manner are expressed by equivalent grammatical forms.

More recently, Huang & Tanangkingsing (2004) endeavor to construct a semantic typology of the reference to Motion events by investigating the six Western Austronesian (WAn) languages, namely, Malay, Cebuano, Tagalog, Saisiyat, Tsou, and Sqliq Atayal, with the latter three being also Formosan languages. They suggest that Path and Manner be viewed as two perpendicular continua of saliency whereby a given language occupies a particular pair of coordinates. This macroscopic view of event integration seems to exhibit significant potential for the research on spatial reference, especially in Austronesian languages. This paper is thus intended to continue their research by adding one more piece, namely Kavalan, to the puzzle of spatial reference in WAn languages. More specifically, assuming the guidelines they lie down for future research, we shall pay more attention to the preferred construction type in real discourse, the collaboration/competition between manner and path components in constructing an integrated Motion event, and most importantly the distribution of Motion-event components among different form classes of the language system. Additionally, for straightforward comparison with other languages,

particular scenes in the Frog story will also be inspected, including the Owl's exit, falling events, and the "cliff scene".

5.1 Methodology

The data examined in this present study are a corpus of five narratives of the Frog story (Mayer 1969) by four adult native speakers of Kavalan. After elicitation, all narratives were then transcribed into intonation units (IUs) based on Du Bois (1993). The span of time and the number of IU's of each narrative were calculated in Table 1.

Table 1: Time and IU's across five narratives

Narratives	Time	Total IU's
(buya)	3' 55"	105
(imui)	9'01"	168
(imui2)	5'30"	91
(syuran)	3'48"	78
(Raciang)	5'05"	42
Total	27'19"	484

5.2 Results

In this section we shall investigate the way Kavalan refers to space in Frog Narratives in terms of (a) the lexicalization patterns of Motion verbs, (b) the morphosyntactic patterns of Motion components, (c) the way the owl's emergence is described (the Owl's Exit), (d) percentages of Ground specifications, and finally (e) the event granularity in the "cliff scene".

5.2.1 *The lexicalization patterns of Motion verbs*

In the Frog Corpus four lexicalization types of Motion verbs were identified, namely Path verbs, Manner verbs, Deictic-Path verbs, and Cause-of-Motion verbs. Deictic-Path verbs, as indicated by its name, refer to a specific kind of Path verbs that

take into consideration the location of the speaker. All the types and tokens found were listed in Table 2. An unequivocal trend is that Path verbs outnumber the total of the other three types not only in types (26 vs. 19) but also in tokens (123 vs. 79). When it comes to token-type ratio, however, Manner verbs turn out to lead ahead, though rather moderately, with Deictic-Path verbs coming next, as shown in Table 3.

The moderately high token-type ratio of Manner verbs may seem less surprising if we highlight the role played by the large number of one-token Path verbs, which increases the denominator of the token-type ratio for Path verbs without augmenting the numerator to a significant number. This explains why the token-type ratio for Path verbs is not the greatest. Another perspective to interpret the result can be achieved by adopting a broader definition of Path and Manner verbs. That is, Path and Deictic-Path verbs constitute Macro-path verbs while Manner and Cause-of-Motion verbs together represent Macro-manner verbs. The latter category as a whole is motivated since both Manner and Cause-of-Motion are components in the Co-event that bear certain relations to the Core-event. The macro-definition adopted, it is the token-type ratio of Macro-path verbs that is higher, rather than that of Macro-manner ones, as calculated in Table 4. Despite of the different corpora used, this outcome approximately corresponds to that in a previous study (Lee 2003), which is repeated here in Table 5.

Table 2: Types and tokens of Motion-event verbs in Frog Narratives

Path verbs			Manner verbs		
t-em-ibuq	‘descend’	22	t-em-anuz	‘chase’	12
m-zaqis	‘ascend’	18	m-RaRiw	‘run’	11
wiya	‘leave’	18	m-quring	‘roll’	4
m-zukat	‘exit’	11	m-nanguy	‘swim’	3
nizi/nayzi	‘move from’	7	s-em-aqay	‘walk’	2
susuR/qaysuR	‘enter’	6	t-em-anbaseR	‘fly’	1
t-em-uqaz	‘ascend’	6	Deictic-Path verbs		
suzitang	‘fall backwards’	4	pasazi	‘move toward here’	17
maseq	‘reach’	4	m-atiw	‘go’	5
t-em-anan	‘return’	3	syazi	‘get here’	3
situRku	‘look down’	3	m-autu	‘come’	2
t-em-arawma	‘cross’	3	pasazui	‘move toward there’	2
situqaw	‘look up’	2	maqzi	‘go from here’	1
m-suRaw	‘stumble’	2	Cause-of-Motion verbs		
m-raziw	‘pass’	2	ara	‘drag out’	6
sa-na’ung	‘go to the mountains’	2	baksiw	‘cast’	3
m-rusit	‘exit’	1	pamuqu	‘shoulder’	2
m-taboq	‘fall over’	1	azas	‘bring’	1
sinunung	‘move along’	1	baba	‘carry on the back’	1
m-asuat	‘get up’	1	isis	‘hold up’	1
m-asengat	‘rise’	1	warin	‘throw away’	1
kurikuz	‘follow’	1	wuzung	‘shoulder’	1
sya-rubu	‘enter the den’	1			
sya-qazqaz	‘reach the coastline’	1			
pasa-qazqaz	‘move towards the coastline’	1			
pasa-libeng	‘move towards the ground’	1			

Table 3: Token-type ratio of Motion-event verbs in Frog Narratives

Verb types	Types	Tokens	Token/type	Percentages of independent use
Path verbs	26	123	4.7	87%
Manner verbs	6	33	5.5	73%
Deictic-Path verbs	6	30	5.0	17%
Cause-of-Motion verbs	7	16	2.3	94%
Total	45	202	4.5	73%

Table 4: Token-type ratio of Macro-path and Macro-manner verbs in Frog Narratives

Verb type	Types	Tokens	Token/type
Macro-path verbs	32	153	4.8
Macro-manner verbs	13	49	3.8

(Where Macro-path refers to Path plus Deictic-path and Macro-manner to Manner plus Cause-of-Motion)

Table 5: Verb types and tokens in the six Kavalan narratives. Lee (2003: 72)

	Type	Token	Type/Token
V[path]	16	75	4.69
V[manner]	6	20	3.33
V[manner+path]	5	12	2.4

5.2.2 Morphosyntactic patterns of motion components in Frog Narratives

In a Kavalan Motion event, both components in the Core-event, such as Path and Ground, and those in the Co-event, such as Manner and Cause, are realized as verbs. For illustration, (2) is an elicited sentence, where every Motion-event component is underlined and labeled. In spite of the acceptability of (2), sentences like this are in fact quite rare in real discourse, not only as a consequence of pragmatic inference but also due to the psychologically heavy information thus conveyed.

- (2) *m-nanap*[Manner] *sunis* 'nay[Figure] *nizi* *ta-repaw-an-ku*[Source]
 AF-climb_on_all_four_limbs child that from Loc-house-Loc-1stSg.Gen
m-zukat[Path] *m-autu*[Deictic-Path] *ci-abas-an*[Goal]
 AF-exit AF-come CI-PN-Loc
 'The child came climbing out on all four limbs from my house to Abas' place.'

Since the order and co-occurrence of different Motion-event components are extremely flexible, it is worthwhile to learn what morphosyntactic patterns there exist in Frog Narratives. The following are the seven types of morphosyntactic patterns identified among the 155 Motion-event clauses.

A. P#M

The Path verb that precedes a Manner verb is predominantly *wiya* ‘leave’, a highly frequent Path verb (only second to *t-em-ibuq* ‘descend’), as shown in (3).

- (3) *wiya-ti* *m-RaRiw*
 leave-Pfv AF-run
biyat a yau m-rusit-ti nani
 frog Link that AF-exit-Pfv DM
 ‘That frog ran away. It escaped’ (frog_Raciang IU 30~31)

It is speculated that the verb *wiya*, or its variant *wi*, has undergone some degree of grammaticalization on account of its different senses attested. First, *wi(ya)* is independently used as a verb that means “leave”, as in (4).

- (4) a. *Ru-qa-wi-iku,* *mawtu-ti ayzipna*
 Incho-QA-WI-1stSg.Nom come-Pfv 3rdSg.Nom
 ‘As soon as I left, he came.’
 b. *qena-wiya-an-ku,* *may-ti ma-sinap repaw ‘nay*
 QENA-WIYA-LF-1stSg.Gen Neg-Pfv PF-clean house Dem
 ‘The house has not been cleaned ever since I left.’ (Fieldnote)

Second, it is collocated with Motion-event verbs to mean “away”, as illustrated in (5).

- (5) a. *wiya-ti* *m-ultiq*
 WIYA-Pfv AF-jump
 ‘(She/he/it) jumped away.’
 b. *wiya-ti* *t-em-anbaseR*
 WIYA-Pfv AF-fly
 ‘It fled away.’ (Fieldnote)

Third, more interestingly it also denotes the increasingly amplifying degree of a certain state of affairs when followed by static verbs, as seen in (6), where an aspectual meaning seems to be developing.

- (6) a. *wiya-ti* *Raya uzan*
 WIYA-Pfv great rain
 ‘The rain is getting heavier and heavier.’
- b. *siangatu-iku* *m-rizaq nani, wiya-ti-iku* *m-rizaq*
 begin-1stSg.Nom AF-like DM WIYA-Pfv-1stSg.Nom AF-like
 ‘Once I fell in love with her, my love for her has been getting stronger.’
 (Fieldnote)

Therefore, we believe the “*wiya+V*” pattern is a handy construction not only for describing a Motion-event heading steadily away from the conceptualizer but also for depicting an increasingly stronger state of affairs.

B. M#P

While Path verbs that precede Manner verbs scarcely convey the Ground information, those that follow mostly do, as shown in (7). Thus, pre-Manner Path verbs are semantically different from post-Manner ones.

- (7) a... *si-quling-ti* *sunis* ‘*nay nayzi ta-babaw na paRin.* \
- SI-roll-Pfv child that from Loc-top Gen tree
 ‘The child rolled down from the tree.’ (frog_imui IU 74)
- b. *..yau-ti* ‘*na=y ... (1.2) ’na=y penay t-em-anuz ... sa-na-nawung.* \
- Exist-Pfv that that bee AF-chase to-Red-mountain
 ‘The bees are chasing (the dog) up to the mountains.’ (frog_buya IU 57)

C. D#P

The Deictic-Path verb that precedes a Path verb is nearly always *matiw/qatiw* ‘go’, with both AF and NAF constructions available for this pattern, as shown in (8a) and (8b) respectively.

- (8) a. *iza m-atiw sa-izau sa-na'ung*
 that AF-go to-that to-mountain
 ‘(They) went to the mountains.’ (frog_Raciang IU 53)
- b. *...qatiw-an-na m-zaqis na sunis a yaw paRin a yaw nani.*
 go-LF-3rd.Gen AF-climb 3rd.Gen child Link that tree Link that DM
 ‘The child went climbing up the tree.’ (frog_Raciang IU 70)

D. P#D

Of the seven morphosyntactic patterns, Path verbs followed by Deictic-Path ones are the most frequent, as shown in (9). In fact all instances of this pattern assume the construction schematized in (10).

- (9) a. *...t-em-ibuq ta-kaykayris-an t-em-ibuq pasazui ta-zanum tu,*
 fall-AF-fall Loc-cliff-Loc fall-AF-fall toward_there Loc-water DM
 ‘(They) fell away from the cliff. (They) fell towards the water there’
 (frog_RaciangIU 106)
- b. *...(1.0) yau wasu 'nay situqaw pasazi ta-babaw-an*
 Exist dog that look_up toward_here Loc-top-Loc
na paRin, /
 3rd.Gen tree
 ‘The dog is looking up at the top of the tree.’ (frog_imui IU 61)
- (10) The construction for P#D:
 V[path] + pasazi/pasazui + ta-X-an

It is worth pointing out that although *pasazi* and *pasazui* denote a deictic meaning when used in isolation they are more like a “direction particle” when followed by the *ta-X-an* locative construction. The case is more obvious for *pasazi* than for *pasazui*, since the former is predominately favored over the latter in the present corpus (with only one token for *pasazui*). In addition, the deictic reading of *pasazi* is deprived all the same even when it surfaces as the only verb in a clause, as demonstrated in (11).

- (11) *...(1.7) pasazi-pa ta-naw-nawung-an sayza ya.*
 toward_here-Fut Loc-Red-mountain-Loc maybe Int

‘(They) probably went toward the mountains.’ (frog_imui IU 114)

E. M#D

Similar to the previous pattern is a Manner verb followed by a Deictic-Path one, though much lower in its frequency of use, as shown in (12). Consequently, the construction in (10) can thus be generalized into (13).

(12) a....(0.9) *s-em-aqay maqzi tazian qanyawu sayza tangi, /*
AF-walk from_here here 3rdPl.Nom maybe now

‘Now they probably walked from here.’ (frog_imui IU 115)

b. ... *ta-libeng wasu a yaw qaya me-quling-ti, /*
Loc-bottom dog Link that also AF-roll-Pfv

.. *pasazi ta-libeng-an. *
toward_here Loc-bottom-Loc

‘The dog also fell down.’ (frog_imui IU 131~132)

(13) The construction for P/M#D:

V[path]/V[manner] + pasazi/pasazui/maqzi + ta-X-an

F. P#P

A Path verb can be followed by another, with one of them carrying Ground information, as shown below.

(14) ..*nani me-zukat qaniau sa-tati. *
DM AF-exit 3Pl.Nom to-outside

‘Then they went outdoors.’ (frog_buya IU 31)

G. P#C

The last as well as the less frequent (only one token) morphosyntactic pattern is a Path verb followed by a Cause-of-Motion verb, as shown in (15). The extremely low frequency of use of this pattern is understandable since the tokens of Cause-of-Motion are limited in the first place.

- (15) ... (1.1) *m-Ratuq-ti sayza ya siRmuq a yau,* \
- AF-frighten-Pfv probably Nom deer Link that
- wiya-ti azas-an-na XXX sunis a yau,* \
- leave-Pfv carry-LF-3rd.Gen child Link that
- ‘That deer was probably frightened, so it carried away that child.’
- (frog_Raciang IU 89~92)

To summarize, the percentages of the morphosyntactic patterns of the motion components in Kavalan, along with other six WAn languages plus Mandarin, Frog narratives are tabularized in Table 6, where languages are ordered in a decreasing manner of the percentage of Path verbs. Note that here a macro view of Manner and Path verbs is adopted in order to adapt to the categorizations in Huang and Tanangkingsing (2004). Moreover, the P#P pattern in Kavalan is not included in Table 4, which accounts for 10.19% in total. On the other hand, verb serialization (either P#M or M#P) in Kavalan is more frequent than in any other six WAn languages. Provided in Table 7 is the ratio of serialization density in the seven WAn languages plus Mandarin.

Table 6: Percentage of the motion components in the Frog narratives

	Path	Manner	MP	P#M	M#P	M#P#D*
Tagalog	72.2	27.8	0	0	0	0
Saisiyat	63.6	26	8.4	0.4	1.6	0
Cebuano	60.7	39.3	0	0	0	0
Squliq	57.1	42.1	0	0.4	0.4	0
Kavalan	54.3	18.9	0	2.42	2.91	0
Malay	49.2	36.7	14.2	0	0	0
Tsou	42.3	22.3	35.4	0	0	0
Mandarin	6.5	40.5	0	0	5.6	48.4

*M#P#D in Mandarin includes three types of combinations of motion components: M#P#D, M#D, and P#D. (Adapted from Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)

Table 7: Ratio of serial verbs per main motion clauses

Language	Ratio of density
Tagalog	0%
Cebuano	0%
Tsou	0%
Malay	3.30%
Saisiyat	8.30%
Squliq	15.10%
Kavalan	15.50%
Mandarin	54.00%

(Adapted from Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)

5.2.3 *The Owl's Exit*

In the Frog story, when searching for his lost frog in the woods, the boy climbs up a tree and peeks into a hole in the trunk. He ends up falling off from the tree due to the emergence of an owl out of the hole he is peeking into. While S-language speakers tend to pay attention to the manner of the owl (i.e. flying in this case) V-language speakers do not. The Owl's Exit is therefore a repeatedly visited scene used to find out what Motion-event component a particular language has a propensity to emphasize.

Of the five Kavalan Frog narratives, two depicted the dynamic emergence of the owl by means of the verb *m-zukat* 'exit', as is the case in most V-languages while the other three described the static existence of the owl by means of the existential construction, as in (16). Either the focus on Path or the presence of static scene setting is quite typical of V-languages.

- (16) a. ... (1.1) yau qu a yawu ta-babaw na paRin nani. \
- Exist owl Link that Loc-top Gen tree DM
- 'There was an owl on the tree.'

- b. *me-Retut-ti sunis a yawu suzitang,* _
- AF-scared-Pfv child Link that fall_backward

‘The child was frightened and fell backwards.’ (frog_imui IU 72~73)

Accordingly, no Manner verbs were used in the Owl’s Exit, which makes Kavalan a language that employs 100% of Path verbs, just like other six WAn languages except for Tsou, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: The Owl’s Exit in the Frog story: Percentages of Manner and Path verbs*

	Manner verb	Path verb
Satellite-framed		
Russian	100%	---
English	32%	68%
German	18%	82%
Dutch	17%	83%
Serial Verb Language		
Mandarin	83.4%	16.6%
Macro-event Language		
Tsou	83.4%	16.6%
Verb-framed		
French		100%
Spanish		100%
Turkish		100%
Hebrew	3%	97%
Saisiyat		100%
Squliq Atayal		100%
Tagalog		100%
Cebuano		100%
Malay		100%
Kavalan		100%

*Percentage figures for Spanish, English, Russian and German are based on Slobin (2000, 2004) and Ozcaliskan and Slobin (1999).

**Manner in this table refers to MP verbs for Tsou and Malay and to M#P or M#P#D for Mandarin (Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)

5.2.4 Ground specifications

It is generally the case that S-languages tend to specify Ground information much

more often than do V-languages. For this criterion Kavalan aligns with V-languages. First, Table 9 reveals the percentages of Ground specifications in all Motion-event clauses across the five Frog narratives, with 56% being the highest. Second, the percentages of minus-Ground and plus-Ground clauses in Kavalan are compared with other six WAn languages plus Mandarin, as shown in Table 10, where V-languages are arranged in a decreasing manner of the minus-Ground clause percentages.

Table 9: Percentages of Ground specifications in all Motion-event clauses

Informants	Ground specifications	Motion-event clauses	Percentages
(syuran)	9	16	56%
(imui)	26	54	48%
(buya)	13	28	46%
(imui2)	12	32	39%
(Raciang)	11	35	31%
Total	71	165	43%

Table 10: Percentages of minus-ground and plus-ground clauses

	Minus-Ground	Plus-Ground
V-languages		
Squliq	64%	36%
Saisiyat	61%	39%
Cebuano	59%	41%
Kavalan	57%	43%
Tagalog	55%	45%
Malay	42%	58%
Spanish*	37%	63%
S-languages		
English*	18%	82%
Macro-event languages		
Tsou	52%	48%
Serial verb languages		
Mandarin	43%	57%

*Percentage figures for Spanish and English are taken from Slobin (1996).

(Adapted from Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)

More specifically, Ground specifications, as opposed to bare verbs, in downward Motion were also calculated and tabulated in Table 11, where four major falling events were identified. As a result, the percentage of downward Motion descriptions with the bare verb ‘fall’ (*t-em-ibuq* in Kavalan) turned out to be 50%, approximate to the percentage in Squliq, as compared in Table 12, where V-languages are ranked in a decreasing manner of the bare verb percentages.

Table11: ‘Bare verbs’ or Ground in four falling events

	Bare Verbs	Ground
1. Dog falls	1	1
2. Beehive falls	2	1
3. Boy falls from tree	2	3
4. Boy and dog fall	2	2
Total	7	7

Table12: Percentages of downward motion descriptions with the bare verb ‘fall’

	Percentages of Bare verbs
V-languages	
Cebuano	62.9%
Tagalog	62.5%
Squliq	52.2%
Kavalan	50%
Spanish*	36%
Saisiyat	27.3%
Malay	26.9%
S-languages	
English*	15%
Macro-event languages	
Tsou	55.6%
Serial verb languages	
Mandarin	41.9%

*Percentage figures for Spanish and English are taken from Slobin (1996).

(Adapted from Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)

5.2.5 The “cliff scene”

The “cliff scene” refers to a series of Motion-events centered on the cliff that form a single trajectory of Motion. Slobin (1997) analyses this particular scene into “four potential event components”, listed in (17). Table 13 specifies which event segments every narrative mentioned in the Kavalan data, with the boy/dog falling into water the most frequently mentioned (4 tokens) and the deer stopping at the cliff the least often stated (one token).

(17) Event granularity (Slobin 1997: 448)

- i. *change of location: deer moves, runs, arrives at cliff;*
- ii. *negative changes of location: deer stops at cliff;*
- iii. *cause of change of location: deer throws boy, makes boy/dog fall;*
- iv. *change of location: boy/dog fall into water*

Table 13: Event segments mentioned across informants

Informants	Number of the event segments mentioned
(Raciang)	i, iii, and iv.
(imui)	iv.
(syuran)	iii.
(buya)	i, ii, and iv.
(imui2)	i and iv.

The average number of event segments and percentage of narrators mentioning more than three segments in the “cliff scene” in Kavalan as well as other languages were illustrated in Table 14, where V-languages are order in a decreasing manner of the average number of events segments.

Table 14: Average number of event segments and percentage of narrators mentioning more than three segments in the ‘cliff scene’

V-languages			S-languages		
Squliq	3.6	100%	Germanic*	3.0	86%
Saisiyat	3.0	50%	Slavic*	2.8	76%
Malay	2.5	50%			
Cebuano	2.2	33%	Macro-event languages		
Romance*	2.1	30%	Tsou	3.1	83%
Semitic*	2.0	30%			
Kavalan	2.0	40%	Serial verb languages		
Tagalog	1.8	17%	Mandarin	3.0	100%

*The percentages for these languages are taken from Slobin (1997).

(Adapted from Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)

5.3 Discussion/Conclusion

First of all, considering all the results gained from the previous section, Kavalan is not so much an S-language as a V-language, though bearing some features deviant from a typical V-language such as Spanish. A comparison of structural and discourse characteristics of V-languages, S-languages, and Kavalan is tabulated below. Among them Parameter 4, that is, several path segments per clause, is undetermined due to a clear-cut morphosyntactic mechanism that can delineate one clause from another. Loosely speaking, Kavalan can be classified as a V-language, except that it neither expresses Manner by means of adverbials nor obeys the boundary crossing constraint.

Table 15: Comparison of structural and discourse characteristics of V-languages, S-languages, and Kavalan

Parameter	V-Language	S-Language	Kavalan
1. Core schema (Path) expression	Verb	Satellite	Verb
2. Co-event (e.g. Manner) expression	Adverbial	Verb	Verb
3. Boundary-crossing constraint	Yes	No	No
4. Several path segments per clause	No	Yes	Yes/No
5. Manner-verb use	Low	High	Low
6. Ground specification	Lower (63% for Spanish)	Higher (82% for English)	Lower (43%)
7. Event granularity	Lower<3	Higher>3	Lower<3
8. Scene setting	Yes	No	Yes

Moreover, in order for us to fit Kavalan into the puzzle of spatial reference in the six WAn languages laid out in Huang & Tanangkingsing (2004), Table 16, modified from Table 6, specifies the Path and Manner saliency for the respective Y-axis and X-axis of the coordinates in the spatial typology. Based on the total Path and Manner saliency in Table 16, Kavalan is added to Huang & Tanangkingsing's (2004) typology, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Table 16: Path and Manner saliency in Kavalan

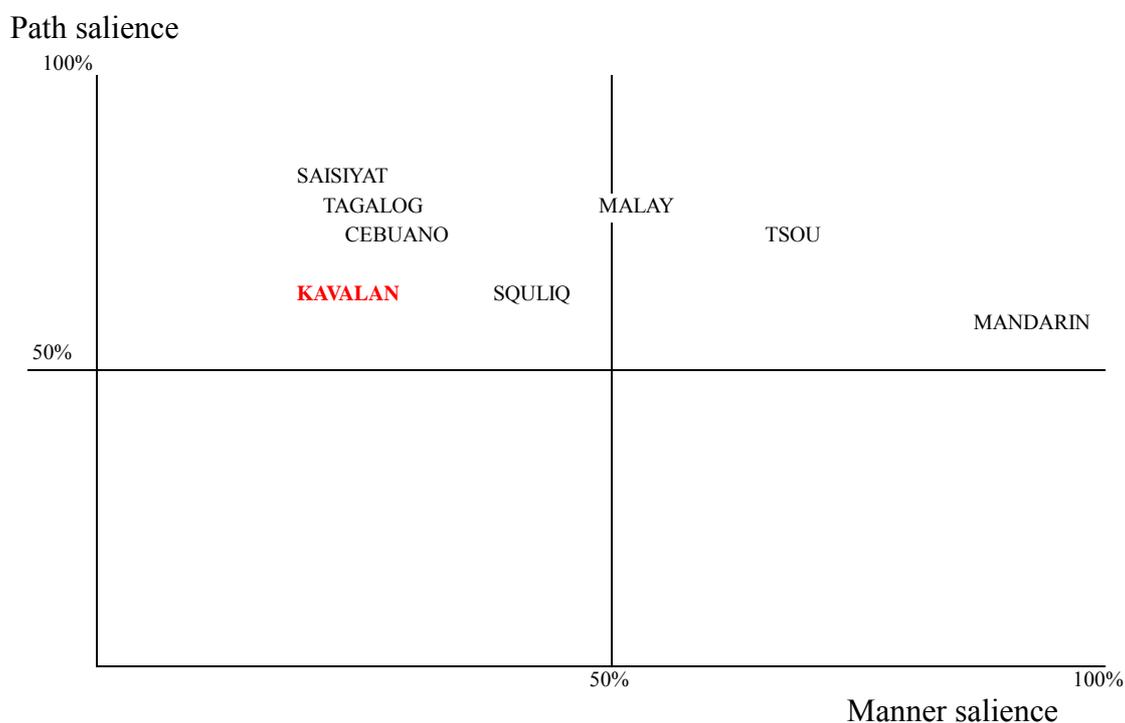
	Path or Manner	MP	P#M	M#P	P#P	M#P#D	Total
Path (Y-axis)	54.3	0	2.42	2.91	10.19	0	69.82
Manner (X-axis)	18.9	0	2.42	2.91	0	0	24.23

According to Figure 1, Kavalan exhibits the lowest degree of Path saliency (approximate to Squliq) and Manner saliency (lower than Saisiyat) among the seven WAn languages. It may require further study to determine how this extremity of Path and Manner saliency might turn out shape the Kavalan Motion events in real

discourse.

As a final point, Kavalan displays an obvious discrepancy between language potential and language use in constructing a Motion event. In language potential, on the one hand, an integrated Motion event is realized by the M#P combination, which is quite untypical in WAn languages. In language use, on the other hand, the most prominent construction is “V[path] + pasazi + ta-X-an”, namely, the P#D combination. While the Path verb that precedes a Manner verb is predominately *wiya* ‘leave’, the Path verb that follows a Manner typically carries Ground information. In other words, as the syntagmatic position occupied by a Path verb as opposed to a Manner verb varies, so shall its semantic content.

Figure 1: The typology of spatial reference in seven WAn languages (plus Mandarin) (Huang & Tanangkingsing 2004)



Preliminary in nature as this present paper is, it does clarify the preferred constructions employed by Kavalan speakers in constructing a Motion event, align

Kavalan

Kavalan with V-languages despite of the presence of some deviating features, and last but not least recognize the extremities of Manner and Path saliency in Kavalan compared with other six Western Austronesian languages (i.e., Tsou, Saisiyat, Squliq, Malay, Tagalog, and Cebuano).

Chapter Six Reflexives

6.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses reflexive expressions in Kavalan. Unlike languages such as English or Mandarin, Kavalan does not have a unique reflexive marker. It employs other devices to express reflexivity and therefore exhibits some distinctive phenomenon concerning reflexives.

This chapter is structured as follows: section 6.1 introduces the syntactic forms of Kavalan reflexive expressions. Section 6.2 investigates the semantic functions of reflexive expressions in Kavalan. In section 6.3 the binding of reflexives in Kavalan is examined. Finally, the summary of this chapter is provided in section 6.4.

6.1 Forms

To our knowledge, reflexivity in Kavalan is not discussed in any previous literature. Part of the reason may be that this language does not have a particular morpheme or lexicon whose major function is to mark a reflexive situation, as what *-self* functions in English. There are three ways to express reflexivity in Kavalan: (i) inherent reflexive verbs, (ii) pronominals, and (iii) *izip* ‘body’.

6.1.1 Reflexive verbs

Let us first examine the so-called “reflexive verbs”. In languages like English which have nominal reflexive anaphors, some verbs, such as *see*, invariably need two arguments – an antecedent and a reflexive anaphor in order to express a reflexive situation. Some verbs, on the other hand, are inherently reflexive. That is, when these verbs, such as *shave*, are used intransitively, the reflexive meaning is intrinsically

implied. For instance,

- (1) I saw *(myself) in the mirror.
 (2) John shaves (himself) every morning.

In (1), the anaphor *myself* is obligatory in order for the predicate to be reflexive. But in (2), the reflexive anaphor *himself* is not required. Whether it is present or not does not affect the reflexive meaning of the clause. Verbs of this type are called *reflexive verbs*. In Kavalan there are also a few verbs which can carry reflexive meaning by themselves. For instance,

- (3) a. pa-m-uzis aymi
 Fut-AF-bathe 1Pl.excl.Nom
 ‘We will bathe (ourselves).’
 b. pa-uzis-an-ku ci ukis
 Cau-bathe-PF-1Sg.Gen Ncm Ukis
 ‘I washed Ukis.’
- (4) a. q-em-aRaw ci abas
 AF-scratch Ncm Abas
 ‘Abas scratches (herself).’
 b. q-em-aRaw ci abas ci utay-an
 AF-scratch Ncm Abas Ncm Utay.Acc
 ‘Abas scratches Utay.’
- (5) a. m-inat ya ci abas
 AF-comb Nom Ncm Abas
 ‘Abas combs (herself).’
 b. m-inat ya ci abas tu buqes-na
 AF-comb Nom Ncm Abas Acc hair-3.Gen
 ‘Abas combs her hair.’

As (3) – (5) show, *uzis* ‘bathe’, *qaRaw* ‘scratch’ and *inat* ‘comb’ can be used with either one or two arguments. When used with two arguments that are not co-indexed, as in example (b)s, they express transitive and non-reflexive situations. But when used with only one (overt) argument, as in example (a)s, these same verbs convey a reflexive meaning. In other words, the only argument in these predicates – the agent – is also the patient/theme at the same time, resulting in a reflexive construal.

Although reflexive anaphors can be present with reflexive verbs, as in (6) – (7), they tend to be omitted, which is quite reasonable. Since verbs such as *uzis* ‘bathe’, *qaRaw* ‘scratch’ and *inat* ‘comb’ are already lexically reflexive, the use of another reflexive marking device seems redundant and therefore can be optionally omitted.

(6) m-uzis-imi (tu maymi)
 AF-bathe-1Pl.excl.Nom Acc 1Pl.excl.Acc
 ‘We bathe (ourselves).’

(7) q-em-aRaw ci abas (ti mayzipna)
 AF-scratch Ncm Abas (Ncm 3Sg.Acc)
 ‘Abas scratches (herself).’

6.1.2 Pronominals

As mentioned in the beginning, there is no specific lexical item or morpheme functioning as a reflexive anaphor in Kavalan. Instead, Kavalan relies on other syntactic devices to express reflexives. One of the substitutes used in Kavalan is the pronominal system.

6.1.2.1 Nominative and accusative pronominals

In the following examples, the pronominals are coindexed with another argument within the same clauses where the pronominals occur, forcing a reflexive reading.

- (8) m-ipes-iku *ti* *mayku*
 AF-dislike-1Sg.Nom Ncm 1Sg.Acc
 ‘I dislike myself.’
- (9) tebuq-an-su *aysu*
 cut-PF-2Sg.Gen 2Sg.Nom
 ‘You cut yourself.’
- (10) muRubu ci buya *ti* *mayzipna*
 praise Ncm Buya Ncm 3Sg.Acc
 ‘Buya praises himself.’
- (11) tayta-an ni buya ta-paninuwan-an *ayzipna*
 see-PF Gen Buya Loc-mirror-Loc 3Sg.Nom
 ‘Buya saw himself in the mirror.’

The original functions of *mayku*, *aysu*, *mayzipna* and *ayzipna* in (8) – (11) are personal pronouns. However, because of the absence of a reflexive marker in Kavalan, these personal pronouns are also used as the reflexive anaphors, serving the same function of *ziji* in Mandarin or *-self* in English. Therefore, what are expressed by ‘I dislike myself’ and ‘You cut yourself’ in English are expressed as ‘I dislike me’ and ‘You cut you’ in equivalent Kavalan clauses.

6.1.2.2 Locative pronominals

In addition to nominative and accusative pronouns, Kavalan’s pronominal system also has locative personal pronouns, meaning ‘X’s place’. For instance,

- (12) sirRab mawtu ci abas q-em-an *tamaykuan*
 yesterday come Ncm Abas AF-eat 1Sg.Loc
 ‘Yesterday Abas came to eat in my place.’

In non-reflexive situations, occasionally locative pronouns replace accusative

pronouns, as in (13), which may be a result of semantic extension.

- (13) a. me-lizaq ci abas ti *mayku*
 AF-like Ncm Abas Ncm 1Sg.Acc
 ‘Abas likes me’
- b. me-lizaq ci abas *tamaykuan*
 AF-like Ncm Abas 1Sg.Loc
 ‘Abas likes me.’

In (13b), *tamaykuan* ‘1Sg.Loc’ replaces the accusative pronoun *mayku* ‘1Sg.Acc’ in (13a). In these cases, the concept of physical space extends to mental space. Therefore, locative pronouns, which originally represent the location where events take place are now used to express the objects or targets involved in the events. In (13b), *tamaykuan* metaphorically stands for the place to which the emotion projects.

In Kavalan, semantic extension like this is not exclusive to non-reflexive situations. In reflexive situations, locative personal pronouns can also be used, as in (14) and (15).

- (14) a. k-em-nit ayku ti *mayku*
 AF-pinch 1Sg.Nom Ncm 1Sg.Acc
 ‘I pinch myself.’
- b. k-em-nit ayku *tamaykuan*
 AF-pinch 1Sg.Nom 1Sg.Loc
 ‘I pinch myself.’
- (15) a. q-em-nut sunis ni utay ti *mayzipna*
 AF-angry child Gen Utay Ncm 3Sg.Acc
 ‘Utay’s child is mad at himself.’
- b. q-em-nut sunis ni utay *tamayzipna*
 AF-angry child Gen Utay 3Sg.Loc
 ‘Utay’s child is mad at himself.’

However, it should be noticed that although locative personal pronouns can function as reflexive anaphors, they are used less frequently than nominative and accusative pronouns.

6.1.2.3 Possessive pronominals

Because of the absence of a reflexive marker, possessive reflexive relations, such as the expression ‘his own clothes’, also employ possessive pronouns in Kavalan, as in (16) – (18).

- (16) qeten-an ni abas ya buqes-*na*
 cut-PF Gen Abas Nom hair-3.Gen
 ‘Abas_i cut her_{i/j} hair.’
- (17) walin-an ni buya zipu-*na*
 lose-PF Gen Buya shoes-3.Gen
 ‘Buya_i lost his_{i/j} shoes.’
- (18) tayta-an ni utay siqay ta-tuRuz-an-*na*
 see-PF Gen Utay snake Loc-backside-Loc-3.Gen
 ‘Utay_i saw a snake in his_{i/j} backside.’

As the indexation in the translation shows, the index of possessive pronoun *-na* is free. It is not limited to the preceding NP within the same clause. However, it should be noticed that although the referent of *-na* is free, our informants strongly prefer to interpret the antecedent as the NP within the same clause, no matter the possessed NP is alienable or inalienable. For example, the preferred interpretation of (16) for Kavalan speakers would be ‘Abas_i cut her_i hair’ and that of (17) would be ‘Buya_i lost his_i shoes’. When there are two possible antecedents in the clause, as in (19), the actor is preferred.

- (19) bura-an ni buya ci utay tu qulus-na
 give-PF Gen Buya Ncm Utay Acc clothes-3.Gen
 ‘Buya_i gave Utay_j his_{i/j} clothes.’

In other words, the interpretation ‘Buya_i gave Utay_j his_i clothes’ is favored over another possible interpretation ‘Buya_i gave Utay_j his_j clothes’.

6.1.3 *izip* ‘body’

Another way to express reflexivity in Kavalan is through using the noun *izip* ‘body’ as the reflexive anaphor, which is also a result of semantic extension. In example (20) – (22), the physical body is used to represent the comparatively more abstract concept of ‘self’.

- (20) m-ipes-iku tu *izip-ku*
 AF-dislike-1Sg.Nom Acc body-1Sg.Gen
 ‘I dislike myself.’

- (21) liatip-ika *izip-su*
 take_care-Imp body-2Sg.Gen
 ‘Take care of yourself.’

- (22) k-em-nit ci buya tu *izip-na*
 AF-pinch Ncm Buya Acc body-3.Gen
 ‘Buya pinches himself.’

As can be observed in (20) – (22), *izip* is always accompanied by a possessive pronoun which agrees with the antecedent. In the previous section, we have mentioned that using third person pronoun for reflexivity may cause ambiguity. Therefore, example (22) in which a third person bound pronoun *-na* is used is expected to have another interpretation, ‘Buya_i scares him_j/his_j body’. This is not the case, however. Much to our surprise, the use of *izip-na* for reflexivity does not cause

ambiguity despite its co-occurrence with the third person possessive pronoun *-na*.

Compare the two pairs of example in which pronominals are used in example

(a)s and *izip* are used in example (b)s:

- (23) a. Raputui-an ni abas ci utay yau
 dream-PF Gen Abas Ncm Utay Exist
 q-em-aRaw *ti* *mayzipna*
 AF-scratch Ncm 3Sg.Acc
 ‘Abas_i dreamed about Utay_j scratching her_i/him_{j/k}.’

- b. Raputui-an ni abas ci utay yau
 dream-PF Gen Abas Ncm Utay Exist
 q-em-aRaw *tu izip-na*
 AF-scratch Acc body-3.Gen
 ‘Abas_i dreamed about Utay_j scratching himself_j.’

- (24) a. qaRat-an-na na siqay ’nay *ayzipna*
 bite-PF-3.Gen Gen snake that 3Sg.Nom
 ‘The snake_i bit him_{i/j}.’

- b. qaRat-an-na na siqay ’nay *izip-na*
 bite-PF-3.Gen Gen snake that body-3.Gen
 ‘The snake bit itself.’

In example (a)s, accusative and nominative pronouns are used to express reflexive situations. As expected, the interpretations may be pronominal or reflexive. On the contrary, example (b)s in which *izip-na* is used as a reflexive anaphor can only result in a reflexive interpretation.

The fact that *izip-na* forces a reflexive interpretation suggests that the use of *izip-na* as a reflexive anaphor has gradually made *izip* different from other nouns. Take two other body-part nouns *liqus* ‘tail’ and *lima* ‘hand’ as examples,

- (25) qaRat-an-na wasu 'nay *liqus-na*
 bite-PF-3.Gen dog that tail-3.Gen
 'The dog_i bit his_{i/j} tail.'

- (26) sepaw-an ni buya ta-takan-an *lima-na*
 put-PF Gen Buya Loc-table-Loc hand-3.Gen
 'Buya_i put his_{i/j} hand on the table.'

Although *liqus-na* in (25) and *lima-na* in (26) are also body parts affixed with third person possessive pronouns, their behavior is different from *izip-na*. While the possessive pronoun in *izip-na* can only be coindexed with the antecedent, the referent of the possessive pronoun in *liqus-na* and *lima-na* is free, as shown in the translation of the examples. This distinction indicates that *izip* has gradually lost its original status as a common noun, even though the Kavalan speakers still identify *izip* as 'body'.

6.2 Functions

In addition to marking a reflexive situation, the same linguistic device is often used for other functions in many languages. These functions may include as an emphatic marker, expressing "alone" or "by oneself", or as a non-volitional marker. In Kavalan, the reflexive markers serve mainly two functions, (i) to mark the coreference among arguments; (ii) and to mark the emphatic arguments⁷.

6.2.1 Coreference among arguments

Languages tend to avoid using two or more coreferent full NPs in the same

⁷ The meaning 'by oneself' or 'alone' in Kavalan is not expressed by pronominals or *izip* 'body'. It is instead expressed by another lexical item *pagnanem*, as in the following example.

pagnanem ci utay manan
 alone Ncm Utay return
 'Utay went home by himself/alone.'

clause. Therefore, when coreference among arguments occurs, reflexives are used. In a language that is short of reflexive anaphors, the substitutes are called into help when arguments are coreferent. In Kavalan, the substitutes are pronominals and *izip* ‘body’.

- (27) a. p-em-ukun ci buya *ti mayzipna*
 AF-hit Ncm Buya Ncm3Sg.Acc
 ‘Buya_i hit him_{i/j}.’
- b. p-em-ukun ci buya *tu izip-na*
 AF-hit Ncm Buya Acc 3Sg.Acc
 ‘Buya hit himself.’
- c. * p-em-ukun ci buya ci buya-an
 AF-hit Ncm Buya NcmBuya.Acc
 ‘Buya_i hit Buya_i.’

In the above examples, *ti mayzipna* and *tu izip-na* are used to mark the coreference between the two arguments of *pukun* ‘hit’. The repeated use of a full NP for coindexed NPs leads to ungrammaticality. Therefore, (27c) is rejected unless the two *Buyas* refer to different people with the same name.

6.2.2 Emphatic marker

In addition to marking the coreference among arguments, another common function of a reflexive marker is to put extra emphasis or focus on a certain NP. In Kavalan, the reflexive marker can also be used this way.

- (28) m-uziyup Runanay a yawu *ayzipna*
 AF-wash_face male Link that 3Sg.Nom
 ‘The boy himself washed face.’
- (29) ci abas *ayzipna* ci utay si-kaw-kawma tu
 Ncm Abas 3Sg.Nom Ncm Utay Red-speak Acc

lanas ni buya
 matter Gen Buya
 ‘Abas herself talks to Utay things about Buya.’

In (28) and (29), the reflexive marker *ayzipna* immediately follows the subject NPs. Its function is to attract emphasis or focus on the preceding NP. Another reflexive marker in Kavalan, *izip* ‘body’, however, is never used for emphatic function, as shown in (30) and (31). It is possible that semantically *izip* ‘body’ is much more concrete than personal pronouns. Therefore, it cannot be used for the abstract emphatic function⁸.

(30) * m-uziyup Runanay a yawu *izip-na*
 AF-wash_face male Link that body-3.Gen
 ‘The boy himself washed face.’

(31) * ci abas *izip-na* ci utay si-kaw-kawma tu
 Ncm Abas 3.Gen Ncm Utay Red-speak Acc
 lanas ni buya
 matter Gen Buya
 ‘Abas herself talks to Utay things about Buya.’

In terms of the purpose of using reflexive forms for emphatic function, McKay (1991) argues that the emphatic use of reflexive marker serves a pragmatic function of contrasting and comparing an individual with some salient class. König (2001) shares a similar point of view and argues that the emphatic marker evokes alternatives to the referent of their focus. Summarizing their views, the emphatic marker serves to single

⁸ The use of reflexive markers for emphatic function has been widely discussed. Various terms of such use, such as “emphatic marker” (McKay 1991, Kemmer 1995) or “intensifier” (König 2001), and various explanations are proposed. König (2001) categorizes these uses of reflexives into two subtypes based on the position where they occur. The first type is the adnominal use in which the reflexive marker adjoins to the NP, as in (i). Another type is the adverbial use in which the reflexive marker adjoins to the VP, as in (ii).

- (i) John *himself* finished the whole project.
 (ii) John finished the whole project *himself*.

out the emphasized referent and to mark its distinct status. Therefore, the emphatic use is often accompanied by another clause or NP which either functions as the counterpart of the emphasized NP or serves to explain the reason of the distinctness of the emphasized NP. For instance,

- (32) *me-qayla ci buya ci utay-an tu*
 AF-scold Ncm Buya Ncm Utay.Acc Comp
buqaRes, buqaRes qaya ci buya ayzipna
 lazy lazy also Ncm Buya 3Sg.Nom
 ‘Buya scolds Utay for being lazy. (But) Buya himself is also lazy.’

- (33) *Raskaw ya wasu-na ni abas, nani, mai me-lizaq*
 mean Nom dog-3.Gen Gen Abas DM Neg AF-like
ci abas ayzipna tu wasu ’nay
 Ncm abas 3Sg.Gen Acc dog that
 ‘Abas’ dog is mean. (Even) Abas herself doesn’t like the dog.’

In (32) the first clause *me-qayla ci buya ci utay-an* ‘Buya scolds Utay for being lazy’ implies that Buya is not a lazy person because under normal circumstance it would be strange for someone to accuse another person of being lazy while he himself is lazy. However, the second clause of (32) shows that this is indeed such a strange situation. Therefore, *ayzipna* is used to mark the distinctiveness of *Buya*. In (33) *Abas* in the second clause is distinctive because usually one likes his/her own pet. But in (33), the first clause *Raskaw ya wasu-na ni abas* ‘Abas’ dog is mean’ sets up a situation in which Abas’s dog is so mean that even the dog’s owner does not like it.

As we have mentioned, the use of reflexives for emphatic function is quite common in languages of the world. But why use a reflexive marker for emphatic function? Since it is not a unique phenomenon in Kavalan, there must be a universal motivation behind such use. Kemmer (1995) proposes an explanation. “The reflexives and the emphatic are related in the fact that each signals a semantic configuration in

which there is something that is counter to expectation: in the case of the reflexive, what is counter to expectation is the fact of co-reference, while for the emphatic, the unexpected aspect is the fact of one particular referent, in contrast to others, filling a particular role in the clause or discourse” (Kemmer 1995: 66). Indeed, compare to their counterparts, the NPs involved in reflexives and emphatics are more “marked”. Since reflexives and emphatics share similarities in semantic and pragmatic function, it is not unusual for them to share the same morphological form.

6.3 The Binding of Reflexives

After introducing the forms and functions of reflexives in Kavalan, this section examines the binding of reflexives. The fact that Kavalan lacks a reflexive marker and relies on other syntactic devices results in some distinct phenomena concerning the binding of reflexives in this language. In the following sections we will show that the binding of pronominals and *izip* ‘body’ used for reflexivity are quite different. Then we will discuss the so-called “nominative anaphors” and the absence of nominative anaphors in Kavalan.

6.3.1 Pronominals

Let us first discuss the use of pronominals for reflexives. The lack of a unique reflexive marker in Kavalan endows the pronominals with a dual status – as pronouns and as reflexive anaphors. In other words, the so-called pronominals are actually unspecified with respect to the features [+ / - pronominal] and [+ / - anaphor]. Therefore, in clauses like (36), there may be two interpretations. When *ayzipna* is specified as [+ anaphor], the anaphoric interpretation ‘Abas dislikes herself’ is obtained. When *ayzipna* is specified as [+ pronominal], the pronominal interpretation ‘Abas dislikes her’ is obtained.

- (34) m-ipes ci abas ti mayzipna
 AF-dislike Ncm Abas Ncm 3Sg.Acc
 (i) ‘Abas dislikes herself.’
 (ii) ‘Abas dislikes her.’

The property of unspecified feature makes the pronominals and the reflexive expression of Kavalan distinct from languages such as English and Mandarin in terms of binding. But despite the dual function of pronominals, the behavior of pronominals that are used as reflexive anaphor in Kavalan is not completely identical with that of reflexive marker in other languages. For instance, the interpretations of VP-ellipsis involving reflexive anaphors in English and those in Kavalan are different.

- (35) John hates himself, and Tom does too.
 (i) * John hates John, and Tom hates John.
 (ii) John hates John, and Tom hates Tom.

- (36) m-ipes ci buya ti mayzipna, ci abas
 AF-dislike Ncm Buya Ncm 3Sg.Acc Ncm Abas
 qaya
 also
 ‘Buya dislikes himself, and Abas does, too.’
 (i) Buya dislikes Buya, and Abas dislikes Buya, too.
 (ii) Buya dislikes Buya, and Abas dislikes Abas.

In (35) the reflexive interpretation must be construed in both conjuncts. Therefore, *Tom does, too* can only be interpreted as *Tom hates himself, too*. On the contrary, Kavalan allows both a strict interpretation (36) (i) and a sloppy interpretation (36) (ii). This shows that although pronominals can function as reflexives, they are not completely identical with reflexive anaphors.

6.3.2 *izip* ‘body’

In previous sections, we have introduced that Kavalan can also employ *izip* ‘body’ to express reflexivity, as in (37).

- (37) m-ipes ci abas tu *izip-na*
 AF-dislike Ncm Abas Acc body-3.Gen
 ‘Abas dislikes herself.’

When used as a reflexive marker, *izip* has the same distribution as pronominals that are used as reflexive anaphors. Semantically, *izip* is a body-part noun, just like *lima* ‘hand’ or *zapan* ‘foot’. But unlike these body-part nouns, *izip* can also function as a reflexive marker, representing a more abstract concept ‘self’. The use of a body-part noun for reflexives is not exclusive to Kavalan. In Haitian, for instance, *tèt* ‘head’ can also be used as a reflexive marker.

- (38) Haitian (Déchaine and Manfredi 1994: 224)
 Jak_i wè tèt li_{i/j} nan glas la
 Jak see head 3Sg Loc mirror Det
 (i) ‘Jak saw himself in the mirror.’
 (ii) ‘Jak saw his/her head in the mirror.’

From the translation above, it can be found that *tèt li* in Haitian is not necessarily bound to the preceding NP. In (38), *tèt li* can have the reflexive interpretation ‘himself’ as in (38) (i) or the literal and non-reflexive interpretation ‘his/her head’ as in (38) (ii). The case is different in Kavalan. The use of *izip* ‘body’ does not result in a non-reflexive interpretation. For instance,

- (39) q-em-nut ci buya tu *izip-na*
 AF-angry Ncm Buya Acc body-3Sg.Gen
 (i) ‘Buya is mad at himself.’
 (ii) * ‘Buya_i is mad at his_j body.’

- (40) m-ipes ci abas tu izip-na
 AF-dislike Ncm Abas Acc body-3Sg.Gen
 (i) ‘Abas dislikes herself.’
 (ii) * ‘Abas_i dislikes his_j/her_j body.’

The impossibility of a non-reflexive interpretation indicates that *izip-na* in Kavalan is different from *tèt li* in Haitian. Although both are being used for reflexives, *tèt li* still keeps the property of a common noun. That is, it can be interpreted literally and its index is not bound. On the contrary, the literal interpretation of *izip-na* is not preferred by Kavalan speakers, and the index of *izip-na* is locally bound.

One may wonder whether this unique property of requiring a local antecedent belongs to a property of all Kavalan NPs composed of nouns and possessive pronouns or to *izip-na* only. But once we compare *izip-na* with other nouns, the difference is observed. Compare the following examples.

- (41) supaR-an ni abas tu m-ipes ci upa
 know-PF Gen Abas Comp AF-dislike Ncm Upa
 tu *izip-na*
 Acc body-3.Gen
 ‘Abas_i knows that Upa_j doesn’t like herself_j.’

- (42) supaR-an ni abas sibit ci upa tu
 know-PF Gen Abas tear Ncm Upa Acc
qulus-na
 clothes-3.Gen
 ‘Abas_i knows that Upa_j tore her_{i/j} clothes.’

From the translations of these examples, it can be seen that the NP *izip-na* ‘body-3.Gen’ in (41) can only refer to *Upa*, but not *Abas*, i.e., it requires a local antecedent. On the contrary, the NP *qulus-na* ‘clothes-3.Gen’ in (42) can refer to either *Upa* or *Abas*, i.e., can take either a local or a long-distance antecedent. It indicates that the NP composed of *izip* ‘body’ and a possessive pronoun is treated by

the syntax as a unitary lexical entry, rather than a complex possessive DP.

The fact that the NP composed of *izip* ‘body’ and a possessive pronoun requires a local antecedent indicates this NP behaves like a true reflexive anaphor, such as *–self* in English.

6.3.3 Reflexives in subject positions

In Kavalan, the reflexive anaphor can receive a nominative case in NAF clauses, as in the following examples.

- (43) a. tayta-an ni buya ta-paninuwan-an ayzipna
 see-PF Gen Buya Loc-mirror-Loc 3Sg.Nom
 ‘Buya saw himself in the mirror’
- b. tayta-an ni buya ta-paninuwan-an ya izip-na
 see-PF Gen Buya Loc-mirror-Loc Nom body-3.Gen
 ‘Buya saw himself in the mirror.’

But we should note that in terms of argument structure, reflexive anaphors in these positions are not subjects of the clauses. Therefore, even though *ayzipna* and *izip-na* in (43a) and (43b) receive nominative case, they are in fact the argument objects of these clauses. In AF clauses, as (44) – (45), the use of pronominals as the subject in AF clauses only gets a pronominal reading, and the use of *izip* ‘body’ as the subject in a AF clause, as in (46), leads to a literal and non-reflexive reading.

- (44) k-em-nit ya ayzipna ci utay-an
 pinch-AF Nom 3Sg.Nom Ncm Utay.Acc
 ‘He*_{i/j} pinches Utay_i.’
- (45) qalalan ti ayzipna ci abas-an
 care Ncm 3Sg.Nom Ncm Abas.Acc
 ‘S/he*_{i/j} cares about Abas_i.’

- (46) t-em-uRpi tu sunis ya *izip-na*
 bump_into-AF Acc child Nom body-3.Gen
 ‘His_{*i/j} body bumps into the child_i.’

The situation in AF clauses is the same. Reflexive anaphors can appear in argument object positions, which receive the accusative case, but cannot appear in the argument subject positions, which receive the nominative case.

(47) Reflexive anaphors in the object positions of AF clauses

- a. m-ipes ya ci abas ti *mayzipna*
 AF-dislike Nom Ncm Abas Ncm 3Sg.Acc
 ‘Abas dislikes herself.’
- b. m-ipes ya ci abas tu *izip-na*
 AF-dislike Nom Ncm Abas Acc body-3.Gen
 ‘Abas dislikes herself.’

(48) Reflexive anaphors in the subject positions of AF clauses

- a. * tebeR *ayzipna* ci utay-an
 step Sg.Nom Ncm Utay.Acc
- b. * tebeR ya *izip-na* ci utay-an
 step Nom body-3.Gen Ncm Utay.Acc
 ‘Himself stepped on Utay.’

A generalization that we can obtain from the above data is that reflexive anaphors in Kavalan cannot appear in subject positions, which are genitive case positions in NAF clauses and nominative case positions in AF clauses. Therefore, we can conclude that reflexive anaphors cannot serve as subjects.

6.3.4 Possessive reflexives

Possessive reflexive relations in Kavalan are expressed by possessive pronouns.

As a result of free indexation of possessive pronouns, ambiguity may arise especially when third person possessive is involved.

- (49) sibit-an-na ni buya qulus-*na*
 tear-PF-3.Gen Gen Buya clothes-3.Gen
 ‘Buya_i torn his_{i/j} clothes.’

- (50) tayta-an ni utay siqay ta-tuRuz-an-*na*
 see-PF Gen Utay snake Loc-backside-Loc-3.Gen
 ‘Utay_i saw a snake in his_{i/j} backside.’

In the above examples, the index of *-na* is free, which is different from counterpart constructions in languages with a unique reflexive marker, such as Mandarin.

- (51) Mandarin
 zhangsan sipo le *ziji*-de yifu
 Zhangsan tear Asp self-Gen clothes
 ‘Zhangsan tore his own clothes.’

- (52) Mandarin
 zhangsan zai *ziji*-de hougian kanqian yi tiao she
 Zhangsan Prep self-Gen backside see one Class snake
 ‘Zhangsan saw a snake in his own backside.’

In (51) and (52), the index of *ziji-de* is bound. It can only be coreferent with its antecedent *zhangsan*. In these examples, *ziji-de* can be also replaced by possessive pronoun *tade* ‘his’ as in (53) and (54). However, once replaced by *tade*, the index of *tade* becomes free, just as (49) and (50) in Kavalan.

- (53) Mandarin
 zhangsan sipo le *tade* yifu
 Zhangsan tear Asp his clothes
 ‘Zhangsan_i tore his_{i/j} clothes.’

(54) Mandarin

zhangsan zai *tade* hougian kanqian yi tiao she
Zhangsan Prep his backside see one Class snake
'Zhangsan_i saw a snake in his_{i/j} backside.'

It should be noticed that although (49) – (50) in Kavalan and (53) – (54) in Mandarin seem to be the same construction with the same interpretations, there is a subtle difference between these two languages. In Kavalan, hearers tend to interpret the referent of *-na* as the preceding NP, unless the context clearly suggests otherwise. In Mandarin, on the contrary, hearers prefer not to interpret the referent of *tade* as the preceding NP, unless the context clearly suggests otherwise. Why is it so?

The answer to this question may be found in some previous studies. Reinhart (1983) makes an observation.

“When syntactically permitted, bound anaphora ... is the most explicit way available in the language to express coreference, as it involves referential dependency. So, when coreference is desired, this should be the preferred way to express it” (Reinhart 1983: 76).

Bouchard (1985) also makes a similar statement.

“[I]f a position is in a Binding relation with an antecedent, then the element in that position will have to be coreferential with the antecedent; and since there is a more restricted morphological form that is usually used in this kind of relation, one must use it” (Bouchard 1985: 125, fn. 8).

In other words, when a language has a possessive reflexive marker, such marker should be used when there is a possessive reflexive situation. For instance, *ziji-de* ‘his/her own’ in Mandarin explicitly expresses a possessive reflexive relation. Therefore, in a possessive reflexive situation, *ziji-de* ‘his/her own’ should be used prior to possessive pronoun, which is what hearers expect. When a speaker abandons

the possessive reflexive marker in a situation that calls for it and uses a possessive pronoun, s/he violates the rule which regulates the distribution of possessive reflexive and possessive pronoun, resulting in the hearer's preference of a non-reflexive interpretation.

The situation in Kavalan is just the opposite. Since there is no unique reflexive possessive marker, what left for the speakers to use is possessive pronouns. It is well known that the governing category for a possessive pronoun is the possessive NP, which means that the index of *-na* in (49), repeated here as (55), should be free, and it is indeed so in Kavalan.

- (55) sibit-an-na ni buya qulus-*na*
 tear-PF-3.Gen Gen Buya clothes-3.Gen
 ‘Buya_i torn his_{i/j} clothes.’

Without the rule that regulates the distribution of possessive reflexive and possessive pronoun, the speakers of Kavalan employs other strategies to help interpreting the index of *-na*. Since the referent of a pronoun is usually what is being talked about, the most possible and reasonable index of *-na* would be the NP closest preceding it. In (55), the NP closest preceding *-an* is *Buya*. Thus, the interpretation ‘Buya_i torn his_i cothes’ is preferred over another interpretation ‘Buya_i torn his_j clothes’.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter we have investigated the forms, functions and the binding of reflexives in Kavalan. It is found that Kavalan employs pronominals and *izip* ‘body’ with a possessive pronominal suffix for reflexives. While the use pronominals used as reflexive anaphors may cause ambiguity between a pronominal interpretation and a

reflexive interpretation, the use of *izip* does not have this problem. In fact, the combination of *izip* and a possessive pronominal resembles a true reflexive anaphor in that it is bound to a local antecedent. On the contrary, the indices of pronominals are free, hence the ambiguity.

In addition to marking reflexives, pronominals (but not *izip* ‘body’) can also be used as an emphatic marker. When used for such function, the pronominal adjoins to the emphasized NP and follows it. It serves to single out the NP from other NPs and to mark its distinct status.

Chapter Seven Reciprocals

7.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses reciprocal constructions in Kavalan. It is structured as follows: section 7.1 introduces the forms of reciprocals. Section 7.2 investigates the functions expressed by the reciprocal marker *sim-*. In section 7.3, we will discuss the plural-subject requirement of the *sim*-marked constructions. Issues concerning the transitivity of the reciprocal constructions will be examined in section 7.4. Finally, the summary of this chapter is provided in section 7.5.

7.1 Forms

There are three ways to express reciprocal relations in Kavalan: (i) verbal reciprocal markers *sim-* and *ma-*, (ii) inherent reciprocal verbs, and (iii) a nominal reciprocal marker *nan-*.

7.1.1 Verbal reciprocal markers

7.1.1.1 The marker *sim-*

The prefix *sim-* is used to express reciprocals in Kavalan. It can be productively affixed to almost every verb. For instance,

- (1) a. p-em-ukun ya ci buya ci abas-an
 AF-hit Nom Ncm Buya Ncm Abas.Acc
 ‘Buya hit Abas.’
- b. sim-pukun ya ci buya atu ci utay
 Rec-hit Nom Ncm Buya and Ncm Utay
 ‘Buya and Utay hit each other.’

- (2) a. q-em-nut ya ci buya ci abas-an
 AF-angry Nom Ncm Buya Ncm Abas.Acc
 ‘Buya is mad at Abas.’
- b. sim-qenut ya ci buya ci abas
 Rec-angry Nom Ncm Buya Ncm Abas
 ‘Buya and Abas are mad at each other.’
- (3) a. qaymamun-an ni abas ci buya
 slander-PF Gen Abas Ncm Buya
 ‘Abas slandered Buya.’
- b. pataz sim-qaymamun qanyawu
 always Rec-slander 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They always slander each other.’

As shown in (1) – (3), a reciprocal construction is formed by marking the verb with a prefix *sim-*. By comparing example (a) and (b), it can be seen that the *sim-* is added to the base form of the verbs. However, although the AF markers disappear after *sim-* is affixed in (1) – (3), the reciprocal verbs behave as the AF verbs, which can be observed by the case markers of the arguments. Another thing that worth noticing is that when we compare the reciprocal constructions and their non-reciprocal counterparts, it is found that the number of arguments decreases once the reciprocal marker is affixed to the verbs. In example (a)s of (1) – (3), the verbs take two arguments – a subject and an object. In their reciprocal counterparts, however, the same verbs marked by *sim-* take only one plural argument. It shows that the occurrence of the reciprocal marker lowers the transitivity of the clause. More details concerning the transitivity in reciprocal constructions will be discussed in section 7.4.

In addition to the reciprocal marker *sim-*, another affix *qa-* as in (4) is occasionally found to occur in the reciprocal form of some verbs.

- (4) *sim-qa-ipes* *qanyawu*
 Rec-QA-dislike 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They dislike each other.’

What are the nature and the function of this affix *qa*? When we look into relevant data of other Formosan studies, it is found that *qa-* (or its phonological variations, such as *ka-* or *'a*) is used to mark the stativity of verbs in several Formosan languages, such as Mantuauran Rukai, Mayrinax Atayal, Pazeh, and Southern Paiwan (Huang 2000, Zeitoun and Huang 2000). It usually occurs in non-finite verb constructions, including causative, imperative and irrealis constructions. In Kavalan, in addition to the non-finite verb constructions mentioned above, *qa-* also occurs in the reciprocal constructions of stative verbs.

7.1.1.2 The marker *ma-*

For a few verbs in Kavalan there is another reciprocal marker *ma-*⁹ available. These verbs include *kawit* ‘hold hands’, *paRu* ‘hug’, *qatabung* ‘meet’, and *seles* ‘change’. What these verbs have in common is that semantically they more or less imply reciprocity. The following are some examples.

- (5) a. *ma-kawit* *ci* *abas* *atu ci* *buya*
 MA-*hold_hands* Ncm Abas and Ncm Buya
 ‘Abas and Buya hold hands.’

⁹ The marker *ma-* also has several other functions, including as a passive marker as in (i), past tense marker as in (ii) and middle voice marker as in (iii).

- (i) *ma-balyu-ti* (*ni abas*) *repaw* *'nay*
 MA-sell-Pfv Gen Abas house that
 ‘The house is sold (by Abas).’
- (ii) *ma-lizaq* *ayku* *ci* *utay-an*
 MA-like 1Sg.Nom Ncm Utay.Acc
 ‘I used to like Utay.’
- (iii) *bawa 'nay* *ma-salin* *ta-iRuR-an*
 boat that MA-float Loc-river-Loc
 ‘The boat floats on the river.’

- b. sim-kawit ci abas atu ci buya
 Rec-hold_hands Ncm Abas and Ncm Buya
 ‘Abas and Buya hold hands.’
- (6) a. ma-paRu qanyawu
 MA-hug 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They hug.’
- b. sim-paRu qanyawu
 Rec-hug 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They hug.’
- (7) a. ma-qatabung-imi¹⁰
 MA-meet-1Pl.excl.Nom
 ‘We meet.’
- b. sim-qatabung-imi
 Rec-meet-1Pl.excl.Nom
 ‘We meet.’
- (8) a. ma-seles-imi tu qulus
 MA-change-1Pl.excl.Nom Acc clothes
 ‘We exchange clothes.’
- b. sim-selses-imi tu qulus
 Rec-change-1Pl.excl.Nom Acc clothes
 ‘We exchange clothes.’

From (5) – (8) we can see that the marker *ma-* can interchange with another reciprocal marker *sim-* without altering the meaning of the clauses. However, unlike *sim-*, the distribution of *ma-* is much more restricted. Therefore, it does not seem to be the case that there are two reciprocal markers in Kavalan.

¹⁰ *ma-qatabung* can be further integrated and becomes *matabung*.

7.1.2 Reciprocal verbs

In many languages, we can often find some verbs, such as *exchange*, and *meet*, that do not need any additional reciprocal marker to express a reciprocal situation. Let us take the verb *me' ★'e* 'exchange' in Tsou as an example.

(9) Tsou

mo	me' ★'e	to	ceopungu 'o	mo'o	ho	yangui
Aux	exchange.AF	Acc	hat	Nom	Mo'o	and Yangui

'Mo'o and Yangui exchange hats.'

In (9) *me' ★'e* 'exchange' takes one plural argument. It describes a situation in which each of the members of the plural argument conducts the same action, i.e., giving somebody a hat in exchange of another hat, towards other member(s) of the group. The commonly used reciprocal marker *yupa-* as in (10) does not appear in (9) and yet it still expresses a reciprocal meaning. Such verbs that inherently express a reciprocal situation are called reciprocal verbs.

(10) Tsou

mo	yupa-baito	si	o-'oko
Aux	Rec-see.AF	Nom	Red-child

'The children see each other.'

Now let us turn back to Kavalan. When we examine the two verbs that are commonly inherent reciprocal verbs in other languages such as English and Tsou – 'meet' and 'exchange', it is found that, surprisingly, without the reciprocal marker, these verbs in Kavalan do not express reciprocal meanings.

(11) a. qatabung ayku ci abas-an
 meet 1Sg.Nom Ncm Abas.Acc
 (i) 'I met Abas.'
 (ii) * 'I and Abas met.'

- b. sim-qatabung ya ci abas atu ci utay
 Rec-meet Nom Ncm Abas and Ncm Utay
 ‘Abas and Utay met.’

- (12) a. seles tu qulus-na qanyawu
 change Acc clothes-3.Gen 3Pl.Nom
 (i) ‘They change clothes.’
 (ii) * ‘They exchange clothes.’

- b. sim-selus tu qulus-na qanyawu
 Rec-change Acc clothes-3.Gen 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They exchange clothes.’

As can be seen in the translation, in (11) – (12), example (b)s all express a bi-directional act while example (a)s express a uni-directional act. In (11a), one of the arguments, i.e. *I*, is the one who met someone, and another argument *Abas* is the one being met. Example (11b), on the other hand, describes the situation in which *Abas* and *Utay* met each other. Similarly, (12a) expresses a situation in which the clothes they bought do not fit and they want to change clothes with the seller. But in (12b), the members of third person plural subject *qanyawu* change clothes with another member of the group *qanyawu*.

The fact that *qatabung* ‘meet’ and *seles* ‘change’ rely on the reciprocal marker *sim-* to express a reciprocal situation may be a peculiarity of Kavalan’s lexicon. However, it does not mean that there is no inherent reciprocal verb in Kavalan. In our data, two verbs, *tatuqez* ‘argue’ and *paputh* ‘fight’, are found to express the reciprocal meaning without the reciprocal marker.

- (13) me-tatuqez qanyawu kinawsa
 AF-argue 3Pl.Nom two.human
 ‘They two argue.’

- (14) m-aputh kintulu sunis ’nay
 AF-fight three.human child that
 ‘The three children fight.’

Just like *me* ★’*e* ‘exchange’ in Tsou, these two verbs do not need the reciprocal affix *sim-* to express the reciprocal meaning since it is already encoded in the semantics of these verbs.

7.1.3 Nominal reciprocal marker

In Kavalan, there is another marker *nan-* which is affixed to nouns to mark personal reciprocal relations, such as kinship relations. For example,

- (15) nan-tina ci abas atu ci imui
 Rec-mother Ncm Abas and Ncm Imui
 ‘Abas and Imui are mother and daughter.’

- (16) nan-tama ci utay atu ci buya
 Rec-father Ncm Utay and Ncm Buya
 ‘Utay and Buya are father and son.’

- (17) nan-kaput qanyawu
 Rec-friend 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They are friends.’

- (18) nan-epaw¹¹ ci buya atu ci ukis
 Rec-house Ncm Buya and Ncm Ukis
 ‘Buya and Ukis are husband and wife.’

Unlike the verbal marker *sim-*, *nan-* is less productive. While *sim-* can be prefixed to almost every verb, as long as the verbs can be semantically reciprocal, only a few nouns can be the host for *nan-*, and all of them express personal relationships.

¹¹ Without the reciprocal marker *nan-*, ‘house’ is pronounced as *repaw*.

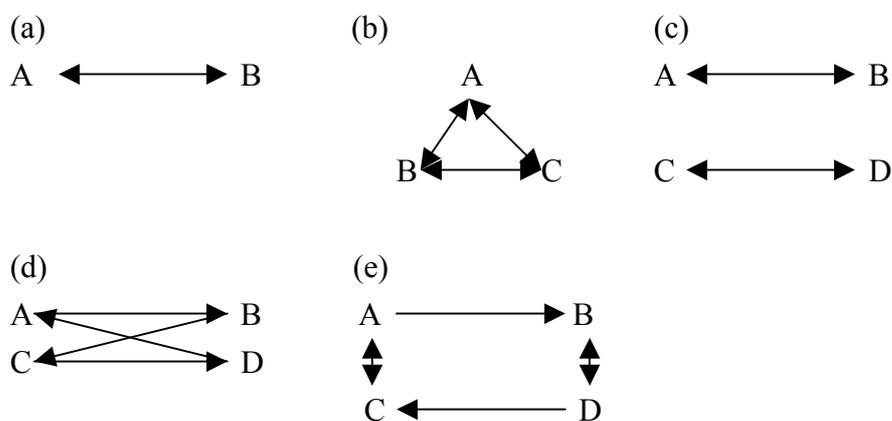
7.2 Functions

In Kavalan, the marker *sim-* is found to serve more than one function. In addition to the reciprocal situations, *sim-* can also be marked on verbs to express chaining, collective and distributive meanings. What these situations have in common is that they all involve the notion of plurality.

7.2.1 Reciprocal situations

The main function of the reciprocal marker *sim-* in Kavalan is to mark a reciprocal situation. The typical reciprocal situation, such as *Tom and John hit each other*, is one in which a participant of a group directs an act towards another participant (or other participants) of the group, and at the same time receives the same act from another participant (or other participants) of the group. In the above example, one of the participants *Tom* hit another participant of the group *John* and at the same time is being hit by *John*. This relation can be depicted by figure (1a). When there are more than two participants, there can be variations, as shown in figure (1b-e) shows. In the following figure, the arrows represent the direction of actions.

Figure (1): Possible reciprocal situations



In Kavalan, the above reciprocal relations are encoded by the prefix *sim-*. For instance, in (19) there are only two participants, *Buya* and *Abas*. They share a relation depicted by figure (1a). In this relation, *Buya* is mad at *Abas* and *Abas* is mad at *Buya*. In other words, the two participants in this event both have two semantic roles, the experiencer and the theme. In example (19), which involves more than two participants, there may be variations of the relation. The relation among the four children may be figure (1c), (1d) or (1e).

(19) *sim-qenut* *ci* *buya* *ci* *abas*
 Rec-angry Ncm Buya Ncm Abas
 ‘Buya and Abas are mad at each other.’

(20) *sim-pukun* *kinsepat* *sunis* ’*nay*
 Rec-hit four.human child that
 ‘The four children hit each other.’

7.2.2 Chaining situations

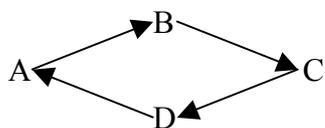
In some reciprocal situations, the relation of the participants is in the form of a chain, as in figure (2). It is termed *chaining situations* by Lichtenberk (1985, 2000). The chain may be an open chain, as in figure (2) or a closed one, as in figure (3).

Figure (2): A chaining situation

$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow E$

The children followed one another.

Figure (3): A closed chain situation



The children chased each other.

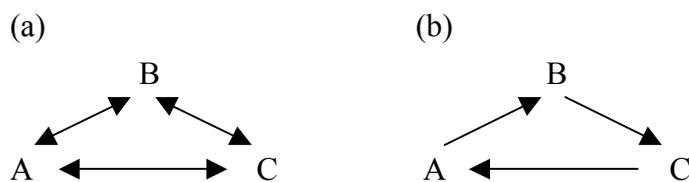
In an open chain, with the exception of the end participant, each participant is involved in two relations. In figure (2), participant A and E are involved in only one relation. Participant A follows participant B and participant E is followed by participant D. But all other participants, B, C, D, are involved in two relations. For instance, participant B follows participant C and at the same time is being followed by participant A. In a closed chain such as figure (3), there is no end participant. Therefore all participants are involved in two relations, as the middle participants in an open chain.

In Kavalan the situations expressed by the reciprocal marker *sim-* also include chaining situations. For instance, in (21) the children may be in a multiple reciprocal relation in which each two of the participants form a pair and each pair performs a reciprocal act, as in figure (1c). Or the children may form an open chain, as depicted in figure (2) or they may form a closed chain in which one participant chases another participant and at the same time being chased by a third participant, as in figure (3).

- (21) *sim-ta-tanuz sunis 'nay*
 Rec-Rec-chase child that
 'Those children chase each other.'

In another similar example, the three participants *Abas*, *Upa* and *Ukis* in (22) may be in a multiple reciprocal relation or a chaining relation, as in figure (4).

- (22) *ci abas, ci upa atu ci ukis sim-selus*
 Ncm Abas Ncm Upa and Ncm Ukis Rec-change
tu qulus
 Acc clothes
 'Abas, Upa and Ukis exchange clothes.'

Figure (4): Possible relations in a *sim*-marked construction

7.2.3 Collective situations

In a collective situation participants are identified as a whole, instead of individuals, and perform an act jointly. In Kavalan the affix *sim*- can also mark a collective situation.

- (23) *sim-kirim* *aymi* *tu* *wasu*
 Rec-look_for 1Pl.excl.Nom Acc dog
 ‘We look for the dog(s).’

- (24) *sim-pukun* *ci* *abas* *atu* *ci* *buya* *ci*
 Rec-hit Ncm Abas and Ncm Buya Ncm
utay-an
 Utay.Acc
 ‘Abas and Buya hit Utay.’

- (25) *sim-tayta* *aymi* *tu* *sunis-niaq*
 Rec-see 1Pl.excl.Nom Acc child-1Pl.excl.Gen
 ‘We met up with our child/children.’

In (23) – (25) the subjects are perceived as a group performing an act jointly. In (23), the likely situation is that our dog is lost and we look for it together. In (24), the agents *Abas* and *Buya* gang up and hit *Utay*. (25) expresses a situation in which the subjects, who are very likely to be a couple, go to some place and visit their child/children together¹².

¹² There is another lexical item expressing the collective meaning ‘together’, *masulun/matapun*. The former is used for a more active action and the latter is used for a more stative action. For instance,

Using the reciprocal marker to express a collective situation is quite common in languages of the world. The participants in a typical reciprocal situation usually perform a transitive action together at approximately the same time and same place. Therefore, once the notion of transitivity is dropped, the reciprocal simply marks collectivity. Gradually the same marker which is used to mark reciprocals is then used to signal collectivity (Kemmer 1997, Gerds 2000). For instance,

- (26) *sim-uRing* *qanyawu*
 Rec-cry 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They cried.’

In (26), the third person plural subject may be sharing a sad experience and therefore cry together. In this example *sim-* is marked on an intransitive verb, *uRing* ‘cry’, making it impossible to have a reciprocal interpretation. Therefore, *sim-* in (26) signals collectivity but not reciprocity.

7.2.4 Distributive situations

In some languages, this development could take a further step from marking collectivity to distributivity. That is, the marker may further be used to mark a situation in which the participants perform the same action but at different time and/or place. Like collective situations, participants in distributive situations perform the same act. But unlike collective situations, participants in distributive situations are perceived as individuals performing the act individually, and possibly at different time, instead of at the same time.

-
- (i) *masulun sunis a yawu k-em-irim tu wasu-na*
 together child Link that AF-look_for Acc dog-3.Gen
 ‘Those children look for their dog together.’
- (ii) *matapun qanyawu sanmay*
 together 3Pl.Nom cook
 ‘They cook together.’

The marker *sim-* in Kavalan can also mark such situation. For instance, the above example (23) may describe a situation in which each of us has a dog. Both our dogs are lost and we each look for our own dogs. (24) can also be used in a situation where Abas hit Utay and Buya also hit Utay, but they did it at different time. And (25) can also be interpreted as two mothers meeting their own children separately. The situation in (27) below is similar. It can be interpreted as ‘Abas and Buya both step on Utay’s foot but they do it at different time’¹³.

- (27) *sim-tebeR* *ci* *abas* *atu ci* *buya* *tu zapan*
 Rec-step Ncm Abas and Ncm Buya Acc foot
ni utay
 Gen Utay
 ‘Abas and Buya step on Utay’s foot.’

7.3. The plural-subject requirement in *sim-* marked constructions

Unlike reflexives, which have the form of NPs, the reciprocal marker *sim-* in Kavalan is more like a derivational morpheme. Since reciprocal is not an anaphoric NP, its existence does not rely on an antecedent and it is not governed by binding conditions, either. However, this does not mean that reciprocals can occur freely without limitations. When a verb is affixed with the reciprocal prefix *sim-*, the verb becomes a reciprocal verb. This process does not necessarily make the affixed verb into an intransitive one. But it does change the argument structure of the verb. As mentioned above, one of the important properties of reciprocals is “plurality of relations among the participants”. This property is manifested by the plural-subject

¹³ There is another lexical item *tatutunguz* which can express distributivity. For example,

- (i) *tatutunguz ci utay atu ci abas m-anan*
 each Ncm Utay and Ncm Abas AF-return_home
 ‘Utay and Abas each returns home.’
 (ii) *tatutunguz wasu ’nay Raytunguz*
 each dog that bark
 ‘Each of those dogs is barking.’

requirement of reciprocal constructions¹⁴. As shown in (28) – (30), after *sim-* is prefixed, the derived reciprocal verb can no longer take a singular NP as its subject. It now requires a plural subject.

- (28) a. *sim-liatip ya ci abas
 Rec-take_care Nom Ncm Abas
- b. sim-liatip ya ci abas atu sunis-na
 Rec-take_care Nom Ncm Abas and child-3.Gen
 ‘Abas and her child take care of each other.’
- (29) a. *sim-pukun ya ci buya
 Rec-hit Nom Ncm Buya
- b. sim-pukun ya ci buya atu ci utay
 Rec-hit Nom Ncm Buya and Ncm Utay
 ‘Buya and Utay hit each other.’
- (30) a. *sim-ta-tanuz ya ci utay
 Rec-Red-chase Nom Ncm Utay
- b. sim-ta-tanuz ya sunis ’nay
 Rec-Red-chase Nom child that
 ‘Those children chase each other.’

In the three pairs of example above, example (a)s with singular subjects are judged as “anomalous” by native speakers. But example (b)s with a plural subject are all accepted.

The plural-subject requirement also applies to inherent reciprocal verbs as in (31) and (32). It indicates that the requirement is related to the semantic content of reciprocal verbs. Recall that verbs such as *tatuqez* ‘argue’ and *puth* ‘fight’ in Kavalan

¹⁴ Although we follow the line of Lichtenberk’s (1985, 2000) view of “plurality of relations” in our analysis, Davies (2000) also find that in Madurese, reciprocal and distributive which share a property of “multiple events” coded by *saleng* both require a plural subject, which further supports our analysis that Lichtenberk’s and Davies’ observation are essentially the same. They differ in that they describe the same phenomenon from different point of view.

carry reciprocal meaning by themselves. Therefore although these inherent reciprocal verbs do not need to be marked by *sim-* to express reciprocals, the reciprocal content in them still require plural subjects.

- (31) a. * me-tatuqez ya ci buya
 AF-argue Nom Ncm Buya
- b. me-tatuqez qanyawu kinawsa
 AF-argue 3Pl.Nom two.human
 ‘They two argue.’
- (32) a. * ma-puth ya ci buya
 AF-fight Nom Ncm Buya
- b. ma-puth kintulu sunis ’nay
 AF-fight three.human child that
 ‘The three children fight.’

In the previous section, we also mention that the property “plurality of relations among participants” is shared by the constructions marked by *sim-*. Therefore, we can expect that in addition to reciprocal constructions, other constructions marked by the marker *sim-*, including chaining, collective and distributive situations, are also bound by the plural-subject requirement. As shown in (33) – (35), this is in fact true.

(33) Chaining

- * sim-ta-tanuz ya ci abas
 Rec-Red-chase Nom Ncm Abas
 ‘Abas chase.’

(34) Collective

- * sim-pukun ya ci buya ci utay-an
 Rec-hit Nom Ncm Buya Ncm Utay.Acc
 ‘Buya hit Utay together.’

(35) Distributive

* sim-tebeR ci abas tu zapan ni utay
 Rec-step Ncm Abas Acc foot Gen Utay
 ‘Abas all step on Utay’s foot.’

7.4 Transitivity in Reciprocal Constructions

In this section, we will discuss transitivity in Kavalan reciprocals. The marking of transitivity or intransitivity in Kavalan is not so obvious. There is no transitive/intransitive marker on the verbs. And so far we find no syntactic process or construction that is accessible only to transitive or intransitive verbs. Therefore, when we examine the transitivity of the reciprocal construction in Kavalan, we start by examining the number of arguments. At First sight, the reciprocal marker *sim-* does seem to derive an intransitive verb by absorbing one argument of the transitive verb. For example,

- (36) a. p-em-ukun ci buya ci abas-an
 AF-hit Ncm Buya Ncm Abas.Acc
 ‘Buya hit Abas.’
- b. sim-pukun ci buya atu ci utay
 Rec-hit Ncm Buya and Ncm Utay
 ‘Buya and Utay hit each other.’

In (36a), the verb *pukun* ‘hit’ originally takes two arguments, a subject and an object. After the reciprocal marker *sim-* is prefixed as in (36b), the derived verb *sim-pukun* ‘hit each other’ takes only one argument – the subject, indicating that *sim-* has changed the transitive verb ‘hit’ into an intransitive one.

However, a careful examination reveals that occasionally there is an additional role in the reciprocal construction. For instance,

(37) masang sim-iRaw tu melanay sim-etung qanyawu
 before Rec-rob Acc land Rec-kill 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They robbed each other for the land and killed each other in the past.’

(38) niz-an-na sim-qay-Ruziq qanyawu kelisyu-na
 all-PF-3.Gen Rec-stat-steal 3.Pl.Nom money-3.Gen
 ‘They stole all of each other’s money.’

(39) sim-seles-imi tu qulus
 Rec-change-1.Pl.excl.Nom Acc clothes
 ‘We exchange clothes.’

In (37) – (39), there is another argument involved besides the required plural subjects. So is the reciprocal construction in Kavalan transitive or intransitive?

Most recent studies regarding transitivity in Kavalan agree that NAF clauses are transitive clauses (e.g., Chang 1997, Chang and Tsai 1998, 2001, Liao 2002, 2004). Therefore, if the reciprocal marker *sim-* derives reciprocal verbs that are intransitive, it would be impossible for these verbs to occur in NAF forms. Indeed, many verbs which can occur in NAF forms before the affixation of *sim-* are no longer compatible with NAF markers after *sim-* is attached.

(40) a. tayta-an-na ni buya ci abas
 see-PF-3.Gen Gen Buya Ncm Abas
 ‘Buya saw Abas.’

b. * sim-tayta-an-na qanyawu
 Rec-see-PF-3.Gen 3Pl.Nom
 ‘They saw each other.’

(41) a. Ratut-an-ku ci buya
 scare-PF-1Sg.Gen Ncm Buya
 ‘I scared Buya.’

- b. * sim-Ratut-an-na qanyawu
 Rec-scare-PF-3.Gen 3Sg.Nom
 ‘They scared each other.’

- (42) a. sipiq-an-na ya napawan-na
 kick-PF-3.Gen Nom spouse-3.Gen
 ‘He kicked his wife.’

- b. *sim-sipiq-an na ci buya atu ci utay
 Rec-kick-PF Gen Ncm Buya and Ncm Utay
 ‘Buya and Utay kicked each other.’

In the examples above, we can see that in their non-reciprocal forms, the three verbs *tayta* ‘see’, *Ratut* ‘scare’ and *sipiq* ‘kick’ can occur in NAF forms, which means that they are transitive verbs. But once the reciprocal marker *sim-* is affixed, NAF markers are excluded.

Although a majority of reciprocals in our data are in AF forms, however, we do come across some reciprocal clauses that occur in NAF form. For instance, one of these verbs is *seles* ‘change’.

- (43) a. s-em-eles-iku tu qulus tu tawki
 change-AF-1Sg.Nom Acc clothes Acc seller
 ‘I change the clothes with the seller.’

- b. seles-an-ku ya qulus ta-tawki-an
 change-PF-1Sg.Gen Nom clothes Loc-seller-Loc
 ‘I change the clothes with the seller.’

- c. sim-seles-an na qanyawu ya qulus-na
 Rec-change-PF 3.Gen 3Pl Nom clothes-3.Gen
 ‘They exchange clothes.’

In (43a) and (43b) *seles* ‘change’ takes three arguments in its non-reciprocal form, the agent who changes the clothes, the clothes being changed, and the person with whom the agent changes the clothes. In its reciprocal form, the number of argument

reduces from three to two. In (43c) the remaining two arguments are *qanyawu* ‘they’ and *qulus-na* ‘their clothes’. Because now the predicate expresses a symmetric relation, i.e. one of the agents is at the same time the person with whom another agent changes the clothes, what is represented by two arguments in a non-reciprocal construction is now represented by one single argument in a reciprocal construction. In other words, the number of arguments is reduced. There are other similar examples.

- (44) a. me-liway-iku tu kelisyu ci buya-an
 AF-lend/borrow-1Sg.Nom Acc money Ncm Buya.Acc
 ‘I lend Buya money.’
- b. sim-liway tu kelisyu ya ci buya
 Rec-lend/borrow Acc money Nom Ncm Buya
 atu ci abas
 and Ncm Abas
 ‘Buya and Abas lend each other money.’
- (45) a. bura-an ni buya ci utay tu usiq peRasku
 give-PF Gen Buya Ncm Utay Acc one bottle
 Raq
 liquor
 ‘Buya gives Utay a bottle of liquor.’
- b. sim-bura tu Raq ya ci utay atu ci
 Rec-give Acc liquor Nom Ncm Utay and Ncm
 buya
 Buya
 ‘Utay and Buya give each other liquor.’
- (46) a. s-em-anu ci buya ci abas-an tu lanas
 tell-AF Ncm Buya Ncm Abas.Acc Acc thing
 ni utay
 Gen Utay
 ‘Buya tells Abas things about Utay.’
- b. sim-sanu ci abas atu ci buya tu lanas
 Rec-tell Ncm Abas and Ncm Buya Acc thing

ni utay
 Gen Utay
 ‘Abas and Buya tell each other things about Utay.’

In these examples, the number of argument all reduced from three to two after the reciprocal affix *sim-* is added. However, one may ask that since AF clauses may be transitive or intransitive, how can we tell whether *kelisyu* ‘money’ in (44b), *Raq* ‘liquor’ in (45b), and *lanas ni utay* ‘things about Utay’ in (46b) are arguments or obliques? One way to test it is to change the reciprocal verbs into their NAF forms since NAF clauses are transitive.

- (44) b’. sim-liway-an-na ni buya atu ci abas
 Rec-lend/borrow-PF-3.Gen Gen Buya and Ncm Abas
 ya kelisyu
 Nom money
 ‘Buya and Abas lend each other money.’
- (45) b’. sim-bura-an-na ni utay atu ci buya ya
 Rec-give-PF-3.Gen Gen Utay and Ncm Buya Nom
 Raq
 liquor
 ‘Utay and Buya give each other liquor.’
- (46) b’ sim-sanu-an-na ni abas atu ci buya ya
 Rec-tell-PF-3.Gen Gen Abas and Ncm Buya Nom
 lanas ni utay
 thing Gen Utay
 ‘Abas and Buya tell each other things about Utay.’

Since (44b’) – (46b’) above are all well-constructed clauses, we can be sure that the two NPs, *buya atu ci abas* and *kelisyu* in (44b) and (44b’), *utay atu ci buya* and *Raq* in (45b) and (45b’), as well as *abas atu ci buya* and *lanas ni utay* in (46b) and (46’) are arguments instead of obliques, since NAF clauses are transitive constructions.

Next let us compare the above examples with the following constructions whose main verb is *sipiq* ‘kick’.

- (47) a. sipiq aysu ci abas-an
kick 2Sg.Nom Ncm Abas.Acc
‘You kick Abas.’
- b. sipiq-an-na ya napawan-na
kick-PF-3.Gen Nom spouse-3.Gen
‘He kicked his wife.’
- c. sim-sipiq sunis ’nay tu zapan-na
Rec-kick child that Acc/Obl(?) foot-3.Gen
‘Those children kick each other on the feet.’
- d. *sim-sipiq-an na sunis ’nay ya zapan-na
Rec-kick-PF Gen child that Nom foot-3.Gen
‘Those children kick each other on the feet.’

As shown in (47a) and (47b) the verb *sipiq* ‘kick’ takes two arguments in its non-reciprocal form whether it is in AF or NAF form. When affixed with *sim-* as in (47c), in addition to the syntactic subject *sunis* ’nay ‘those children’, there can be another NP, *zapan-na* ‘their feet’, which appears to make (47c) a transitive construction. However, a further examination indicates that *sim-sipiq* is not a transitive verb, since as (47d) shows *sim-sipiq* cannot occur in NAF form. Therefore, we can tell that the NP *zapan-na* in (47c) is an oblique NP of *sim-sipiq* rather than an argument.

Summarizing what we have discussed in this section, we can conclude that when functioning as a reciprocal marker, *sim-* does not necessarily derive intransitive verbs. It simply reduces the number of arguments of the affixed verbs, i.e. it changes transitive verbs into intransitive ones and ditransitive verbs into transitive ones.

7.5 Summary

In this chapter we have examined the reciprocal construction in Kavalan. It is found that reciprocals are mainly marked on the verbs by an affix *sim-*. In addition to marking reciprocals, the same affix is also used to mark chaining, collective and distributive situations, which all share a semantic property – plurality of relations among participants. This semantic property is also reflected on the syntax. The *sim-*marked constructions all require a plural NP as their subjects.

Regarding the transitivity of reciprocal constructions in Kavalan, it is found that although transitive verbs indeed becomes intransitive after the reciprocal affix *sim-* is attached, ditransitive verbs become transitive instead of intransitive after undergoing the same process. Therefore, we conclude that the reciprocal affix in Kavalan is a valence-changing affix, i.e. it reduces the number of arguments, but it does not necessarily derive intransitive verbs.

Chapter Eight Negation

8.0 Introduction

This chapter provides descriptive discussions of the syntactic distributions and semantic properties of seven negative elements in Kavalan: *mai*, *usa*, *naRin*, *sukaw*, *Rayngu*, *taqa*, and *ita*.

Sections 8.1-8.3 respectively present the usages of *mai*, *usa*, and *naRin* in detail. Other negative elements such as *sukaw* ‘forbidden; not good’, *Rayngu* ‘incapable of; not know’, *taqa* ‘not want’, and *ita* ‘(I) don’t know’ are described in the subsequent section (8.4). Section 8.5 mentions some affixes of which the addition to negative expressions will modify the meanings. And finally, we will show that Kavalan is a language that exhibits Double Negation (DN) rather than Negative Concord (NC) in Section 8.6.

8.1 *mai*

Kavalan *mai* can be used for negation in declarative constructions with non-nominal predicates as well as in possessive/existential constructions. The former is illustrated in Section 8.1.1, and the latter in 8.1.2. Moreover, *mai* can function as a negative answer, as presented in 8.1.3.

8.1.1 *mai* in declarative constructions

8.1.1.1 Sentential negation

mai ‘not’ is the most commonly used negator in Kavalan. Like English *not*, its placement determines its scope of negation. When used for sentential negation, *mai* is added to the clause-initial position of the affirmative counterparts with non-nominal

predicates. For example,

- (1) a. *m-uzan* *tangi*
 AV-rain today
 ‘It rains today.’
- b. *mai* *m-uzan* *tangi*
 Neg AV-rain today
 ‘It does not rain today.’
- (2) a. *p-m-ukun* *tu* *wasu* ‘*nay* *ci* *buya*
 AV-hit Acc dog that Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya hits the dog.’
- b. *mai* *p-m-ukun* *tu* *wasu* ‘*nay* *ci* *buya*
 Neg AV-hit Acc dog that Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya doesn’t hit the dog.’
- (3) a. *me-lizaq* *tu* *wasu* *ci* *abas*
 AV-like Acc dog Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas likes dogs.’
- b. *mai* *me-lizaq* *tu* *wasu* *ci* *abas*
 Neg AV-like Acc dog Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas doesn’t like dogs.’
- (4) a. *ibabaw* *ci* *buya*
 tall Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya is tall.’
- b. *mai* *ibabaw* *ci* *buya*
 Neg tall Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya is not tall.’
- (5) a. (*yau*) *ta-nawung-an* *ci* *abas*
 (Exist) Loc-mountain-Loc Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is in the mountain.’

- b. *mai* (yau) ta-nawung-an ci abas
 Neg (Exist) Loc-mountain-Loc Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is not in the mountain.’

As can be seen, clauses with verbal (1-3), adjectival (4) and locative¹⁵ (5) predicates are all negated by the clause-initial *mai*, without causing a change in word order or the form of the main predicates.

Since Kavalan has two voice options, *mai* can precede a lexical verb in either AV (as in 6a) or NAV (as in 6b) form. The difference only lies in the speaker’s focal attention.

- (6) a. *mai* p-m-ukun tu wasu ‘nay ci buya
 Neg AV-hit Acc dog that Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya doesn’t hit the dog.’

- b. *mai* pukun-an ni buya (ya) wasu ‘nay
 Neg hit-NAV Gen BUYA (Nom) dog that
 ‘Buya doesn’t the dog.’ (‘The dog is not hit by Buya.’)

When there are tense/aspect makers and/or clitic pronouns in the negative sentences, the former obligatorily attach to the preverbal *mai*, while the latter can optionally cliticize to the negator or remain with the following verb, as shown below:

- (7) a. *p-m-ukun-ti-isu* tu wasu ‘nay
 AV-hit-Pfv-2Sg.Nom Acc dog that
 ‘You have hit the dog.’

- b. (i) *mai-ti-isu* p-m-ukun tu wasu ‘nay
 Neg-Pfv-2Sg.Nom AV-pukun Acc dog that
 ‘You don’t hit the dog anymore.’

¹⁵ In Yeh et al. (1998), negative locative sentences and negative existential/possessive sentences are grouped together. In Kavalan, however, it is found that negative locative sentences is structurally parallel to, and therefore should be classified into, negative declarative constructions.

- (ii) *mai-ti p-m-ukun-isu tu wasu 'nay*
 'You don't hit the dog anymore.'
 (iii) * *mai p-m-ukun-ti-isu tu wasu 'nay*
 (iv) * *mai-isu p-m-ukun-ti tu wasu 'nay*

- (8) a. *pukun-an-na-ti-iku ni buya*
 hit-NAV-3Sg.Gen-Pfv-1Sg.Nom Gen BUYA
 'Buya has hit me.' ('I have been hit by Buya.')

- b. (i) *mai-ti-iku pukun-an-na ni buya*
 Neg-Pfv-1Sg.Nom hit-NAV-3Sg.Gen Gen BUYA
 'Buya doesn't hit me anymore.' (I am not hit by Buya anymore.)
 (ii) *mai-ti pukun-an-na-iku ni buya*
 'Buya doesn't hit me anymore.' (I am not hit by Buya anymore.)
 (iii) * *mai pukun-an-na-ti-iku ni buya*
 (iv) * *mai-iku pukun-an-na-ti ni buya*
 (v) * *mai-na-ti-iku pukun-an ni buya*
 (vi) * *mai-na-ti pukun-an-iku ni buya*
 (vii) * *mai-na pukun-an-ti-iku ni buya*

In affirmative AV clauses as (7a), the perfective marker (-*ti*) and the clitic pronoun (-*isu* in this case) originally attach to the verb (*pukun* 'hit'). When (7a) is negated, the aspectual marker must cliticize to the preverbal negator, while the clitic pronoun can either attach to the negator (as in 7b (i)) or remain with the main verb (as in 7b (ii)). Leaving the aspectual marker with the main verb results in ungrammaticality (7b (iii)-(iv)). In NAV clauses as (8), the picture is approximately the same: the aspectual marker (-*ti*) obligatorily attach to *mai*, and the clitic pronoun (-*iku*) has options to be with the negator or with the following verb (as in 8b (i)-(ii) vs. 8b (iii)-(iv)). Unlike nominative bound pronouns, however, genitive bound pronouns (e.g., -*na* here), which have the morphological status of verbal agreement rather than of pronominal clitic (Chang 1997), cannot undergo clitic climbing and cliticize to the negator, but can only remain with the lexical verb suffixed by the NAV maker, as shown in 8b

(i)-(ii) as opposed to 8b (v)-(vii).

When it comes to the sentential negation of a serial verb construction, the tense/aspect marker must cliticize to the preverbal negator *mai* as well, but the clitic pronoun can freely attach to the negator, V1 or V2. Consider the following examples:

- (9) a. (i) *paska-ti-iku q-em-an tu Rak*
 try-Pfv-1Sg.Nom AV-eat Acc alcohol
 ‘I have tried to drink alcohol.’
 (ii) *paska-ti q-em-an-iku tu Rak*
 ‘I have tried to drink alcohol.’
 (iii) * *paska q-em-an-ti-iku tu Rak*
 (iv) * *paska-iku q-em-an-ti tu Rak*
- b. (i) *mai-ti-iku paska q-em-an tu Rak*
 Neg-Pfv-1Sg.Nom try AV-eat Acc alcohol
 ‘I don’t try anymore to drink alcohol.’
 (ii) *mai-ti paska-iku q-em-an tu Rak*
 ‘I don’t try anymore to drink alcohol.’
 (iii) *mai-ti paska q-em-an-iku tu Rak*
 ‘I don’t try anymore to drink alcohol.’
 (iv) * *mai paska-ti-iku q-em-an tu Rak*
 (v) * *mai-iku paska-ti q-em-an tu Rak*
 (vi) * *mai paska-ti q-em-an-iku tu Rak*

Example (9a) demonstrates that, in affirmative serial verb constructions, aspectual marker *-ti* obligatorily attaches to the initial verb (V1) while the pronominal clitic (*-iku* here) has options to cliticize to V1 (as in 9a (i)) or non-initial verb (V2) (as in 9a (ii)). In their negative counterparts, on the other hand, *-ti* must attach to the preverbal *mai*, but the clitic pronoun can either cliticize to *mai* (9b (i)) or remain with V1 (9b (ii)) or V2 (9b (iii)). Leaving the aspectual marker *-ti* with V1 results in ungrammaticality, as shown in 9b (iv)-(vi).

8.1.1.2 Constituent negation

In the cases of constituent negation, the negator *mai* occurs immediately before the negated constituents. The scope of negation extends only to what is placed on the right of *mai*. Compare the pairing sentences below:

(10) a. *mai me-nanam m-uzis ci abas* (Sentential)
 Neg AV-get_used_to AV-bathe Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is not used to taking a bath.’

b. *me-nanam mai m-uzis ci abas* (Constituent)
 AV-get_used_to Neg AV-bathe Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is used to not taking a bath.’

(11) a. *mai paska q-em-an tu Rak ci abas* (Sentential)
 Neg try AV-eat Acc alcohol Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas doesn’t try to drink alcohol.’

b. *paska mai q-em-an tu Rak ci abas* (Constituent)
 try Neg AV-eat Acc alcohol Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas tries not to drink alcohol.’

The English translation in (10)-(11) clearly manifests the rightward-scope property of *mai* as a constituent negator. In other words, the constituents on the left of *mai* (e.g., *me-nanam* ‘be used to’ in (10b) and *paska* ‘try’ in (11b)) are out of the negative scope. This observation accords with those in other languages (Payne 1985; Yu 1991; Mosel 1999; Anderwald 2002 and others).

If tense/aspect markers and/or clitic pronouns are involved in the examples of constituent negation, the former must attach to the initial predicate (V1) (as in 12a), while the latter can cliticize to V1, *mai* or V2. It is ungrammatical for the tense/aspect markers to attach to the postverbal *mai* or V2 (as in 12b-c). For example,

- (12) a. (i) *paska-ti-iku* *mai* *q-em-an tu Rak*
 try-Pfv-1Sg.Nom Neg AV-eat Acc alcohol
 ‘I have tried not to drink alcohol.’
 (ii) *paska-ti mai-iku q-em-an tu Rak*
 ‘I have tried not to drink alcohol.’
 (iii) *paska-ti mai q-em-an-iku tu Rak*
 ‘I have tried not to drink alcohol.’
- b. (i) * *paska mai-ti-iku q-em-an tu Rak*
 (ii) * *paska mai-ti q-em-an-iku tu Rak*
 (iii) * *paska-iku mai-ti q-em-an tu Rak*
- c. (i) * *paska mai q-em-an-ti-iku tu Rak*
 (ii) * *paska-iku mai q-em-an-ti tu Rak*
 (iii) * *paska mai-iku q-em-an-ti tu Rak*

8.1.2 *mai* in possessive/existential constructions

Previous studies generally recognize the semantic-syntactic relevance of possessive sentences with existential sentences (McFarland 1978; Quirk et al. 1985; Lumsden 1990; Freeze 1992; Yeh 1998; Yeh et al. 1998; Zeitoun et al. 1999; Zeitoun 2000; Chang 2000; Paul 2000; Sung 2001). It has also been observed that these two types of constructions are marked by the same morpheme in Kavalan, i.e., *yau* for affirmatives and *mai* for negatives (Zeitoun et al. 1999; Chang 2000). In this section, we therefore intend to focus the discussions on the usage of *mai* in possessive and existential constructions, with examples of the affirmative counterparts for comparison.

By definition, possessive sentences contain at least a possessor and a possessed object and express the meaning of “POSSESSOR have POSSESSED”. On the other hand, existential sentences refer to those literally equivalent to “there-be” sentences in English. The theme NPs in the existential sentences are generally indefinite due to the

Definiteness Restriction (Chomsky 1977) or the Definiteness Effect (Safir 1982; Quirk et al. 1985; Reuland and ter Meulen 1987; Lumsden 1990; Freeze 1992; Moro 1997; Paul 2000). These two types of sentences are discussed separately in the following sections.

8.1.2.1 Possessive sentences

Affirmative possessive sentences in Kavalan are constructed by an existential marker *yau* followed by a nominative NP. In other words, the possessor is realized in genitive case and the possessed entity in nominative case. Consequently, Example (13a) seems to be expressed literally as ‘Buya’s dog exists.’ (or ‘There exists Buya’s dog.’) and (14a) as ‘My money exists.’ (or ‘There exists my money.’)

- (13) a. *yau* (ya)/**tu* *wasu* *ni* *buya*
 Exist (Nom)/*Acc dog Gen BUYA
 ‘Buya has a dog.’
 b. **yau* *tu* *wasu* *ci* *buya*
 Exist Acc dog Ncm BUYA

- (14) a. *yau* (ya)/**tu* *kelisyu-ku*
 Exist (Nom)/*Acc money-1Sg.Gen
 ‘I have money.’
 b. **yau-iku* *tu* *kelisyu*¹⁶
 Exist-1Sg.Nom Acc money

As can be seen in (13b) and (14b), possessive sentences with a nominative possessor and a possessed object in accusative case are ungrammatical. It is therefore clear that *yau* in Kavalan is unlikely to be a transitive verb that selects two arguments.

Negative possessive sentences, on the other hand, exhibit a contrary picture: the

¹⁶ (18b) is marked grammatical in Lee (1997: 125) and Zeitoun (2000: 247). However, it is found ungrammatical after double-checking with the informants.

possessor must take nominative case and the possessed object the accusative case (as in 15a and 16a). If we attempt to parallel negative possessive sentences with their affirmative counterparts and assign the possessor and the possessed the genitive and nominative case respectively (as in 15b and 16b)¹⁷, the meaning will change and the implication of possession does not exist anymore.

(15) a. *mai* **(tu)* *wasu* *ci* *buya*
 Neg Acc dog Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya doesn’t have a dog.’

b. *mai* *(ya)/*tu* *wasu* *ni* *buya*
 Neg (Nom)/*Acc dog Gen BUYA
 (i) ‘Buya’s dog is gone/dead.’
 (ii) * ‘Buya doesn’t have a dog.’

(16) a. *mai-iku* **(tu)* *kelisyu*
 Neg-1Sg.Nom Acc money
 ‘I don’t have money.’

b. *mai* *(ya)/*tu* *kelisyu-ku*
 Neg (Nom)/*Acc money-1Sg.Gen
 (i) ‘My money is gone.’
 (ii) * ‘I don’t have money.’

Comparison of affirmative (13-14) and negative (15-16) possessive constructions reveals an asymmetry between the usage of *yau* and *mai*. In possessive constructions, *yau* does not act as a transitive verb, but *mai* does (literally equivalent to English transitive verb ‘not have’).

¹⁷ According to the informants, (15b) and (16b) do not semantically and syntactically belong to possessive sentences. Whether they should be classified as locative or existential sentences is an issue worthy of further studies.

8.1.2.2 Existential sentences

Affirmative existential sentences in Kavalan are structurally identical to affirmative possessive sentences, that is, marked by *yau* followed by a noun phrase in nominative case. Examples with indefinite NPs of various types are given in (17)-(19).

(17) (Common NP)

<i>yau</i>	<i>(ya)/*tu</i>	<i>benina</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>babaw</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>takan</i>
Exist	(Nom)/*Acc	banana	Loc	above	Gen	table

‘There are bananas on the table.’

(18) (General NP)

<i>yau</i>	<i>(ya)/*tu</i>	<i>razat</i>	<i>ta-rapaw-an</i>
Exist	(Nom)/*Acc	person	Loc-house-Loc

‘There is somebody home.’

(19) (Relativized NP)

<i>yau</i>	<i>(ya)/*tu</i>	<i>sazay</i>	<i>ay</i>	<i>razat</i>	<i>ta-bawa-an</i>
Exist	(Nom)/*Acc	sing	Rel	person	Loc-boat-Loc

‘There is a person who sings on the boat.’

As can be seen in the examples above, indefinite NPs in affirmative existential sentences, regardless of their types, are obligatorily marked by nominative case instead of by accusative case.

By contrast, NPs in negative existential sentences are generally marked by accusative case rather than by nominative case. For instance,

(20) (Common NP)

<i>mai tu/(*ya)</i>	<i>benina</i>	<i>(*‘nay)</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>babaw</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>takan</i>
Neg Acc/(*Nom)	banana	*that	Loc	above	Gen	table

‘There is no banana on the table.’

(21) (General NP)

*mai tu>(*ya) razat (*'nay) ta-repaw-an*
 Neg Acc/(*Nom) person *that Loc-house-Loc
 'There is nobody home.'

(22) (Relativized NP)

*mai tu(*ya) sazay ay razat (*'nay) ta-bawa-an*
 Neg Acc/(*Nom) sing Rel person *that Loc-boat-Loc
 'There is no person who sings on the boat.'

As shown in (20)-(22), replacing the accusative case with nominative case is ungrammatical. Moreover, it is also notable that the noun phrases are required to be indefinite; the definite article *'nay* 'that' cannot be used in existential constructions.

In this section, the asymmetry between *yau* and *mai* are attested again. While the indefinite theme NPs in affirmative existential constructions (with *yau*) are marked by nominative case, those in negative counterparts (with *mai*) must be marked by accusative case.

8.1.3 *mai* as negative answer

When used alone, *mai* can serve to negatively answer a polar question with non-nominal predicate or concerning possession/existence. The following are some examples.

(23) (Verbal predicate)

Q: *p-m-ukun tu wasu 'nay ci buya ni ?*
 AV-hit Acc dog that Ncm BUYA Q
 'Does Buya hit the dog?'
 A: *mai / *usa*
 'No.'

(24) (Adverbial predicate)

Q: *ibabaw ci buya ni ?*
 tall Ncm BUYA Q

‘Is Buya tall?’

A: *mai / *usa*

‘No.’

(25) (Locative predicate)

Q: *ta-repaw-an ci abas ni ?*
 Loc-house-Loc Ncm ABAS Q

‘Is Abas home?’

A: *mai / *usa*

‘No.’

(26) (Possession)

Q: *yau (ya) wasu ni buya ni ?*
 Exist (Nom) dog Geb BUYA Q

‘Does Buya has a dog?’

A: *mai / *usa*

‘No.’

(27) (Existence)

Q: *yau (ya) razat ta-repaw-an ni ?*
 Exist (Nom) person Loc-house-Loc Q

‘Is there anyone home?’

A: *mai / *usa*

‘No.’

The asterisk markers in (23)-(37) indicate that the types of questions under discussion cannot be negatively responded to by *usa*, another negator that will be described in 8.2.

8.2 *usa*

The negator *usa* is used to negate declarative clauses, or to answer polar questions, with nominal predicates, as described in 8.2.1 and 8.2.2 respectively.

8.2.1 *usa* in equational constructions

As opposed to *mai*, *usa* ‘be not’ is used exclusively for the negation of clauses with nominal predicates, i.e., of equational constructions. Kavalan equational sentences are composed of two NPs in juxtaposition without a copula (as in 28a and 29a), and the negation of which is achieved by adding *usa* right before the negated NP. That is to say, *usa* is a constituent negator instead of a sentential negator. In the following examples, the nominal predicates within the scope of negation are bracketed.

- (28) a. (i) *ci abas tazungan*
 Ncm ABAS female
 ‘Abas is a girl.’
 (ii) *tazungan ci abas*
 ‘Abas is a girl.’
- b. (i) *ci abas [usa /mai u tazungan]*
 Ncm ABAS Neg female
 ‘Abas is not a girl.’
 (ii) *[usa /mai u tazungan] ci abas*
 ‘Abas is not a girl.’
 (iii) * *tazungan [usa /mai u ci abas]*
 ‘A girl is not Abas.’
 (iv) * *[usa /mai u ci abas] tazungan*
 ‘A girl is not Abas.’
- (29) a. (i) *benina zawu qan-an*
 banana this eat-Nmz
 ‘This banana is food.’
 (ii) *qan-an benina zawu*
 ‘This banana is food.’
- b. (i) *benina zawu [usa /mai u qan-an]*
 banana this Neg eat-Nmz
 ‘This banana is not food.’

- (ii) [*usa /mai u qan-an*] *benina zawu*
 ‘This banana is not food.’
- (iii) * *qan-an* [*usa /mai u benina zawu*]
 ‘Food is not this banana.’
- (iv) * [*usa /mai u benina zawu*] *qan-an*
 ‘Food is not this banana.’

As illustrated in (28a) and (29a), two NPs in affirmative equational sentences may freely exchange order. However, in their negative counterparts, the order exchange is restricted under the principle that the scope of *usa*, as a constituent negator, extends to one and only the NP immediately following it.¹⁸ This explains the unacceptability in 28b (iii)-(iv) and 29b (iii)-(iv), since the rightward-scope property of *usa* for one NP constituent will cause semantic awkwardness in these examples.

Interestingly, it is found that, for older generations, *usa* in examples (28) and (29) can be replaced by *mai u*. There seems to be a formal connection between *mai u* and *mai*, although the latter cannot be used in the negation of nominal predicates. The morpho-syntactic status and function of *u* in *mai u* is still unknown for the time being. We would like to leave it for further research.

When there are tense/aspect markers and/or clitic pronouns in the negative equational sentences, the former obligatorily attaches to *usa* (as in 30a-b as opposed to 30c-d), while the latter can cliticize to either *usa* (30a) or the nominal predicate (30b).

- (30) a. *usa / *mai u -ti-iku sunis*
 Neg-Pfv-1Sg.Nom child

¹⁸ This does not include the pronominal clitic NP that may attach to *usa* by clitic climbing. In the following sentence (i), it is *sunis* ‘child’, not *-iku* ‘I’, that is the complement/predicate NP to be negated. The original sentence before clitic climbing is shown in (ii). According to Bach (1968) and Dixon (2002), the complement/predicate NP in an equational clause seldom takes the form of (bound) pronominals.

- (i) *usa-iku sunis* ‘I am not a child.’
 (ii) *usa sunis-iku* ‘I am not a child.’

‘I am not a child anymore.’

b. *usa* / **mai u -ti sunis-iku*

‘I am not a child anymore.’

c. * *usa* / *mai u sunis-ti-iku*

d. * *usa* / *mai u -iku sunis-ti*

Furthermore, contrary to *usa* which can be attached by tense/aspect markers and/or clitic pronouns, *mai u* can be cliticized with neither of these affixes, as shown in (34) (see also Lee 1997).

8.2.2 *usa* as negative answer

Aside from the distinct behaviors concerning inflection, *usa* and *mai u* differ as well in that the former can be used alone to give a negative answer to a polar question of equational proposition, while the latter cannot. Some examples are cited below.

(31) Q: *napawan ni buya ci abas ni* ?
 spouse Gen BUYA Ncm ABAS Q
 ‘Is Abas Buya’s wife?’
 A: *usa* / **mai u* / **mai*
 ‘No.’

(32) Q: *ci abas-isu ni* ?
 Ncm ABAS-2Sg.Nom Q
 ‘Are you Abas?’
 A: *usa* / **mai u* / **mai*
 ‘No.’

Examples (31) and (32) also demonstrate that the negator *mai* cannot be used to respond to this type of questions.

To summarize, *usa* and *mai u* are both used as constituent negators for nominal predicate in equational sentences. Although they can substitute for each other in most cases, they still differ in some ways. First, *usa* is semantically more direct

while *mai u*, used more often by the older generations, is more tactful (Yeh 2003). Moreover, *usa* can be inflected by tense/aspect markers and/or pronominal clitics but *mai u* cannot. And finally, it is *usa* rather than *mai u* that can be used alone in response to questions.

8.3 *naRin*

Kavalan has a distinctive negator, *naRin* ‘don’t’, for the negation of imperative constructions. Similar to the cases in Paiwan (Yet et al. 1998), the addition of *naRin* to the clause-initial position of affirmative imperative sentences will result in a change in the form of the main verbs. Kavalan AV and NAV affirmative imperatives are marked respectively by *-ka* and *-ika* on the root verbs, instead of on verbs with overt voice morphemes, as shown in (33a) vs. (33a’) and (34a) vs. (34a’):

(33) (AV)

a. *qan-ka tu/*ya Rak*
 eat-Imp Acc/*Nom alcohol
 ‘Drink alcohol!’

a’. * *q-em-an-ka tu Rak*

b. *naRin q-em-an tu Rak*
 Neg.Imp AV-eat Acc alcohol
 ‘Don’t drink alcohol!’

b’. * *naRin qan-ka tu Rak*

(34) (NAV)

a. *qan-ika (ya)/*tu Rak ‘nay*
 eat-Imp (Nom)/*Acc alcohol that
 ‘Drink the alcohol!’

a’. * *qan-an-ika (ya) Rak ‘nay*

b. *naRin qan-an (ya) Rak ‘nay*
 Neg.Imp eat-NAV (Nom) alcohol that

‘Don’t drink the alcohol!’
 b’. * *naRin qan-ika (ya) Rak ‘nay*

To negate imperatives as (33a) and (34a), directly adding *naRin* to the clauses without changing the form of the main verbs will result in ungrammaticality (as in 33b’ and 34b’). The verbs following *naRin* have to be affixed by the voice morphemes as illustrated in (33b) and (34b).

As an imperative negator, *naRin* exclusively (but optionally) takes second-person singular/plural actor(s) or first-person inclusive plural actors (35a-b). Other pronouns and actors are forbidden (35c). In AV constructions, when there is an overt nominative Actor, it can attach to either *naRin* (35a (i)) or the following verb (35a (ii)). In NAV constructions, however, the Actor, which must be in the genitive case, can only attach to the lexical verb affixed by the NAV marker (35b (i) as against (ii)).

- (35) a. (i) *naRin-isu /-imu /-ita* *p-m-ukun tu wasu*
 Neg.Imp-2Sg.Nom/-2Pl.Nom/1Pl.incl.Nom AV-hit Acc dog
 ‘Don’t (you/we) hit dogs!’
 (ii) *naRin p-m-ukun-isu /-imu /-ita tu wasu*
 ‘Don’t (you/we) hit dogs!’
- b. (i) *naRin pukun-an-su /-mu /-ta* (ya) *wasu ‘nay*
 Neg.Imp hit-NAV-2Sg.Gen/2Pl.Gen/1Pl.incl.Gen (Nom) dog that
 ‘Don’t (you/we) hit the dog!’
 (ii) * *naRin-su /-mu /-ta pukun-an (ya) wasu ‘nay*
- c. (i) * *naRin-iku /-imi / *ayzipna / qanyau* *p-m-ukun*
 Neg.Imp-1Sg.Nom/-1Pl.excl.Nom/ 3Sg.Nom/ 3Pl.Nom AV-hit
tu wasu
 Acc dog
 (ii) * *naRin pukun-an-ku /-mi /-na* (ya)
 Neg.Imp hit-NAV-1Sg.Gen/-1Pl.excl.Gen/3Sg.Gen (Nom)
wasu ‘nay
 dog that*

Unlike the nominative clitic pronouns in (35a), tense/aspect markers, if there are any, can only attach to the preverbal *naRin*, no matter whether in AV (36a) or NAV (36b) constructions.

- (36) a. (i) *naRin-ti q-em-an tu Rak*
 Neg.Imp-Pfv AV-eat Acc alcohol
 ‘Don’t drink alcohol anymore!’
 (ii) * *naRin q-em-an-ti tu Rak*
- b. (i) *naRin-ti qan-an (ya) Rak ‘nay*
 Neg.Imp-Pfv eat-NAV (Nom) alcohol that
 ‘Don’t drink the alcohol anymore!’
 (ii) * *naRin qan-an-ti (ya) Rak ‘nay*

8.4 Other negative elements

This section introduces other negative elements: *sukaw* ‘forbidden; not good’ (8.4.1), *Rayngu* ‘incapable of; not know’ (8.4.2), *taqa* ‘not want’ (8.4.3), and *ita* ‘(I) don’t know’ (8.4.4).

8.4.1 *sukaw*

sukaw has two relevant meanings. When preceding an AV verb, *sukaw* express prohibition, meaning ‘forbidden’, as shown in (37) and (38).

- (37) *sukaw/mai nengi t-em-avaku*
 forbidden/Neg allowed AV-smoke
 ‘It is forbidden to smoke./No smoking.’
- (38) *sukaw/mai nengi q-em-an tu benina*
 forbidden/Neg allowed AV-eat Acc banana
 ‘It is forbidden to eat bananas.’

When preceding a nominal (as in 39-43), on the other hand, *sukaw* means ‘not

good; bad’.

- (39) *sukaw/mai nengi* *tavaku-an* (*ya*) *tevaku* *zawu*
 not_good/Neg good smoke-Nmz (Nom) cigarette this
 ‘The cigarette doesn’t smoke good.’
- (40) *sukaw/mai nengi* *qan-an* (*ya*) *benina* *zawu*
 not_good/Neg good eat-Nmz (Nom) banana this
 ‘This banana is not tasty.’
- (41) *sukaw/mai nengi* (*ya*)/**tu* *t-em-avaku* *ay* *razat*
 not_good/Neg good (Nom)/*Acc AV-smoke Rel person
 ‘People who smoke are not good.’
- (42) *sukaw/mai nengi* (*ya*)/**tu* *tevaku*
 not_good/Neg good (Nom)/*Acc cigarette
 ‘Cigarettes are not good.’
- (43) *sukaw/mai nengi* (*ya*)/**tu* *ci* *buya*
 not_good/Neg good (Nom)/*Acc Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya is not good.’

As can be seen, *sukaw* in all the examples above (37)-(43) can be replaced by the negator *mai* followed by its counterpart *nengi* ‘allowed; good’¹⁹.

Unlike *naRin*, when expressing prohibition, *sukaw* can be used with all types of actors, including all pronouns, nouns, and proper names. Again, pronominal clitics can either attach to *sukaw* (44a) or the following verb (44b).

¹⁹ *nengi*, the counterpart of *sukaw*, behaves exactly like *sukaw*. *nengi* means ‘allowed’ when followed by an AV verb (i), and ‘good’ when followed by a nominal (ii-v). For example,

- (i) *nengi t-em-avaku* ‘It is allowed to smoke.’
 (ii) *nengi tavaku-an (ya) tevaku zawu* ‘This cigarette smokes good.’
 (iii) *nengi (ya) t-em-avaku ay razat* ‘People who smoke are good.’
 (iv) *nengi (ya) tevaku* ‘Cigarettes are good.’
 (v) *nengi (ya) ci buya* ‘Buya is good.’

- (44) a. *sukaw-iku /-isu /-imi /-ita /-imu /*
 forbidden-1Sg.Nom/-2Sg.Nom/-1Pl.excl.Nom/-1Pl.incl.Nom/-2Pl.Nom/
ayzipna/ qanayw/ ci buya/ ya wasu *q-em-an tu benina*
 3Sg.Nom/ 3Pl.Nom/ Ncm BUYA/ Nom dog AV-eat Acc banana
 ‘I/You/We/He/They/Buya/The dog is/are forbidden to eat bananas.’
- b. *sukaw q-em-an-iku /-isu /-imi /-ita /-imu / ayzipna/ qanaywu/*
ci buya/ ya wasu tu benina
 ‘I/You/We/He/They/Buya/The dog is/are forbidden to eat bananas.’

When tense/aspect marker such as *-ti* is involved, it must attach to *sukaw* (45a, b), not to the following verb (45c, d).

- (45) a. *sukaw-ti-iku* *t-em-avaku*
 forbidden-Pfv-1Sg.Nom AV-smoke
 ‘I have been forbidden to smoke.’
- b. *sukaw-ti t-em-avaku-iku*
 ‘I have been forbidden to smoke.’
- c. * *sukaw t-em-avaku-ti-iku*
- d. * *sukaw-iku t-em-avaku-ti*

8.4.2 Rayngu

Different from other negative elements mentioned above, *Rayngu* itself can take voice morphemes. When *Rayngu* is in AV form (*Rayngu* or *me-Rayngu*) and followed by an AV verb (46a), it means ‘incapable of; cannot’, expressing negation of ability. In this case, *Rayngu* cannot be replaced by its NAV form (*Rayngu-an*) (as in 46b). For instance,

- (46) a. *(me-)Rayngu* *q-em-an tu ‘may ci abas*
 (AV-)incapable_of AV-eat Acc rice Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is incapable of eating rice (because she is too young).’
- b. * *Rayngu-an ni abas q-em-an tu/(ya) ‘may ‘nay*

- c. *mai (me-)supaR q-em-an tu 'may ci abas*
 Neg (AV-)capable_of AV-eat Acc rice Ncm ABAS
 'Abas is incapable of eating rice.'

(46c) further demonstrates that, *(me-)Rayngu* can be replaced by the negator *mai* followed by its counterpart *(me-)supaR*²⁰ 'capable of; can', without changing the meaning or the remaining structure of the sentences.

When tense/aspect markers and/or clitic pronouns are involved, the former should obligatorily attach to *(me-)Rayngu*, while the latter to *(me-)Rayngu* or the following verb, as shown in (47).

- (47) a. *(me-)Rayngu-ti-iku s-em-aqay*
 incapable_of-Pfv-1Sg.Nom AV-walk
 'I have been incapable of walking.'
 b. *(me-)Rayngu-ti s-em-aqay-iku*
 'I have been incapable of walking.'
 c. * *Rayngu s-em-aqay-ti-iku*
 d. * *Rayngu-iku s-em-aqay-ti*

When *Rayngu* in AV form takes a nominal (48a) or a clause (49a) as its complement, on the other hand, it expresses negation of knowledge, meaning 'not know'. In this case, *Rayngu* can, and is preferred to, be replaced by its NAV form (52b, 53b). For instance,

²⁰ *supaR*, the counterpart of *Rayngu*, behaves exactly like *Rayngu*. Its AV form (*(me-)supaR*) means 'capable of; can' when taking a verbal complement (i-a), and means 'know' when taking a nominal (ii-a) or clausal (iii-a) complement. Its NAV form (*supaR-an*) can only take a nominal (ii-b) or sentential (iii-b) complement to mean 'know', but cannot take a verbal complement (i-b). For example,

- (i) a. *(me-)supaR s-em-alaw ci buya* 'Buya can hunt.?' / 'Buya is capable of hunting.'
 b. * *supaR-an ni buya s-em-alaw*
 (ii) a. *(me-)supaR ci buya tu razat 'nay* 'Buya knows that person.'
 b. *supaR-an ni buya (ya) razat 'nay* 'Buya knows that person.'
 (iii) a. *(me-)supaR ci buya (tu) pukun-an ni utay ci abas* 'Buya knows that Utay hit Abas.'
 b. *supaR-an ni buya (tu) pukun-an ni utay ci abas* 'Buya knows that Utay hit Abas.'

- (48) a. *(me-)Rayngu ci buya tu razat 'nay*
 (AV-)not_know Ncm BUYA Acc person that
 'Buya doesn't know that person.'
- b. *Raygnu-an ni buya (ya) razat 'nay*
 not_know-NAV Gen BUYA (Nom) person that
 'Buya doesn't know that person.'
- a'. *mai (me-)supaR ci buya tu razat 'nay*
 Neg (AV-)know Ncm BUYA Acc person that
 'Buya doesn't know that person.'
- b'. *mai supaR-an ni buya (ya) razat 'nay*
 Neg know-NAV Gen BUYA (Nom) person that
 'Buya doesn't know that person.'
- (49) a. *(me-)Rayngu ci buya (tu) pukun-an ni utay ci abas*
 (AV-)not_know Ncm BUYA (Compl) hit-NAV Gen UTAY Ncm ABAS
 'Buya doesn't know (that) Utay hits Abas.'
- b. *Rayngu-an ni buya (tu) pukun-an ni utay ci abas*
 not_know-NAV Gen BUYA (Compl) hit-NAV Gen UTAY Ncm ABAS
 'Buya doesn't know (that) Utay hits Abas.'
- a'. *mai supaR ci buya (tu) pukun-an ni utay ci abas*
 Neg know Ncm BUYA (Compl) hit-NAV Gen UTAY Ncm ABAS
 'Buya doesn't know (that) Utay hits Abas.'
- b'. *mai supaR-an ni buya (tu) pukun-an ni utay ci abas*
 Neg know-NAV Gen BUYA (Compl) hit-NAV Gen UTAY Ncm ABAS
 'Buya doesn't know (that) Utay hits Abas.'

Again, *(me-)Rayngu* and *Rayngu-an* can be substituted by *mai (me-)supaR* (48a', 49a') and *mai supaR-an* (48b', 49b') respectively, without changing the meaning or the remaining structure.

Table 8-1 summarizes the usage and meaning of *Rayngu* in its AV and NAV form.

The shaded parts indicate higher frequency of usage and meaning.

Table 8-1. Meaning and usage of *Rayngu*

	Complement type	
	Verbal (AV)	Nominal / Clausal
AV form <i>(me-)Ryngu</i>	Neg. of ability 'incapable of ; cannot'	Neg. of knowledge 'not know'
NAV form <i>Rayngu-an</i>	---	Neg. of knowledge 'not know'

8.4.3 *taqa*

taqa 'not want' expresses negation of volition.²¹ Like *Rayngu*, *taqa* itself can be marked by voice morphemes, i.e., *(me-)taqa* as the AV form and *taqa-an* as the NAV form. When taking a verbal complement, the verbs following *taqa* or *taqa-an* are strictly restricted to be the **root forms, denoting irrealis** (as in 50a vs. 50a' and 50b vs. 50b').

- (50) a. *(me-)taqa /mai (me-)ngith ci abas q(*-em-)an tu benina*
 (AV-)not_want/Neg (AV-)want Ncm ABAS (*AV)-eat Acc banana
 'Abas doesn't want to eat bananas.'
- a'. * *(me-)taqa qan-an ni abas (ya)/tu benina*
 (AV-)not_want eat-NAV Gen ABAS (Nom)/Acc banana
- b. *taqa-an /mai ngith-an ni abas q(*-em-)an*
 not_want-NAV/Neg want-NAV Gen ABAS (*AV)-eat
*(ya)/*tu benina 'nay*
 (Nom)/*Acc banana that
 'Abas doesn't want to eat that banana.'
- b'. * *taqa-an ni abas qan-an (ya) benina 'nay*
 not_want-NAV Gen ABAS eat-NAV (Nom) banana that

²¹ In addition to *taqa*, *na'ay* is also used to express the meaning of 'not want' (Chang 2000). Nevertheless, according to the informants, *na'ay* is a loanword borrowed from Amis that is not recognized as a "native" vocabulary by the native Kavalan speakers. We therefore do not intend to describe the usage of *na'ay* in the present study.

- b. * *taqa-an* *ni abas* (*tu*) *pukun-an* *ni utay*
 (AV-)not_want Gen ABAS (Compl) hit-NAV Gen UTAY
ci *buya*
 Ncm BUYA
 (Intended meaning: ‘Abas doesn’t want Utay to hit Buya.’)

8.4.4 *ita*

ita ‘(I) don’t know; (I) have no idea’ is usually used alone in response to questions and to express the speaker’s lack of answers to the given questions. It exclusively implies a covert first-person singular actor, as shown below:

- (54) Q: *supaR-an-na* *ni abas* *ci* *buya* *ni* ?
 know-NAV-3Sg.Gen Gen ABAS Ncm BUYA Q
 ‘Does Abas know Buya?’
 A: *ita*(*-iku/ *ayku)
 I_don’t_know(*-1Sg.Nom/ *1Sg.Nom)
 (i) ‘I/*We don’t know.’
 (ii) * ‘No. (Abas doesn’t know Buya.)’

The asterisk markers indicates that, first, *ita* cannot overtly take the first-person singular pronoun, be it in the bound (-iku) or free (ayku) form. And second, *ita* implies only a first-person singular actor, not first-person plural actors, although it is homonymic to the first-person inclusive plural -*ita*. Furthermore, *ita* in (54) doesn’t give a negative answer to the question (as in (ii)), but expresses that the speaker has no idea of whether Abas knows Buya or not (as in (i)).

8.5 Additional affixes

Some affixes in Kavalan attached to the negative elements will cause subtle differences in the meaning. This section introduces suffixes -*pama* ‘still; yet’ (8.5.1) and -*ma* as a hedge discourse marker (8.5.2), as well as prefix *qa-* which serves a

variety of functions (8.5.3).

8.5.1 *-pama*

-pama has two meanings. It conveys the meaning of ‘still’ when attached to an affirmative predicate, and of ‘yet’ when suffixed on a negative element. *-pama* can attach to all the negative elements introduced above except for *ita* (as in 62). The following are some pairs of examples.

(55) a. *yau-pama benina ta babaw na takan*
 Exist-still banana Loc above Gen table
 ‘There are still bananas on the table.’

b. *mai-pama tu benina ta babaw na takan*
 Neg-yet Acc banana Loc above Gen table
 ‘There are no bananas on the table yet.’

(56) a. *p-m-ukun-pama ci buya tu wasu ‘nay*
 AV-hit-stil Ncm BUYA Acc dog that
 ‘Buya still hits the dog.’

a’. *pukun-an-na-pama ni buya (ya) wasu ‘nay*
 hit-NAV-3Sg.Gen-still Gen BUYA (Nom) dog that
 ‘Buya stills hits the dog.’

b. (i) *mai-pama p-m-ukun ci buya tu wasu ‘nay*
 Neg-yet AV-hit Ncm BUYA Acc dog that
 ‘Buya hasn’t hit the dog yet.’

(ii) * *mai p-m-ukun-pama ci buya tu wasu ‘nay*

b’. (i) *mai-pama pukun-an-na ni buya (ya) wasu ‘nay*
 Neg-yet hit-NAV-3Sg.Gen Gen BUYA (Nom) dog that
 ‘Buya hasn’t hit the dog yet.’

(ii) * *mai pukun-an-na-pama ni buya (ya) wasu ‘nay*

- (57) a. *ising-pama ci abas*
 doctor-still Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is still a doctor.’
- b. *usa-pama ising ci abas*
 Neg-yet doctor Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is not a doctor yet.’
- (58) a. (i) *qan-ka-pama tu Rak*
 eat-Imp-still Acc alcohol
 ‘Keep drinking alcohol!’
 (ii) * *qan-pama-ka tu Rak*
- a’. (i) *qan-ika-pama (ya) Rak ‘nay*
 eat-Imp-still (Nom) alcohol that
 ‘Keep drinking the alcohol!’
 (ii) * *qan-pama-ika (ya) Rak ‘nay*
- b. *naRin-pama q-em-an tu Rak*
 Neg.Imp-yet AV-eat Acc alcohol
 ‘Don’t drink alcohol yet.’
- b’. *naRin-pama qan-an (ya) Rak ‘nay*
 Neg.Imp-yet eat-NAV (Nom) alcohol that
 ‘Don’t drink the alcohol yet.’
- (59) a. *nengi-pama s-em-alaw ci buya*
 allowed-still AV-hunt Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya is still allowed to hunt.’
- b. *sukaw-pama s-em-alaw ci buya*
 forbidden-yet AV-hunt Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya is not allowed to hunt yet.’
- (60) a. *supaR-pama s-em-alaw ci buya*
 capable_of-still AV-hunt Ncm BUYA
 ‘Buya is still capable of hunting.’

b. * *mai-isu-pama p-m-ukun tu wasu 'nay*

Since *-pama* 'yet' is semantically incompatible with the perfective marker *-ti*, these two elements cannot co-occur in one clause. For example,

- (64) a. * *mai-pama-ti-isu p-m-ukun tu wasu 'nay*
 Neg-yet-Pfv-2Sg.Nom AV-hit Acc dog that
 b. * *mai-ti-pama-isu p-m-ukun tu wasu 'nay*

8.5.2 *-ma*

The suffix *-ma* is a hedge discourse maker (DM) that moderates (or weakens) the meaning in both affirmative and negative constructions. (65) provides a pair of examples.

- (65) a. *misi-ma-iku*
 fat-DM-1Sg.Nom
 'I am a little fat.'
 b. *mai-ma-iku misi*
 Neg-DM-1Sg.Nom fat
 'I am not very fat.'

As shown in (65b), similar to *-pama*, *-ma* in negative sentences must cliticize to the preverbal negative elements, not to the following verbs. Moreover, *-ma* has to precede the nominative pronominal clitic, if any, that also attaches to the negator.

In addition to *mai*, all the other negative elements can be affixed by *-ma* as well, except for *ita* 'I don't know' (71). Examples are shown below.

- (66) *usa-ma-iku sunis*
 Neg-DM-1Sg.Nom child
 'I am somewhat not a child.'

(67) *naRin-ma-isu* *q-em-an tu benina*
 Neg.Imp-DM-2Sg.Nom AV-eat Acc banana
 ‘Don’t (you) eat too many bananas.’

(68) *sukaw-ma-iku* *q-em-an tu benina*
 forbidden-DM-1Sg.Nom AV-eat Acc banana
 ‘I am somewhat forbidden to eat bananas.’

(69) *Rayngu-ma-iku* *s-em-aqay*
 incapable_of-DM-1Sg.Nom AV-walk
 ‘I am somewhat incapable of walking.’

(70) *taqa-ma-iku* *salaw*
 not_want-DM-1Sg.Nom hunt
 ‘I don’t want to hunt very much.’

(71) Q: ‘Will you come?’

A: * *ita-ma* (Intended meaning: ‘I somewhat have no idea’.)

Tense/aspect markers, such as *-ti* must precede *-ma*. For instance,

(72) a. *mai-ti-ma* *misi ci abas*
 Neg-Pfv-DM fat Ncm ABAS
 ‘Abas is not very fat anymore.’
 b. * *mai-ma-ti* *misi ci abas*

8.5.3 *qa-*

The functions of *qa-* are still an issue for further investigations. As far as the data are concerned, *qa-* at least conveys two meanings. First, *qa-* indicates the state or potential in the (immediate) future (Chang 2000). In this case, the addition of *qa-* to the predicate doesn’t change the default voice quality (i.e., Actor Voice) of the predicate in its root form. For instance,

(73) a. *qa-(*m-)ipil* *ci abas tu sazay-an zawu*
 *QA-(*AV-)hear* Ncm ABAS Acc sing-Nmz this

‘Abas is going to hear this song (later).’

- b. (i) *mai qa-(*m-)ipil ci abas tu sazay-an zawu*
 Neg QA-(*AV-)hear Ncm ABAS Acc sing-Nmz this
 ‘Abas is not going to hear this song (because she will go out later).’
- (ii) *qa-mai (*m-)ipil ci abas tu sazay-an zawu*
 ‘Abas is not going to hear this song (because she will go out later).’
- (iii) *qa-mai qa-ipil ci abas tu sazay-an zawu*
 ‘Abas is not going to hear this song (because she will go out later).’

As can be seen, the existence of *qa-* doesn’t change the default voice of the predicate. In other words, the Actor is assigned nominative case, and the Theme the accusative case, as in the AV constructions. Moreover, *qa-* and the overt AV marker (*m(e)-* or *-(e)m-*) cannot co-occur, since the overt AV marker implies a realis state while *qa-* implies irrealis. (73b) further demonstrates that irrealis *qa-* can attach to either the lexical verb (i) or to the preverbal *mai* (ii) or to both (iii). The irrealis implication of *qa-* is not surprising since we have found some pairs of vocabulary that distinguish their state of reality by (the inherent) *q(a)* and *m(a)*, such as *qatyu* ‘go (irrealis)’ vs. *matyu* ‘go (realis)’, *qawtu* ‘come (irrealis)’ vs. *mawtu* ‘come (realis)’, and *qaynep* ‘sleep (irrealis)’ vs. *maynep* ‘sleep (realis)’²³.

What is less expected is that *qa-* can also denote current potential/ability as well, meaning ‘afford to, able to’ in affirmatives and ‘fail to; unable to’ in negatives. *qa-* in this case surprisingly behaves like a NAV marker (independently, without the help of the NAV morpheme *-an*) in that the Actor has to be marked by genitive case and the Theme by nominative case. For example,

²³ We claim that *qatyu*, *qawtu*, and *qaynep* are the root forms, while their realis counterparts are fusions of the AV morpheme and the root verbs accompanied by a consonant replacement of [m] for [q]. Evidence comes from that, first, the AV imperative marker *-ka*, which can only attach to root verbs (as shown in 53a vs. 53a’), cliticizes to *qatyu*, *qawtu*, and *qaynep* but not to their realis counterparts. And second, the future maker *-pa*, which is incompatible with AV morpheme on the same predicate (e.g., *p(*-m-)ukun-pa* ‘will hit’) (Chang 2000a), cannot attach to *matyu*, *mawtu*, and *maynep*.

(74) a. *qa-ipil(*-an)* *ni abas* (*ya*) *sazay-an zawu*
 QA-hear(*-NAV) Gen ABAS (Nom) sing-AN this
 ‘Abas is able to hear the song. (due to short distance or good hearing).’

b. (i) *mai qa-ipil(*-an)* *ni abas* *sazay-an zawu*
 Neg QA-hear(*-NAV) Gen ABAS sing-AN this
 ‘Abas is unable to hear the song./ Abas fails to hear the song
 (due to long distance or poor hearing).’

(ii) * *qa-mai ipil ni abas sazay-an zawu*

(75) a. *qa-qan(*-an)-ku* (*ya*) *benina zawu*
 QA-eat(*-NAV)1Sg.Gen (Nom) banana this
 ‘I am able to eat this banana (because I am not full yet)./
 I can afford to eat this banana (because I have money).’

b. (i) *mai qa-qan(*-an)-ku* (*ya*) *benina zawu*
 Neg QA-eat(*-NAV)1Sg.Gen(Nom) banana this
 ‘I am unable to eat this banana (because I am full)./
 I cannot afford to eat this banana (because I have no money).’

(ii) * *qa-mai qan-ku benina zawu*

Example (74b (ii)) and (75b (ii)) show that, unlike the irrealis *qa-*, *qa-* in this case cannot attach to the preverbal *mai* but can only remain with the main predicate, which makes it more like a NAV marker.

8.6 DN vs. NC

From the discussions above, it has already been shown that Kavalan, as most of the Austronesian languages, does not exhibit Negative Concord (NC), that is, the existence of a negative elements doesn’t require the licensing of another. Instead, co-occurrence of two negative elements in one clause will cancel each other out and result in the interpretation of Double Negation (DN), as illustrated below:

- (76) *mai me-taqa salaw ci buya*
 Neg AV-not_want hunt Ncm BUYA
 ‘It is not that Buya doesn’t want to hunt.’ (i.e., ‘Buya wants to hunt.’)
- (77) *usa-iku me-Rayngu ay s-em-alaw*
 Neg-1Sg.Nom AV-cannot Rel AV-hunt
 ‘I am not the one who cannot hunt.’ (i.e., ‘I can hunt.’)
- (78) *mai tu me-Rayngu ay sazay*
 Neg Acc AV-cannot Rel sing
 ‘There is no one who cannot sing.’ (i.e., ‘Everyone can sing.’)
- (79) *mai-iku sukaw q-em-an tu benina*
 Neg-1Sg.Nom forbidden AV-eat Acc banana
 ‘I am not forbidden to eat bananas.’ (i.e., ‘I am allowed to eat bananas.’)

As can be seen in the translation, every sentence above can achieve a positive reading due to the effect of Double Negation. Kavalan is thus proved to be a “neg-impermeable language” (Bernini and Ramat 1996: 183).

8.7 Summary

This chapter presents a description of the syntactic distributions and semantic properties of seven negative elements in Kavalan, including *mai*, *usa*, *naRin*, *sukaw*, *Rayngue*, *taqa*, and *ita*. Table 8-2 summarizes their usage and meanings.

It is also observed that the addition of *-pama* to these negative elements except for *ita* results in the interpretation of ‘not ... yet’. The addition of hedge discourse marker *-ma*, on the other hand, moderates (or weakens) the negative force. *qa-* is an affix serving various functions. When attached to a lexical verb following *mai* and functioning independently as a NAV marker, it denotes current inability, expressing ‘fail to; unable to’. Moreover, Kavalan is proved to be a language exhibiting Double

Negation (DN) rather than Negative Concord (NC) because two negative elements in a clause will cancel each other out and result in a positive reading.

Table 8-2. Syntactic distributions and semantic properties of Kavalan negative elements

Negator	Sentence type		Syntactic distribution	Meaning
<i>mai</i>	Declarative	Sentential	◆ Clause-initial followed by non-nominal predicate <i>mai</i> + VP _{AV/NAV} or Loc	not
		Constituent	◆ Right before negated constituent VP _{AV/NAV} + <i>mai</i> + VP _{AV}	not
	Possessive		◆ <i>mai</i> + <i>tu</i> + NP + (<i>ya</i>) + NP _{Possessor}	not have
	Existential		◆ <i>mai</i> + <i>tu</i> + NP _{Indefinite} + (Loc)	(There) be no...
	Response		◆ Used alone	No.
<i>usa</i>	Equational		◆ Right before negated NP NP + [<i>usa</i> + NP] [<i>usa</i> + NP] + NP	be not
	Response		◆ Used alone	No.
<i>naRin</i>	Imperative		◆ Clause-initial followed by VP <i>naRin</i> + VP _{AV/NAV}	Don't...
<i>sukaw</i>	Declarative		◆ <i>sukaw</i> + VP _{AV}	forbidden
			◆ <i>sukaw</i> + NP	not good; bad
<i>Rayngu</i>	Declarative		◆ (<i>me-</i>) <i>Rayngu</i> + VP _{AV}	incapable of; cannot
			◆ (<i>me-</i>) <i>Rayngu/Rayngu-an</i> + NP ◆ (<i>me-</i>) <i>Rayngu/Rayngu-an</i> + S	not know
<i>taqa</i>	Declarative		◆ (<i>me-</i>) <i>taqa/taqa-an</i> + VP _{Root} ◆ (<i>me-</i>) <i>taqa/taqa-an</i> + NP	not want
<i>ita</i>	Response		◆ Used alone	I don't know.

Chapter Nine Emotion

0. Introduction

This chapter attempts to characterize how emotion events are expressed in Kavalan. Of primary concern here are how morphosyntactic strategies are employed to designate the cause and effect of emotion events and how emotions are conceptualized via metaphor.

An understanding of emotion concepts requires an investigation of the causes and effects of emotional states, which are subsumed under the notion ‘emotional causality’ in Dirven (1997). According to Radden (1998), ‘emotional causality’ is in fact a cause-effect chain consisting of three sub-events, i.e., “an emotion-arousing event, an emotional state, and a physiological reaction or other responses.” Based on the event structure metaphors that apply to emotions, Kovecses (2000) made a further distinction, viewing the folk theory of emotions as a five-stage scenario, consisting of Cause, Emotion, Control, Loss of Control, and Behavioral Response.

While emotional causality is found to be expressed primarily through prepositions in English (Dirven 1997 & Radden 1998), this cannot be true of Formosan languages owing to their scant inventory of prepositions. The research on how Formosan languages conceptualize emotional causality thus deserves scrutiny. Two studies on Tsou (Huang, 2002) and Saisiyat (Huang and Hsieh, 2004) have revealed significant findings on this issue. Huang (2002) argues that in Tsou, emotion-arousing events and physiological reactions of emotions are lexicalized in emotion verbal expressions via grammatical prefixes denoting bodily actions. On the other hand, Saisiyat distinguishes different aspects of emotional causality with various RF constructions. This chapter will take these two studies as a point of departure to

investigate how a language like Kavalan, which has neither prepositions nor RF constructions, encodes emotional causality in grammar.

In addition to the perspective from event structure, research on emotions in various languages has revealed that metaphor is a significant mechanism in the conceptualization of emotions (Fainsilber & Ortony 1987; Kovecses 1998 & 2000; Yeh, 2002; Yu, 1995). Essential as it is, according to Kovecses (2000: 169), there still exists variation in “the range of conceptual metaphors that languages and cultures have available for the conceptualization of emotion.” Thus, this chapter will also investigate what metaphors are employed in Kavalan to conceptualize emotion concepts.

1. Cause and Effect of Emotion Events

This section focuses on what constructions are utilized to encode two important stages in an emotion event, i.e. its cause and effect.

1.1 Cause of Emotion

The expression of cause of an emotion or an emotion arousing event in Kavalan involves four types of constructions. They denote different types of cause of an emotion.

The first one is the causative construction with *pa-* prefix. Consider the following examples.

- (1) a. *pa-qa-rizaq-an-ku* *aizipna*
 Cau-qa-happy-LF-1stGen 3rdNom
 “I made him happy.”
- b. *pa-qenut-an-na* *sunis* ‘*nay* *tina-na*
 Cau-angry-LF-3rdGen child that mother-3rdGen
 “The child made his mother angry.”

If the cause of one's emotion is an agentive nominal, the typical causative construction with *pa-* is employed to encode the causer who deliberately arouses another's emotional state and the causee who experiences the emotional state.

However, if the cause of an emotion is an event, another construction of *sa* morpheme is utilized, as exemplified below.

- (2) A: nianu *sa* qa-laylaw-an-su?
 what *sa* qa-sad-Nmz-2ndGen
 "What made you sad?"
- B: mai aqala-an-ku kerisiw *sa* qa-laylaw-an-ku
 Neg find-LF-1stGen money *sa* qa-sad-Nmz-1stGen
 "I did not find money so I am sad."
- (3) A: mana q-em-nut-isu timaizipana?
 why angry-AF-2ndNom 3rdAcc
 "Why are you angry at him?"
- B: ni-pukun-an-na-iku *sa* qa-qenut-an-ku
 NI-hit-LF-3rdGen-1stNom *sa* qa-angry-Nmz-1stGen
 "He hit me so I am angry."

The morpheme *sa* indicates one's entering into a state and is speculated to be derived from its spatial meaning 'to' via the metaphor EMOTIONAL STATE IS LOCATION. In fact, the cause of the emotion in *sa* construction need not be a specific event as in examples (2) and (3). In discourse, *sa* construction is also used when a speaker's depiction of certain conditions also constitutes the cause of an emotion. The following example is from a narrative.

- (4) (go to sea_buya)
19. ...nayawu zana qebalan mati w *sa* razin
 that_way zana Kavalan go to sea
 "That is the way how Kavalan people go to the sea."

20. *sa* qa-rizaq-an *sa* qa-nengi-an na wawai
 sa qa-happy-Nmz sa qa-good-Nmz Gen ways_of_life
 “(which) makes us happy and makes us have a better life”

Prior to this excerpt, the speaker was talking about what Kavalan people brought and what they did when they went to the sea. In IU 19 and 20, he made a conclusion that this way of life made Kavalan people happy and lead a good life. That is, this type of life helps them get into the state of happiness and good living.

Moreover, the cause and effect of an emotion event in *sa* construction must be non-future, or realis. Consider the following sentences.

- (5) a. ni-pukun-an-na *sa* qa-qenut-an-ku
 NI-hit-LF-3rdGen *sa* qa-angry-Nmz-1stGen
 “He hit me so I am angry.”
 b. p-um-ukun-isu uman, q-em-nut-iku
 hit-AF-2ndNom again, angry-AF-1stNom
 “(If) you hit me again, I will become angry.”
 *p-um-ukun-isu uman, *sa* qa-qenut-an-ku

In example (5)a, the cause of emotion and the emotion itself are both realized events and thus *sa* construction can be employed. On the contrary, the emotion event in (5)b refers only to a possible future and the use of *sa* construction is prohibited.

The third construction that specifically mentions the cause of an emotion is to mark the cause with the oblique marker *tu* in the form **qena-Emotion tu Cause/Target**, as exemplified below. The target of an emotion is also encoded in this way because distinction between the cause and target of an emotion is blurred in Kavalan.

- (6) a. *q-en-a-qenut-ku* *tu* mai-isu mawtu
 q-en-a-angry-1stGen Obl Neg-2ndNom come
 “I am angry that you did not come.”

b. (conversation buya_nengi)

71. ...nayau *q-en-a-rizaq-ku* *tu* *qena-awtu-na*
 that_way *q-en-a-happy-1stGen* Obl *qena-come-3rdGen*
 baqbaq qaqa-ku
 FS brother-1stGen

“I was happy because of my brother’s coming.”

c. *q-en-a-qenut-ku* *tu* *razat* ‘nay
 q-en-a-angry-1stGen Obl person that

“I am angry at that person.”

d. *q-en-a-rizaq-ku* *timaisu*
 q-en-a-like-1stGen 2ndAcc

“I like you.”

Examples such as (6)a to (6)d are atypical in two respects. First of all, although they do not take LF suffix *-an*, the more agentive role is in the form of genitive. In addition, the cause or the target of an emotion is in the form of oblique or accusative as in AF constructions. Further studies are required to clarify the nature of this construction.

The final construction concerning the cause of an emotion is to express the cause first and then the *tu*-marked nominalized form of an emotion predicate. Two examples are provided below.

(7) a. *ni-pamu-an-su* *timaikuan tu* *qena-rizaq-an-ku* *timaisuan*
 NI-help-Nmz-2ndGen 1stLoc Obl *qena-happy-Nmz-Gen* 2ndLoc
 “Your helping me resulted in my being satisfied with you.”

b. *ni-pukun-an-na* *timaikuan tu* *qena-qenut-an-ku* *timaizipana*
 NI-hit-Nmz-3rdGen 1stLoc Obl *qena-angry-Nmz-1stGen* 3rdLoc
 “His hitting me resulted in my being angry at him.”

Though similar, this construction differs from the previous one in the order of the cause and the emotional state. Moreover, the nominalized emotion predicate in this construction must take both *-en...-an*. That is, the derived emotion nominal indicates a more tangible event or person rather than an abstract emotion concept

(Please refer to section 2.1 for a comparison on the respective interpretations of nominalized emotion predicates via *-en-* and *-an*).

1.2 Effect/Behavioral Response of Emotion

This section characterizes how Kavalan encodes behavioral responses of an emotion, including physiological reactions or other responses or the effect of emotion in general.

There are two constructions which can attain this goal. The first one is iconic in the form **EmotionVerb tu PhysiologicalReaction** in that the cause, i.e. an emotion state, precedes its effect, i.e. its physiological reaction, as illustrated in the following examples.

- (8) a. q-em-nut tu m-lu-lutiq
 angry-AF Comp. AF-Red-jump
 “(He) is so angry that he kept jumping.”
 b. m-aitis tu laqebiqebil
 AF-afraid Comp. shake
 “(He) is so afraid that he is shaking.”

This construction is similar to English ‘so...that...’ construction with *tu*, a complementizer in this case, introducing the physiological reaction or effect of an emotion.

The other construction however expresses physiological reaction first and then the *tu* marked nominalized emotion predicate in the form **PhysiologicalReaction tu qena-EmotionVerb-(an)** or **PhysiologicalReaction tu ni-EmotionVerb-an**.

Examples are provided below.

- (9) a. m-lu-lutiq aiku tu q-en-a-rizaq-(an)-ku
 AF-Red-jump 1stNom Obl q-en-a-happy-Nmz-1stGen
 “I keep jumping because of happiness.”

b. m-lu-lutiq aiku tu ni-qa-rizaq-an-ku
 AF-Red-jump 1stNom Obl ni-qa-happy-Nzm-1stGen
 “I keep jumping because of my happiness.”

(10) a. laqebiqebil-ti-iku tu q-en-a-aitis-an-ku
 shake-Pfv-1stNom Obl q-en-a-afraid-Nmz-1stGen
 “I am shaking with fear.”

b. laqebiqebil-ti-iku tu ni-qa-aitis-an-ku
 shake-Pfv-1stNom Obl NI-qa-afraid-Nzm-1stGen
 “I am shaking with fear.”

In these examples, *tu* indicates the causal emotion which brings about the physiological reaction. Moreover, the emotion in this construction can be nominalized via both *-en-...-an* and *-an*. It is, however, possible that *-en-* here is the aspectual marker with past time reference. If so, the two alternative constructions would not differ because *ni-* is also an aspectual marker with past time reference.

These two constructions together do differ from the first one in how an emotional state and its behavioral response are perspectivized. Emotion predicates in the first construction, **EmotionVerb *tu* PhysiologicalReaction**, can only be in the form of AF but not LF or nominalization. This indicates that the employment of this construction emphasizes both one’s present emotional state and its behavioral response, which is viewed as an immediate effect of that particular emotion. Nevertheless, emotion verbs of the other two constructions, **PhysiologicalReaction *tu* qena-EmotionVerb-(an)** or **PhysiologicalReaction *tu* ni-EmotionVerb-an**, must take either *-en-* or *ni-*, both of which indicate past time reference or realis mood. The use of such constructions thus focuses on the present physiological response with causal emotional state conceived of as a supplementary in the past.

1.3 An Interim Summary

It has been demonstrated how emotional causality is encoded in Kavalan.

Different types of causes of an emotion prompt different constructions to code the causal relation. That is, the demarcation between agentive causer and events or conditions as cause corresponds to the employment of causative *pa-* construction and *sa* construction respectively. Moreover, the causal chain of “emotional state → physiological response” can be perspectivized from different angles with resort to different constructions.

2. Metaphors of Emotion

In this section, metaphors of generic emotion noun, i.e. ‘*anem*,’ and specific emotion concepts will be discussed respectively.

First of all, it should be noted that the “master” conceptual metaphor EMOTION EVENT IS OBJECT applies to both the generic emotion noun and other specific emotion concepts. The following examples are for illustration.

(11) a. (conversation_buya&engi)

qaRaynguan q-em-abaR anem-na wanai-na ni aki
difficult catch-AF heart-3rdGen behavior-3rdGen Gen PN
“It is difficult to catch Aki’s heart and behavior.”

b. mai qa-nubi qena-rizaq-ku
Neg qa-hide qena-happy-1stGen
“I cannot hide my joy.”

In both examples, emotion states, whether generic or specific, are conceptualized as an object so that it can be ‘caught’ or ‘hidden.’

It is worth noticing that while the generic emotion term ‘*anem*’ is a noun, there are no basic or non-derived emotion nouns of specific emotion concepts. For a specific emotion concept to be conceptualized as an object, it is necessary to undergo nominalization. Since this morphosyntactic process is essential to emotion predicates in general, this phenomenon will be investigated briefly below before the discussion

on other specific metaphors of emotion concepts.

According to Chang and Lee (2002), *-en-* is a nominalizer for state predicates while *-an* is a nominalizer for action predicates. However, it is found that for emotion predicates, the contrast between *-en-* and *-an* is not limited to the distinction between the nominalization of state and action. Of particular significance to the present study is that both *-en-* and *-an* can be used to nominalize emotion predicates, as shown in the following examples.

- (12) a. q-*en*-a-rizaq-ku
 q-en-a-happy-1stGen
 “my happiness”
 b. qa-rizaq-*an*-ku
 qa-happy-Nmz-1stGen
 “the thing or person I like”
 c. q-*en*-a-rizaq-*an*-ku
 q-en-a-happy-Nmz-1stGen
 “Lit. the place of my happiness”

- (13) a. q-*en*-a-qenut-ku
 q-en-a-angry-1stGen
 “my anger”
 b. qa-qenut-*an*-ku
 qa-angry-Nmz-1stGen
 “the thing about which I am angry”
 c. q-*en*-a-qenut-*an*-ku
 q-en-a-angry-Nmz-1stGen
 “Lit. the place of my anger”

Nominalization with *-en-* and *-an* tend to receive different interpretations though. As these two sets of examples reveal, nominalization via *-en-* seems to result in an abstract nominal referring to the emotional state itself while the derived nominal of *-an* seems to indicate a more tangible entity or event or even to turn an abstract nominal with *-en-* into one with concrete referent of place as in (12)c and (13)c. The

following set of examples further evidence this interpretation.

- (14) a. mai qa-nubi q-en-a-rizaq-ku
 Neg qa-hide q-en-a-happy-1stGen
 “I cannot hide my joy.”
 b. *mai qa-nubi q-en-a-rizaq-an-ku
 c. *mai qa-nubi qa-rizaq-an-ku

When it comes to metaphorical expressions involving abstract emotional states, only nominalization via *-en-* is allowed, as shown by the contrast in (14). This is due to different interpretations associated with the two nominalizers *-en-* and *-an-*, as demonstrated above. This, nevertheless, is only a tendency for most emotion predicates because there is an exception, i.e. *qena-ngil* ‘qena-love’, which means ‘lover’ but not the abstract nominal ‘love.’

2.1 Metaphors for the generic emotion noun ‘*anem*’

Cross-linguistic studies have suggested that every language has a term for FEEL, which does not need to be a verb but can be a noun or adjective as well (Wierzbicka 1999: 276). In Kavalan, this generic emotion term is *anem* ‘heart; feeling; emotion.’ This term can also be used as a verb, as demonstrated in the following example.

- (15) mai anem-an-ku ci-shulan
 Neg like-LF-1stGen Ncm-PN
 “I don’t like Shulan.”

As a verb, *anem* is interpreted as ‘like.’

Anem, however, is more often used as a noun to denote one’s feeling or general emotional state. Since its basic meaning is ‘heart,’ its use as a generic emotion noun reflects a general conceptual metaphor HEART IS A LOCUS FOR EMOTION. Examples are provided below for illustration.

- (16) a. m-rizaq anem-ku
 AF-happy heart-1stGen
 ‘I feel happy.’ (Lit. My heart is happy.)
- b. m-supul-ti anem-na
 AF-introspect-Pfv heart-3rdGen
 “He is not angry any more./He made a concession.”
 (Lit. He examined his heart.)
- c. nengi anem-ku tangi
 good heart-1stGen today
 “I am in good spirits today.” (Lit. My heart is good today.)

These examples indicate that *anem* ‘heart’ is where one’s emotion is situated in Kavalan so that it can be described as ‘happy’ or ‘good’ as in (16)a and (16)c and that it can be examined for introspection as shown in (16)b.

There are other more elaborate metaphors which are based on the conceptual metaphor HEART IS A LOCUS FOR EMOTION. They involve more specific source domains that can be mapped onto the target domain of emotion, which is conceptualized as *anem* ‘heart.’ The following table lists what source domains can be applied to emotion concepts with their interpretations when predicated to *anem* ‘heart.’

Table 1. Source domains of the generic emotion noun *anem* ‘heart’

General State as Source Domain (17a-d)	
yau ‘exist’	→ ‘to be willing to’
mai ‘not to exist’	→ ‘to be unwilling to; not to feel like doing something’
sqaw ‘bad’	→ ‘to feel sad; to feel worried’
nengi ‘good’	→ ‘to feel happy’
Competence/Capability as Source Domain (18)	
satoRin ‘competent’	→ ‘to be willing to’
Texture Attribute as Source Domain (19a-c)	
spul ‘soft’	→ ‘to compromise easily’
Ratemu ‘hard’	→ ‘to be stubborn’
zinaq ‘heavy’	→ ‘to feel heavy-laden’

Table 1. (continued)**Temperature as Source Domain (20)**

basaw ‘cool’ → ‘not to be angry; to have no interests’

Physical State as Source Domain (21a-c)

qaRat ‘itchy’ → ‘to be angry; to be repugnant’

pilay ‘tired’ → ‘to be mentally exhausted’

taRaw ‘ache’ → ‘to be sad; to be distressed’

Activity as Source Domain (22a-d)

sabiqbiq ‘boil’ → ‘to panic; to be anxious’

quqang ‘change’ → ‘to reform oneself’

qabutoR ‘explode’ → ‘to be extremely angry; to be extremely nervous’

matemaq ‘burn’ → ‘to be extremely worried’

Motion Event as Source Domain (23a-c)

wia ‘leave’ → ‘to be distracted’

masarin ‘drift away’ → ‘not to care about what is happening here’

pasa ni ‘toward where’ → ‘to be distracted’

The following are example sentences for these metaphors.

(17) a. (conversation_buya&engi)

yau anem saizi nani, yau ni-sulal-an-ku nani
 Exist heart SAIZI DM, Exist NI-write-Nmz-1stGen DM
 “I am willing to..., and I have drafted (a project).”

b. mai-iku tu anem tu sa-qauRat-an
 Neg-1stNom Obl heart Obl SA-play-Nmz
 “I do not want to play.”

c. seqaw anem-na muRin
 bad heart-3rdGen cry
 “He felt sad, so he cried.”

d. nengi anem-ku tangi
 good heart-1stGen today
 “I am in good spirits today.” (Lit. My heart is good today.)

(18) (conversation_buya&engi)

satoRin anem-ku t-em-ul cimaimuan zin-ku yu
 competnet heart-1stSg.Gen AF-teach 2ndPl.Loc say-1stSg.Gen Part.
 “I’m willing to teach you”, I said.’

- (19) a. *spul anem-na*
 soft heart-3rdGen
 “He compromises easily.” (Lit. His heart is soft.)
- b. *Ratemu anem-na*
 hard heart-3rdGen
 “He is stubborn.” (Lit. His heart is hard.)
- c. *zinaq anem-ku tu nalas zau*
 heavy heart-1stGen Obl thing this
 “I feel heavy-laden because of this matter.”
 (Lit. My heart is heavy due to this matter)
- (20) *basaw-ti anem-na*
 cool-Pfv heart-3rdGen
 “He is not angry any more./He has lost interests.” (Lit. His heart cooled.)
- (21) a. *qaRat anem-ku tu qasianem tu qelawqaway-an-ku*
 itchy heart-1stGen tu think Obl work-Nmz-1stGen
 “I feel repugnant to think of my work.”
- b. *pilay anem-ku tu qasianem tu qelawqaway-an-ku*
 tired heart-1stGen tu think Obl work-Nmz-1stGen
 “I feel mentally exhausted to think of my work.”
- c. *matanaqti-imi taRaw anem-ku*
 separate-1stPINom ache heart-1stGen
 “We separated so I felt sad.”
- (22) a. *sabiqbiq anem-na*
 boil heart-3rdGen
 “He feels anxious.” (Lit. His heart is boiling.)
- b. *quqang-ti anem-na*
 change-Pfv heart-3rdGen
 “He has reformed himself.” (Lit. He has changed his heart.)
- c. *m-aitis-iku tu (azu) ngil qabutoR anem-ku*
 AF-afraid-1stNom Obl (seem) want explode heart-1stGen
 “I am so afraid that my heart seems to explode.”
- d. *m-laylaw-iku tu azu matemaq anem-ku tu lalas ‘nay*
 AF-worry-1stNom Obl like burn heart-1stGen Obl thing that
 “I am worried about that thing as if my heart was burning.”

- (23) a. *wia-ti* *anem-na*
leave-Pfv heart-3rdGen
“He is distracted.” (Lit. His heart left.)
- b. *masarin-ti* *anem-na*
drift_away-Pfv heart-3rdGen
“He does not care about what is happening here.’
(Lit. His heart has drifted away.)
- c. *pasa-ni-ti* *anem-na?*
toward-Que-Pfv heart-3rdGen
“He seems distracted.” (Lit. Where has his heart gone?)

There are limitations on the extent to which these source domains can be applied to the domain of emotion concepts. Take the domain of temperature as an example. While it is acceptable to use *basaw* ‘cool (used for rice)’, another term with similar meaning *toqbus* ‘cool (used for water)’ cannot be employed as a metaphorical expression. Another instance is from the source domain of motion event. Although it is legitimate to use *wia* ‘leave’ to form a metaphorical expression, *matiw* ‘go’ is not allowed to predicate *anem*. Compared with Squliq Atayal, which permits profuse predicates in a variety of source domains to be combined with the generic emotion noun (Yeh 2002), the range of metaphors involving the generic emotion noun in Kavalan is relatively small.

2.2 Metaphors for specific emotion concepts

This section will go on to explicate how specific emotion concepts are conceptualized via metaphor. It will be demonstrated that metaphors for specific emotion concepts in Kavalan reflect different ways of conceptualizing positive emotions, e.g. *rizaq* ‘happy’, and negative emotions, e.g. *qenut* ‘angry’, *Rabuz* ‘jealous’, and *laylaw* ‘worry.’

The following is a list of metaphors that will be accounted for.

INTENSITY OF EMOTION IS QUANTITY
 EMOTION EVENT IS A PATH
 CONTROL OF POSITIVE EMOTION IS HIDING AN OBJECT
 NEGATIVE EMOTION IS MOVABLE OBJECT

INTENSITY OF EMOTION IS QUANTITY

This metaphor is an elaboration of the basic conceptual metaphor EMOTION EVENT IS OBJECT. As emotion is conceptualized as an object, it becomes natural to think of its intensity or degree as tangible quantity of objects. Consider the following pair of examples containing both metaphorical and non-metaphorical uses of *qa-siwun* ‘reduce.’

- (24) a. mai qasiwun anem-na tu qena-rizaq-na
 Neg reduce heart-3rdGen Obl qena-happy-3rdGen
 “He cannot control his joy.” (Lit. He cannot reduce his joy.)
 (This metaphor also applies to *Rebuz* ‘jealous,’ *laylaw* ‘worry,’ and *qenut* ‘angry.’)
- b. m-siwun z anum ‘nay
 AF-reduce water that
 “The water becomes less.”

This metaphor can apply to both positive and negative emotions.

EMOTION EVENT IS A PATH

In Kavalan, emotion event is also conceptualized as a path with an expected destination. This expected destination is conceived of as the norm for the acceptable intensity of an emotion. If one’s emotion goes beyond this point, that emotion state will be viewed as violating the norm. The following is an instance.

- (25) me-raziw-ti qena-rizaq-na
 AF-pass-Pfv qena-happy-3rdGen

“He is overjoyed.”(Lit. His happiness exceeds.)
(This metaphor also applies to *Rebuz* ‘jealous,’ *laylaw* ‘worry,’ and *qenut* ‘angry.’)

The basic meaning *raziw* is ‘to pass ...’ in a motion event. In example (25), the emotional state is conceived as passing an expected endpoint on a path. As a result, the emotional state under concern here goes beyond the socially acceptable intensity of an emotion. Note that this metaphor can conceptualize both positive and negative emotions.

CONTROL OF POSITIVE EMOTION IS HIDING AN OBJECT

Unlike the two metaphors discussed above, the rest of the metaphors can only apply to certain specific emotion concepts. For example, the source domain of hiding an object is used to conceptualize control of positive emotions only. Let’s look at the following example.

- (26) a. *nubi-an-ku* *kerisiw*
 hide-LF-1stGen money
 “I hid my money.”
- b. *mai* *qa-nubi* *qena-rizaq-ku*
 Neg qa-hide qena-happy-1stGen
 “I cannot hide my joy.”
- (This metaphor cannot be used with *Rebuz* ‘jealous,’ *laylaw* ‘worry,’ and *qenut* ‘angry.’)

The metaphor underlying (26)b is CONTROL OF POSITIVE EMOTION IS HIDING AN OBJECT. While positive emotions like *rizaq* ‘happy’ can be conceptualized as an object that can be hidden, this is not true of negative emotions.

NEGATIVE EMOTION IS MOVABLE OBJECT

Via this metaphor, negative, but not positive, emotions are understood as

movable objects. A natural consequence is that attempts to repress negative emotions are realized as attempts to prevent a movable object from moving about, as exemplified below.

- (27) mai qapatez anem-na tu qena-qenut-na
 Neg press heart-3rdGen Obl qena-angry-3rdGen
 “He cannot repress his anger.”
 (This metaphor can be used with *Rebuz* ‘jealous’ and *laylaw* ‘worry,’ as well, but no with *rizaq* ‘happy.’)

The predicate *qapatez* in (27) means ‘to press something so that it won’t move.’ Therefore, in this case, anger is conceptualized as a movable object and if one wants to repress his/her anger, s/he has to metaphorically press this emotion to thwart its movement. However, only negative emotions but not positive ones are envisaged in this way.

2.3 An Interim Summary

Table 2 summarizes the range of metaphors for specific emotion concepts in Kavalan. It reveals that whether verbs in other source domains can be utilized to predicate a specific emotion concept correlates with the metaphorical conceptualization of respective emotion concepts. For example, the generality of the two metaphors DEGREE OF EMOTION IS QUANTITY and EMOTION EVENT IS A PATH respectively sanction the application of *qa-siwun* ‘reduce’ and *raziw* ‘pass’ to both positive and negative emotions. On the contrary, control of positive and negative emotions requires distinct ways of conceptualization. While positive emotions can be considered as objects that can be hidden via the metaphor CONTROL OF POSITIVE EMOTIONS IS HIDING OBJECTS, negative emotions are viewed as movable objects instead, which induces the metaphor ATTEMPT AT CONTROL OVER NEGATIVE

EMOTIONS IS TRYING TO SUPPRESS A MOVABLE OBJECT.

Table 2. Verbs from other source domains to denote specific emotions in Kavalan

Emotion	<i>rizaq</i> 'happy'	<i>qenut</i> 'angry'	<i>laylaw</i> 'worry'	<i>Rebuz</i> 'envy'
Verbs in other source domains				
<i>qasiwun</i> 'reduce'	V	V	V	V
<i>raziw</i> 'pass'	V	V	V	V
<i>nubi</i> 'hide'	V			
<i>qapatez</i> 'press'		V	V	V

3. Conclusion

This chapter has provided a preliminary analysis on how emotional causality is coded in grammar and how emotion concepts are conceptualized via metaphor in Kavalan. It is hoped that the present study on Kavalan from these two perspectives can shed light on and contribute to a more thorough understanding of emotion concepts cross-linguistically.

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KAVALAN Glossary

Last revised: Jan 26, 2005.

- adam, n. bird.
 -an, LF marker.
 -an, Location suffix.
 anem, n. heart.
 ara, v. take. m-ara, AF; ara-an, LF.
 ara-an, v. ara-LF.
 atu, conj. and.
 azu, adv. seem.
 babaw, n. above.
 baqi, n. elder male.
 baqi-an, n. elder male.
 bataz, n. halfway. ta-bataz-an.
 belia, pred. fortunately.
 betu, n. stone.
 biat, n. frog.
 bibyaq, v. drop.
 buya, PN.
 buya, n (loanword). socks.
 -iku, pron clit. 1S.Nom.
 imet, v. grasp. imet-an, LF.
 imet-an, v. imet-LF.
 imui, PN.
 -in-, Perfective infix.
 iza, adv. that.
 izan, v. load. izan-an, LF.
 izan-an, v. izan-LF.
 kaput, n. friend.
 kasyanem, v. think. kasyanem-an, LF.
 kasyanem-an, v. kasyanem-LF.
 kawit, v. pull. k-em-awit, AF; kawit-an, LF.
 kawit-an, v. kawit-LF.
 k-em-awit, v. kawit-AF.
 k-em-yara, v. pick (up), AF.
 kikirim, v. find. k-em-ikirim, AF.
 kinir, n. side.
 kin-tuRu, n. three (H).
 -ku, pronn. clit. 1S Gen.
 kurikuz, v. follow. kurikuz-an, LF.
 kyara, v. pick (up). k-em-yara, AF, kyara-an, LF.
 kyara-an, v. kyara-LF.
 lazyu, v. pass. me-lazyu, AF.
 ma', adv. only.
 mai, negation marker.
 mali, n. ball.
 mana, Q. why.
 m-anan, v. AF. return.
 manbaser, v. fly.
 m-ara, v. ara-AF.
 masang, adv. before.
 m-aseq, v. arrive-AF.
 m-atyu, v. go.
 me-lazyu, v. lazyu-AF.
 me-ngangaR, v. ngangaR-AF.
 me-pirRes, v. pirRes-AF.
 me-RaRiu, v. RaRiu-AF.
 me-suRaw, v. suRaw-AF.
 me-tabuq, v. tabuq-AF.
 m-ipus, v. disgust; hate, AF. ipus-an, LF.
 m-isis, v. AF. support.
 m-iza, v. AF. do something (to).
 m-rizaq, v. be happy; like, AF. rizaq-an, LF.
 muaza, adj. many.
 m-uman, v. AF. again.
 -na, pron clit. 3S Gen.
 na, Gen case marker.
 nakuni, Q. how.
 nani, discourse marker.
 'nay, demonstrative particle.
 nawi, v. swim. m-nawi, AF.
 nawung, n. mountain.
 nayaw, adv. only.
 nengi, adj. good.
 ngangaR, v. slackjawed. me-ngangaR, AF.
 ngayaw, n. front.
 ni-, Perfective prefix.
 ninu, Q. what.
 pa-, Future marker.
 pameng, v. no other choice.
 pangmu, v. help. pangmu-an, LF.
 pangmu-an, v. pangmu-LF.
 pankel, v. peek. pankel-an, LF.
 paqanas, v. be careful.
 paRin, n. tree.
 pasa, v. (move) toward.
 pasani, v. (move) toward.
 pasi, pred. likely.
 pasaqaz, v. be embarrassed.
 pelias, n. cliff.
 penay, n. bee.
 peRasku, n. bottle.
 pipit, v. pluck. pipit-an, LF.
 pipit-an, v. pipit-LF.
 pirRes, v. limp. me-pirRes, AF.
 pizya, v. put. pizya-an, LF.
 pizya-an, v. pizya-LF.
 pungiR, adj. full.
 pupuk, v. comfort. p-em-upuk, AF.
 qa-, prefix, ride (sth).
 qalingun, v. forget. *AF. ma-qalingun, NAF.
 qalingun-an, LF.
 '(q)alisinpu, v. gather.

- qanas, n. basket.
qaniau, pron. 3P Nom.
qangi, 馬馬虎虎, 還好
qatapung, v. meet.
qay-, realis marker.
qay-, take, pick.
qaya, adv. also.
qaynep, v. sleep. m-aynep, AF
qaylis, n. slope.
qaypi, n. big basket.
qazqaz, v. shore.
q-em-usqus, v. qusqus-AF.
qeRas, v. yell. qeRas-an, LF.
qeRas-an, v. qeRas-LF.
qubu, n. hat.
qulu, v. breed, take care of.
quRu, n. head.
qusqus, v. scratch. q-em-usqus, AF.
razan, n. road.
razat, n. person.
Ralikuz, n. behind.
Rammeng, v. wake.
RaRiu, v. run. away (deictic). me-RaRiu, AF.
Raya, pred. be big.
Raylikus, adv. finally.
Rayngu, v. not know. Rayngu-an, LF.
Rayngu-an, v. Rayngu-LF.
Retut, v. scare. me-Retut, AF.
ribeng, n. below.
rizaq-an, be happy. LF.
Rupu, n. hive.
Ruziq, steal. Ruziq-an, LF.
Ruziq-an, v. Ruziq-LF.
saku, n. cat.
sapun, v. distribute. sapun-an, LF.
sapun-an, v. sapun-LF.
saqay, v. walk. s-em-aqay, AF.
sayza, adv. like this.
sayza, v. maybe. sayza-an, LF.
sayza-an, v. sayza-LF.
sazay, v. sing.
s-em-aqay, v. saqay-AF.
semani, Q. (uncertain) wh-.
sepaw, v. put. sepaw-an, LF.
sepaw-an, v. sepaw-LF.
sesuR, v. enter.
sezay, adv. this way.
si-, prefix. wear.
sikawma, v. speak.
silam, v. lick. s-em-ilam, AF. silam-an, LF.
sim-, Reciprocal prefix.
sinsuli, n. plum.
sinunug, v. along. sinunung-an, LF.
siRemuq, n. deer.
sizi, n. goat.
sunis, n. child.
supaR, v. know. supaR-an, LF.
supaR-an, v. supaR-LF.
suqiqinir, v. turn head sideways.
suRaw, v. fall. me-suRaw, AF.
suRna, n. ice.
suzitang, v. fall backwards.
ta-V-an, n. place for Ving.
tabuq, v. spill. me-tabuq, AF.
taliqul, v. turn back. taliqul-an, LF.
taliqul-an, v. taliqul-LF.
tangan, n. hole.
tangi, adv. later, now.
tanian, Q. where.
tanuz, v. chase. t-em-anuz, AF. tanuz-an, LF.
tayan, adv. there.
tazungan, n. female.
tengat, n. window.
teqez, v. stop. te-me-qez, AF.
-ti, Perfective suffix.
tia, adv. like this.
tibuk, v. fall. t-em-ibuk, AF.
timayzipana, pron. 3S Obl.
tita, v. see. t-m-ita, AF; tita-an, LF.
tita-an, v. tita-LF.
t-m-ita, v. tita-AF.
tu, Obl case marker.
tuqaz, v. go up. tuqaz-an, LF.
tuRuz, n. back.
uman, v. again. m-uman, AF.
uRu, n. head.
usiq, n. one (nH).
utuRu, n. three (nH).
utuz, v. shake. utuz-an, LF.
uzusa, n. two (nH).
waki, n. horn.
wasu, n. dog.
wiya, leave.
ya, Nom case marker.
yau, Existential verb.
yauman, adv. again.
zapan, n. leg + foot, 腳
zawu, this.
zin, v. say.
zitinsya, n (loanword). bicycle.
zukat, v. go_out. me-zukat, AF.
zuqur, v. bump (into). zuqur-an, LF.
zuqur-an, v. zuqur-LF.

KAVALAN Pear Stories

File name: pear_buya

Topic: Pear story

Type: Narrative

Speaker: Buya Patu (謝宗修), M, 46

Time: 3' 02''

Total IUs: 78

Collected: 03/05/30

Revised: 03/11/10

Transcribed by: 沈嘉琪、蔡佩舒

Double checked by: 鍾曉芳、沈嘉琪、葉俞廷

1. yau baqi-an ‘nay usiq._
Exist elder.male-AN that one
存在 老人-AN 那 —
2. ...(2.4) matyu ta ni-pa-ruma-an-na tu sinsuli._
go Loc NI-PA-plant-AN-3S.Gen TU plum
去 處所 NI-PA-種-AN-3S.屬格 TU 李子
- #e There was an old man who went to the orchard where he grew plums.
#c 有一個老人去他種李子的果園。
3. ...(1.7) tita-an-na muaza sinsuli-na nengi-ti ara-an
see-PF-3S.Gen many plum-3S.Gen good-Pfv take-PF
看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 多 李子-3Sg.屬格 好-完成 拿-受焦
zin-na nani._
say-3S.Gen DM
說-3Sg.屬格 DM
- #e (He) saw many plums that were ready to be plucked.
#c (他)看到很多李子可以摘了。
4. ...(2.1) kyala-an-na-ti sinsuli-na._
pick.up-PF-3S.Gen-Pfv plum-3S.Gen
撿-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成 李子-3Sg.屬格
- #e (He) plucked his plums.
#c (他)摘李子。
5. ...(2.3) pipi=t-an-na nani.\
pluck-PF-3S.Gen DM
摘-受焦-3Sg.屬格 DM
- #e (He) kept plucking.
#c (他)一直摘。

6. .. pizya-an-na ta= -qanas-an-na.____
 put-PF-3S.Gen Loc-basket-Loc-3S.Gen
 放-受焦-3Sg.屬格 處所-籃子-處所-3Sg.屬格

#e (He) put them in the baskets.
 #c (他) 放在籃子裡。

7. ...(1.4) utulu-ti qanas 'nay.____
 three.nonhuman-Pfv basket that
 三.非人-完成 籃子 那

#e (There were) three baskets.
 #c 有三個籃子。

8. .. utulu qanas 'nay nani.\
 three.nonhuman basket that DM
 三.非人 籃子 那 DM

9. .. uzusa pungir-ti ni-izan-an-na nani.\
 two.nonhuman fill-Pfv NI-load-AN-3S.Gen DM
 二.非人 裝滿-完成 NI-裝-AN-3Sg.屬格 DM

10. ...(1.10) ni-pipit-an-na tu sinsuli./
 NI-pluck-AN-3S.Gen TU plum
 NI-摘-AN-3Sg.屬格 TU 李子

#e Two of the three baskets were full the plums he plucked
 #c 那三個籃子，有兩個裝滿摘的李子。

11. ...(1.7) nani./
 DM
 DM

12. .. ta=ngi yau 'nay usiq.____
 later Exist that one
 等一會 存在 那 一

13. ...(1.42) razat 'nay k-em-awit tu sizi.____
 person that AF-pull_along Acc goat
 人 那 主焦-牽 受格 羊

14. ...(0.84) me-lazyu ta-kinil-an-na./
 AF-pass Loc-side-Loc-3S.Gen
 主焦-經過 處所-旁邊-處所-3Sg.屬格

#e A while later, there was a man who pulled along a goat passing him by.
 #c 過了一會兒，有一個牽著一隻羊的人經過他的旁邊。

15. ...(0.81) nani.____

DM

16. ... (0.7) Raylikuz-na uman nani yau-ti sunis 'nay qa-zitinsya._
 behind-3S.Gen again DM Exist-Pfv child that QA-bicycle
 後面-3Sg.屬格 再 DM 存在-完成 小孩 那 QA-腳踏車
17. ... (2.52) maseq ..<F tita-an-na F>._
 arrive see-PF-3S.Gen
 到達 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格
- #e A child rode a bicycle in the backside and arrived there.
 #c 後面又有一個孩子騎腳踏車到達(那邊)。
18. ... (1.95) baqi-an 'nay yau ta babaw na paRin,
 /
 elder_male-AN that Exist Loc above Gen tree
 老人-AN 那 存在 處所 上面 屬格 樹
19. ... (1.13) na sinsuli nani.\
 Gen plum DM
 屬格 李子 DM
- #e (He) saw the old man is up on the plum tree.
 #c (他) 看到那個老人在李子樹上。
20. ... (1.3) azu-ti sa- supa- supaR-an-na.___
 seem-Pfv SA- FS know-AN-3S.Gen
 好像-完成 SA- FS 知道-AN-3Sg.屬格
- #e (It seems that he) knew him.
 #c 好像認識他。
21. ... (0.85) nani.\
 DM
 DM
22. ... t-em-ita-na baqi-an 'nay mai.\
 AF-see-3S.Gen grandfather-AN that Neg
 主焦-看-3Sg.屬格 祖父-AN 那 否定
23. .. mai ma tita-an-na baqi-an 'nay sezay nani.\
 Neg DM see-an-3S.Gen elder.male-AN that this_way DM
 否定 DM 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 老人-AN 那 這樣 DM
- #e The old man was not paying attention.
 #c 老人沒注意。
24. ... (0.5) ara-an-na sunis 'nay usiq 'nay qanas 'nay=.___
 take-PF-3S.Gen child that one that basket that

拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格 孩子 那 一 拿 籃子 那

25. ...(0.88) sinsuli 'nay/
plum that
李子 那

#e The child took a basket of plum.

#c 那孩子拿了一籃李子。

26. ...(0.85) qay-Ruziq qanas sepaw-an-na ta-zitinsya-an-na
QAY-steal basket put-PF-3S.Gen Loc-bicycle-Loc-3S.Gen
QAY-偷 籃子 放-受焦-3Sg.屬格 處所-腳踏車-處所-3Sg.屬
格
nani.\
DM
DM

#e and put the basket he stole on the bicycle

#c 把偷來的籃子放在腳踏車。

27. ...wi=ya-ti/
leave-Pfv
離開-完成

28. ... s-em-aqay._
AF-go
主焦-走
left.
繼續走。

29. ...(1.44) sim-qatapung tu uiaq ay 'nay qa-zitinsya tazungan nani./
Rec-meet Acc one RV that QA-bicycle female DM
互相-遇到 受格 一 關係 那 QA-腳踏車 女性 DM

#e (He) met a girl who rode a bicycle.

#c (他) 遇到一個騎腳踏車的女孩。

30. ...(1.52) manbaseR 'nay qubu-na ya.\
fly that hat-3S.Gen Int
飛 那 帽子-3Sg.屬格 感嘆

#e His hat flew away.

#c 他的帽子飛走了。

31. ...(0.8) nani._
DM
DM

32. ...(1.28) tita pa-iku tu qubu-ku zin-na sayza n
 ani.\
 see Fut-1S.Nom Acc hat-1S.Gen say-3S.Gen maybe
 DM
 看 未來-1Sg.主格 受格 帽子-1Sg.屬格 說-3Sg.屬格 可能 DM

#e "I am going to see my hat." he said.
 #c 「我要看看我帽子」，他這樣說。

33. ... tangi ita/
 now not know
 現在 不知道

#e Who would know,
 #c 誰知道，

34. ...(0.84) Rayngu-an-na ta-ngayaw-an yau betu 'nay
 not.know-PF-3S.Gen Loc-front-Loc Exist stone that
 不知道-受焦-3Sg.屬格 處所-前面-處所 存在 石頭 那
 usiq nani .. zuquR-an-na betu 'nay ... me-suRaw-ti.\
 one DM bump_into-PF-3S.Gen stone that AF-fall-Pfv
 一 DM 撞-受焦-3Sg.屬格 石頭 那 主焦-跌倒-完成

#e (He) did not know that there was a stone ahead, bumped into the stone and fell.
 #c (他)不知道前面有一顆石頭，撞到那顆石頭跌倒了。

35. ...(1.0) <F suRaw nani F>._
 fall DM
 跌倒 DM

#e after (he) fell,
 #c 跌倒後，

36. ...(0.9) bibyaq-ti 'nay ti me-tabuk-ti na- pa-
 drop-Pfv that Pfv AF-drop-Pfv FS FS
 掉-完成 那 完成 主焦-掉-完成 FS FS
 na iza nay sinsuli-na nani\
 Gen somewhere DM plum-3S.Gen DM
 屬格 某處 DM 李子-3Sg.屬格 DM

#e the plums were dropped.
 #c 李子掉了。

37. ...(1.28) tita-an-na kini- .. yau kinita- ..
 see-PF-3S.Gen FS Exist FS
 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 FS 存在 FS
 kintulu nani= sunis 'nay kintulu ay t-em-ita nani\
 three.human DM child that three.human RV AF-see DM

- 三人 DM 孩子 那 三人 關係 主焦-看 DM
38. ...(0.8) tita-an-na me-suRaw sa- sunis ‘nay.\
 see-PF-3S.Gen AF-fall FS child that
 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 主焦-跌倒 FS 孩子 那
- #e The three children saw the child fell.
 #c 那三個小孩看見那個小孩跌倒了。
39. ...(0.8) pangmu-an-na-ti.\
 help-PF-3S.Gen-Pfv
 幫忙-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成
40. ... m-iza tu= sinsuli-na.\
 AF-do.something Acc plum-3S.Gen
 主焦-做某事 受格 李子-3Sg.屬格
- #e helped him (picking) the plums.
 #c 幫忙他(撿)李子。
41. ...(0.8) m-isis mayzip-an-na .. tu= .. eh m tu,\
 AF-support 3S.Acc Acc PFL PFL PFL
 主焦-扶 3Sg.受格 受格 PFL PFL PFL
- #e helped him and his bicycle up.
 #c 把他和他的腳踏車扶起來。
42. .. zitinsya-na nani.\
 bicycle-3S.Gen DM
 腳踏車-3Sg.屬格 DM
43. ...(1.1) kawit-an-na-ti._
 pull.along-PF-3S.Gen-Pfv
 牽-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成
44. ... wiya-ti./
 leave-Pfv
 離開-完成
- #e (He) pulled along (his bicycle), went away.
 #c (他) 牽著 (他的腳踏車) 走了。
45. ...(0.8) kawit-an-na-ti zitinsya-na._
 pull.along-PF-3S.Gen bicycle-3S.Gen
 牽-受焦-3Sg.屬格 腳踏車-3Sg.屬格
- #e (He) pulled along his bicycle.
 #c (他) 牽著他的腳踏車。

46. ... nani.\
DM

47. ... pi-pirRes-ti s-em-aqay ..itang- eh-/
Red-limp-Pfv AF-walk- FS PFL
重疊-跛-完成 主焦-走 FS PFL

#e limped and walked.
#c 一跛一跛的走了。

48. ... me-RaRiu kaput-na kintulu ‘nay nani.\
AF-run-Pfv friend-3S.Gen three.human that DM
主焦-跑-完成 朋友-3Sg.屬格 三人 那 DM

49. ... tita-an-na ta tuRuz._
see-PF-3S.Gen Loc backside
看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 處所 後面

50. ... yau qubu-na.\
Exist hat-3S.Gen
存在 帽子-3Sg.屬格

#e (They) saw that there is a hat in behind.
#c (他們) 看到後面有一頂帽子。

51. ... qeRas-an-na ...qubu-su zawu zin-na
yell-PF-3S.Gen hat-2S.Gen this say-3S.Gen
叫-受焦-3Sg.屬格 帽子-2Sg.屬格 這 說-3Sg.屬格

#e (They) yelled, “Is this your hat?”
#c (他們) 叫 「這是你的帽子嗎？」

52. .. hm zin-na.\
BC say-3S.Gen
BC 說-3Sg.屬格

#e “Hmm,” he said.
#c 「嗯」他說。

53. ... taliqut-an-na si-qubu-an-na-ti nani.\
look_back-PF-3S.Gen SI-hat-PF-3S.Gen-Pfv DM
回頭-受焦-3Sg.屬格 SI-帽子-受焦-3Sg.屬格-Pfv DM

#e He looked back and wore the hat.
#c 他回頭戴帽子。

54. ... m-ara tu utulu ‘nay ...sinsuli sinapun-an-na-ti
AF-take Acc three.nonhuman that plum distribute-PF-3S.Gen-Pfv

	主焦-拿	受格	三.非人	那	李子	分-受焦-3Sg.屬格-Pfv
	kintulu	ara-an-na		nani.\		
	three.human	take-PF-3S.Gen	DM			
	三人	拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格	DM			

#e (He) took three plums, and distributed them to the three child.

#c 拿三個李子，分給三個小孩。

55.	...(1.25)	wiya-ti	qangyawu	manan-na	nani._
		leave-Pfv	3Pl.Nom	return-3S.Gen	DM
		離開-Pfv	3Pl.主格	回來-3Sg.屬格	DM

#e They left and returned.

#c 他們離開，回來。

56. ..ey
PFL
PFL

57.	..kintulu	‘nay sunis	‘nay me-lazyu	tu.\	
	three.human	that child	that AF-pass	Acc	
	三人	那 小孩	那 主焦-經過	受格	

58.	...baqi-an	‘nay.\
	grandfather-AN	that
	祖父-AN	那

#e The three children passed the old man

#c 那三個小孩經過那個老人。

59.	..tu	sinsuli	‘nay tu	baqi	‘nay nani.\
	Acc	plum	that Acc	grandfather	that DM
	受格	李子	那 受格	祖父	那 DM

60.	...(2.12)	tita-an-na	baqi-an	‘nay ..mana	sinsuli-ku.\
		see-PF-3Sg.Gen	grandfather-AN	that why	plum-1S.Gen
		看-受焦-3Sg.屬格	老人-AN	那 為什麼	李子-1Sg.屬格

#e That old man looked.

#c 那個老人看。

61.	uzusa-ti	ta-qanas-an	nani.\
	two.nonhuman-Pfv	Loc-basket-Loc	DM
	二.非人-Pfv	處所-籃子-處所	DM

62.	..mana	usiq-ti	ma	zin-na.\
	why	one-Pfv	DM	say-3S.Gen
	為什麼	一-完成	DM	說-3Sg.屬格

#e “Why the two baskets of plums of mine becomes one basket?” He said.
 #c 「為什麼我的兩籃李子只剩一籃？」，他說。

63. ...tita-an-na sunis ‘nay me-lazyu.\
 see-PF-3S.Gen child that AF-pass
 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 小孩 那 主焦-經過

#e He saw the children passing by.
 #c 他看那小孩經過。

64. ..mai tu ni-imet-an./
 Neg Acc NI-touch-AN
 否定 受格 NI-摸-AN

#e (The children) did not touch (anything).
 #c 沒摸東西。

65. ...pameng-ti me-nga-ngaR tya t-em-ita.\
 this.way-Pfv AF-Red-slack.jawed DM AF-see
 這樣-完成 主焦-Red-張嘴發呆 DM 主焦-看

#e (He) slack-jawed and looked (at the children).
 #c (他)張嘴發呆看。

66. ...(0.83) nani
 DM
 DM

67. ..mana pameng-ti mai utulun./
 why this.way-Pfv Neg three.nonhuman
 為什麼 這樣-完成 否定 三.非人

68. ..pasani semani._
 toward where
 往 哪裡

#e Why? Where run the three?
 #c 為什麼沒有？跑哪裡去了？

69. ..mai-ti ‘nay usiq ‘nay=.\
 Neg-Pfv that one that
 否定-完成 那 一 那

#e “That basket of plums of mine is gone.” He said.
 #c 「我的那一籃李子不見了。」他說。

70. <P ta P>-qanas-an ‘nay sinsuli-ku zin-na
 Loc-basket-Loc that plum-1S.Gen say-3S.Gen

處所-籃-處所 那 李子-1Sg.屬格 說-3Sg.屬格
 ..baqi-an ‘nay pameng-ti me-nga-ngaR tya t-em-ita/
 grandfather-AN that this.way-Pfv AF-Red-slack.jawed DM AF-see
 祖父-AN 那 這樣-Pfv 主焦-重疊-張嘴發呆 DM 主焦-看

#e That old man wonders, while he slack-jawed and looked.

#c 老人想為什麼，張著嘴發呆看。

71. ...q-em-usqus tu quRu.\
 AF-scratch Acc head
 主焦-抓 受格 頭

#e scratched head.

#c 抓抓頭。

72. ...(0.84) nakuni s-em-angi ni-kasyanem-na ne-____
 how AF-do NI-think-AN-3S.Gen FS
 如何 主焦-做 NI-想-AN-3Sg.屬格 FS

73. ...mai-ti ...pasani-ti ‘nay.\
 Neg-Pfv toward-Pfv that
 否定-Pfv 往-完成 那

74. sinsuli-ku.\
 plum-1S.Gen
 李子-1Sg.屬格

75. ... zin-na sayza-an-na baqi-an ‘nay.\
 say-3S.Gen maybe-PF-3S.Gen grandfather-AN that
 說-3Sg.屬格 可能-受焦-3Sg.屬格 祖父-AN 那

#e “Where did my plums go?” The old man said.

#c 「不見了...我的李子跑到哪裡去了？」那個老人說。

76. ..pameng-ti ya.\
 this_way-Pfv Int
 這樣-完成 感嘆

#e That’s it.

#c 就這個樣子。

77. ...zi- sa- ya- qay- suqiqirnīl-ti quRu-na tayan
 FS FS FS FS put.head.sideway-3S.Gen-Pfv head-3S.Gen there
 FS FS FS FS 側側頭-3Sg.屬格-完成 頭-3Sg.屬格 那邊

#e He turns his head.

#c 他側側頭。

78. ..nayawma ka 'nay tita-an-ku tangi.____
 only DM that see-PF-1S.Gen today
 只 DM 那 看-受焦-1Sg.屬格 今天

#e That's what I saw today.
 #c 我今天看的就這樣。

File name: pear_imui

Topic: Pear story

Type: Narrative

Language: Kavalan

Speaker: Imui (潘金妹), F, 51

Time: 1' 15"

Total IUs: 31

Collected: 03/05/30

Revised: 05/04/08

Transcribed by: 葉俞廷、王以勤

Double checked by: 鍾曉芳、沈嘉琪、葉俞廷、謝富惠

1. tangi tita-an-ku .. 'nay wannì.\
 today see-PF-1Sg.Gen that DM
 今天 看-受焦-1Sg.屬格 那 DM
2. ... qay-byabas ay razat a yawu ta- .. ta-iza-an u.\
 QAY-guava RV person Link that ta- Loc-somewhere-Loc or
 QAY-芭樂 關係 人 連 那 ta- 處所-某處-處所 或

#n Note: 1. qay-pais 採貝類
 2. qay-paRin 撿木材, 砍樹
 3. qay-qabing 撿/採海菜
 4. qay-tiRo 撿雞蛋
 5. qay-byabas aiku 我採芭樂

3. ... ta-= pa-
 FS FS

4. ... ta-bunguR-an na na= byabas a yawu,_
 Loc-trunk-Loc na Gen guava Link that
 處所-樹幹-處所 na 屬格 芭樂 連 那

#e I just saw a person there who was picking guavas at somewhere or around a guava tree.
 #c 我剛剛看到那個採芭樂的人在那邊或是在芭樂樹那邊。

5. ... qay- ..qay-byabas 'nay,_
 QAY- QAY-guava that
 QAY- QAY-芭樂 那

6. ... razat 'nay nani.\
 person that DM
 人 那 DM

#e That person picked guavas. Then,
 #c 那個人採芭樂。然後，

7. ... kyara-an-na-ti ... 'nay byabas a yawu./
 pick_up-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv that guava Link that
 撿-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成 那 芭樂 連 那

8. ... pizya-an-na ta- ... qaypi-an .. nani.\
 put-PF- 3Sg.Gen Loc-basket-Loc DM
 放-受焦-3Sg.屬格 處所-籃子-處所 DM

#e He picked up that guava there and put (it) in the big basket. Then,
 #c 他撿起那個芭樂放在大籃子裡。

#n Note: 1. latebuz 甜

2. latebuz byabas a yau
 那個芭樂很甜

3. nengi qan-an ni-qan-an-na byabas 'nay
 他吃的那個芭樂很甜

4. nengi qan-an byabas 'nay
 (重音) 那個芭樂很好吃
 (輕音) 那個芭樂可以吃

5. nengi qan-an-na byabas 'nay
 =nengi q-em-an tu byabas 'nay
 他可以吃那個芭樂

9. ... ara-an-na ..pun k-em-yara na ara-an-na-ti na.\
 take-PF-3Sg.Gen finish AF-pick_up FS take-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv Gen
 拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格 完成 主焦-撿 FS 拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成 屬格

#e He finished picking up.

#c 撿完了芭樂。

#n Note: 1. pun-ti k-em-yara 撿完了

2. ni-kyara-an na razat a yau byabas
 那個人撿的芭樂

10. ... sunis a yawu.\
 child Link that
 孩子 連 那

#e That child took (the guavas),

#c 那個小孩拿了(芭樂)。

11. ... mu-zaqis pa-zaqis ta-= zitinsya-an.\
 AF-take(FS) Cau-take Loc- bicycle-Loc

主焦-乘坐(FS) 使役-乘坐 處所-腳踏車-處所

12. ...'nay ni-kyara-an na tama-na tu byabas,
that NI-pick_up-AN Gen father-3Sg.Gen Acc guava
那 NI-撿-AN 屬格 父親-3Sg.屬格 受格 芭樂

13. ..ta-bunguR-an na paRin.\
Loc-trunk-Loc Gen tree
處所-樹幹-處所 屬格 樹

#e (He) put the guavas picked up by his father around the trunk on the bicycle.
#c 把那些他爸爸在樹幹那邊撿的芭樂放在腳踏車上。

14. ... 'nay ara-an-na pa-tanan nani.\
that take-PF-3Sg.Gen Cau-return DM
那 拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格 使役-回來 DM

#e He took (them) back. Then,
#c 他拿回去。然後，

15. ... tangi nani ..suRaw-ti ta-bataz-an na razan..'nay sunis
today DM fall-Pfv Loc-halfway-Loc Gen road that child
今天 DM 跌倒-完成 處所-中途-處所 屬格 路 那 小孩
a yawu.\
Link that
連 那

#c 然後那個小孩在途中跌倒了。
#e Then the child stumbled halfway.

16. ... me-ruzit-ti .. zapan na .. sunis a yawu nani.\
AF-hurt-Pfv foot Gen child Link that DM
主焦-受傷-完成 腳 屬格 小孩 連 那 DM

#e That child's leg was hurt. Then,
#c 那個小孩的腳受傷了。然後，

#n Note: 1. pena-nian 大腿

2. vetis 小腿

3. qokap 腳板

4. ruzit 傷口

5. *ruzit-an-ku 要講 pa-ruzit-an-ku 我讓他受傷

6. m-taRaw-iku 我生病了

7. taRaw-ku 我的病 我的痛

17. ... yau-ti ya ..kaput-na.\
Exist-Pfv Nom friend-3Sg.Gen
存在-完成 主格 朋友-3Sg.屬格

18. ... mangmu .. ti mayzipna,_
 help Ncm 3Sg.Acc
 幫助 Ncm 3Sg.受格

19. ...ni- ... k-em-yara tu\
 FS AF-pick_up Acc
 FS 撿-主焦 受格

20. ... ni-qa-tabuk-an na byabas a yawu ta-razan-an\
 NI-QA-spill-AN Gen guava Link that Loc-road-Loc
 NI-QA-散落-AN 屬格 芭樂 連 那 處所-路-處所

#e His friends helped him pick up the guavas that fell down on the road.
 #c 他的朋友幫他撿起掉在路上的芭樂。

21. ... qalisinpu-an-na-ti ta= qaypi-an ‘nay .. ‘nay te- ‘nay
 gather-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv Loc-basket-Loc FS FS FS that
 集中-AN-3Sg.屬格-完成 處所-籃子-處所 FS FS FS 那
 byabas a yawu nani\
 guava Link that DM
 芭樂 連 那 DM

#e He gathered the guavas in the big basket. Then,
 #c 他把那些芭樂集中放在大籃子裡。

22. ... (1.0) pa-zaqis-an-na uman t-em-anan ..qalingun-an-na-ti
 Cau-take-PF-3Sg.Gen again AF-return forget-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv
 使役-乘坐-受焦-3Sg.屬格 再 主焦-回來 忘記-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成
 ya,_
 Nom
 主格

#e He put (the basket on the bicycle) again and was on his way home ...
 #c 他再(把籃子)放上去，並回家...

23. ...‘nay qubu na .. na sunis a yawu ara-an-na kaput-na bura\
 that hat FS Gen child Link that take-PF-3Sg.Gen friend-3Sg.Gen give
 那 帽子 FS 屬格 小孩 連 那 拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格朋友-3Sg.屬格 給

#e That child forgot his hat.
 #c 那小孩忘了他的帽子。

24. ... tu= qubu .. ‘nay kaput-na .. ‘nay suRaw ay sunis
 Acc hat that friend-3Sg.Gen that fall RV child
 受格 帽子 那 朋友-3Sg.屬格 那 跌倒 關係 小孩
 a yawu nani\
 Link that DM
 連 那 DM

#e His friend took the hat and gave it to the child who stumbled. Then,
 #c 他的朋友拿帽子給那個跌倒的小孩。然後，

25. ... wiya-ti .. t-em-anan ..sunis a yawu yawu-ti 'nay
 leave-Pfv AF-return child Link that Exist-Pfv that
 離開-完成 主焦-回去 小孩 連 那 存在-完成 那
 kintulu ay, /
 three.human RV
 三人 關係

#e The child left.
 #c 那個小孩回去了。

26. ... yawu-ti q-em-an tu byabas a yawu ...wiya-ti pasazi ta=.\
 Exist-Pfv AF-eat Acc guava Link that leave-Pfv toward_here FS
 存在-完成主焦-吃 受格 芭樂 連 那 離開-完成 過來 FS

#e Those three persons ate the guavas.
 #c 那三個人吃了芭樂。

27. ... (0.9) ta tibuR sayza s-em-aqay 'nay kintulu ay sunis
 Loc south maybe AF-walk that three.human RV child
 處所 南 可能 走-主焦 那 三人 關係 小孩
 a yawu.\
 Link that
 連 那

#e Those three children came over, perhaps toward the south.
 #c 那三個小孩走過來，可能走向南邊。

#n Note: 1. tibuR na Taiwan 台灣的南部
 2. pasa-tibuR-pa-iku 我要往南走
 3. pasazi-pa-iku tibuR 我要往這邊在往南走

28. ... nani.\
 DM
 DM

#e Then,
 #c 然後，

29. ... t-em-anan-ti ...'nay= sunis 'nay me-niz.\
 AF-return-Pfv FS child that AF-all
 主焦-回來-完成 FS 小孩 那 主焦-全部

#e All of the children went back,
 #c 所有的小孩都回去了，

30. ... tu= maseq-ti ta= iza-an ta-repaw-an na.\
 DM arrive-Pfv Loc-=somewhere-Loc Loc-house-Loc Gen
 DM 到達-完成 處所-某處-處所 處所-家-處所 屬格

#e and arrived somewhere...

#c 並到某處...

31. ... sayza 'nay sunis 'nay Rayngu-an-ku-ti .. mai-ti
 maybe that child that not know-PF-1Sg.Gen-Pfv Neg-Pfv
 可能 那 小孩 那 不知道-受焦-1Sg.屬格-完成 否定-完
 成 nayawma <@sikawma-an-ku@> <@國 沒有啦 國@>.\
 only speak-AN1Sg.Gen
 只 講-AN-1Sg.屬格

#e maybe at the child's home. I don't know. That's all. That's all of my words.

#c 可能到那個小孩家，我不知道。沒有了。我的話只有這樣而已。

#n Note: 1. mana nayawma 為什麼只有這樣

2. pasi m-Rasa tu Raybang 他可能去買東西

3. m-Rasa ma tu Raybang 他只是去買東西

4. pasi m-Rasa ma tu Raybang 他可能只是去買東西

5. pasi m-Rasa m-uman tu Raybang 他可能又去買東西

6. supaR-isu tu sikawma tu kevalan 你會說 kavalan 的話嗎
 =supaR-isu tang kevalan

KAVALAN Frog Stories

Filename: frog_buya

Topic: Frog story

Type: Narrative

Language: Kavalan

Speaker: Buya Patu (謝宗修), M, 46

Time: 3' 55"

Total IUs: 105

Collected: 03/05/30

Revised: 03/11/11

Double checked by: 謝富惠、鍾曉芳、沈嘉琪、葉俞廷

1. ..ma=sang nani yau usiq sunis 'nay,
 before DM Exist one child that
 以前 DM 存在 一 小孩 那

2. ...(1.7) atu wasu-na, /
 and dog-3Sg.Gen
 和 狗-3Sg.屬格

3. .. kinawsa .. nani .\
 two.human DM
 兩人 DM

#e Long time ago, there is a child and a dog.
#c 從前，有一個小孩和一隻狗。

4. ... (1.3) yau ni-qulu-an-na tu=, _
Exist NI-breed-AN-3Sg.Gen Acc
存在 NI-養-AN-3Sg.屬格 受格

5. ... (1.4) tu biat, /
Acc frog
受格 青蛙

6. ... pizya-an-na ta-peRasku-an.\
put-PF-3Sg.Gen Loc-bottle-Loc
放-受焦-3Sg.屬格 處所-瓶子-處所

#e He keeps a frog in the bottle.
#c 他有養一隻青蛙，放在瓶子裡。

7. ... (1.2) eN=, /
PFL

8. ... m-aynep qanyawu tuRabi nani m-aynep-ti, _
AF-sleep 3Pl.Nom night DM AF-sleep-Pfv
主焦-睡覺 3Pl.主格 晚上 DM 主焦-睡覺-完成

#e They sleep at night.
#c 他們晚上睡覺。

9. ... (1.7) 'nay biat 'nay, /
that frog that
那 青蛙 那個

10. ... (1.9) pa=qanas-ti me-zukat ta-peRasku-an, _
careful-Pfv AF-go_out Loc-bottle-Loc
小心慢慢-完成 主焦-出去 處所-瓶子-處所

11. ... m-RaRiu.\
AF-run
主焦-跑

#e That frog...slowly (jumps) out the bottle and ran away.
#c 那隻青蛙慢慢地從瓶子裡跑了出來。

12. ... (1.1) Ramneng sunis 'nay atu wasu-na nani.\
wake child that and dog-3S.G DM
醒 小孩 那個 和 狗-他.屬格 DM

#e The child and his dog wake up.

#c 小孩子跟他的狗醒了。

13. ... (1.6) mai-ti biat 'nay.\
Neg-Pfv frog that
否定-完成 青蛙 那個

#e The frog has disappeared.

#c 青蛙不見了。

14. ... (2.3) pameng-ti k-em-i-ki-kirim qanyawu,_
no other choice-Pfv AF-Red-find 3Pl.Nom
只好-完成 主焦-重疊-找 3Pl.主格

15. ... atu wasu-na,_
and dog-3Sg.Gen
和 狗-3Sg.屬格

#e He and his dog keep looking for (the frog).

#c 小孩子跟他的狗一直找一直找。

16. ... (2.0) tanian ki-kirim-an-na mai.\
where Red-find-PF-3Sg.Gen Neg
哪裡 重疊-找-受焦-3Sg.屬格 否定

#e They cannot find it anywhere.

#c 到處找都找不著。

#n Note: should be taninian “everywhere”

17. ... (1.8) nani wasu 'nay nani pa-susuR-an-na
DM dog that DM Cau-enter-PF-3Sg.Gen
DM 狗 那 DM 使役-進入-受焦-3Sg.屬格

ta= -peRasku-an quRu-na,_
Loc-bottle-Loc head-3Sg.Gen
處所-瓶子-處所 頭-3Sg.屬格

18. ... nani.\
DM
DM

#e The dog puts his head in the bottle.

#c 那條狗把頭鑽到瓶子裡去了。

19. ... (1.4) pasa sa tengat qanyawu q-em-qe-Ras,/
toward Loc window 3Pl.Nom AF-Red-yell
往 處所 窗戶 3Pl.主格 主焦-重疊-叫

20. ... (1.0) ma=i,/
Neg

否定

21. ... (1.6) nani.\
DM
DM

#e They go to the window and call the frog, but it is not there.
#c 跑到窗戶那邊叫，結果沒有。

22. ... wasu 'nay ... t-em-ugaz ta-tengat-an, /
dog that AF-go_up Loc-window-Loc
狗 那 主焦-上去 處所-窗戶-處所

23. ... (0.9) nakuni t-em-ibuk-ti nani.\
how AF-fall-Pfv DM
如何 主焦-掉-完成 DM

#e The dog climbs up to the window and somehow it falls.
#c 那隻狗爬到窗戶上，不知怎樣就掉下來了。

24. ... (1.1) ma-belung peRasku 'nay, _
MA-break bottle that
受焦-破 瓶子 那

25. ... q-em-nut s- 'nay razat 'na=y...'nay za-na, /
AF-angry FS that person that that ZA-3Sg.Gen
主焦-生氣 FS 那 人 那 那 ZA-3Sg.屬格

26. ... razat-na nani.\
person-3Sg.Gen DM
人-3Sg.屬格 DM

#e The bottle is broken, so the child is mad.
#c 瓶子破了，小孩很生氣。
#n Note: -na 指的是狗, razat-na 意為狗的主人

27. ... (2.0) supaR qaya wasu 'nay, _
know also dog that
知道 也 狗 那

28. ... p-em-upuk tu= .. razat-na, /
AF-comfort Acc person-3Sg.Gen
主焦-安慰 受格 人-3Sg.屬格

29. ... tu tu= za-na nani.\
DM PFL ZA-3Sg.Gen DM
DM PFL ZA-3Sg.屬格 DM

#e The dog knows his master is mad, so the dog comforts him.
 #c 那隻狗也很體貼，安慰牠的主人。

30. ...sila=m-an-na-ti.\
 lick-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv
 舔-受焦-3Sg.Gen-完成

#e It licks (the child).
 #c 狗舔了(小孩)。

31. ..nani me-zukat qanyawu sa tati.\
 DM AF-go_out 3Pl.Nom Loc outside
 DM 主焦-出去 3Pl.主格 處所 外面

#e Then they go outside.
 #c 他們出去到外面。

32. ...(1.5)ta- nani ta=zian ta=-pa-paRin-an mazmun
 FS DM here Loc-Red-tree-Loc FS
 FS DM 這裡 處所-重疊-樹-處所 FS
 ..muaza paRin tayan nani.\
 many tree there DM
 多 樹 那裡 DM

#e There are lots of trees in the forest.
 #c 在樹林那裡裡邊兒有很多樹。
 #n Note: mazmun: many (human), muaza (nonhuman)

33. ...pasi yau tayan biat 'nay zin-su nani.\
 likely Exist there frog that say-2Sg.Gen DM
 可能 存在 那裡 青蛙 那 說-2Sg.屬格 DM

#e The frog might be there.
 #c 青蛙可能就在那裡。

34. ...k-em-irin tayan... nani.\
 AF-find there DM
 主焦-找 那裡 DM

#e They look for the frog there.
 #c (他們) 在那裡找。

35. ...tita-an-na yau penay 'nay nani.\
 see-PF-3Sg.Gen Exist bee that DM
 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 存在 蜜蜂 那 DM

#e They saw bees.
 #c 他們看到蜜蜂。

36. ...sinunu=ng-an penay 'nay, _
 along-PF bee that
 沿著-受焦 蜜蜂 那

37. ...maseq tazian ta-kinir-an-na nani.\
 arrive here Loc-side-Loc-3Sg.Gen DM
 到達 那裡 處所-旁邊-處所-3Sg.屬格 DM

#e They follow the bees and arrive somewhere next to the bees.
 #c 他們順著蜜蜂走，到了蜜蜂的旁邊。

38. ...yau ta-kinir-an-na yau [X'nay 'nayX] tangan
 Exist Loc-side-Loc-3Sg.Gen Exist FS FS hole
 有 處所-旁邊-處所-3Sg.屬格 存在 FS FS 洞
 'nay nani.\
 that DM
 那 DM

39. ...papankel-an-na XX.\
 peek-PF-3Sg.Gen
 望-受焦-3Sg.屬格

#e There is a hole near the beehive, so he takes a look into it.
 #c 在蜂窩旁邊有個洞，他往洞裡望一望。

40. ...papankel-an-na k-em-i-irikin tayan nani.\
 peek-PF-3Sg.Gen AF-find there DM
 望-受焦-3Sg.屬格 主焦-找 那裡 DM

41. q-em-Ras...nani.\
 AF-yell DM
 主焦-叫 DM

#e He takes a look into the hive, looking for the frog, and calls it.
 #c 他往洞口裡望一望，在那裡找，叫（那隻青蛙）。

42. ...ma=i.\
 Neg
 否定

#e Nothing is there.
 #c (結果) 沒有。

43. ...(0.9)wasu 'nay nani.\
 dog that DM
 狗 那 DM

44. ... (1.0) nakuni s-em-angi nani u-utuz-an-na-ti
 how AF-do DM Red-shake-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv
 如何 主焦-做 DM 重疊-搖-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成
 iza 'nay 'na=y ... penay 'nay... nani.\
 something FS FS bee that DM
 某物 FS FS 蜜蜂 那 DM

#e Somehow, the dog is stung by the bees.

#c 那隻狗不知道怎麼搞的,就搖(樹),蜂(窩)就掉下來。

45. ... (1.1) t-m-ibuk-ti penay 'nay.\
 AF-fall-Pfv bee that
 主焦-掉-完成 蜜蜂 那

#e The bee falls.

#c 蜂窩掉下來了。

46. ... 'nay ni- Rupu iza-na 'nay Rupu 'na=y(0.8), _
 that FS hive that hive that
 那 FS 蜂窩 那 蜂窩 那

47. ... (2.0) ninu [X zin-ta X]-ti 'nay iza-na 'na=y, _
 what say-1Pl.incl.Gen-Pfv that that
 什麼 說-1Pl.包含.屬格-完成 那 那

48. ... (3.6) Rupu-na qanyawu ya.\
 hive-3Sg.Gen 3Pl.Nom DM
 蜂窩-3Sg.屬格 3Pl.主格 DM

#e That...that...that ...beehive...how should I put it...their beehive falls.

#c 不知道要怎麼說.....那個他們的蜂窩就掉下來了。

49. ... (1.9) t-em-ibuk-ti 'nay.\
 AF-fall-Pfv that
 主焦-掉-完成 那

50. ... t-em-anuz-ti turiq 'nay sayza nani.\
 AF-chase -Pfv wasp that maybe DM
 主焦-追-完成 虎頭蜂 那 可能 DM

#e That (hive) falls, and the wasps chase (them).

#c (蜂窩)掉下來,那些虎頭蜂就追。

51. ..kuri-
 FS
 FS

52. ... kurikuz-an-na 'nay ya- 'na=y...wasu 'nay nani.\
 follow-PF-3Sg.Gen that FS that dog that DM

跟-受焦-3Sg.屬格 那 FS 那 狗 那 DM

#e The bees chase after the dog.

#c (蜜蜂) 跟在那隻狗後面追。

53. ... (1.0) razat-na nani yau tayan ta- t-m-ita tu tangan nani.\
 person-3Sg.Gen DM Exist there FS AF-see Acc hole DM
 人-3Sg.屬格 DM 存在 那裡 FS 主焦-看 受格 洞 DM

#e That person sees a hole there.

#c (狗的) 主人看到那裡有個洞。

54. ... me-zukat qaya 'naya.. alam Raya nani.\
 AF-go_out also that bird big DM
 主焦-出去 也 那 鳥 大 DM

#e The big bird flies out too.

#c 那隻大鳥也出來了。

#n Note: 大鳥指貓頭鷹。

55. ... (1.9) suzit-an-ti ta libeng.\
 fall backwards-PF-Pfv Loc below
 往後掉-受焦-完成 處所 下面

56. ... alam buR- 'na=y wasu-na nani.\
 bird FS that dog-3Sg.Gen DM
 鳥 FS 那 狗-3Sg.屬格 DM

57. ... yau-ti 'na=y ... (1.2) 'na=y penay t-em-anuz ... sa na-nawung.\
 Exist-Pfv that that bee AF-chase Loc Red-mountain
 存在-完成 那 那 蜜蜂 主焦-追 處所 重疊-山

58. ... (1.0) nani.\
 DM
 DM

#e The child falls backwards, and the bees keep chasing in the mountain.

#c 小孩子往後翻了下來，被蜜蜂追到深山裡去。

59. ... Raylikus.\
 finally
 最後

#e Finally,

#c 最後

60. ... (1.5) t-em-uqaz-pa-iku 'naya k-em-i-kirim zin-na
 AF-go_up-Fut-1.Sg.Nom that AF-Red-find say-3Sg.Gen

主焦-上去-未來-1.Sg.主格 那 主焦-重疊-找 說-3Sg.屬格
 nani,_
 DM
 DM

61. ... tuqaz-an-na-ti 'nay z- 'nay ..'nay suRna nani.\
 go_up-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv that FS that that ice DM
 上去-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成 那 FS 那 那 冰塊 DM

#e He said, "I will climb up to look for the frog." And he climbs up to the ice.
 #c 他說：「我要爬上去找青蛙。」就爬到那個冰塊上面去了。

62. ...sa waki 'nay.. m-imet paRin 'nay ta babaw zin-na
 Loc horn that AF-take tree that Loc above say-3Sg.Gen
 處所角 那 主焦-拿 樹 那 處所 上面 說-3Sg.屬格
 sayza nani.\
 maybe DM
 可能 DM

#e He thinks the thing above (the stone) is a tree, so he grasps it.
 #c 他以為是樹枝就把它抓住。

63. ... ta= na-na-, /
 see-
 看見

#n Note: It should be "tita-an na nani."

64. ...(0.9) te-m-qez nani._
 AF-stop DM
 主焦-停 DM

65. ...me-zukat nani.\
 AF-go_out DM
 主焦-出去 DM

66. ...quRu-na na iza na=... siRemuq.\
 head-3Sg.Gen Gen something Gen deer
 頭-3Sg.屬格 屬格 某物 屬格 鹿

#e The head of the deer comes out.
 #c (結果)鹿的頭跑出來。

67. ...(1.3)me-Retut siRemu- siRemuq 'nay sayza nani.\
 AF-scared FS deer hat maybe DM
 主焦-嚇 FS 鹿 那 可能 DM

68. ...wiya-ti me-RaRiu nani.\
 leave-Pfv AF-run DM
 離開-完成 主焦-跑 DM

#e The deer is frightened, so it runs.
 #c 鹿嚇了一跳，就跑了。

69. ...maseq ta-qaylis-an,_
 arrive Loc-cliff-Loc
 到 處所-懸崖-處所

70. ...(0.9)te-m-qez nani.\
 AF-stop DM
 主焦-停 DM

#e (The deer) stops at the cliff.
 #c 到了懸崖邊就停了下來。

71. ...t-em-ibuk-ti 'nay qanyawu 'nay sunis 'nay
 AF-fall-Pfv that 3Pl.Nom that child that
 主焦-掉-完成 那 3Pl.主格 那 小孩 那
 at- atu wasu-na.\
 FS and dog-3Sg.Gen
 FS 和 狗-3Sg.屬格

72. ...uh,_
 PFL
 PFL

73. ...nani.\
 DM
 DM

#e The child and the dog falls (from the cliff).
 #c 那個小孩跟她的狗掉了下來。

74. ...(1.3)qa=nas-ti t-em-uqaz m-uman.\
 slow-Pfv AF-go_up AF-again
 慢-完成 主焦-上去 主焦-再

#n Note: 1. uman-an-na t-em-uqaz
 他重新再爬一次
 2. m-uman t-em-uqaz
 再爬一次 (再來一次)

75. ...az- ..nani.\
 FS DM
 FS DM

#e They slowly climb up again.

#c 他們又慢慢地重新爬了起來。

76. ... supaR sayza me-nawi nani.\
can maybe AF-swim DM
會 可能 主焦-游泳 DM

77. ...waw.\
Int
感嘆

#e They know how to swim.

#c 他們會游泳。

78. ...qangi-ti.\
good-Pfv
好-完成

79. ...yau-ti ta-paRin-an sayza na qanyawu sa=--, /
Exist-Pfv Loc-tree-Loc maybe Gen 3Pl.Nom FS
存在-完成 處所-樹-處所 可能 屬格 3Pl.主格 FS

#e Fortunately, there is a trunk.

#c 還好，那裡有樹。

#n Note: 1. belia mai-isu mautu
幸好你有來 (我們才有得吃)
2. belia mai tu paRin
幸好有一棵樹
3. belia yau tu qelisiu ta-teRa (裡面)
幸好裡面沒有錢

80. ...zaqis-an-na sa=(1.0)--, /
climb_up-PF-3Sg.Gen FS
爬上-受焦-3Sg.屬格 FS

81. ... (0.9) azu-ti syurin 'nay zin-ta na, _
seem-Pfv buoy that say-1Pl.incl.Gen DM
好像-完成 救生圈 那 說-1Pl.包含.屬格 DM

82. ...nani.\
DM
DM

#e. There is a tree (trunk) over there; the child thinks the trunk is like a life buoy.

#c 那個小孩覺得好像救生圈。

83. ... (1.2) iza, _
that

那個, 然後

84. ...me-lazyu tu=...nengi-ti me-lazyu-ti ta-qazqaz-an
 AF-pass DM good-Pfv AF-pass-Pfv Loc-shore-Loc
 主焦-經過 DM 好-完成 主焦-經過-完成 處所-岸邊-處所
 nani zin-na\
 DM say-3Sg.Gen
 DM 說-3Sg.屬格

#e It is easy (easier) to go to the shore.

#c 他覺得 (這樣子) 比較好過去到岸邊。

85. ...(1.4)tita-an-na yau biat 'nay ta-kinir-an/
 see-PF-3Sg.Gen Exist frog that Loc-side-Loc
 看-受焦-3Sg.屬格 存在 青蛙 那 處所-旁邊-處所

#n Note: 1. ta-kinir-an-ku

我的旁邊

2. t-em-ita-iku yau biat 'nay ta-kinir-an
 我看到旁邊有青蛙

86. ...mua=zmun tayan zin-na nani\
 many there say-3Sg.Gen DM
 很多 那裡 說-3Sg.屬格 DM

#e The child sees frogs on the trunk. He thinks, "lots of frogs are there!"

#c 小孩子看到那上面有青蛙, 說: 「有很多隻在那邊。」

87. ...(0.9)wo= me-li-lizaq-ti,
 Int AF-Red-happy-Pfv
 感嘆 主焦-重疊-高興-完成

#e Wow! He is happy!

#c 喔, (小孩) 好高興唷!

88. ...qeRas-an-ti, /
 call-PF-Pfv
 叫-受焦-完成

#n: Note: q-emRas-iku tu wasu-ku
 我在叫我的狗

89. ...nani\
 DM
 DM

#e He calls for the frog.

#c 就叫了。

90. ... (0.9) azu-ti ni-qulu-an-na, /
 seem-Pfv NI-breed-AN-3Sg.Gen
 好像-完成 NI-養-AN-3Sg.屬格

#n Note: 1. qa-qulu-an-na

他(打算)要養的

2. pa-qulu 寄養/使別人養

3. qulu 有養或照顧的意思, 但如果對象是大眾則用 m-liatip

91. ... nani ala-an-na-ti usiq 'na=y, _
 DM take-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv one that
 DM 拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成 一 那

92. ... iza-an-na nani ni-qulu-an-na masang o.\
 that.way-3Sg.Gen DM NI-breed-AN-3Sg.Gen before DM
 那個樣子-3Sg.屬格 DM NI-養-AN-3Sg.屬格 以前 DM

#e The child takes a frog, which seems to be the one he used to raise.

#c 小孩子就拿了好像是他以前養的那一隻青蛙。

93. ... ya=u-isu tazian sayza= zin-na=, _
 Exist-2Sg.Gen here maybe say-3Sg.Gen
 存在-2Sg.屬格 這裡 可能 說-3Sg.屬格

#n Note: 1. uzan sayza amawa

明天可能下雨

2. q-em-an sayza tu baut

他們可能在吃魚

94. ... sunis 'nay zin-na ya, _
 child that say-3Sg.Gen DM
 小孩 那 說-3Sg.屬格 DM

95. ... <P na razat-na nani P>.\
 Gen person-3Sg.Gen DM
 屬格 人-3Sg.屬格 DM

#e That child says, "Here you are!"

#c 那個小孩說：「原來你在這裡！」

96. ... (0.9) ala-an-na-ti-na= razat-na pa-tanan, /
 take-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv-3Sg.Gen person-3Sg.Gen Cau-return
 拿-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成-3Sg.屬格 人-3Sg.屬格 使役-回家

97. ... ri=zaq-an nani.\
 happy-PF DM
 高興-受焦 DM

#e That person (child) takes the frog home and is happy.
 #c 青蛙的主人把他拿回家，很高興。

98. ...qa-wiya-ti-imi zin-na.\
 QA-leave-Pfv-1.Pl.excl.Nom say-3Sg.Gen
 QA-離開-完成-1P.排除.主格 說-3Sg.屬格

#e He says, "we are leaving!"
 #c 小孩子說：「我們要走囉！」

99. ...nawayma .. 'nay.\
 only that
 只 那

#e That's all.
 #c 就這樣子。

#n Note: 1. nawayma qelisiu 'nay
 錢就這麼多 (而已)
 2. nawayma qelisiu-ku
 我的錢就只有這麼多而已
 3. nawayma qawqa
 要這多才對; 要做到這樣才對

100. ...<X rizaq-an X> nani.\
 happy-PF DM
 高興-受焦 DM

#e They are happy.
 #c 他們很高興。

101. ... me-rizaq-ti maseq.\
 AF-happy-Pfv arrive
 主焦-高興-完成 到達

102. ... tu repaw nani.\
 TU1 house DM
 TU1 家 DM

#e They happily go home.
 #c 他們高高興興的回家。

103. ... (1.3)qa-nengi-an-na-ti 'nay ni-qulu-an-na tu,\
 QA-good-PF-3Sg.Gen-Pfv that NI-breed-AN-3Sg.Gen Acc
 QA-好-受焦-3Sg.屬格-完成 那 NI-養-AN-3Sg.屬格 受格

104. ... (1.2) biat 'nay zin-ku nawayma,\
 frog that say-1Sg.Gen only

青蛙 那 說-1Sg.屬格 只

105. ...sikawma-an-ku.\
speak-PF-1Sg.Gen
說-受焦-1Sg.屬格

#e I think he will take care of the frog. That is what I want to say.

#c 我想他會好好照顧那隻青蛙的。我說的(故事)就這樣子。

#n Note : 1. qa-nengi-an-ku sunis 'nay 我對那個小孩好

2. qa-nengi-an-ka g-mulu sunis a yau
我會好好照顧小孩

3. qa-nengi-ka-ti sunis a yau
我會好好的照顧小孩

4. qa-nengi-ika-ti q-mulu tu sunis
你要好好的照顧小孩

END