### EXISTENTIAL CLAUSES IN NOSU YI TEXTS\*

## Susan Walters (苏珊) SIL International

## Ndaxit Atqi(打西阿且)

Southwest University for Nationalities, Chengdu, Sichuan 西南民族大学

Existential clauses in Nosu Yi frequently serve to introduce a participant into the discourse. Syntactically, these clauses are composed of a noun phrase (the participant being introduced), a verb, and one or more optional adverbial phrases expressing location and/or time. Thirteen different verbs were used in existential clauses in our data. An examination of a corpus of twenty texts, both oral and written, sheds light on the lexical semantics of each verb, many of which specify the nature of the referent, the space in which it exists, and the posture or nature of the referent's existence.

Keywords: Nosu Yi, existential clauses, written texts, oral texts

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

As early as 1984, Shi Jinbo (1984) compared and categorized ten kinds of existential verbs in Xixia, Yi and Qiang languages. Bai (1991: 39-45) lists many Hani existential verbs. He groups them by class according to what sorts of referents are asserted to exist. In 1994, LaPolla (1994: 75) wrote about multiple existential verbs being a widespread phenomenon in Tibeto-Burman languages. Li Fanwen (1999: 111) writes that only some of the languages of the Yi branch have this phenomenon of complex verbal semantics in existential verbs, with Nosu Yi¹ having the most. LaPolla (2003: 133ff) describes five existential verbs in Qiang whose use depends on the semantics of the referent or on the nature of its location. Nosu Yi has at least thirteen different verbs which can all share the gloss 'exist'. This study looks at existential clauses in search of patterns to account for the use of so many different verbs.

The data in this paper came from twenty texts (oral and written) of various genres including legends, short stories, dialogues, and a procedural text. On a few occasions an example not from this corpus of texts is used because it illustrates a point more clearly. Sources include well-established authors as well as people with little education.

Examples of existential clauses were grouped according to which verb was used:  $\lozenge$  [dzu<sup>33</sup>]<sup>2</sup>,  $\nexists$  [ndzo<sup>33</sup>],  $\nexists$  [dzo<sup>33</sup>],  $\nexists$  [dzo<sup>33</sup>],  $\nexists$  [dzu<sup>33</sup>],  $\nexists$  [dzu<sup>33</sup>],  $\nexists$  [dzu<sup>33</sup>],  $\exists$  [dzi<sup>21</sup>],  $\exists$  [dzu<sup>21</sup>], and  $\exists$  [hi<sup>55</sup>]. The examples were studied to find the functions, semantic range, and collocations of each verb.

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The Nosu language belongs to the Northern Ngwi sub-branch of Burmese-Ngwi. The examples in this paper are from the Shengzha dialect, the dialect chosen as the basis for the Table of Standard Yi Language Characters. The language is also called Northern Yi, Sichuan Yi, or Liangshan Yi after the geographical region where it is spoken.

The underscore diacritic indicates tense vowel quality.

Section two briefly discusses the function of existential clauses. Section three describes their structure, which includes three parts: the NPs referring to the referent being located, the location, and the verb. The properties of thirteen different verbs are discussed with examples. Section four summarizes our findings.

# 2. THE FUNCTION OF EXISTENTIALS

Hannay (1985: 51) writes that existential clauses are those which speakers employ to introduce new referents into the discourse. These are sometimes called presentational sentences. Suñer (1982: 1) writes, "Presentational sentences are functionally defined as those which introduce the referent of the noun phrase into the universe of discourse. Their verb serves to assert this appearance." This is one typical function of existential clauses.

This study considers clauses that affirm or deny the existence of something (sometimes at a particular location). Moreover, we found that the verb used to affirm or deny the existence of a referent often carried additional information. These clauses in Nosu often but not always introduce a participant (people or objects) into the discourse. They are, from a discourse point of view, supportive material rather than eventline material (Longacre 1996: 21). This would be true in all the monologue narratives in our corpus (i.e. not including the dialogues or procedural text).

This is confirmed by others who group many of these verbs together. Dai (1998: 69) lists nine verbs grouped as synonyms or close synonyms all with the gloss 有 'exist'. Next to each gloss, Dai lists which class of referents each verb is used with. The common element is existence, but each has other features as well. Fu (1997: 129-30) lists three of these existential verbs together under a section he called "Some Difficult Verbs". Chen and Wu (1998: 148), in a section of special verbs, list three verbs used to express existence.

Hannay (1985: 18) writes, "It is not considered meaningful to assert the existence of something which is already known to exist." While this sounds true, in reality it is not quite so black and white. A speaker in a discourse might choose to assert the existence of something already known to exist because its existence was just discovered or confirmed by a particular participant, or its existence at a new location is asserted. For example in (1), Zhyxkeaxlu found the stone just as he had been told he would. Or the story teller discovered Kepsse lying on his cape in despair (15).

Existential clauses are also very often used in conjunction with locating something in space. This is not unexpected and is seen in many languages, since the idea that something exists inherently suggests that it exists somewhere, or at some particular time. However, these clauses in Nosu are much more frequently used with location in space than with locations in time.

The only text in our corpus of data which had no instances of an existential construction was a procedural text.

### 3. THE STRUCTURE OF EXISTENTIALS IN NOSU YI

Existential clauses are intransitive, that is, the verb takes one argument. According to Gerner (2004: 109), Nosu has three aspectual categories: ongoing, resultative, and indeterminate. In our data, existential clauses did not occur in either the ongoing or resultative aspects.

Existential clauses in Nosu are made up of three parts—the NP referring to the referent, the location, and the verb.

(1) 
$$\mbox{$\mathbb{X}$} \mbox{$\mathbb{Y}$} \mbox{$\mathbb{Y$$

Example (1) begins with the referent NP which is realized by a noun phrase 'a big yellow stone'. This is followed by the location 'there'. The clause finishes with the existential verb,  $\sqrt[6]{[dz_1u^{33}]}$  'to exist'.

Existential clauses in Nosu sometimes do not include a spatial location, as in (2) below. Example (2) does have a location in time, 'long ago'. In our corpus, there were no examples of existentials with neither location in space nor location in time. It is, however a grammatical possibility to have such a clause.

'Long ago..., (when) all the animals that existed could speak,' (Wise and Foolish Water, p. 480)

There is a strong tendency to have the referent NP first, with the location following (1). However, exceptions do occur. This could be due to a topic-comment structure with the order of the elements depending on which is more topical. In (3a) below the location is initial with the referent NP following it.

'There are no trees on the mountain.' (The Flood, p. 29)

(3a) comes from poetic language, condensed and beautiful. The clause could also be said like this:

(3b) 
$$\stackrel{\$}{\pm}$$
  $\stackrel{\$}{0}$   $\stackrel{\$}{\forall}$   $\stackrel{\forall}{\forall}$   $\stackrel{\$}{\forall}$   $\stackrel{\$}{\Rightarrow}$ ; bo<sup>34</sup> o<sup>33</sup> ko<sup>33</sup> sr<sup>33</sup> ko<sup>33</sup> a<sup>21</sup> dzu<sup>33</sup> mountain LOC tree LOC NEG EXT 'There are no trees on the mountain.'

In (3b) while the full location NP occurs initially, there is another location pronoun inserted after the referent NP. This is further discussed in section 3.2.

Dryer (to appear: 14) pointed out that clauses with locative predicates, as a type of clause, frequently overlap with existential clauses. Consider the three examples in (4).

(4a) 
$$\int$$
  $\hat{J}$   $\hat{J}$ 

(4b) 
$$\stackrel{\square}{=} \stackrel{\searrow}{\wedge} \stackrel{?}{\vee} \stackrel{?}{\vee} \stackrel{?}{\cup} \stackrel{?}{\cup} \stackrel{?}{\vee} \stackrel{?}{\vee} \stackrel{?}{\cup} \stackrel{?}{\cup} \stackrel{?}{\vee} \stackrel{?}{\vee}$$

In (4b) above, the location precedes the referent NP. Putting the referent NP first is also an acceptable sentence.

## 3.1 The referent NP

The referent NP may be a common noun (3) and even on occasion a proper noun (15). These may be concrete (16) or abstract (13). The form this noun phrase takes makes no difference in the construction. Often the referent NP is followed by the expression  $\S \oplus [\varsigma i^{21} \mod^{33}]$  'one like this' (12) or  $\S [\varsigma i^{21}]$  'like this' (8a). The referent NP may be modified with expressions like  $\upharpoonright \widehat{\mathbb{T}} [\eta_i i^{21} \ker^{34}]$  'a little' (17) and  $\widehat{\mathbb{T}} = [a^{34} \eta_i i^{33}]$  'many' (28). Sometimes the referent NP itself is omitted, but understood from context as in (5).

'He only drank one sip and there was almost no more (water)....' (Wise and Foolish Water, p. 481)

In (5) above, the referent NP omitted is 'water'. It can be understood because of previous mention in the story.

### 3.2 The location

Location and existence are intricately linked.

Existentials follow the pattern described by Gerner (2004: 128): "Left dislocation or fronting of a construction is the placement of a noninitial NP into initial position by leaving a resumptive pronoun in the original slot." In existential constructions the pronoun used is the location pronoun  $\sqrt[3]{[ko^{33}]}$  'there' (6).

The verb  $\# [dzo^{33}]$  is the prototypical existential verb and can be used without a location. Excepting that verb, all the verbs show an overwhelming tendency to require a location NP or the resumptive pronoun immediately before the verb, only allowing the intervention of the negative  $\# [a^{21}]$ .

If there is not an overt location mentioned, then the location pronoun y [ko<sup>33</sup>] 'there' must be used. Note that its tone changes from 33 to 34 whenever the verb is a 33.

The pronoun  $\mathcal{Y}[ko^{33}]$  'there' stands in for an understood or previously mentioned location. If none has been mentioned, then it refers to the location of the speaker (9).

The pronoun  $\mathcal{Y}[ko^{33}]$  often follows a noun phrase, marking it as a location. See (4a), (4b), (8b), and (12). When it is attached to the NP in this way, it does not undergo tone change.

The pronoun  $\mathcal{Y}[ko^{33}]$  is also used as the resumptive pronoun for the third person patient argument (15).

#### 3.3 Existential verbs

Thirteen different verbs are used in existential clauses. Some of the existential verbs are used only with animate referents, others only with inanimates. Some verbs can take both animate and inanimate referents.

Like dynamic verbs, these verbs can be negated with the negative  $\Re [a^{21}]$  (9b), followed by the perfect particle  $\Re [o^{34}]$  (18), and reduplicated to form an interrogative (9a). Unlike dynamic verbs, they cannot occur with adverbs like 'slowly'. In the existential construction these verbs are stative, that is, they are not dynamic and are temporally unbounded (Van Valin and LaPolla 1997: 92).

Van Valin and LaPolla point out that it is necessary to distinguish the lexical meaning of the verb from the meaning it has in the particular clause in which it occurs (1997: 92). This is true for Nosu. The posture verbs 'sit', 'stand' and 'lie', as well as  $\mathbb{E}[\text{ndzo}^{33}]$  (a motion verb – see 3.3.9), can be dynamic in other contexts, accepting adverbs such as 'slowly'.

The existential verbs are similar to the category of words we might call 'adjectives' in that they are both intransitive, stative verbs. But the existential ones cannot take the adverb  $y \left[ dz \right]^{33}$  'very' and the adjectives easily do.

In some clauses one existential verb can be replaced by another. That is, different existential verbs may be grammatically acceptable in the same clause. But because of the rich verbal semantics, the meaning of the sentence is altered. Consider (7) and (8).

(7b) 
$$\forall \pm \pm 3 \% \otimes .$$
 $s\underline{\eta}^{33} \text{ bo}^{33} \text{ bo}^{33} \text{ a}^{33} \text{ di}^{55} \text{ dz}\underline{u}^{33}$ 
tree CL there EXT

'There is a tree there. (It is lying flat.)'

- (8a)  $\hat{\mathbb{J}}$   $\hat{\mathbb{J}}$

Examples (7a) and (7b) are identical except for the existential verb used. That difference alone identifies the implied position of the tree. Example (8a) merely states that there is this food at the house. However, if the location of the food or its orientation is to be more fully specified, other verbs are used. The verb  $\forall [i^{55}]$  must be used when the food is contained, such as in a cabinet or bag (8b).

LaPolla (2003: 133) described the verbal semantics for Qiang existentials which are marked for animacy, containment, immovability, and connection to a larger entity. All four of these features, as well as others, are also relevant to the semantics of the existential verbs in Nosu Yi.

In Nosu Yi the speaker's choice of the verb is conditioned by the following three factors:

- the nature of the object in existence (animate, inanimate, abstract, small, growing, immobile)
- the nature of the space in which the object exists (large, contained, open)
- the posture of the referent (moving, standing, sitting, hanging, connected, erect)

In the twenty texts that we looked at, there were 223 instances of existential clauses. Table 1 lists Nosu existential verbs in order of their frequency of occurrence in the twenty texts we studied.

VERB	IPA	Number of instances
#	$dzo^{33}$	71
Ħ	i <sup>55</sup>	28
0)	$dz\underline{u}^{33}$	23
#	$n_i^{33}$	23
<b>計</b> 3	$dzi^{21}$ $dz\underline{u}^{33}$	22
压	$dz\underline{u}^{33}$	14
-Z=	ndi <sup>55</sup>	14
( <del>J</del> o	t¢ho <sup>33</sup>	10
Ħ	$ndzo^{33}$	8
8	$dz_1^{21}$	5
22	hi <sup>55</sup>	3
11	khw <sup>33</sup>	1
1,	bu <sup>33</sup>	1
TOTAL		223

Table 1. Existential verbs in order of frequency

Several of the existential verbs listed above have a causative form, differing only in the voicing of the initial. This is a common phenomenon in Nosu and other Tibeto-Burman languages. Chen and Wu (1998: 118ff) list some of these correspondences for Nosu verbs. Since the corresponding forms to the existential verbs are not existential in meaning, they will not be discussed in this paper.

The following subsections describe the use and semantics of each existential verb beginning with the most frequently occurring one.

### 3.3.1 The verb #\[dz\)o^{33}

 $<sup>^3</sup>$  In our sample, the number of instances of  $^{\mbox{$$ 

Not surprisingly, the verb  $\# [dzo^{33}]$  is also used to express possession. Nosu has another verb,  $\# [bo^{21}]$ , used specifically for possessing wealth or property, but  $\# [dzo^{33}]$  is the most widely used verb of possession. Payne (1997: 126ff) writes that many languages employ existential and/or locational structures to express the notion of possession.

In existential clauses, the verb  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzo^{33}]$  occurred more than twice as often as any other existential verb in our corpus. It carries less semantic information than the other existential verbs. It is the prototypical existential verb. The verb  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzo^{33}]$  says nothing about the location or posture of the referent (compare this with  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzu^{33}]$  'standing erect' in (7a) and  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzu^{33}]$  'lying flat' in (7b)). The verb  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzo^{33}]$  is one of only three existential verbs that ever occurred without a location in our corpus. (The other two were  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzi^{21}]$ , and  $\mbox{\$}\ [tcho^{33}]^4$ .) Also,  $\mbox{\$}\ [dzo^{33}]$  and  $\mbox{\$}\ [tcho^{33}]$  are the only existential verbs which do not require the location to be stated immediately before the verb.

The verb  $\mbox{\$} \mbox{ [dzo}^{33}\mbox{]}$  can collocate with animate—people (11) or animals (12)—inanimate, or abstract referents (13). When used with inanimate referents, the verb  $\mbox{\$} \mbox{ [dzo}^{33}\mbox{]}$  often means 'to have':  $\mbox{\$} \mbox{\$} \mbox{\$} \mbox{\$} \mbox{[$\eta a$}^{33}\mbox{ thuu}^{21} \mbox{$z$} \mbox{$\gamma$}^{33}\mbox{]}$  '1SG book EXT'. This perhaps can be understood as 'There is a book to me.'

'Long ago in the days of supernatural men, there was a Nosu immortal called Zhyxgeaxlu.' (Zhyxgeaxlu, p. 1)

'Because there was this dog called Maxhie in our village.' (A Child's Lie)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> <sup>®</sup> [tcho<sup>33</sup>] always specifies the group to which the referent belongs. This could be understood as being the referent's location.

(13) 
$$\hat{K}$$
  $\stackrel{\square}{}$   $\stackrel{\square}{}$ 

As we have mentioned, the remaining verbs to be discussed in this section all require that a location be overtly expressed.

## 3.3.2 The verb $\forall [i^{55}]$

Dryer (to appear: 13) writes that some languages use as locative copulas a set of words which vary along spatial dimensions, such as those meaning 'sit', 'stand', and 'lie'. Noonan and Grunwo-Hårsta (p. 15) write that in a language of Nepal, Magar, these posture verbs can indicate location. In Nosu Yi these three verbs,  $\forall [i^{55}]$  'lie',  $\ddagger [n_i i^{33}]$  'sit' and i [hi<sup>55</sup>] 'stand', can indicate location and existence. All three verbs are used with animate referents to assert existence in a particular posture, that is, 'lying', 'sitting' or 'standing'. Nosu does not distinguish syntactically between expressions that denote an active involvement on the part of the subject in assuming or maintaining a particular posture and those which simply express a particular orientation. These posture verbs in Nosu also do not distinguish between the subject's assuming and maintaining a certain posture.

In Nosu, the posture verbs  $\[ \downarrow \]$  (ile' and  $\[ \downarrow \]$  ( $\[ \downarrow \]$  (sit' can also express existence for inanimate objects. The posture verb  $\[ \downarrow \]$  (hi<sup>55</sup>] 'stand' is not used this way. It is not used to indicate location of inanimate referents analogous to English expressions such as 'The monument stands on the corner'.

The verb  $\[ \exists \[ i^{55} \]$  will be further discussed in this section. The two other posture verbs will be discussed in more detail in sections 3.3.4 ( $\[ \[ \[ \[ \] \] \]$  'sit'), and 3.3.11 ( $\[ \[ \[ \] \] \]$  'stand'), according to their frequency of use.

 $\forall$  [i<sup>55</sup>] used with animate referents has, together with the meaning of existence, the meaning of staying in that position either 'sleeping', 'dwelling' or 'laying down'.

The verb  $\[ \exists \[ [i^{55}] \]$ , used with inanimate referents, implies that the referent exists in a particular sort of space. The referent is contained, covered, or buried. The space has edges, borders, or limits. The referents are inanimate, stationary, and relatively small such as wax in my ear; dust in my eye; a needle in a box; or liquid in a container.

# 3.3.3 The verb $0 \left[ dz \underline{u}^{33} \right]$

This verb is mostly used with inanimate referents such as bones, stones, silver, plows, and corpses. It asserts or denies that a particular referent is in a particular location. In can imply disorder or haphazardness. For example, if the verb  $\lozenge$  [dzu³³] replaced the existential verb  $\forall$  [i⁵⁵] in (15), it would imply that Kepsse were drunk or in some kind of disorderly state.

This verb is occasionally used with animate referents perioratively or in anger, demoting the person to an inanimate state, as in (20).

'Did Kepsse go to be at the sheep pen again or is he dead somewhere or other?' (Sister-in-law, p. 20)

The verb  $\circ$  [dzu<sup>33</sup>] has also taken on other functions related to its existential meaning—static and immobile. It can be used following certain verbs to indicate the continuance of the state caused by the action.

'My sister-in-law is laying there covering her face with her cape.' (Sister-in-law, p. 31)

# 3.3.4 The verb $\#[\eta_i^{33}]$

(23) 
$$\forall \pm \forall \text{ for } 0 \text{ for }$$

This verb is also used for something that is a component part, like water content in fruit. In this meaning, the overt location in front of the verb is not used.

'This pear doesn't taste good because there isn't any water in it. (I.e. It's not juicy.)'

The verb  $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \eta, i^{33} \]$  is used with a number of abstract referents to form compound words. These words function as attributives. Here are some examples:  $\[ \]$   $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \gamma u \]$  [ $\[ \]$  "strength");  $\[ \]$   $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  "strength");  $\[ \]$   $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  "shame"); and  $\[ \]$  "strength");  $\[ \]$   $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  "benevolent, kind" ( $\[ \]$  "[ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  "good"). The whole expression can be reduplicated with "very" in between to increase the intensity. The expression can also be split with a negative. Structurally, in (25) below,  $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  ] is used instead of the more common  $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  ] is used instead of the more common  $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  [ $\[ \]$  ] This implies a pejorative meaning.

(25) 
$$\emptyset$$
  $\hat{X}$   $\hat{Y}$   $\hat{Y}$ 

# 3.3.5 The verb $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ dz i^{2l} \right]$

This verb is for fixed physical features. Its referents are inanimate, immobile things. Natural features or landmarks such as lakes and mountains, or man-made structures such as buildings and bridges, require the verb  $\mbox{\em del}[dzi^{21}]$ .

In (26), above, the location occurs in initial position, with the referent NP following. This fronting is probably motivated by discourse factors. The example (26) would naturally be used when introducing the surroundings of one's environment. We cannot at present explain the fact that there is no resumptive pronoun used before the verb in (26). The sentence is also grammatically acceptable with the pronoun.

We also found this verb used in our corpus introducing two referents which at first glance did not match the others: a scar (as shown in (27)), and a reflection in the water. However, a scar cannot be moved—one of the features marked by the verb  $\mbox{\ensuremath{\prome}{$\promedute}}$  [dzi<sup>21</sup>]. And a reflection is a natural phenomenon. That is, it occurs naturally by virtue of something being in a certain position. In that way, it is similar to a mountain or a stream.

## 3.3.6 The verb $\# [dz\underline{u}^{33}]$

The verb  $\mathbb{F}[dz\underline{u}^{33}]$  is used for erect things sticking up out of the ground. This is normally growing things such as trees and grass.

'There is a row of many trees (at that place).' (Magpie Nest)

It is also used of people with a meaning similar to that of  $\mathbb{1}$  [ $i^{55}$ ]. The verb  $\mathbb{1}$  [ $dz\underline{u}^{33}$ ], however, expresses a longer time of dwelling, a well-established existence, or the establishment of a house or family of greatness. For example, the immortal and his family are in the heavens (29).

Example (29) could possibly use the verb  $\mbox{$\forall$} [i^{55}]$  instead of  $\mbox{$\cap$} [dz\underline{u}^{33}]$ . But  $\mbox{$\partial$} [i^{55}]$  can also be used of a person being, living or staying at a place for a short period of time such as one night, whereas  $\mbox{$\cap$} [dz\underline{u}^{33}]$  cannot.

Example (29), like example (3a), has the feeling of old, poetic language. Perhaps this is why the resumptive pronoun is not used even though the location is not found immediately before the verb.

# *3.3.7 The verb* ☆[*ndi*<sup>55</sup>]

The verb [ndi<sup>55</sup>] is used for things on, attached to, or hanging from bigger things, such as a button on a shirt, an earlobe on an ear, a callus on a hand, or a mark on a wall. It is used for many things including the following:

- writing, painting... on paper
- mud or paint... sticking to a surface

- growing things such as vegetables, flowers, horns
- objects... hanging from surfaces
- something as part of a larger whole (There are two legs on that man.)

(30) In Hermitian 
$$\mathcal{A}$$
 In  $\mathcal{A}$  Hermitian  $\mathcal{A}$  Herm

'There is a mole on this old lady's head.' (The Bimo and the Two Sisters, p. 204)

It is interesting to note that different verbs are used to express the existence of a mole (31) and a scar (27), two similar referents. A pertinent difference which causes the distinction is the referent's understood posture. A mole is seen as being on the outside, attached in some way to a larger body. A scar is seen as unmoving and irremovable.

## 3.3.8 The verb $\Re[tcho^{33}]$

For expressing that a referent exists within a larger whole, or within a larger group,  $\emptyset$  [tcho<sup>33</sup>] is used. This verb does not specify animacy, location or posture of existence. It stands apart from the other existential verbs in this way.

(32) 
$$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$$$}$}$}} \mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$$$}$}} \mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$$$}$}} \mbox{$\mbox{$\mbox{$$}$}} \mbox{$\mbox{$$$}$} \mbox{$\mbox{$$$}$} \mbox{$\mbox{$$$}$} \mbox{$\mbox{$$}$} \mbox{$\mbox{$$}$$

## 3.3.9 The verb #[ndzo<sup>33</sup>]

The verb  $\mathbb{E}[\text{ndzo}^{33}]$  is only used for animate things that can move (people and animals). It indicates motion as well as expressing existence. Often grammatically  $\mathbb{E}[\text{dzo}^{33}]$  and  $\mathbb{E}[\text{ndzo}^{33}]$  are both acceptable, but they carry slightly different meanings, that is,  $\mathbb{E}[\text{dzo}^{33}]$  does not imply movement.

In (33), there are guards at that place, but they are clearly just passing through. The verb † [dzo<sup>33</sup>], while grammatically correct, would not be used because everyone knows you don't stay at a place where someone is buried.

# 3.3.10 The verb $\Re [dz_1^{21}]$

The verb  $\Re \left[ dz \right]^{21}$  is used of something attached to something else. Its referent is always in physical contact with the location, stuck to it in some way. This verb is very similar to \(\frac{1}{2}\) [ndi<sup>55</sup>] (see section 3.3.7 above). The two verbs are very often interchangeable. The verb  $\Im [dz \, 1^{21}]$ however, seems to imply an even tighter attachment of the referent to its location. In some instances, a collocation is made more frequently with one verb or the other and just sounds more natural.

The verb  $\Re \left[ dz \, j^{21} \right]$  can be used in conjunction with other words preceding the referent such as  $\mathcal{L}[s]^{33}$  'grab' which express a tight joining of the referent to its location.

## *3.3.11 The verb* ≈ [hi<sup>55</sup>]

The posture verb \( \bigcap \left[ \his^{55} \right] \) 'stand' can also be used existentially. It is only used with animate referents that are able to assume a standing posture. A snake, for example, would not qualify.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Since there were ashes from the pot all over her body,' (The Flood, p. 42)

## 3.3.12 The verb \(\( \left[ khur^{33} \right] \)

[khur<sup>33</sup>] 'nest' is a noun used as a verb. This existential verb is used for the home (place, nest, etc.) of non-domestic animals ranging from ants and bees to birds and tigers.

(37) 
$$\stackrel{\vee}{}$$
  $\stackrel{\vee}{}$   $\stackrel{\psi}{}$   $\stackrel{\psi}{$ 

## 3.3.13 The verb $\sqrt[6]{bu^{33}}$

The verb  $\sqrt[4]{[bu^{33}]}$  is used for holes, footprints, wrinkles, water ditches, and roads—but not very large ones. It gives the idea of small. If one wants to express the idea of big things, other verbs will be chosen. For example to say there is a small road or path—perhaps newly made—the verb  $\sqrt[4]{[bu^{33}]}$  can be used, while a large, well established road requires the verb  $\sqrt[4]{[dzi^{21}]}$  (section 3.3.5).

In (38) there is no location immediately before the verb. Perhaps this is because the very word for wrinkles includes the word  $\mbox{\normalfont{15}{$^5$}}$  'forehead' so that the location is known by default.

### 3.4 Negation, interrogatives, and particles

The verb of the existential clause patterns regularly like other clauses in Nosu Yi. The clause can be negated the same way as other clauses by using the negative  $\sqrt[8]{[a^{21}]}$  (2). The verb  $\sqrt[8]{[dzo^{33}]}$  can also be negated by placing  $\sqrt[8]{[a^{21}]}$  (never before' after the verb as seen in (39).

(39) 
$$\mbox{$\mathbb{X}$} \mbox{$\mathbb{Q}$} \mbox{$\mathbb{S}$} \mbox{$\mathbb{$$

### 4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The structure of existential clauses in Nosu parallels other basic clauses in Nosu. Existential clauses are used to affirm or deny the existence of something (sometimes at a particular location). Nosu Yi has thirteen different existential verbs. The verbal element contains additional information as to the nature of the referent in existence, the nature of the space in which the referent exists, and the posture of that existence. Table 2 summarizes the semantics of the verbs outlined in section 3.

Verb	IPA	Referent	Location	Posture	Other
#1	dzo <sup>33</sup>	animate, abstract			
Ħ	i <sup>55</sup>	animate		lying	
		inanimate	container		
0)	$dz\underline{u}^{33}$	inanimate			
		(animate) <sup>5</sup>		(lying)	
#	$n_i$ i <sup>33</sup>	animate		sitting	component part
		inanimate			
3	$dzi^{21}$	immobile, natural			
		landmarks, manmade			
		constructions			
Ħ	$dz\underline{u}^{33}$	animate			
		inanimate		erect, rooted	
-Z <b>≡</b>	ndi <sup>55</sup>	inanimate		hanging, sticking	a connected part of a
					bigger whole
Э	t¢ho <sup>33</sup>				a member of a group
##	$ndzo^{33}$	animate		moving	
₿i	$dz_1^{21}$	inanimate		hanging, sticking	
ZZ	hi <sup>55</sup>	animate		standing	
11	khw <sup>33</sup>	home of wild animals			
4	$bu^{33}$	holes, cracks, wrinkles;			
		small			

Table 2. Verbs used in existential clauses

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Only used with animates in an unusual, pejorative sense.

A regrouping of the existential verbs according to their phonetic shape allows some conjecture into their possible origins.

Verb	IPA	
#1	$dzo^{33}$	HAVE
<b></b>	$dzi^{21}$	
a)	$dz_{\zeta} \gamma^{_{21}}$	
Ħ	$dzu^{33}$	
0)	$dz_{\iota}u^{33}$	
£3	$ndzo^{33}$	
Э	t¢ho³³	
ZZ	hi <sup>55</sup>	STAND
#	$\eta_{e}i^{33}$	SIT
Ħ	i <sup>55</sup>	LIE
-Z=	ndi <sup>55</sup>	
1,	bu <sup>33</sup>	rare
11	khw <sup>33</sup>	rare

Table 3. Existential verbs by phonetic shape

The three posture verbs, 'stand', 'sit' and 'lie', may have at some time extended their use so that they now can specify location and existence.

That leaves one frequently used existential, [ndi<sup>55</sup>], unconnected and unexplained. Aside from that, there are only the two rarest existentials. One is [khw³³], being derived from the noun 'nest', used to describe the location of an animal's home. The other is [bu³³].

The causative prefix \*s—of which Matisoff writes (1982: 243)—might have been involved in devoicing the initial consonant. This observation was made by Jamin Pelkey, who describes a similar alternation in a related language, Phowa: [dzɔ³³] 'exist', and [tṣho³⁴] 'to cause to exist (to birth)' (Pelkey 2004: 151). However the meaning of 'causation' is not present in the current meaning of Nosu [tcho³³] 'to exist as the member of a group'.

### ABBREVIATIONS<sup>7</sup>

ADVL	adverbializer	LOC	locative pronoun
AUX	auxiliary	NEG	negative
CL	classifier	PL	plural
CONJ	conjunction	POSS	possessive
DEF	definite	PP	perfect particle
EXP	experiential particle	PRO	pronoun for 3 person patient
EXT	existential	REDUP	reduplication
IMP	imperative	REL	relativizer
IND SPEECH	indirect speech	SG	singular
INT: loc	interrogative pronoun: location	STVP	stative perfect particle
		TOP	topic marker

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<sup>&</sup>quot;Sister-in-law 嫂子 Aphmi." In YANG Alei 杨阿蕾. 1992: 18-38.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> For some of these glosses I am relying on Gerner (2004)

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