1. Introduction

- Dulong (t"r"uŋ; see LaPolla 2003) and Rawang (r"vwaŋ) are closely related dialects of the Rung branch of Tibeto-Burman spoken just south and east of Tibet.
- The people who speak Dulong for the most part live in Gongshan county of Yunnan province in China, and belong to either what is known as the ‘Dulong’ (t"r"uŋ or ‘Taron’, or ‘T’rung’) nationality (pop. 5816 according to the 1990 census), a name they were given because they mostly live in the valley of the Dulong (Taron/Trung) River, or to one part (roughly 6,000 people) of the Nu nationality (those who live along the upper reaches of the Nu River—the part of the Salween within China).
- The people who speak Rawang (population unknown, although Ethnologue gives 100,000) live in northern Kachin State in Myanmar (Burma), particularly along the Mae Hka (Nmai Hka) and Maeli Hka (Mali Hka) river valleys. In the past they had been called ‘Hkanung’ or ‘Nung’, and have often been considered to be a sub-group of the Kachin.
- Until government policies put a stop to the clearing of new land in 1994, they still practiced slash and burn farming on the mountainsides (they still do a bit, but only on already claimed land), in conjunction with planting paddy rice near the river.
- In this paper, I will mainly be using data of the Mvtwang (Mvt River) dialect of Rawang, which is considered the most central of those dialects in Myanmar and so has become something of a standard for writing and inter-group communication.  

2. Typological overview

- Verb-final, agglutinative, with both head marking and dependent marking. Large number of formative affixes, including the diminutive -cè and the augmentative -mè. Generally predication involves the use of verbs.
- No pivots in Rawang for cross-clause coreference (or other constructions).
- Three classes of verb and the copula (the citation form for verbs is the third person non-past affirmative/declarative form):
  - Intransitives take the non-past affirmative/declarative particle (c) alone in the non-past (e.g. ngööc 'to cry') and the intransitive past tense marker (-i) in past forms (with third person argument); they can be used transitively only when they take valency-increasing morphological marking (causative, benefactive).

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1 In the Rawang writing system (Morse 1962, 1963), which is used in this paper, most letters represent the standard pronunciations of English, except that i = [i], v = [ə], a = [a], o = [ui], q = [ʔ], and c = [s] or [ts] (free variation; historically [ts]). Tones are marked as follows (using the letter a as a base): high falling tone: à; mid tone: ã; low falling tone: ă. All syllables that end in a stop consonant ([p, t, ʔ, k]) are in the high tone. Open syllables without a tone mark are unstressed. A colon marks a non-basic long vowel.
• Adjectives are a subclass of intransitive verbs, and so can be predicative without the copula. In citation they take the nominalizer wē (e.g. tēwē 'big'), but when used as predicates function the same as other intransitive verbs.

• Transitives take the non-past third person object marker (ò) plus the non-past affirmative/declarative particle (ë) in non-past forms (e.g. rìōë 'to carry (something)') and the transitive past tense marker (-â) in past forms (with third person O arguments); they can be used intransitively only when they take valency-reducing morphological marking (intratitivizing prefix, reflexive/middle marking suffix). In transitive clauses the agentive marker generally appears on the NP representing the A argument.

• Ambitransitives can be used as transitives or intransitives without morphological derivation (vìmòë / vìmë 'to eat'). There are both S=O types and S=A types. With the S=O type, adding an A argument creates a causative, without the need to use the causative prefix. With the S=A type, use of the intransitive vs. the transitive form marks a difference between a general or habitual situation, e.g. (1a), and a particular situation, e.g. (1b), respectively. The difference is due partly to the nature of the object, and partly to the nature of general vs. specific action. I.e. if the O is specific, then the transitive form must be used, but if the O is non-specific, it is not necessary to use the intransitive form. If no O is mentioned, then usually the intransitive form is used.

(1) a. Ång pé zvtnë.
   ëng pé zvt-ê
   3sg basket weave-N.PAST
   'He weaves baskets.' (general or habitual sense)

   ëng-í [pé tiq-chìng] zvt-ô-ê
   3sg-AGT basket one-CL weave-TNP-N.PAST
   'He is weaving a basket.'

3. Clause types
• A main clause generally will end in a tensed verb, as in (1). In imperative clauses, as in (2), the usual non-past marker used in non-past clauses does not appear.

(2) Shòngcit wëdô Rywangrì i ymoushàri,
shòngcit wë-dô [Rywäng-rì-i ymoushà]-rì]
sheungsit that-ADV Rawang-pl-AGT eat TMyrs-1plPAST-pl
(Things) like sheungsit (that) we Rawangs used to eat,

kādô wà yā:ngā wē wërì gö èshùn-ô.
[kā-dô wà yang-ā wē] wē-rì gö è-shùn-ô
WH-ADV make TMyrs-T.PAST NOM that-pl also N.1-say-TNP
also tell us about the making of those things.

• A non-main clause will generally be nominalized, and this is done by adding a noun such as dvgyp ‘when’, or kvì ‘time’ to the end of the clause, forming a relative clause with this
(3) Vnỳm gòm nỳmbàng nò
[[vnỳm gòm nỳmbàng] nò
dsùn flàt sun-beam TOP
(When) the beams of the sun

(2) nỳmlòp shìgùng taqvỳng sùr daqà wèì sỳng
[nỳmlòp shìgùng] taq vzỳng sùr daqà wèì sỳng
west mountain LOC first shine down-T.PAST NOM LOC
first shined down on the western mountain,

(3) shvırğiôi ngvr wà yỳng bò-à kvt
[shvr[-gô-í ngvr wà yỳng bò-à kvt]
barking-deer-CL-AGT notice ADV see PFV-T.PAST time
when the barking deer noticed (noticeingly saw) it,

(4) dvỳbû nò chòngshi lỳ:ngì kvt
[dvỳbû nò chòngshi lỳ:ngì kvt]
happy PS jump-R/M up-l.PAST time
when (the barking deer) was happy and jumped up (with joy),

(5) dvngđè nò dvbòp hỳm gò zeq lỳm bò-à wâ
[dvngđè nò dv-bòp hỳm] gò zeq lỳm bò-à wâ
soy.bean bean CAUS-rot basket also press.down step.on PFV-T.PAST HS
(s/he) also stepped on the basket with fermented soy beans, it was said.

"Nỳm wỳnzà mè-doq wè nàí vzỳng êyà:ngòć,
[nỳm-wỳnzà mv-è-doq wè] nà-í vzỳng ê-yỳng-ò-ê
sun-buy-gold NEG-N.1.give/put.in NOM 2sg-AGT first N.1-see-TNP-N.PAST
“You did not contribute to buy the sun, (yet) you saw (the sun) first,

(7) vnỳ dvbòp hỳm gò êlỳmédia," wâ,
[vnỳ dv-bòp hỳm] gò êlỳmédia wâ
bean CAUS-rot basket also N.1-step.on-BEN-TNP-N.PAST say
(and) also stepped on the basket full of fermented beans.”
Because of this, the legs of the barking deer smell like (fermented) beans and (can) easily traced by the dog, it was said.

And also because of this, the face of the barking deer became wrinkled (out of shame), it is said.

A non-main clause, possibly already nominalized or with the infinitive marker, can also take linkers such as rvt ‘because, in order to’, as in (5), kēnī(nō) ‘from, after’ or ni(nō) ‘if, when, as’ (see examples below).

(5) Vmō vdvm kēnī tvnē vdvm taq əl lómrvt vcīl yâ:ngâ. (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 21)
[vmō vdvm kēnī tvnē vdvm taq əl-lőm]-rvt vcīl yâ:ngâ
Ameu plain from human plain LOC live-INF-in.order.to move TMyrs-T.PAST
They were moved from Ameu-adam in order to live in Tane-adam.

4. The semantics of linking

A. Addition

• Addition can simply be expressed by apposition, but the clause-final predicate sequencing particle nō is often used. It appears on the lead-up clause, as in lines 4 and 9 of (3), and in (6). The adverb gō ‘also, still’, also helps convey the sense of addition, as in lines 5, 7, and 11 of (3), with or without nō. The adverb gō ‘also, still’ can appear in both the lead-up and focus clause, as in (7). (In English, when the addition is of two negatives, or nor is used, not and (e.g. I don’t drink nor do I smoke), whereas Rawang would use a simple addition construction with gō ‘also, still’ (e.g. ‘I don’t drink and I also don’t smoke’).)
(6) Vpünü Vdősęng vdip bọ̀ nọ ngó-ap-ì
[Vpünü Vdősęng vdip bọ̀-à] nọ ngó-ap-ì
Apung-AGT Adeu-LOC hit PFV-T.PAST PS cry-TM dys-I.PAST
Apung hit Adeu and X cried.

(7) Chër gō vdáè, wà, nígǔŋ gō yóè, wà. (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 49)
[chër gō vdáè-ç] wà [nígǔŋ gō yóè-ç] wà
wings also have-N.PAST HS tail also grow-N.PAST HS
(The son) had wings (and he) also grew a tail, it is said.

- In some cases, as in line 2 of (8), the linking marked by nọ is not as tight as would be assumed for the use of and in English, and it is clear that nọ is not a conjunction. It also can appear at the end of an utterance.

1 (8) Vlänger nọ sźngzáwângcëri taqkènì
[vlänger pûng-ì nọ sźngzáwângcë-ri] taqkènì
Vlang Pung-AGT TOP human.beings-pl LOC-from
Alang Pung, from the humans,

2 sźng vnvprì sźng tîm vbûn baq kë-ù
sźng vnvprì sźng tîm vbûn baq kë-ù] nọ
person beautiful-pl LOC quickly lift carry eat-TNP PS
picked up the beautiful ones and quickly carried them away to eat,

3 lônggàpà lôngshvàgà tìqrûm sźng yûn kë-ù
[lônggà-pà lîngshvàgà tìqrûm sźng yûn kë-ù] nọ
cliff-side rock-cave one-CL(hole) LOC transfer eat-TNP PS
(he) took them to a cave which was at the side of a cliff to eat (them),

4 dvbé kë lûngà, wà. (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 50-51)
dvbé kë lûngà-à] wà
CAUS-be.gone AVS DIR(begin)-T.PAST HS
(and so) there were less people than before, it is said.

- There are also structures that could either be said to be a single clause with multiple predicates or two clauses in a special conjoined relation, as in (9), where there are clearly two actions, but there is only one non-past final particle:

(9) Mvmè shvwàr mā:nò tór mā:nòè.
mvmè shvwàr män-ò tór män-ò-è
pretty.much CAUS-hot continue-TNP beat continue-TNP-N.PAST
He continued heating it and continued beating it (of someone making a sword).
Ao. Alternation (or disjunction)

- Alternation generally involves two alternative clauses in apposition, although one of the two clauses may be reduced, as in (10)-(11). Example (10) seems to be open disjunction, but in (11)-(13) it seems there are only two choices.

(10) Shōngtông mà? Vwàtông?
    shōng-tông mà    vwà-tông
    wood-plant Q bamboo-plant
    Is it a tree? (Or is it) bamboo?

(11) (3) Timung, mò-ínî, Tinông rvmè
    ti-mun   mv-í-nî  ti-nông  rvmè
    water-white    NEG-be-if water-brown river
    (3) Timungwang, (or) if not, Tineung River (the White River or the Brown River – the Salween)

(12) Ngà nô paqkà mò-î nînô, wây aqlvm ìê.
    ngà nô    paqkà   mv-î     nînô,    wây    aq-lvm    íê
    lsg TOP tea    NEG-be if-TOP wine drink-INF be-N.PAST
    'I either drink tea or wine.' (Lit: ‘As for me, if it is not tea, then I will drink wine’)

(13) Vngvmmè wá kênî wêdô pàdôrá mv-shè:nò,
    ùm-gvm-ê wá kênî wê-dô pà-dô-rá mv-shèn-ô
    eat-tasty-N.PAST say from that-ADV thing-ADV-GRP NEG-say-TNP
    There is no other way to say that sort of thing aside from “gam”,

    gvmme wá dìvng mvlômme.
    [gvm-ê]    wá dìvng    [mvlôm-ê]
    tasty-N.PAST say only tasty-N.PAST
    (we) just say “it is gam” or “it is maleum”.

- In the second line of (14) the adverb gô ‘also, still’ is used in both clauses to help highlight the two alternates.

(14) Rwâng kû kênî nô, sîng gbâ bà mè-gvbâ wêdô gwaq nô,
    Rwâng kû kênî nô [sîng gbâ bà]    [mv-gvbà]    wê-dô    gwaq    nô
    Rawang that from TOP person big NEG-big that-ADV wide PS
    From (the point of view of) the Rawang people, whether a person is big or is not big (doesn't matter), (we only make) one size,

    raqô kênî nô yâ:ngô, gô té gô mv-tê, wêmô wâ yâ:ngâ wê.
    (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 224)
    weave-TNP from TOP see-TNP also big also NEG-big that-size make TMyrs-T.PAST NOM
    to see it from (the point of view of) weaving , (it doesn't matter) whether a person is big or is not big, (only) one size is made.
B. Contrast

- Contrast often involves the same word we saw above glossed as ‘also’, but rather than appearing in the adverbial preverbal position, it appears at the end of the lead-up clause, either alone, as in line 1 of (15), or with nī ‘if/when’, as in line 3 of (15).

1 (15) Kà gō shíng shòn yàng gō.
[kà gō shíng shòn yàng] gō
word also different say TMyrs also(although)
Although the words were said differently,

2 tā mū:nò vsà:ní nō táshāshì yàng.
[tā mūn-ò vsëng]-í nō tá-shā-shí yàng]
hear used.to-TNP person-AGT TOP hear-know-R/M TMyrs
a person who got used to it could understand it.

3 Dvmò dvmhà gō, dvgá tüqcáng sëng dvmshà-ò ní-gō.
[dvmò dvmhà gō dvgá tüqcáng sëng dvmshà-ò] ní-gō
Dameu damsha also another one-spirit LOC do.damsha-TNP if-also
Although the Dameu damsha speech can be made/addressed to other spirits too,

4 wēdāng wēdāng íwë, mvshół tiqyvëng sëng tvnùng yàng-à.
[wē-dāng wē-dāng í-wë mvshół tiq-yëng] sëng tvnùng yàng-à
that-way that-way be-NOM story one-essay/part LOC follow TMyrs-T.PAST
one story of how things are is followed (by all the damshas). (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 16)

- Another possibility is to simply have a phrase similar to English Be that as it may at the beginning of the second clause to show a contrast, as in line 4 of (16):

1 (16) "Vnëng" wā bōng gō
[vnëng wā bōng] gō
Anang say name also
The name Anang also,

2 nëmlat gō taq rūmshë nõngshì daq-i gō írvt,
[nëmlat gō taq rūm-shë nõng-shì daq-i gō]CC í-rvt
the.first CL LOC add-R/M accompany-R/M DIR-I.PAST CL be-because
because (she) is one added to the first born as company,

3 "Vnëng" wā bōng dënë dëyaq gō wēdônë lâ:ngë.
[vnëng wā bōng] dënë dëyaq gō wē-dônë lâ:ngë
Anang say name today tonight also that-just.like use-1pl-N.PAST
the name Anang, in like manner we still use to the present day.
C. Consequence

- The most common form of consequence marking is the particle \textit{rvt} ‘because, in order to’, which appears at the end of the lead-up clause (whether it is nominalized or not), as in (5), where it appears on a clause nominalized by the infinitive marker to mark a purpose clause, and in lines 2 and 5 of (16), and in (20), where it appears alone to mark causation. The infinitive marker alone, without \textit{rvt} following it, can also have the same purposive
meaning, but it is clearer with rvt. The predicate sequencer nò can also be added after rvt or ... ñmrvt without any change in meaning.

(20) . . . dèmshà mó-ôngà rvt mv-göp mv-rà:lò, (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 5)
[dèmshà mó-i-ngà] rvt [mv-göp mv-ràl-ò]
damsha NEG-be-1sg-T.PAST because NEG-cover NEG-think.of-TNP
. . . since I am not a damsha, I cannot recall all.

• It is common for a preceding discourse segment to be anaphorically referred to with wè ‘that’, and then followed by rvt ‘because, in order to’ to introduce the result of the preceding action, as in lines 9 and 11 of (3).
• We also saw in line 4 of (8) that there can be a causative meaning without any overt marker aside from the general clause linker nò.
• The comititive nìng, which appears in line 6 of (16) conjoining two noun phrases, appears at the end of the lead-up clause to mark the purpose of the focus clause, as in (21). It can optionally be followed by the locative/allative marker vîng. The meanings of ... ñmrvt and ... nìng(sìng) seem to be the same.

(21) "Lò, vnìm gò nìng èdî, “ à:lò nò, (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 29)
[[lò vnìm gò] nìng è-dî] ṛl-ò nò
well(let's) sun call PURPOSE N.1-go say-TNP PS
“Let’s go to call the sun”, they said, and . . .

• Another common structure for expressing a cause-effect relationship (the reason for what is expressed in the focus clause) is one where the lead-up clause is nominalized by wè and generally followed by the topic marker, as in (22). The sense of (22) is that since he is going, there is no need for me to go.

(22) àng dìwè nò, ngà mv-dông.
[àng dì-wè] nò [ngà mv-dî-ng]
3sg go-NOM TOP 1sg NEG-go-1sg
He’s going, (so) I’m not going.

• The type of clause with ‘the more . . . the more’ is also a type of consequence clause. In Rawang the clause juncture marker is nìnò ‘when, if’, and the contrastive sense is shown by the repeated adverb, as in (23):

(23) Tè nàbhòshì nìnò, tè è-shiqshànè.
té è-vhò-shì nì-nò té è-shiqshàn-è
big N.1-laugh.at-R/M if-TOP big N.1-healthy-N.PAST
The more you laugh the healthier you will be.

• Consequence (causation) can also be shown by nominalizing and embedding a clause and making it the agent of the result clause, as in (24):
The blowing of the wind knocked the tree over.

Cp. Possible consequences

- Possible consequence involves a positive or negative clause of what might happen, and an imperative. This is the only clause combination I have found in which the order of clauses is fully reversible.

Don’t do that, you might have an accident!

We don’t know if it might rain, take an umbrella.

When (the water) was brought down,

dîngchêî vzèng aq pà:ngò nînò, vrông vniq-á:mi, wà. (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 36)
dîngchê-î vzèng aq pîng-ô nî-nô vrông vniq-ým-î wà
goat-AGT first drink start-TNP if-TOP horn twisted-DIR-T.PAST HS

Inclusion can be marked by placing the word sórí or chàng between the two clauses, both of which mean ‘while’ or ‘as’ (in the sense of ‘as he did this, he did that’), as we saw in line 5 of (16), and also in (28)-(29):
(28) Changzong-pè nò, cènshi sòrì dvgvp bınlì taq.  
        changzong-MALE TOP follow-R/M while/as serve work LOC  
        Changzong was the first one who learned while giving his service (to the changwa).  

dvzömshì wè tiq-pè í-yáng.  
        serve-R/M NOM one-MALE be-TMyrs  
        (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 2-3)  
        As he entered the room he was throwing things.'  

• To achieve the sense of ‘just as (someone did something they did something else)’, the lead-up clause could be nominalized with wè and take the comitative marker -ô. (e.g. gònràì wèô ‘Just as he entered . . .’).  
• One action happening ‘after’ another is often expressed by adding the ablative marker kènì after the temporal clause, as in (30) (and in line 1 of (36)).  

(29) A:ngí kokrâmsìng gònrâì chàng  
        3sg-AGT room-inside-LOC enter-come-I.PAST while/as  

• kènì can also appear with the sense of ‘before’ in the phrase dvgvp kènì nì ‘even before (some time)’:  

(30) ādåŋg kènì cãcè dì bò kènì, ādò vpvt nò, . . .  
        this-side from bird-DIM walk PFV from this-ADV snap PS  
        After the bird walks in from this side, it snaps (shut) like this, . . .  

• Another way of expressing the sense of one action happening after another is to mark the one that is completed with the verb dvingòç ‘finish’ and mark that clause (the lead-up clause) with the adverbial marker:
(32) . . . zūdá:ngí, kāpəshí wárəc? (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 204)

[zu-dvng]-í [ká-pə-shí wá-rá-č]

plant-ADVF WH-thing-yet do-must-N.PAST

. . . after planting, what else do you still have to do?

• Similarly, if one action happened ‘as’ another action happened, then the verb mënöc
‘continue (something)’ can be added to the temporal clause (in the case of these auxiliary
verbs, there is a rule of transitivity harmony, so the transitive verb mënöc is intransitivized
by the reflexive/middle marker to match the transitivity of ‘big (grow)’—see LaPolla 2000
for discussion and examples of this phenomenon):

(33) Kūdō kūdō té mënši lũngì nínθ,

[kū-dō kūdō té mën-shí lũng-í] nínθ

that ADV that ADV big(grow) continue-R/M DIR-I.PAST IF-TOP

As he was growing up (continued to grow up more and more),

hí wúr nōl gō sūr lũngì, wá. (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 50)

[hí wúr nōl gō sūr lũng-í] wá

legs hands nail also grow DIR(begin)-I.PAST HS

his finger nails and toe nails began to grow long and pointy, it is said.

• Yet another way of showing one action having been finished before another started is by
reduplicating the verb of the lead-up clause (with nasalization of the final consonant of the
verb, if there is one), as in (34). The meaning of this structure is roughly synonymous with
the structure mentioned above which involves the use of the verb ‘finish’. Both structures
are often used in procedural texts in a set of clauses such as “Having done this, and having
done this, you do this.”

(34) Vpungí Vdösěng vdimvdipò vhōshíě.

[Vpung-í Vdō-sěng vdim-vdipò] [vhō-shí-č]

Apung-AGT Adeu-LOC REDUP-hit laugh-R/M-I.PAST

After Apung had hit Adeu he laughed.

• An abbreviated clause, such as Ini(nō), or lexical means, such as mępŋ ‘after’, both
exemplified in line 1 of (35), can be used to show temporal relations as well.

(35) Ini bōp bó mępŋ nō, wēlông rá, nàmaqí nō

i-ní bōp-bō mępŋ nō wē-lông rá nà-maqí nō

be-if rot-PFV after TOP that-CL again 2sg-3pl-AGT TOP

Then after they have fermented, again that thing, you

dēhóm nōng nō, ē, āngchéng ēyē nōng ká nō. . . . (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 141)
dv-ē-vhóm nōng nō ē āng-chéng ē-yē nīng kā nō

CAUS-N.1-meet 2pl PS eh NFP-CL N.1-flatten 2pl NOM TOP

gather them, and flatten them, . . .
Dc. Conditional

• The conditional is most often marked by adding *ninô* to the end of the lead-up clause, the condition, as in line 1 of (36).

• A different sort of conditional, an ‘only when ...’ type of conditional, formed by adding *wâ* ‘only’ after the predicate sequencer *nô*, is shown in lines 3–4 of (36).

(36) *Nvngwâ shông ninô, nvngwâ zî-ô kênî mv-shâ câng gô lô nô,*

[nvngwâ shông] *nî-nô* [nvngwâ zî-ô] kênî [mv-shâ-câng gô lô] nô cow like *if-TOP* cow give-TNP from NEG-know-spirit CL return PS If (the spirit) preferred a cow, after a cow is offered, (then) the unknown spirit would leave,

1

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Nvngwâ shông ninô, } & \\
\text{nvngwâ zî-ô kênî mv-shâ câng gô lô nô,} & \\
\text{[nvngwâ shông] nî-nô [nvngwâ zî-ô] kênî [mv-shâ-câng gô lô] nô} & \\
\text{cow like if-TOP cow give-TNP from NEG-know-spirit CL return PS} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

If (the spirit) preferred a cow, after a cow is offered, (then) the unknown spirit would leave,

2 *zâgô bânlîm ìwê.*

[[zâ-gô bânlîm] ì-wê] sick-CL get.well-INF be-NOM and the sick person would get well.

3 *Shvmê yûngshî nô wâ,*

shvmê yûng-shì *nô wâ* shame.leaf yûng-shi only CL PS and the sick person would get well.

4 *Vsâng wëgô sîng núngâ kôa yà:ngâ.*

(vsâng wë-gô sîng núng¬á kôa yà:ng¬á)

person that-CL LOC offer-BEN sacrifice-BEN TMyrs-T.PAST would sacrifices be offered for that person.

• The ablative marker *kênî* (‘from’) can also mark conditionals:

(37) *Wëdô wëdô gô mè-ûl dâqshà kênî nô*

[we-dô we-dô gô mv-ë-ûl daq-shà] kênî nô that-ADV that-ADV also NEG-N.1-say DIR-1plpast from *TOP*

If (you) don’t also say this and that to me (if you don’t remind me),

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{kàông zûngâng lôngô mà} & \\
\text{kà-ông zûng-ã-ng lông-ô mà} & \\
\text{word-CL put.on.record-BEN-1sg TNP Q} & \\
\text{what words I should put on record (for you),} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{wûng nô vrá vnângô kà lê.} & \\
\text{[wû-ng] nô vrá [vnâng-ô kà lê]} & \\
\text{do(1st.person)-1sg PS again forget-TNP NOM REM} & \\
\text{in doing it, again, I will forget words (what to say).} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

• There is also a type of conditional where the lead-up clause simply takes the topic marker, but both clauses are negative, so the sense is ‘Don’t do X until you have done Y’:
(38) Mâ-vûn nô mè-dînî.
    mv-vûn  nô    mv-è-dî-nî
    NEG-eat  TOP  NEG-N.1-go-POL
    Don’t go without eating. (Don’t go unless you have eaten.)

5. Other functions of clause linking markers

• We saw above in line 6 of (16) that the comitative marker nỳng and can be used for linking two noun phrases as well as for linking clauses.
• Several other markers that are mainly post-nominal relational markers, such as the topic marker, the locative markers, as well as the adverbial marker, all mark clauses as well.
• We also saw that the nominalizer wè is also used for creating clausal constituents.
• The infinitive marker can be used to simply make simple deverbal nouns, such as the references to clothes, things draped on the body, and earings in (39):

(39) Dùmshà chîngwàpè nô gwâlvûn, pêlûm, bënlûm
    dùmshà chîngwâpè nô    [gwâ-lûm pê-lûm bën-lûm]
    damshà chief-MALE TOP  wear-INF put.on-INF wear(on.ear)-INF

pîn-ri, dvgo dvcoşpîh dàngî.
pîn-ri]-î  dvgo  dvcoşpîh  dîngî
kind-pl-INSTR prepare  adorn-R/M  finish-ADV
After the damsha had prepared and adorned himself by putting on various clothes and earrings.

jîngtûng là:nû, âng vîdî vûyâ dîng vüng shònshî yàng.  (LaPolla & Poa 2001: 11)
jîng-tûng  là:nû, âng  vîdî  vûyâ  dîng  vüng  shònshî  yàng
jang-bundle²  hold-TNP  PS  3sg  self  rank  about  first  tell-R/M  TMyrs
he would grab a jàng-bundle and would first identify or introduce his damsha rank.

• In (40), what looks like a clause linking construction (wëyîng këni) is used instead for linking noun phrases (cf. Taiwan Mandarin (rânhòu ‘after that’ > ‘and’):

(40) Ngàì wvp yîngwà wè kâgōrî,
    [ngà-ì  wvp  yîng-à  wè]CS  kâgō-rî
    I-AGT  shoot  TMyrs(1stperson)-T.PAST  NOM  gibbon-pl
    I shot gibbons,
rvshàì wëyîng këni wàqshëng wàqshëng.
rvshàì  wë-yîng  këni  wàqshëng  wàqshëng
monkey-pl  that-LOC  from  boar  boar
monkeys, and also boars,

²This is a bundle of a special kind of leaf for performing a shaman ritual.
vzuq vzuq nô kâdô ä.lôë?
goose goose TOP WH-ADV call-TNP-N.PAST
gooses, how do you call (that)?

Wêyîng këni waqshîng, vzuq, svrî,
that-LOC from boar goat deer
And then boar, goat, deer,

wêyîng këni wêdîngtë wâ iê.
that-LOC from that-much only be-N.PAST
and then that’s all.

6. Negation
There is only one negator in the language, the verbal prefix mv- (with several allomorphs),
and it can be used in either the lead-up and/or focus clause of any of the structures we’ve
discussed. There is only one structure, exemplified in (38), where both clauses must be
negated.

7. Summary
See tables 1 and 2 on the coloured sheet.

Abbreviations

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<td>agentive marker</td>
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<td>dl</td>
<td>dual</td>
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<td>hearsay marker</td>
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<td>infinitive marker</td>
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<td>locative marker (also used for dative, purpose)</td>
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<td>non-1st person actor (in a clause with a speech act participant)</td>
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<td>noun forming prefix</td>
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<td>NOM</td>
<td>nominalizer</td>
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<td>PROB</td>
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Table 1: Summary by semantic type
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Table 2: Summary by marker