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Norihiko HAYASHI

1 Introduction: The Jino language and the aim of this paper

The Jino language is a member of the Lolo (Ngwi/Yipho)-Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman language family and is spoken in the Xishuangbanna (Sipsongpanna) Autonomous State in Yunnan province, China (See Map 1). The language consists of two main dialects, Youle and Buyuan, the latter of which amounts for 10 percent of all Jino speakers (Gai 1986). According to the Chinese census of 2010, the total Jino population is about 23,000, although the number of fluent speakers might amount to only 70 or 80 percent.

This paper aims to sketch the case-marking system in Buyuan Jino,¹ as well as

*An earlier version of this paper was read at the 45th International Conference on Sino-Tibetan Languages and Linguistics, held at Nanyang Technological University of Singapore, in November 2012. Section 5.1 of this paper was also read at the 47th International Conference on Sino-Tibetan Languages and Linguistics, held at Yunnan Normal University (Kunming, China) in October 2014. I appreciate the insightful comments from both audiences. All errors and misunderstandings are, of course, my own.

This paper is based on data collected through linguistic fieldwork that was carried out from 2005 to 2014. The data was obtained from linguistic interviews with Mr. C (Born in 1978, male), Ms. Z (Born in 1980, female), Mr. Z (Born in 1964, male).

¹ The phonological inventory and typological features of Buyuan Jino are briefly summarized as follows:

[Phonological Inventory of Buyuan Jino]:

Consonants: /p, ph, t, th, k, kh; ts, tsh, te, teh; m, n, ŋ, ŋ; l; f, s, ɕ, x; w, j/

Vowels: /i, e, ɛ, a, ɔ, ɤ, o, u/

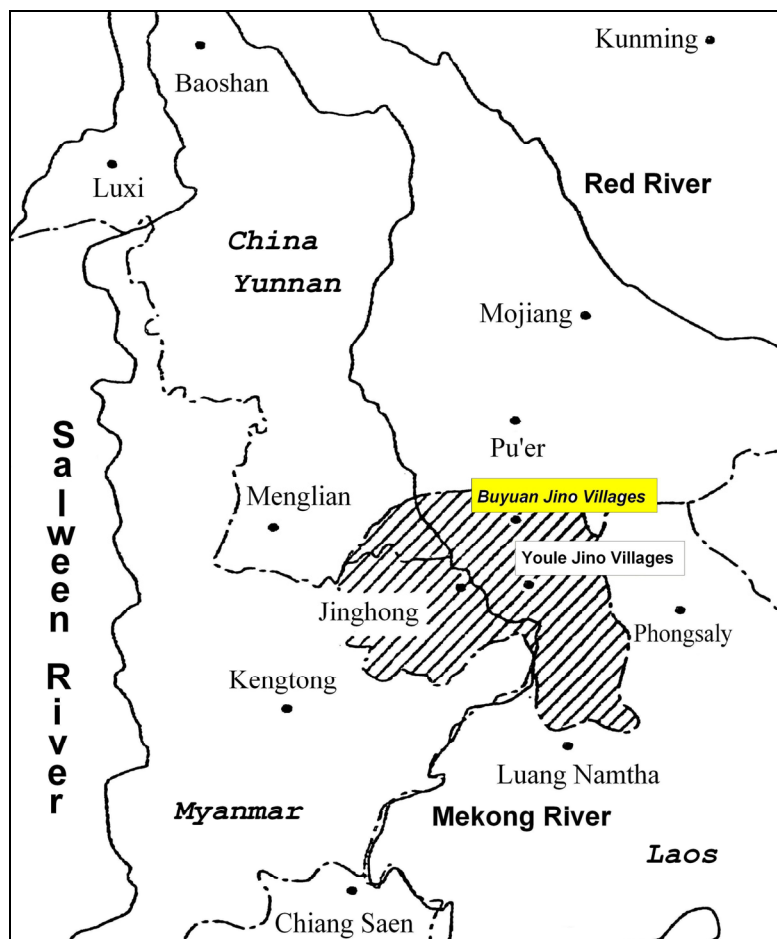
Tonemes: /55, 44, 31, 35, 53/

Syllable Structure: (C1)(C2)V1(V2)(V3)(C3)/T <C2: -r- or -j-, C3: -n or -ŋ>

As for the Buyuan Jino phonology, see Hayashi (2013).

analyze its typological features and historical development.

There are two main subdialects of Buyuan Jino, and these are depicted in Figure 1. Note that this paper mainly utilizes data from the Bagang-Banan subdialect.



Map 1: The Jino villages, Yunnan, China²

[Typological Features of Buyuan Jino]:

Basic Constituent Order: SOV, Noun–Adjective, Possessive–Head Noun, Relative Clause–Head Noun

Morphological Features: Agglutinative (Verbal Complex)

² This map is cited from Kato (2000) and revised by the author of this paper. The shaded portion is Xishuangbanna (Sipsongpanna), an autonomous state in Yunnan province, China.

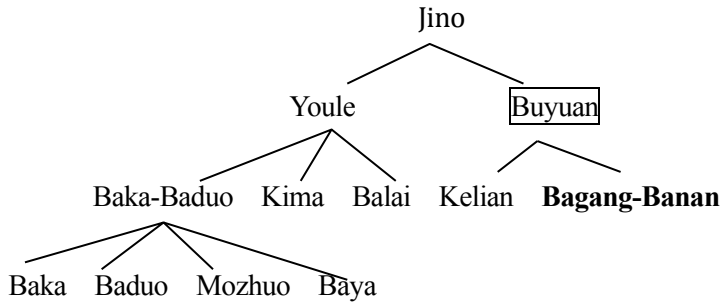


Figure 1: Subdialects of Jino (a tentative hypothesis)

Section 2 reviews the existing literature on Buyuan Jino case marking, namely Gai (1986). Section 3 briefly introduces the canonical nominal phrase structure of Buyuan Jino. Section 4 describes the case-marking system of this language. Section 5 mentions a typological account of case polysemy and contrasts the Buyuan Jino case-marking system with other Tibeto-Burman languages. Finally, section 6 summarizes this paper.

2 Previous Work

Even though it mainly describes the grammar of Youle Jino and mentions little on Buyuan Jino grammar, Gai (1986) should be invoked with respect to the grammatical structure of Buyuan Jino. Gai (1986) argues that Buyuan Jino utilizes tone alternation when marking the object as follows:

- (1) $\eta\sigma^{33}tu^{13}$ $p\sigma^{11}$ ‘to hit fish (with a rifle)’ (Gai 1986: 137)
 fish.OBJ hit

According to Gai (1986)’s explanation, the citation form of the word for ‘fish’ is $\eta\sigma^{33}tu^{31}$ and the tone of the last syllable of this word alters into 13 when it is inflected. Gai (1986), however, does not provide explanations for any other case markers.

The tone alternation occurs when marking the object in my fieldnote, but the present author can describe more detailed case markers in the following sections.

3 Nominal Phrase Structure

This section will introduce the canonical nominal phrase structure of Buyuan Jino, which is schematized below in Table 1.

Table 1: Noun Phrase Structure of Buyuan Jino

Demonstrative	Noun	(Adjective)	Numeral-Classifier	=Postposition
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Canonically, the demonstrative precedes nominal head, whereas the adjective and the numeral-classifier combination follow. Example 2 illustrates such an instance:

- (2) $j\chi^{44}$ $\phi i^{31}t\theta u^{55}$ $a^{55}n\chi^{31}l\chi^{31}$ $\epsilon\epsilon^{55}-te\theta\epsilon^{44}$
 this clothes red three-CLF
 ‘these three red clothes’

In natural conversation or narratives, however, the adjective and the numeral-classifier combination can often be placed before the nominal head as in (3)—(5).

- (3) a. $a^{31}j\epsilon^{55}$ $a^{55}n\chi^{31}l\chi^{31}$ b. $a^{55}n\chi^{31}l\chi^{31}$ $a^{31}j\epsilon^{55}$
 flower red red flower
 ‘a red flower’

- (4) a. $\phi i^{31}t\theta u^{55}$ $a^{55}n\chi^{31}l\chi^{31}$ $\epsilon\epsilon^{55}-te\theta\epsilon^{44}$
 clothes red three-CLF
 b. $\phi i^{31}t\theta u^{55}$ $\epsilon\epsilon^{55}-te\theta\epsilon^{44}$ $a^{55}n\chi^{31}l\chi^{31}$
 clothes three-CLF red
 ‘three red clothes’

- (5) a. $\phi i^{31}t\theta u^{55}$ $\epsilon\epsilon^{55}-te\theta\epsilon^{55}$ b. $\epsilon\epsilon^{55}-te\theta\epsilon^{55}$ $\phi i^{31}t\theta u^{55}$
 clothes three-CLF three-CLF clothes
 ‘three pieces of clothes’

The adjective and/or numeral-classifier normally follows the head noun, as in (3a), (4a), and (5a). However, the scrambling orders can be found in natural speech. (3b) illustrates the adjective preceding the head noun, (4b) exemplifies the switching order of the adjective and numeral-classifier, and (5b) shows the numeral-classifier preceding the head noun.³ All of these examples are acceptable.

³ The preceding order of modifiers like (3b, 5b) is influenced by Chinese word order.

4. The Case-Marking System of Buyuan Jino

This section describes the case-marking system of Buyuan Jino, utilizing the author's own data.

4.1 Zero and Case Alternation

Buyuan Jino canonically carries SOV word order. If a given sentence follows this word order, the subject and object noun are generally unmarked (6):

- (6) a. $\eta i^{31}vu^{44}$ tu^{31} $l\chi^{31}$ $ts\omicron^{53}$.
 sun go out come PFT
 'The sun came out.'
- b. $wu^{55}ta^{55}$ $n\omicron^{31}$ ϵao^{53} .
 head hurt PFT
 '(I) have a headache.'
- c. $ji^{31}mje^{55}$ $fu^{31}tsha^{55}$ $tehi^{55}$ la^{44} .
 cat mouse bit PART
 'A cat bit a mouse.'

In (6), $\eta i^{31}vu^{44}$ 'sun', $wu^{55}ta^{55}$ 'head' and $ji^{31}mje^{55}$ 'cat' are all subjects in their respective sentences and unmarked for case. (6c) is a transitive sentence, and the object $fu^{31}tsha^{55}$ 'mouse,' is also unmarked for case.

There is another type of zero marking for locational nouns, as seen in (7) below.

- (7) a. $a^{55}j\chi^{44}m\chi^{31}$ $mi^{55}\eta i^{44}$ $pje^{31}l\chi^{55}$ li^{55} $p\chi^{44}$ $la^{53}?$
 3SG.NOM tomorrow Kunming(PLN) go IRREAL Q
 'Will he/she go to Kunming?'
- b. $a^{55}j\chi^{44}m\chi^{31}$ $i^{55}tsh\chi^{55}$ ta^{55} ji^{31} $ts\omicron^{53}$.
 3SG.NOM mountain ascend go PFT
 'He/She climbed up the mountain.'
- c. $a^{55}j\chi^{44}m\chi^{31}$ $\epsilon ue^{31}\epsilon ao^{55}$ tsu^{35} .
 3SG.NOM school exist
 'He/She is at school.'

The underlined locational nouns in (7), $pje^{31}l\chi^{55}$ 'Kunming (PLN)', $i^{55}tsh\chi^{55}$ 'mountain' and $\epsilon ue^{31}\epsilon ao^{55}$ 'school', are each oblique nominal phrases in each sentence and

unmarked for case, as well.

There are many examples of nouns that express case through tone alternation (8):

- (8) a. ŋɔ³¹ **tsu³⁵** ji³¹ tsa⁵³ pɣ⁴⁴.
 1SG.NOM house.OBL go PFT IRREAL
 ‘I have to go back home.’
- b. a³¹pu⁵⁵ ɛ⁵⁵ **ŋɔ³⁵** kho³⁵.
 father NOM 1SG.OBL call
 ‘Father called me.’
- c. ny³¹ ji⁵⁵ pɣ⁵⁵ la⁵³, mɔ⁵⁵ ji⁵⁵ pɣ⁵⁵ la⁵³?
 2SG.NOM go IRREAL Q NEG go IRREAL Q
 ‘Are you going or not?’
- d. lo³¹si⁵⁵ ɛ⁵⁵ **ny³⁵** kho³⁵.
 teacher NOM 2SG.OBL call
 ‘The teacher called you.’

In (8), the underlined phrase is the subject, while the bold-faced phrase is the object or oblique noun. Note that the first-singular pronoun in (8a) is *ŋɔ³¹*, whereas in (8b) it is *ŋɔ³⁵*. The tonal difference between the two pronouns is the result of syntax. The former is slated as the subject, while the latter is the object. The same tonal alternation pattern can be found in (8c) and (8d). The tonemes of the second-singular pronouns in (8c) and (8d) are different for the same reason.

In some cases, oblique noun marking occurs by altering the tone to that in 35, like *tsu³⁵* ‘house’⁴ in (8a).

4.2 =ε

This subsection introduces =ε, which principally marks the subject in Buyuan Jino (9): The tone of =ε varies from 44 to 31 in a certain condition.

- (9) a. mi⁵⁵ŋi⁴⁴ ɛ⁴⁴ a⁵⁵mjao³¹ a³¹si⁵⁵ thɣ⁵⁵ ŋi⁴⁴ mɔ³⁵.
 tomorrow NOM year new one day NML
 ‘Tomorrow is the first day of the new year.’

⁴ The citation form of ‘house’ is *tsu³¹*.

- b. ju⁵⁵tsi³¹ a⁴⁴ a³¹mɔ⁵⁵ ɛ⁴⁴ tsaj³¹xoŋ³¹ khɔ³⁵,
 husband POSS mother NOM Zhanghong (PSN) call
 i⁵⁵mje³¹ ɛi⁵⁵tshɿ³¹ mjao³¹ n³¹ tso⁵³.
 now eighty year exist PFT
 ‘My husband’s mother is called Zhanghong, and is now eighty years old.’
- c. ŋa⁵⁵su³¹ ɛ³¹ a³¹pjɿ⁵⁵lx⁵⁵xɿ⁵⁵ pan⁵⁵ la⁵⁵ la³¹
 1PL.NOM NOM the hill side move up come REL
 ɛi⁵⁵ mjao³¹ n³¹ tsa⁵⁵ tao³¹.
 eight year exist PFT PART
 ‘We have moved here from the hill side for eight years.’
- d. a³¹mɿ³⁵, a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴ɛu⁴⁴lu³¹ ɛ⁴⁴ ŋɔ³⁵ ji⁵⁵ ɔ⁵⁵.
 Hey 3PL.NOM NOM 1SG.OBL scold PART
 ‘Hey, they scolded me!’

(9a) is an intransitive sentence, and (9b) is transitive. Both sentences employ = ϵ for marking the subject, while the object in (9b), *tsaj³¹xoŋ³¹* ‘Zhanghong,’ is unmarked. This leads us to conclude that Buyuan Jino is a nominative-accusative language and that = ϵ is prototypically a nominative case marker. The same holds true in (9c) and (9d).

The nominative marker = ϵ often merges with the subject pronoun and causes a fusion like *ja⁴⁴* ‘this’ + = ϵ ‘nominative’ \rightarrow *je³¹* ‘this.NOM’, which is exemplified in (10) below.

- (10) a. ŋue⁵⁵ tehe⁵⁵ la⁵³ ɛɛ⁵⁵ mjao³¹ n³¹ tsa⁵⁵
 1SG.NOM build REL three year exist PFT
 tao⁴⁴.
 PART
 ‘I have build (it) for three years.’
- b. ŋɔ³¹ ɔ⁵⁵ŋɿ⁵⁵mɔ⁴⁴, ŋe³¹ mɿ⁵⁵xɔ³¹mɔ⁴⁴.
 1SG.NOM Jino people 2SG.NOM Han Chinese
 ‘I am a Jino people, and you are a Han Chinese.’
- c. a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴mɛ³¹ ɔ³¹mɔ³¹ pa⁵⁵ ju⁵³.
 3SG.NOM plow raise up walk
 ‘He/She took a plow away.’
- d. ŋa⁵⁵sue³¹ kɔ⁵⁵ŋen⁴⁴tche³¹mje⁵³ ja³¹ ɛɛ⁵⁵ tso⁴⁴.
 1PL.NOM new year period chicken kill eat

- ‘We kill and eat chicken in the new year period.’
- e. $\underline{j\epsilon^{31}}$ $a^{55}lan^{35}$ pi^{55} $t\omega^{35}$ $\eta\epsilon^{31}$.
 this.NOM Alan (PSN).OBL give ASP PART
- ‘This is what I gave to Alan.’
- f. $\underline{a^{55}j\epsilon^{44}}$ $x\omega^{55}m\chi^{44}$ a^{44} $a^{31}tshu^{55}$ $\epsilon^{44?}$
 that.NOM who POSS stuff PART
- ‘Whose thing is that?’

In comparing the subjects in (10a) and (10b), the subject in (10a) is $\eta\mu\epsilon^{55}$, whereas the subject in the first clause of (10b) is $\eta\omega^{31}$. Each means ‘1SG.NOM,’ but the former is the fused form created through such a process as $\eta\omega^{31} + =\epsilon \rightarrow \eta\mu\epsilon^{55}$. The other fusion samples from (10b) to (10f) underwent the same morphophonological process as in (11).

- (11) a. $m\chi^{31}$ ‘2SG.NOM’ + $=\epsilon \rightarrow \eta\epsilon^{31}$ ‘2SG.NOM’
 b. $a^{55}j\chi^{44}m\chi^{44}$ ‘3SG.NOM’ + $=\epsilon \rightarrow a^{55}j\chi^{44}me^{31}$ ‘3SG.NOM’
 c. $\eta a^{55}su^{31}$ ‘1PL.NOM’ + $=\epsilon \rightarrow \eta a^{55}sue^{31}$ ‘1PL.NOM’
 d. $j\chi^{44}$ ‘this’ + $=\epsilon \rightarrow j\epsilon^{31}$ ‘this.NOM’
 e. $a^{55}j\chi^{44}$ ‘that’ + $=\epsilon \rightarrow a^{55}j\epsilon^{44}$ ‘that.NOM’

There are some cases with $=\epsilon$ that do not mark the subject. One illustration of this is marking time adverbials, some examples of which merge $=\epsilon$ in its last syllable like (11). See (12).

- (12) a. $th\chi^{55}na^{44}\epsilon i\eta^{31}tchi^{35}$ ϵ^{44} $m\chi^{31}tha^{55}$ $a^{31}lu^{55}ta^{44}$
 last week TADVZ rain many
 fu^{31} ω^{44} .
 rain(v.) PART
 ‘Last week it rained heavily.’
- b. $kh\omega^{55}m\omega^{44}$ tei^{55} la^{53} $a^{55}j\chi^{44}\eta^{31}$ ϵ^{31}
 woman marry REL that day TADVZ
 $kh\omega^{55}phj\omega^{55}$ ϵ^{44} $kh\omega^{55}mjao^{55}$ $m^{31}p\omega^{55}$ si^{55} ji^{31} $t\omega^{55}$.
 man NOM woman house take go PFT
 ‘On the wedding day the bridegroom went to the bride’s house to take her.’

- c. a⁵⁵fu⁵⁵ ε⁴⁴ tshɿ³¹jo⁵⁵ ŋɔ³¹ lje⁵⁵
 previously TADVZ person five CLF
 ja³⁵ pɿ⁴⁴ n³¹la⁵³,
 take IRREAL PART
 i⁵⁵mi⁵⁵ ε⁴⁴ ɕɛ³¹ lje⁵⁵ lo⁴⁴ jo³⁵.
 now TADVZ three CLF only need
 ‘Formerly (we) needed five person, but now (we) need only three
 person.’
- d. ŋɔ³¹ ja⁵⁵ŋε⁴⁴ mo⁵⁵ lo³⁵ mɿ⁴⁴.
 1SGNOM today.TADVZ NEG come PART
 ‘I will not come today.’

Another type can be found in examples like (13), which use =ε for marking the instrumental case.

- (13) a. pe³¹tsi³¹ ε⁴⁴ i³¹tshu⁵⁵ tehe³¹ b. la⁵⁵pu⁴⁴ ε⁴⁴ pa⁵⁵
 glass INSTR water ladle hand INSTR carry
 ‘to ladle water with a glass’ ‘to carry (things) by hand’

4.3 =mɿ

Section 4.1 explains that the object is generally unmarked in Buyuan Jino. However, =mɿ is used if the patient should be overtly marked.

Buyuan Jino has a ‘passive-like’ construction, as in (14). This construction can arguably be made by relocating the object of the ‘active’ voice before the subject and adding the ‘patient’ marker =mɿ. However, ‘agent’ is still marked by =ε.

- (14) a. a⁵⁵ji⁴⁴mɿ³⁵ mɿ⁴⁴ teha⁵⁵mɿ⁵⁵ ε⁴⁴ teha⁵⁵ jo³⁵ mo⁴⁴.
 3SG.OBL PAT thief NOM steal PART PART
 ‘He/ She was stolen by a thief.’
- b. je⁵⁵kr⁵⁵ mɿ⁴⁴ i³¹tshu⁵⁵ ε⁴⁴ pa⁵⁵ ju³¹ mo³⁵.
 child PAT water NOM flow walk PART
 ‘A child was flowed away in the water.’

=mɿ is found more in the data like (14). On the other hand, it can sometimes occur in the data like (15), where it also marks the patient noun.

- (15) a. $\eta\epsilon^{31}$ mi^{55} ($m\gamma^{44}$) m^{31} mi^{55} u^{31} .
 1SG.NOM fire PAT CAUS extinguished PART
 ‘I extinguished fire.’
- b. na^{44} $a^{31}m\sigma^{55}$ ($m\gamma^{44}$) kha^{31} la^{55} .
 2SG.POSS mother PAT call come
 ‘Call your mother!’

The predicate of (15a) contains a causative prefix *m-*, which transitivityzes the verb *mi*⁵⁵ ‘extinguished,’ and the object *mi*⁵⁵, ‘fire,’ can be construed as patient. (15b) is an imperative sentence, and the patient noun phrase is *na*⁴⁴ *a*³¹*m*⁵⁵ ‘your mother.’ Both patient nouns can be marked by =*m* γ , though marking in this case is not obligatory.

On the grounds that =*m* γ can occur in (15), the sentences in (14) are not really passive, and the patient nouns with =*m* γ are shifted to the top of the sentences. =*m* γ in (14) disambiguates the patient from the agent.

4.4 =a

This subsection introduces the third case marker, =*a*, in Buyuan Jino, which marks the possessive noun. In this language, the possessive noun precedes the possessee. See (16).

- (16) a. $a^{55}po^{31}$ a^{44} $\eta i^{31}j\sigma^{55}$ ϵ^{44}
 Abo (PSN) POSS younger brother NOM
 $x\sigma^{55}m\gamma^{44}$ $\epsilon^{44}?$
 what PART
 ‘Who is Abo’s younger brother?’
- b. $x\sigma^{55}m\gamma^{31}$ a^{44} $a^{31}m\sigma^{55}$
 who POSS mother
 ‘Whose mother?’
- c. $a^{55}j\gamma^{44}m\gamma^{31}$ a^{44} $phi^{31}thu^{55}$ ϵ^{31} $j\gamma^{44}$ $mja^{53}?$
 3SG.NOM POSS clothes NOM this Q
 ‘Is his/her clothes this?’

As observed in (17), =*a* often occurs after the locational nouns and functions like ‘linker.’

- (17) a. a⁵⁵fu⁵⁵tha⁵⁵thɿ³¹ a⁴⁴ a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴me³¹ lo³¹si⁵⁵ a⁵⁵ je⁵⁵kɿ⁵⁵.
 the front line POSS 3SGNOM teacher POSS child
 ‘That person at the front line is our teacher’s child.’
- b. tso⁵⁵tsi⁴⁴ khu³¹ a⁴⁴ a⁵⁵je⁴⁴ a³¹tso⁵⁵ xe³¹?
 desk inside POSS that.NOM what Q
 ‘What is inside the desk?’

The next examples (18) demonstrate that the possessive marker =a merges with the possessive noun in a similar way to the nominative marker =ε, as explained in (11). It is interesting to note that some ordinary nouns cause this type of fusion, as in (18d).

- (18) a. na³¹ a³¹pu⁵⁵+a³¹mo⁵⁵ tsɿ³¹ jo³¹ mɿ⁵⁵ la³¹?
 2SG.POSS father + mother exist good good Q
 ‘Are your parents well?’
- b. a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴ma⁴⁴ a⁵⁵mɿ⁴⁴ mɿ⁵⁵ ljao⁵³.
 3SG.POSS body good PART
 ‘His/Her body is very well.’
- c. ŋa⁵⁵sua⁴⁴ tso³¹phu³¹ a⁴⁴ a⁵⁵mjao³¹ tsi⁵⁵ xɿ⁴⁴
 1PL.POSS village POSS year more big
 a⁴⁴ ŋe³¹ ŋi⁵⁵lja³¹lje⁵⁵,
 PART PART the second child
 a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴mɿ⁴⁴ si⁵⁵tshɿ³¹ mjao³¹ n³¹ tso⁵³.
 3SGNOM seventy year exist PFT
 ‘The oldest person in our village is Laoer (the second child). He/She is seventy years old.’
- d. tsua⁴⁴ a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴tsu³¹ ja³¹ ja³¹ li³¹.
 house.POSS those take take go
 ‘Take away those things of the house!’

The fusion forms found in (18) are constructed in the same way as example (19). In (19a) and (19b), the possessive noun undergoes vowel reduction, while in (19c) and (19d), the last syllable of the possessive nouns causes diphthongization.

- (19) a. nɿ³¹ ‘2SGNOM’ + =a → na³¹ ‘2SG.POSS’
 b. a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴mɿ⁴⁴ ‘3SGNOM’ + =a → a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴ma⁴⁴ ‘3SG.POSS’

c. $\eta\alpha^{55}su^{31}$ ‘1PL.NOM’ + =a → $\eta\alpha^{55}sua^{44}$ ‘1PL.POSS’

d. tsu^{31} ‘house’ + =a → $tsua^{44}$ ‘house.POSS’

As in other Asian languages, the possessee noun can often be omitted if it can be framed by the context, as seen in (20).

- (20) $j\epsilon^{31}$ $\eta\alpha^{55}$ ($\eta\alpha^{35}$).
 this.NOM 1SG.POSS COP
 ‘This is mine.’

4.5 =xɿ

This subsection describes that =xɿ⁵ covers wide-ranging usages. =xɿ can be used for marking juxtaposition, the comitative, the ablative and the comparative. Each usage is shown in examples (21)—(24), respectively.

[juxtaposition]

- (21) a. $nɿ^{31}$ $xɿ^{44}$ $a^{55}jɿ^{44}mɿ^{44}$ $a^{31}la^{55}$
 2SG.NOM and 3SG.NOM what
 $tshɿ^{31}j\alpha^{55}$ $kuan^{31}ei^{44}?$
 human beings relationships
 ‘What relationships is it between you and him/her?’
- b. $a^{55}su^{55}$ $xɿ^{44}$ $\eta i^{31}j\alpha^{55}$
 elder brother and younger brother
 ‘elder brother and younger brother’

=xɿ can be found in many cases for marking juxtaposition denoting ‘A and B.’ In (21a), =xɿ connects two nouns, $nɿ^{31}$ ‘2SG.NOM’ and $a^{55}jɿ^{44}mɿ^{44}$ ‘3SG.NOM’. The same holds true in (21b).

[comitative]

- (22) a. $a^{31}la^{55}mu^{31}khu^{31}$ $tɿa^{31}$ $kɿ^{44}$ $a^{55}jɿ^{44}eu^{44}lu^{31}$ $xɿ^{44}$ $sa^{31}tsha^{31}$.
 whatever exist if 3PL with talk
 ‘Whatever you may have something to discuss, talk with them!’
- b. $a^{55}jɿ^{44}mɿ^{44}$ $a^{31}pu^{55}$ $a^{31}m\alpha^{55}$ $mja^{31}thj\epsilon^{55}$ $tɿa^{55}$ $x\epsilon^{44}$,
 3SG.NOM father mother die PFT after

⁵ =xɿ can often be articulated as [xɿi], which has no influence over semantic difference.

a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴mɿ⁴⁴ xɿ⁴⁴ a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴mɿ⁴⁴ ɛɛ³¹ lja⁵³ lje⁵⁵ xɿ⁴⁴
 3SG.NOM and 3SG.NOM the third child with
 thɿ⁵⁵jo⁴⁴ tsɿ³⁵ ɔ⁴⁴.

together exist PART

‘After his/her parents died, he/she lived together with his/her third child.’

=xɿ can mark comitative, as observed in example (22). The comitative usage is similar to juxtaposition, though =xɿ is not followed by nouns in the comitative usage.

(22b) is an interesting example in that there are two =xɿ in this sentence and the second =xɿ (in **bold** face) marks the comitative. The first =xɿ indicated in *italics* in (22b) may be redundant in this construction, but it can also serve as a juxtaposition marker.

(23) illustrates =xɿ as the ablative marker.

[ablative]

(23) a. a³¹pu⁵⁵ tshɿ⁵⁵li⁴⁴ xɿ⁴⁴ lo³¹ la⁵⁵.

father Jinghong (PLN) from come PART

‘My father came from Jinghong.’

b. ŋɔ³¹ ji⁵⁵ŋi⁴⁴ khun⁵⁵miŋ³¹ xɿ⁴⁴ lɿ⁵⁵ la⁵⁵.

1SG.NOM yesterday Kunming (PLN) from come PART

‘I came from Kunming yesterday.’

If =xɿ occurs after the locational nouns, it usually expresses the ablative. In example (23), it precedes two place names, *tshɿ⁵⁵li⁴⁴* ‘Jinghong’ and *khun⁵⁵miŋ³¹* ‘Kunming,’ and has the meaning ‘from.’

[comparative]

(24) a. a⁵⁵jɿ⁴⁴mɿ⁴⁴ ŋɔa⁴⁴ xɿ⁴⁴ ɛi⁵⁵ mjao³¹ tsi³¹ mju⁵³,
 3SG.NOM 1SG.POSS than eight year more young

tshɿ⁵⁵na⁵⁵ mjao³¹ ɛɛ⁵⁵tshɿ³¹tea⁵⁵ mjao³¹.

this year thirty-nine year

‘He/She is eight years younger than I, and is thirty-nine years old this year.’

- b. ηε³¹ ηο⁵⁵ xy⁴⁴ a³¹ηο⁴⁴ tsi⁵⁵ ηο⁴⁴.
 2SG.NOM 1SG.NOM than tall more tall
 ‘You are taller than I.’
- c. jχ⁴⁴ thχ⁵⁵ li⁵⁵ ε⁴⁴ a⁵⁵jχ⁴⁴ thχ⁵⁵ li⁵⁵ xy⁴⁴ tsi⁵⁵ pju⁵⁵
 this one CLF NOM that one CLF than more write
 jο³¹ mο⁵⁵.
 good PART
 ‘This pen is better for writing than that one.’

In this language, the comparative construction is schematized as: [the comparee NP] + [the standard NP]=xy + tsi ‘more’ + PREDICATE. (24) illustrates examples of the comparative construction, marking the comparee NP, underlined by a wavy line and the standard NP underlined by a straight line.

5. Typological and Diachronic Remarks

5.1 The Typological Account of Case Polysemy

There are a number of languages whose case markings are involved in polysemy. Malchukov and Narrog (2009) outline a typological account of case polysemy in world languages and sketch a general semantic map of (major) thematic roles. Their idea provides an easy understanding of the semantic network of major thematic roles and the categorization patterns of case-marking in each language. Figure 2 utilizes the notation of Malchukov and Narrog (2009) to depict a tentative map of the semantic network and the case system of Buyuan Jino.

Malchukov and Narrog (2009: 532—533) break down the case system of Eskimo [West Greenlandic; Fortescue 1984] and Imbabura Quechua [Quechuan; Cole 1982] by depicting semantic maps of case polysemy. In Eskimo, the agent and possessive are marked in the same form (*-up*), whereas instrumental, material/means, and theme are in the same form (*-mik*). However, Imbabura Quechua marks the possessive and the beneficiary in the same fashion (*-pay*), while it unmarks the agent (*-φ*). Imbabura Quechua marks the comitative, instrumental and material/means in the same way (*-wan*).

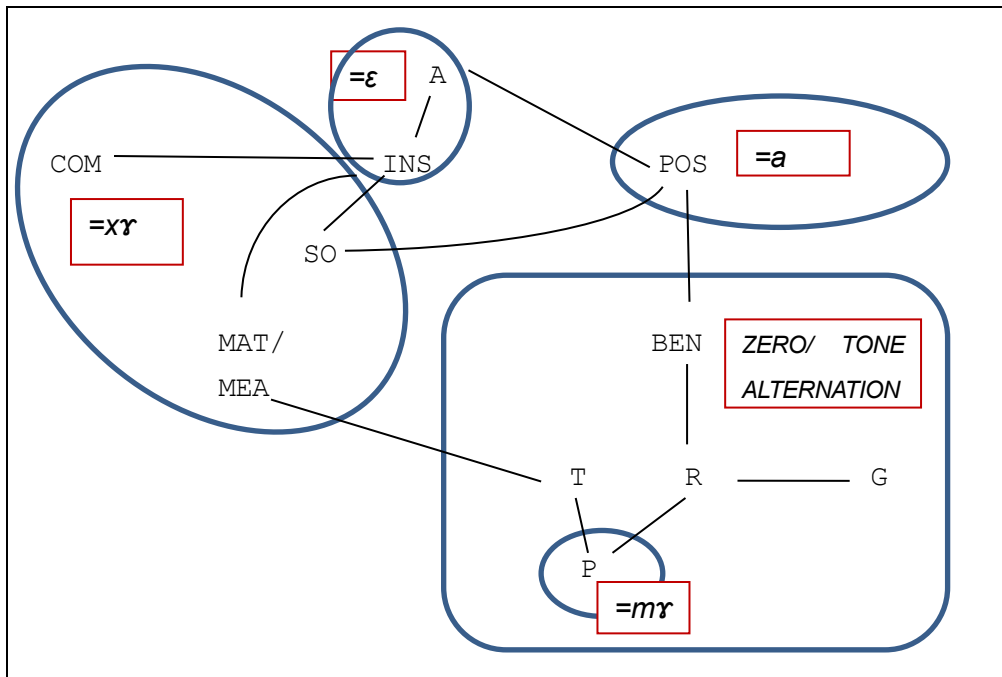


Figure 2: The Tentative Case System of Buyuan Jino (Adapted from Malchukov and Narrog 2009: 531)

Compared to these two languages, Buyuan Jino has an interesting pattern. The comitative and instrumental are marked in a different manner, but the comitative, material/means, and source are marked in the same way. This leads us to distort the original semantic map of Malchukov and Narrog (2009), even though the case-polysemy pattern attested in Buyuan Jino is common in Tibeto-Burman languages, an observation that will be briefly explained in the next subsection, along with diachronic remarks.

5.2 Diachronic Remarks in the Tibeto-Burman Context

There are a couple of Tibeto-Burman linguists who argue that case markers in Tibeto-Burman languages are so various that they were probably caused by secondary innovations (Benedict 1972, Dai 1989, LaPolla 1992, Hu 2002, LaPolla 2004, etc.). Benedict (1972) argues that,

“It is a striking fact, however, that relating morphemes of the type in question seem to be of relatively recent origin in the several TB groups, strongly indicating that in the parent language these elements were largely lacking.” (Benedict 1972: 95—96)

The data of case markers in Tibeto-Burman languages reveals, in fact, that the historical claims from previous studies are true. Table 2 lists case markers in some Tibeto-Burman languages, indicating that even the closely related languages, such as Buyuan Jino and Youle Jino, do not have cognates for core cases.

Table 2: A Sample of Case Markers in Tibeto-Burman Languages⁶

	subject	object	genitive	instrumental
Buyuan Jino	=ε	--- / =mɿ	=a	=ε
Youle Jino	---	=va ⁵⁵ [animate], =a ⁵⁵	=ε ⁴⁴	=la ⁵⁵
Hani	---	jɔ ⁵⁵	ɿ ³³	ne ³³
Yi (Nuosu)	---	---	vi ³³	si ³¹
Achang	---	te ⁵³	a ³¹	---
Written Burmese	(ka)	(ko)	ray	nay.
Written Tibetan	---	la	i, gi	gi, gis

LaPolla (2004) surveyed the case marking systems of 170 Tibeto-Burman languages and discovered interesting results. As for the ablative and genitive markings, 163 languages have the ablative marking and 122 languages have the genitive. These two markings seem to be easier to reconstruct at the proto-stage than the agentive marking, even though their proto-forms should be placed at the lower level branch, such as the Proto-Karen, Proto-Tani, Proto-Tamangic, and so on.

LaPolla (2004) reported that six languages out of 170 Tibeto-Burman languages have the same case markings for the comitative and the ablative, which Buyuan Jino and Youle Jino share. This leads us to conclude that the Jino languages are relatively uncommon in the comitative/ablative marking. Table 3 illustrates the ablative, comitative, and comparative markings in some Lolo-Burmese languages, such as Buyuan Jino, Youle Jino, Lhaovo [Burmish; Kachin State of Burma/ Myanmar], and Colloquial Burmese. This table leads us to speculate that the ablative, comitative, and

⁶ The data sources in Table 2 are: Buyuan Jino and Youle Jino [my fieldnote], Hani, Yi, Achang, Written Burmese and Written Tibetan [Dai 1989].

comparative markings in Buyuan Jino and Youle Jino have developed in the same fashion, although the present-day forms differ from each other.

Table 3: Ablative, Comitative, and Comparative in some Lolo-Burmese languages

	ablative	comitative	comparative
Buyuan Jino	=xɣ		
Youle Jino	=jə ⁴⁴		
Lhaovo	-meŋH	-heʔH	-thoʔH
Colloquial Burmese	=kâ	=nê	=t ^h ɛʔ

(Date Resources: Buyuan Jino and Youle Jino from Hayashi's fieldnote, Lhaovo from Sawada (2010b), Colloquial Burmese from Okano (2010))

Hideo Sawada of Tokyo University of Foreign Studies edited a book on the Tibeto-Burman case-marking system in 2010 (Sawada 2010c), and summarized that there are two patterns of isomorphism in the instrumental marking, one for instrumental and agentive isomorphism, and the other for the instrumental and comitative isomorphism. If we call the former Pattern (A) and the latter Pattern (B), the sample languages referred in Sawada (2010a: 12) can be classified in (25).

(25) [Two patterns of instrumental isomorphism]

<Pattern (A)>

Mu-nya, Amdo Tibetan, Lhasa Tibetan, Kinnauri, Seke, Lhaovo⁷

<Pattern (B)>

Colloquial Burmese, Meche, Pwo Karen, Lhaovo⁴

This paper reveals that Buyuan Jino instrumental isomorphism falls into Pattern (A), which differs from Youle Jino having = ϕ (zero) as agentive, = la^{55} as instrumental, and = $the^{44}/=jə^{44}$ as comitative. Languages in Pattern (A) are mostly ergative languages, which might tempt us to think that Buyuan Jino is also an ergative language. However, the subject of transitive sentences can normally have the same marking as that of the intransitive (=ε, See the example (9)), and therefore Buyuan Jino is genuinely an accusative language.

⁷ Sawada (2010a) stated that Lhaovo employs instrumental for agentive when marking the subject of transitive sentences, which are exceptional because Lhaovo is an accusative language.

To sum up, the Buyuan Jino case-marking system should have developed independently after its divergence from the Youle Jino language, since their case markers and isomorphism do not resemble each other.

6. Conclusion

To conclude this paper, the descriptive and typological features of the Buyuan Jino case marking system can be summarized in (26):

- (26) a. Buyuan Jino has four overt case markers, namely = ϵ , = $m\mathit{r}$, = a , and = $x\mathit{r}$.
 b. Buyuan Jino is an accusative language, though the agentive noun is overtly marked (= ϵ) rather than the patient (= $m\mathit{r}$ or zero/ tone alternation).
 c. In terms of instrumental isomorphism, Buyuan Jino is similar to some ergative languages of Tibeto Burman, such as Mu-nya, Amdo Tibetan, Lhasa Tibetan, Seke, etc., rather than to Youle Jino.

The findings in the diachronic context are illustrated in (27).

- (27) a. The morphological difference of case-marking between Buyuan Jino and Youle Jino basically supports the claim of Benedict (1972) or LaPolla (2004) that the case morphology is of relatively recent origin.
 b. The case-marking system of Buyuan Jino has developed independently after divergence from Youle Jino.

This paper mainly used elicitation and data from interviews. Future research shall demand more extensive data from narratives and texts.

Abbreviations

- for affixal and particle boundaries, = for clitic boundaries and + for root boundaries.

ACC: accusative, ACH: Achang, ADVZ: adverbializer, ASP: aspect, AUX: auxiliary, BJ: Buyuan Jino, CLF: classifier, H: Hani, INSTR: instrumental, IRREAL: irrealis, L: Lolo, NEG: negative, NML: nominalizer, NOM: nominative, OBJ: object, OBL: oblique, PART: particle, PAT: patient, PFT: perfective, PL: plural, PLN: place name, POSS: possessive, PSN: person name, Q: question, REL: relative marker, SG: singular, TADVZ: time adverbializer, WB: Written Burmese, WT: Written Tibetan, YJ: Youle Jino.

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Keywords: Buyuan Jino (Jinuo), Lolo (Ngwi/ Yipho)-Burmese, Case-Marking System, Case Polysemy, Isomorphism

チノ語補遠方言の格標示体系の素描

林 範彦

要旨

本稿は筆者の現地調査で得た資料に基づき、チノ語補遠方言[チベット・ビルマ語派ロロ・ビルマ語支; 中国雲南省]の格標示体系の素描を行った。本言語の格標示については蓋 (1986) に若干の言及があるものの、全体像については全く不明のままであった。本稿により本言語の格標示体系とその歴史的発展について記述・分析を進めた。

本言語では無標 (=φ)あるいは名詞句の最終音節の声調交替によって主格・対格を表すことがある一方で、明示的な格標識として =ε(主格、道具格), =mɾ(被動者), =a(属格), =xe(並列、共同格、奪格、比格)の4種の形式を認めることができる。

以上の格標識はもっとも系統的に近いチノ語悠楽方言とも大きく異なる。その理由は両者が歴史的に分岐してから、格標識およびその体系が独自に発展してきたことによると推定される。

Keywords: チノ語補遠方言 ロロ・ビルマ諸語 格標示体系 格の多義性
同一形態素