

# Amis

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## Introduction

Amis (ISO 639-3: ami) is an Austronesian language spoken in Taiwan; see Figure 1. Along with other indigenous languages spoken in Taiwan, it shares a number of similarities with Philippine languages.

Phonologically, the language is rather simple; it has 20

phonemes, / $(C)V(C)$ / and [ $(C)(C)V(C)$ ] syllable structure, and few phonological rules. Morphologically, the language is complex, as there is a rich variety of affixes. It also has a complex system of voice alternation, which is traditionally called a “focus system.” The word order is relatively free except that the predicate basically precedes its arguments.

## 1. Language and its speakers

Amis is one of the 14 Formosan languages (Austronesian languages spoken in Taiwan); see Figure 2. Its speakers are the Amis people, who are the largest indigenous group in Taiwan with a population of around 160,000.

According to Tsuchida (1988), Formosan languages are genetically close to the Philippine languages, and they form one branch of the Austronesian languages called “Hesperonesian” languages. The genetic position of Amis within the Formosan languages remains



Figure 1. Map of East Asia

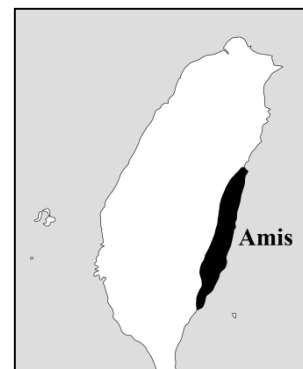


Figure 2. Map of Taiwan

unclear.

Amis has four dialects, which are mutually intelligible with slight difficulty. The differences among them are mainly phonological and lexical.

## 2. Phonology

### 2.1 Phoneme inventory

Amis has 16 consonant phonemes and four vowel phonemes, listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

**Table 1. Consonant phonemes**

	Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Epiglottal	Glottal
<b>Stop</b>	p /p/	t /t/		k /k/	ʔ /ʔ/	
<b>Fricative</b>	f /f/	s /s/				h /h/
<b>Lateral fricative</b>		d /ɬ/				
<b>Affricate</b>		c /tʃ/				
<b>Rhotic</b>		r /r/				
<b>Lateral</b>		l /l/				
<b>Nasal</b>	m /m/	n /n/		ŋ /ŋ/		
<b>Semivowel</b>	w /w/		y <j>			

**Table 2. Vowel phonemes**

	Front	Central	Back
<b>Close</b>	i /i/		o /o/
<b>Mid</b>		e /ə/	
<b>Open</b>		a /a/	

#### 2.1.1 Stops

/p/, /t/, and /k/ are the voiceless series. They are never realized as voiced phones. According to Edmondson et al. (2005), /ʔ/ is an epiglottal-pharyngeal stop with strong pharyngeal friction in word-final position and an epiglottal stop in other positions.

### 2.1.2 Fricatives, lateral fricatives, and affricates

/f/ is usually realized as [f], but [v] is often found, too. /s/ is never voiced. It is realized as [ɕ] when it precedes /i/, and as [s] in other positions. /h/ is realized basically as [h] or [χ] and occasionally as [ɦ] or [x]. /ʎ/ is realized either as a voiceless lateral fricative [ɬ] or voiced lateral fricative [ɮ]. /ts/ is an affricate phoneme realized as [tɕ] when it precedes [i], and as [ts] in other positions. Some consultants produce [dʒ] as its allophone, e.g., /tsaho/ [dʒaho(?)] ‘not yet.’

### 2.1.3 Rhotic, lateral, nasals, and semivowels

/r/ normally appears as a trill [r] with a little friction. In word-final position, it is usually voiceless. [n] and [ŋ] are palatalized when they precede /i/. /j/ and /w/ are the semivowels [j] and [w], respectively.

### 2.1.4 Vowels

/a/ is a vowel in the middle of [a] and [ɑ] in IPA, like /a/ in Standard German.

/i/ is a front unrounded vowel. It is realized as [i ~ ɪ ~ e], though [e] is very rare. The lower variants are likely to appear in the following conditions: (a) when the glottal or epiglottal phoneme (/ʔ/, /ʕ/, /h/) precedes and/or follows it or (b) when /r/ follows it. Higher variants, however, also appear in these conditions; there is no strict complementary distribution.

/o/ is realized as [u ~ ʊ ~ o], though [u] is rare. In this case, too, there is no strict complementary distribution. The rules and tendencies shown in (1) are observed regarding the realization of this phoneme:

- (1) a. /o/ => [ʊ] / f \_\_, s \_\_, \_\_m, \_\_j  
 b. /o/ => [o] / t \_\_, ʔ \_\_, ɬ \_\_, \_\_f, \_\_h, \_\_ɬ, \_\_r, \_\_ŋ

/ə/ is a schwa ([ə]). It appears only in word-medial position. This phoneme is often deleted when it is not stressed (e.g., /səpát/ [spát / səpát] ‘four’).

## 2.2 Syllable structure

The syllable structure in Amis is (C)(C)V(C). Roots and affixes have different structures.

### 2.2.1 Roots

Basically, roots are phonologically disyllabic and have the following syllable structure: / $(C)V(C)$ / and [ $(C)(C)V(C)$ ]. The consonant cluster of the phonetic syllable is caused by the deletion of /ə/; e.g., /sə.pat/ ‘four’ is phonologically / $CV.CVC$ /, and its realization [spat] has the syllable structure [ $CCVC$ ]. The list in (2) below shows the syllable structures of roots.

- (2) a. /ka.ka/ [ka.ka(ʔ)] ‘elder sibling’ (/ $CV.CV$ / [ $CV.CV(C)$ ])  
 b. /o.lah/ [(ʔ)o.lah] ‘to like, be pleased’ (/ $V.CVC$ / [ $(C)V.CVC$ ])  
 c. /ʔə.pah/ [ʔpah ~ ʔəpah] ‘alcoholic drink’ (/ $CV.CVC$ / [ $CCVC \sim CV.CVC$ ])  
 d. /nəŋ.nəŋ/ [nəŋ.nəŋ] ‘to watch’ (/ $CVC.CVC$ / [ $CVC.CVC$ ])

### 2.2.2 Affixes

Prefixes have the syllable structure / $(C)V$ / [ $(C)V$ ]. Suffixes and infixes have the syllable structure / $VC$ / [ $VC$ ]. See (3) for examples.

- (3) a. /mi-/ [mi-] ‘(Actor Voice)’ (CV)  
 b. /ta.la-/ [ta.la-] ‘(Movement)’ (CV.CV)  
 c. /a.no-/ [(ʔ)a.no-] ‘(Future temporality or conditional)’ ((C)V.CV)  
 d. /-ən/ [-ən] ‘(Undergoer voice)’ (VC)  
 e. /-om-/ [-om-] ‘(Middle voice)’ (VC)

### 2.2.3 Words

The syllables in words have the same structure as roots, i.e., / $(C)V(C)$ /, [ $(C)(C)V(C)$ ], as illustrated in (4).

- (4) /na.i.ʰi.po.ŋaj/ (nai-dipong=ay) / $CV.V.CV.CV.CVC$ /  
 [na.i.ʰi.po.ŋaj] ABL-Japan=NMLZ [CV.V.CV.CV.CVC]  
 ‘to be from Japan, to have come from Japan’

### 2.3 Phonological rules

A glide insertion occurs between hiatuses /ia/, /iu/, /ua/, and /ui/, e.g., /kia/ [kija] ‘perhaps,’ /tsoa/ [tsowa] ‘not.’ See (5) for the patterns of glide insertion.

## (5) Patterns of glide insertion

- a.  $\emptyset \Rightarrow [j]$  /  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} /i\_a/ \\ /i\_u/ \end{array} \right.$       b.  $\emptyset \Rightarrow [w]$  /  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} /u\_a/ \\ /u\_i/ \end{array} \right.$

Between the vowels in the hiatuses /aa/, /ii/, /uu/, /ai/, /au/, and /ae/, a glottal stop may optionally be inserted, e.g., /maan/ [ma(?)an] ‘what,’ /komaen/ [koma(?)ən] ‘to eat.’ In this paper, the inserted glides are represented in the orthography, but the optional glottal stop is not.

## 2.4 Prosody

Amis has stress accent. There are two patterns of stress assignment: the declarative pattern and interrogative pattern.

In the declarative pattern, the stress falls on the ultimate syllable of the word, as illustrated in (6). This is the unmarked stress assignment in Amis.

- (6) *mi-loklok-ay* [mi.lok.lo.'kaj]      (cf. [mi.lok.'lok])  
 AV-boil-NMLZ  
 ‘be boiling’

In the interrogative pattern, the stress falls on the penultimate syllable of a word, as shown in (7). In this case, the sentence expresses a question.

- (7) a. *maan* ['ma.(?)an]  
 what  
 ‘What?’  
 b. *O=singsi kiso ?* [o.ʃiŋ.ʃi.'ki.so]  
 PRED=teacher 2SG.NOM  
 ‘Are you a teacher?’

## 3. Descriptive preliminaries

## 3.1 Words, affixes, and clitics

The root itself can be used as a word. A variety of dependent morphemes (proclitics, prefixes, suffixes, and enclitics) optionally attach to a root.

(proclitic=)  $\underbrace{\text{(prefix-)} \text{root} \text{(-suffix)}}_{\text{Word}} \text{ (=enclitic)}$

A “word” is defined as a unit that includes a root and is phonologically independent (i.e., it has its own accent). It may consist of a root by itself or a root plus one or more affixes.

An “affix” is defined as a morpheme that fulfills the following conditions: (i) It attaches to a root, and (ii) it is phonologically dependent.

“Clitic” lies in between a “word” and an “affix.” There are some variations in this category. Some of them, such as the case markers, attach not only to a root, but also to a word or clause. Some clitics, such as enclitic pronouns, have their own accent, while others, such as proclitic case markers, do not.

### 3.2 Word classes

There are six word classes: nouns, verbs, verbal nouns, conjunctions, adverbs, and interjections. Words are classified according to a morphological criterion (attachment of a proclitic) and a syntactic criterion (the position in a clause). The category “adjective” need not to be recognized in the language.

#### 3.2.1 Nouns

We can classify nouns into “common nouns,” “personal nouns,” and “pronouns.”

##### 3.2.1.1 Common nouns

Common nouns are marked by proclitic case markers, such as *o=*, *ko=*, *to=*, etc. In (8), *maligaday*, *wawa*, and *tilifi* are common nouns.

- (8) a. *O=malingaday ko=wawa=ako.*  
 PRED=farmer      NOM=child=1SG.GEN  
 ‘My child is a farmer.’
- b. *Mi-nengneng to=tilifi.*  
 AV-watch      ACC=TV  
 ‘[I] am watching TV.’

### 3.2.1.2 Personal nouns

Personal nouns are proper nouns that designate a personal name. Cases of personal nouns are marked by affixes, as in (9).

- (9) a. ***Ci-kacaw***      *ko=singsi*.  
       PRED-Kacaw    NOM=teacher  
       ‘The teacher is Kacaw.’
- b. *Mi-seti*<sup>^</sup> *cingra*      ***ci-panay-an***.  
       AV-hit      3SG.NOM    ACC-Panay-ACC  
       ‘S/he hit Panay.’

### 3.2.1.3 Pronouns

Pronouns have their own case forms. See Section 8.3 for details.

### 3.2.2 Verbs

Verbs fill the predicate position without the predicative case marker. In (10), *mi-dangoy* is a verb.

- (10) ***Mi-dangoy***      *ko=wawa*.  
       AV-swim      NOM=child  
       ‘The child is **swimming**.’

### 3.2.3 Verbal nouns

The word class “verbal noun” lies, so to speak, in the middle of nouns and verbs. Like a verb, a verbal noun may fill the predicate position by itself; however, the predicate case marker *o=* may optionally attach to it. In (11), *ma-mi-tilid* is a verbal noun that is the result of Ca-reduplication of the word *mi-tilid* ‘to study.’ Ca-reduplication in this case shows that the sentence has future tense.

- (11) (*O=*)*ma-mi-tilid*      *kako*.  
       (PRED=)RDP-AV-learning    1SG.NOM  
       ‘I am going to study.’

Verbal nouns are different from gerunds, which are a subclass of noun that may take

its arguments. On the other hand, verbal nouns are a word class that is independent from both nouns and verbs and yet has the characteristics of both.

### 3.2.4 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that combine two words or clauses. There are two conjunctions in Amis: word conjunction *a* and clause conjunction *ta*. For the use of these conjunctions, see Section 9.

### 3.2.5 Adverbs

Adverbs are not marked with any proclitics. Unlike the words in other word classes, their position in a clause is free. Adverbs can be classified into time adverbs and modal adverbs by semantic criteria. *Inacila* ‘yesterday’ and *anini* ‘today, now’ are examples of time adverbs. *Kija* ‘maybe, perhaps’ is an example of a modal adverb.

### 3.2.6 Interjections

Interjections do not have any grammatical relation with other elements of the sentence and express exclamation, doubt, etc. The word *aya* ‘oh!’ is an example of an interjection.

## 4. Morphology

### 4.1 Overview (affixation, compounding, reduplication)

Amis has the following morphological processes: (a) prefixation (*mi-*, *ma-*, *na-*, etc.); (b) infixation (*-om-*, *-in-*); (c) suffixation (*-en*, *-ay*, *-aw*, etc.); (d) circumfixation (*ni-...-an*, *sa-...-an*, *sa-...-aw*); (e) Ca-reduplication (the first consonant is copied, followed by the vowel /a/, e.g., *potal* ‘yard’ => *pa-potal* ‘outside’); and (f) partial reduplication, which has two patterns depending on whether the first syllable of the root is open or closed (see Table 3).

**Table 3. Partial reduplication**

Partial reduplication	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(i) } \underline{\text{CV.CV(C)}} \Rightarrow \\ \underline{\text{CVCV-CVCV-(C)}} \\ \text{(ii) } \underline{\text{CVC.CV(C)}} \Rightarrow \\ \underline{\text{CVCCV-CCV-(C)}} \end{array} \right.$	(i) <i>dafak</i> ‘morning’ => <i>dafa-dafa-k</i> ‘every morning’
		(ii) <i>si<sup>^</sup>naw</i> ‘cold’=> <i>si<sup>^</sup>na-<sup>^</sup>na-w</i> ‘though it is cold’



## 4.2 Nominal morphology

The root by itself functions as a noun, e.g., *rakat* ‘walk (noun),’ *nanom* ‘water.’ Ca-reduplication may apply to some roots to form a noun, e.g., *loma*<sup>^</sup> ‘house’ => *la-loma*<sup>^</sup> ‘inside,’ and *potal* ‘yard’ => *pa-potal* ‘outside.’ Partial reduplication may apply to some roots to form a noun, in which case the noun expresses plurality, e.g., *tamdaw* ‘person/people’ => *tamda-mda-w* ‘many people.’

Pronouns have their own case forms (see Table 5 in Section 8.3). Besides pronouns, the following nouns have independent forms: (a) personal nouns, e.g., *kacaw* ‘Kacaw’ => *ci-kacaw* (NOM) and *ci-kacaw-an* (ACC); (b) kinship terms that refer to an elder kin of the speaker or addressee, e.g., *wina* ‘mother’ => *ci-wina* (NOM) and *ci-wina-an* (ACC); and (c) the noun *tao* ‘other person,’ which has an optional accusative form *tao-wanan* (ACC).

## 4.3 Verbal morphology

### 4.3.1 Roots

The root by itself functions as a word, either as a noun or verb. A majority of roots can only function as a noun, such as *fafahi* ‘wife’ in (12a). Some roots that designate a state can become either a noun or a verb, such as *nga*<sup>^</sup>*ay* ‘good’ in (12b) and (12c).

- (12) a. *O=fafahi ningra ko-ra tamdaw.*  
 PRED=wife 3SG.GEN NOM-that person  
 ‘That person is his wife.’
- b. *Nga*<sup>^</sup>*ay ko=faloco*<sup>^</sup> *no-ra tamdaw.*  
 good NOM=heart GEN-that person  
 ‘That person’s heart is good.’
- c. *O=pi-licay cingraan ko=nga*<sup>^</sup>*ay.* (Fey 1984)  
 PRED=GER-ask 3SG.ACC NOM=good  
 ‘Good [thing] is to ask him.’ (i.e., You should ask him.)

### 4.3.2 Stem formation

Stem formation in Amis is achieved by affixation. Only a few examples are attested because, in most cases, the root itself functions as a kind of “stem,” i.e., the basic unit of word formation.

One example of the stem-formation affixes is *ki-*. *Ki-* may attach to the root

<sup>^</sup>*ayaw* ‘front, before’ to form the stem *ki-<sup>^</sup>ayaw* ‘faster, earlier.’ The stem itself cannot be used as a word unless it undergoes one of the word-formation processes, which are discussed in Section 4.3.3. See (13) below.

- (13) a. *Mi-ki-<sup>^</sup>ayaw ko=tao takowanan a c<om>ikay.*  
 AV-KI-front NOM=other.person 1SG.ACC CONJN run<MV>  
 ‘The other person ran faster than me.’
- b. \**Ki-<sup>^</sup>ayaw ko=tao takowanan a c<om>ikay.*  
 KI-front NOM=other.person 1SG.ACC CONJN run<MV>

### 4.3.3 Word formation

The word formation process includes processes that might be called “derivation” and “inflection” in other languages; however, it is difficult to distinguish between “derivation” and “inflection” in Amis because the word formation process may apply to a root, stem, or word.

#### 4.3.3.1 Affixation

There are many affixes in Amis. Most of them are productive and very important in forming words. Some examples follow:

[1] **mi-**: *Mi-* is a denominal verbalizing prefix that usually attaches to a root and forms an actor voice verb, e.g., *patay* ‘death’ => *mi-patay* ‘to kill,’ *sanga<sup>^</sup>* ‘creation’ => *mi-sanga<sup>^</sup>* ‘to create,’ *simaw* ‘guard’ => *mi-simaw* ‘to guard,’ *maan* ‘what’ => *mi-maan* ‘do what?’

[2] **ma-**: *Ma-* is a denominal verbalizing prefix that usually attaches to a root and forms an undergoer voice, e.g., *patay* ‘death’ => *ma-patay* ‘dead, be killed,’ *sanga<sup>^</sup>* ‘creation’ => *ma-sanga<sup>^</sup>* ‘be created,’ *tefad* ‘drop, fall’ => *ma-tefad* ‘to drop, to fall.’

[3] **pi-/ka-**: *Pi-* and *ka-* are gerundive prefixes that form a gerund from a root. *Pi-* forms an actor gerund, and *ka-* forms an undergoer gerund, e.g., *patay* ‘death’ => *pi-patay* ‘killing’ / *ka-patay* ‘being killed.’

[4] **-en**: *-En* is a denominal verbalizing suffix that attaches to a root and forms an undergoer voice, e.g., *patay* ‘death’ => *patay-en* ‘was killed, will be killed, be killed! (imperative).’

[5] **pa-**: *Pa-* is a denominal verbalizing prefix that attaches to either a root or gerund. It is a causative prefix, e.g., *talaw* ‘fear’ => *pa-talaw* ‘to make [someone]

afraid,' *ka-talaw* 'being afraid' (gerund) => *pa-ka-talaw* 'to make [someone] afraid.'

[6] **sa-**: *Sa-* attaches to a root or a gerund. When it attaches to a root, it expresses the superlative, e.g., *^ayaw* 'front' => *sa-^ayaw* 'the very beginning.' When *sa-* attaches to a gerund, it forms the instrumental voice, e.g., *tangtang* 'boil' => *pi-tangtang* 'boiling' (gerund) => *sa-pi-tagtag* 'an instrument that is used to boil [something].'

[7] **-an**: *-An* attaches to a gerund and forms the location voice, e.g., *foti^* 'sleep' => *ka-foti^* 'sleeping' (gerund) => *ka-foti^-an* 'a place where [someone] sleeps.'

[8] **na-**: *Na-* attaches to a verb and forms a past form, e.g., *mi-patay* 'to kill' => *na-mi-patay* 'killed.'

[9] **a-**: *A-* attaches to a verb and forms an immediate future form, e.g., *kaen* 'food' => *k<om>aen* 'to eat' (verb) => *a-k<um>aen* 'will eat (soon).'

#### 4.3.3.2 Reduplication

In the verbal morphology, there are two types of reduplication: Ca-reduplication and partial reduplication.

[1] Ca-reduplication: Ca-reduplication may be applied to a verb to create the future or obligation form. When applied to a *mi-* or *ma-* verb, it creates the future form, e.g., *mi-patay* 'to kill' => *ma-mi-patay* 'will kill,' *ma-patay* 'to die' => *ma-ma-patay* 'will die.' When applied to an *-en* verb, it expresses obligation, e.g., *kilim* 'search' => *kilim-en* 'be looked for' => *ka-kilim-en* 'must be looked for.'

[2] Partial reduplication: Partial reduplication may apply to a verb and expresses concession, e.g., *rarom* 'sadness' => *ma-rarom* 'sad' (verb) => *ma-raro<raro>m* 'though [someone] is sad.'

## 5. Syntactic structure

### 5.1 Basic clause structure and word order

Amis is a predicate-initial language. In the unmarked word order, the predicate, whether nominal or verbal, fills the first position of a clause, as demonstrated in (14).

- (14) a. **O=singsi**      *kako*.  
 PRED=teacher 1SG.NOM  
 'I am a teacher.'

- b. *Ma-patay=to=ako ko=dadipis.*  
 UV-death=PFV=1SG.GEN NOM=cockroach  
 ‘The cockroach **has** already **been killed** by me.’

## 5.2 The noun phrase

With the common noun, the noun phrase consists of a proclitic case marker and a noun, e.g., *ko=impic* (NOM=pencil) ‘the pencil (NOM)’ in (15c)). Pronouns and personal nouns are not modified by a proclitic case marker; instead, they have their own case forms, e.g., *kako* ‘I’ in (15a) below. Pronominal genitive enclitics may attach to a noun to express possessor (as in *ko=loma^=ako* (NOM=house=1SG.GEN) ‘my house (NOM)’ in (15b) below).

## 5.3 The predicate phrase

The predicate can be divided into two categories: nominal (e.g., (15a) and (15b)) and verbal (e.g., (15c)). Aspect enclitics =*to* (PFV) or =*ho* (IPFV) and/or the pronominal genitive enclitic, which express the actor of an undergoer voice, may attach to a predicate.

- (15) a. *O=singsi kako.*  
 PRED=teacher 1SG.NOM  
 ‘I am a teacher.’
- b. *I=taiwang ko=loma^=ako.*  
 LOC=Taiwan NOM=house=1SG.GEN  
 ‘My house is in Taiwan.’
- c. *Ma-tefad=to=ako ko=impic.*  
 UV-drop=PFV=1SG.GEN NOM=pencil  
 ‘The pencil has been dropped by me.’ (i.e., I dropped the pencil.)

## 6. The adjective class

In the analysis of Amis, we do not have to recognize the adjective class. The state that is expressed by adjectives in other languages is expressed by stative verbs in this language.

## 7. Grammatical relations (subject and object)

In Amis, the target of relativization and quantifier modification is the nominative phrase. In the relative clause, the nominative phrase is the only candidate that can be the head noun.

- (16) a. *Mi-nanom ko=tamdaw to=ocya.*  
 AV-water NOM=person ACC=tea  
 ‘The person is drinking tea.’
- b. {*mi-nanom-ay to=ocya*} *a tamdaw*  
 AV-water-NMLZ ACC-tea CONJN person  
 ‘the person who is drinking tea’
- c. \*{*mi-nanom-ay ko=tamdaw*} *a ocya*  
 AV-water-NMLZ NOM=person CONJN tea

Quantifiers that fill the predicate position refer to the nominative phrase only. In (17a) and (17b), *^aloman* ‘many’ refers to the nominative phrase. (17b) does not mean ‘I killed many cockroaches.’

- (17) a. *^Aloman ma-patay=ako ko=dadipis.*  
 many UV-death=1SG.GEN NOM=cockroach  
 ‘Many cockroaches have been killed by me.’
- b. \**^Aloman mi-patay kako to=dadipis.*  
 many AV-death 1SG.NOM ACC=cockroach  
 (lit. ‘Many I killed the cockroach.’)

Other than relativization and quantifier modification, there is no strong motivation for recognizing grammatical relation in Amis.

## 8. Functional categories

### 8.1 Interrogatives

Interrogative sentences are marked by the interrogative accent pattern, in which the penultimate syllable is stressed (see Section 2.4). In yes-no questions, the penultimate syllable of the last word of the sentence is stressed, as in (18a); in content questions, the penultimate syllable of the question word (e.g., *cima* ‘who’) is

stressed, and the last word of the sentence has the declarative stress pattern (i.e., the ultimate syllable is stressed), as in (18b). The question word fills the predicate position.

- (18) a. *O=mitilidáj=hó kʷso?*  
 PRED=student=IPFV 2SG.NOM  
 ‘Are you still a student?’
- b. *Címa ko-ra wawá?*  
 who NOM-that child  
 ‘Who is that child?’

## 8.2 Imperative

Imperative modality is often expressed via verbal morphology. Two forms typically express the imperative modality: (a) the gerundive/imperative form *pi-/ka-* and (b) the undergoer voice *-en*. In addition, the actor voice *mi-* may also express imperative modality.

In the case of (a), *pi-* is used when the verb expresses an active event (19a), and *ka-* is used when the verb denotes a state or passive event (19b).

- (19) a. *Pi-patay to=dadipis !* (cf. *mi-patay* ‘to kill’)  
 GER-death ACC=cockroach  
 ‘Kill the cockroach!’
- b. *Ka-patay!* (cf. *ma-patay* ‘to die’)  
 GER-death  
 ‘Die!’

In the case of (b), the suffix *-en* attaches to a stem, and the verb is in the undergoer voice. When the actor is the second person, it is often an imperative, as in (20).

- (20) *Patay-en(=iso) ko=dadipis.*  
 death-UV(=2SG.GEN) NOM=cockroach  
 ‘Kill the cockroach!’ (lit. ‘The cockroach (should) be killed by you!’)

The actor voice *mi-* may also be imperative.

- (21) *Mi-nginguy=to!*  
 AV-bathe.oneself=PFV  
 ‘Bathe yourself!’

The enclitic *=to* emphasizes the imperative modality in (21).

### 8.3 Equation, proper inclusion, location, and possession

In order to express equation or proper inclusion, the predicate noun is marked by the predicative case, and the topic is marked by the nominative case, as shown in (22).

- (22) a. *O=mama=ningra cingra.*  
 PRED=father=3SG.GEN 3SG.NOM  
 ‘He is his father.’  
 b. *O=singsi cingra.*  
 PRED=teacher 3SG.NOM  
 ‘He is a teacher.’

The locational clause is expressed by the predicate locative; the predicate noun is marked with the locative case marker *i=*, as in (23).

- (23) *I=taypak ko=wawa=ako.*  
 LOC-Taipei NOM=child=1SG.GEN  
 ‘My child is in Taipei.’

Existential and possessive are expressed by the existential verb *ira* ‘there is, exist’ (24a) or its negative counterpart *awa* ‘there is no, not exist’ (24b).

- (24) a. *Ira ko=^aloman-ay a tamdaw i=taypak.*  
 EXST NOM=many-NMLZ CONJN person LOC=Taipei  
 ‘There are a lot of people in Taipei.’  
 b. *Awa=ho ko=wawa=ako.*  
 NEG.EXST=IPFV NOM=child=1SG.GEN  
 ‘I (still) have no child.’ (lit. ‘There is no my child yet.’)

## 8.4 Case

Common nouns have six cases: predicative, nominative, genitive, accusative, locative, and ablative. Personal nouns have five cases; the predicative and nominative have the same form. These are listed in Table 4.

**Table 4. Case markers of common/personal nouns**

	PRED	NOM	GEN	ACC	LOC	ABL
Common	<i>o=</i>	<i>ko=</i>	<i>no=</i>	<i>to=</i>		
Personal	SG	<i>ci-</i>	<i>ni-</i>	<i>ci-...-an</i>	<i>i=</i>	{ <i>nai=</i> <i>nani=</i> <i>nano=</i>
	PL	<i>ca-</i>	<i>na-</i>	<i>ca-...-an</i>		

Pronouns have the following case forms: predicative/nominative, accusative, possessive, genitive, locative, and ablative. The locative and ablative are expressed via proclitics (*i=*, *nai=*, etc.). The interrogative personal pronoun *cima* ‘who’ has three forms: predicative/nominative, accusative, and genitive. Tables 5 and 6 list the personal pronouns.

**Table 5. Pronouns and pronominal clitics in Amis**

		PRED/NOM	ACC	POSS	GEN
SG	1	<i>Kako</i>	<i>kakonan, kakowanan,</i> <i>takonan, takowanan</i>	<i>mako</i>	<i>=ako</i>
	2	<i>Kiso</i>	<i>kisonan, kisowanan,</i> <i>tisonan, tisowanan</i>	<i>miso</i>	<i>=iso</i>
	3	<i>cingra, cira</i>	<i>cingraan, cingranan,</i> <i>ciraan, ciranan</i>	<i>nira,</i> <i>ningra</i>	<i>nira,</i> <i>ningra</i>
PL	1+2 (INCL)	<i>Kita</i>	<i>kitanan, kitaanan,</i> <i>titanan, titaanan</i>	<i>mita</i>	<i>=ita</i>
	1+3 (EXCL)	<i>kami</i>	<i>kaminan, kamiyanan,</i> <i>taminan, tamiyanan</i>	<i>niyam</i>	<i>niyam</i>
	2	<i>kamo</i>	<i>kamonan, kamowanan,</i> <i>tamonan, tamowanan</i>	<i>namo</i>	<i>namo</i>
	3	<i>cangra</i>	<i>cangraan, cangranan</i>	<i>nangra</i>	<i>nangra</i>



**Table 6. Interrogative personal pronoun**

PRED/NOM	ACC	GEN
<i>cima</i>	<i>cimanan, cimaanan</i>	<i>nima</i>

## 8.4.1 Predicative and nominative

The predicative case is the case that marks the predicate noun. The nominative case marks the topic, theme, or old information of a sentence, such as in (25).

- (25) a. *O=mi-tilid-ay=ho*                      *ci-panay.*  
 PRED=AV-learning-NMLZ=IPFV    NOM-Panay  
 ‘Panay is still a student.’ (*mi-tilid-ay* ‘student’)
- b. *Ci-fayan*      *cingra.*  
 PRED-Fayan    3SG.NOM  
 ‘She is Fayan.’
- c. *Kako*      *ko=singsi.*  
 1SG.PRED    NOM-teacher  
 ‘The teacher is me.’

## 8.4.2 Genitive and possessive

## 8.4.2.1 Genitive of common/personal noun

The genitive expresses the following: (a) possessor and its related meanings and (b) actor and experiencer in undergoer voices. These are illustrated in (26).

- (26) a. *payci*      ***no=tamdaw***  
 money    GEN=person  
 ‘money **of the person**’ (Possessor)
- b. *waay*      ***no=^efa***  
 leg      GEN=horse  
 ‘the leg **of the horse**’ (Whole)
- c. *Ma-patay*      ***no=wawa***      *ko=dadipis.*  
 UV=death    GEN=child    NOM=cockroach  
 ‘The cockroach has been killed **by the child**.’ (Actor)

## 8.4.2.2 Genitive and possessive of pronouns

Genitive and possessive pronouns are expressed through independent case forms (see Table 5 in Section 8.3). 1SG, 2SG, and 1PLI pronouns have a distinction between genitive and possessive forms; other pronouns have no such distinction. Roughly speaking, the possessive forms of the former type are rather independent words that behave like common nouns and mainly express possession by itself (e.g., ‘mine,’ ‘yours’). The genitive of the former type are dependent enclitics, which are solely used to modify another word (e.g., ‘my,’ ‘your’). The possessive/genitive of the latter type, such as *ningra* (3SG.GEN), has both characteristics and can either be an independent word or a dependent enclitic.

## 8.4.3 Accusative

The accusative case expresses semantic roles such as patient/theme, recipient, location, company (‘with’), time, degree, instrument, and purpose (see (27) for selected examples). The semantic role of the case is dependent on the verb.

- (27) a. *K<om>aen*    *kako*    ***to=^epah.***    (Patient)  
 food<MV>    1SG.NOM    ACC=alcohol  
 ‘I drink alcoholic drink.’
- b. *R<om>akat*    *cingra*    ***to=lalan.***    (Location)  
 walk<MV>    3SG.NOM    ACC=road  
 ‘He is walking along the road.’
- c. *Ma-tayal*    *kako*    ***to=dadaya.***    (Time)  
 UV-work    1SG.NOM    ACC=night  
 ‘I work at night.’
- d. *Sanga^en*    *no=kawas*    ***to=sera***    *ko=tamdaw.*    (Instrument)  
 create-UV    GEN=god    ACC=earth    NOM=human  
 ‘The human was created by the God with earth.’

The accusative marker expresses only patient/theme when it marks a personal noun, as in (28a). Pronouns have their own accusative forms. The pronominal accusative forms also express patient/theme only, as in (28b).

- (28) a. *Mi-tenok kiso ci-kacaw-an.*  
 AV-kick 2SG.NOM ACC-Kacaw-ACC  
 ‘You kicked Kacaw.’
- b. *Mi-tenok kiso takowanan.*  
 AV-kick 2SG.NOM 1SG.ACC  
 ‘You kicked me.’

#### 8.4.4 Locative

The case marker *i=* is used for all types of nouns. When the proclitic marks a common or personal noun, the case designates location, goal, or recipient. When the personal noun follows *i=*, the noun is marked with the accusative form. See (29).

- (29) a. *Ma-kero-ay cingra i=lalan.* (Location)  
 UV-dance-NMLZ 3SG.NOM LOC=road  
 ‘He is dancing on the road.’
- b. *Tayra kako i=dipong.* (Direction)  
 go 1SG.NOM LOC=Japan  
 ‘I go to Japan.’
- c. *Ma-pacaliw=ako i=taow-anan ko=takota.* (Recipient)  
 UV-lend=1SG.GEN LOC=other.person-ACC NOM=cell.phone  
 ‘The cell phone has been lent to another person by me.’  
 (i.e., I have lent the cell phone to another person.)
- d. *Mi-lafin kako i=ca-panay-an.* (Location)  
 AV-stay 1SG.NOM LOC=ACC.PL-Panay-ACC  
 ‘I sleep at Panay[’s home].’

The locative case of a pronoun expresses ‘patient/theme,’ not ‘location’ or ‘direction.’ The pronoun is marked with accusative.

- (30) *Mi-tenok kiso i=takowanan.* (cf. (28b))  
 AV-kick 2SG.NOM LOC=1SG.ACC  
 ‘You kicked me.’

#### 8.4.5 Ablative

The ablative case markers designate the source of either place or time. There are three ablative forms: *nai=*, *nani=*, and *nanu=*. The first two express location, and the last expresses time. Examples are shown in (31).

- (31) a. *Ma-sadak kiso nai= / nani= loma^*.  
 UV-come.out 2SG.NOM ABL=/ABL= house  
 ‘You came from the house.’
- b. *Nano=dafak ko=tayal=ako*.  
 ABL=morning NOM=work=1SG.GEN  
 lit. ‘My work is from morning.’ (i.e., I have been working since morning.)

If one of the ablative case markers precedes a personal noun, the noun is marked with the accusative, just as in the case of the locative marker. The noun phrase expresses the source.

- (32) *Nai=ca-panay-an kako*.  
 ABL=ACC.PL-Panay-ACC 1SG.NOM  
 ‘I [came] from Panay[’s home].’

#### 8.5 Noun class (gender)

There is no noun class in Amis.

#### 8.6 Number

Number as a grammatical category does not exist in Amis. One form can designate both a singular and multiple references, e.g., *maligaday* ‘farmer/farmers.’ Partial reduplication (see Section 4.1) may optionally be applied to a noun to express plurality, e.g., *tamdaw* ‘person/people’ => *tamda-mda-w* ‘many people.’

#### 8.7 Valency changing

##### 8.7.1 Causative

The prefix *pa-* expresses causative. When it attaches to a root directly, it expresses a direct causative; when it attaches to a gerund (prefixed with *pi-* or *ka-*), the resulting verb expresses an indirect causative. The causative form of a verb may further

undergo a voice assignment, as in (33d).

- (33) a. *Ma-talaw kako.*  
 UV-afraid 1SG.NOM  
 ‘I am afraid.’
- b. *Pa-talaw cingra to=wawa.*  
 CAUS-afraid 3SG.NOM ACC=child  
 ‘He frightened a/the child’. (Direct causative)
- c. *Pa-ka-talaw cingra to=wawa.*  
 CAUS-GER-afraid 3SG.NOM ACC=child  
 ‘He made a/the child scared.’ (Indirect causative)
- d. *Pa-talaw-en=ako ko=wawa.*  
 CAUS-afraid-UV=1SG.GEN NOM=child  
 ‘The child is going to be frightened by me.’  
 (i.e., I am going to frighten the child.)

### 8.7.2 Voice

Voice in Amis belongs to the Philippine-type voice, in which the verb (or the verbal noun) expresses a variety of semantic roles of the nominative noun, e.g., actor, undergoer, instrument, or location. Voices in Amis can be divided into the following categories: actor voice, undergoer voice, middle voice, instrumental voice, and location voice. In each of them, the nominative phrase has the semantic role that corresponds to the voice of the verb, e.g., an actor voice takes an actor as nominative. Some voices have their own aspectual, temporal, and modal meanings by default. Some affixes derive a verbal noun.

**Table 7. Examples of voice in Amis**

Voice	Affix	Aspectual	Temporal	Modal	Word class	Valency
Actor	<i>mi-</i>	Unspecified	Unspecified	Unspecified	v	1 or 2
	<i>sa-...-an</i>	Unspecified	Future	Volition	VN	1 or 2
Undergoer	<i>ma-</i>	Perfect/stative	Unspecified	DECL/INT	v	0 to 2
	<i>-en</i>	Perfective	Future/past	DECL/IMP	v	2
	<i>mi-...-an</i>	Perfective	Past	DECL/INT	VN	2
	<i>sa-...-aw</i>	Unspecified	Future	Volition	VN	2
Middle	<i>-um-</i>	Unspecified	Unspecified	DECL/INT	v	1
Instrument	<i>sa-</i>	N/A	N/A	N/A	VN	N/A
Location	<i>-an</i>	N/A	N/A	N/A	VN	N/A

### 8.7.2.1 Actor voice

In the actor voice, the semantic role of the nominative is an actor. The affixes *mi-* and *sa-...-an* are examples of affixes that express the actor voice. *Mi-* is unspecified regarding the temporal, aspectual, and modal meaning. *Sa-...-an* attaches to a gerund (*pi-/ka-*) and expresses volition. Examples are shown in (34) below.

- (34) a. ***Mi-licay*** *kako* *tisowanan.*  
 AV-ask 1SG.NOM 2SG.ACC  
 ‘I ask you.’ (Let me ask you.)
- b. (O=)***sa-pi-nanom-an*** *kako* *to=ocya.*  
 (PRED=)AV-GER-water-AV 1SG.NOM ACC-tea  
 ‘I want to drink tea.’

### 8.7.2.2 Undergoer voice

The undergoer voice *ma-* covers a wide range of meanings from stative to transitive. The nominative phrase is an experiencer or an undergoer. It can also describe a routine (*ma-lafi* (UV-dinner) ‘eat dinner’), climate (*ma-fali* (UV-wind) ‘wind blows’) or motion (*ma-<sup>^</sup>efer* (UV-fly) ‘to fly’). *-En* (volition) and *ni-...-an* (simple past) are basically used in transitive clauses and take the undergoer nominative. *Sa-...-aw*

attaches to a gerund and is volitative just like its actor voice counterpart *sa-...-an* (see Section 8.6.2.1); however, it takes no nominative. See (35) for examples.

- (35) a. **Ma-lasang** *kako*.  
 UV-drunk 1SG.NOM  
 ‘I am drunk.’
- b. **Ma-tefad** *ko=impic*.  
 UV-drop NOM=pencil  
 ‘The pencil dropped.’
- c. **Ma-patay=ako** *ko=dadipis*.  
 UV-death=1SG.GEN NOM=cockroach  
 ‘The cockroach has been killed by me.’
- d. **Patay-en=ako** *ko=dadipis*.  
 death-UV=1SG.GEN NOM=cockroach  
 ‘The cockroach is going to be killed by me.’  
 (i.e., ‘I am going to kill the cockroach.’)
- e. (O=)**mi-patay-an=ako** *ko=dadipis*.  
 (PRED=)UV-death-UV=1SG.GEN NOM=cockroach  
 ‘The cockroach was killed by me.’
- f. (O=)**sa-pi-nanom-aw=ako** *to=ocya*.  
 (PRED=)UV-GER-water-UV=1SG.GEN ACC=tea  
 ‘I want to drink tea.’

### 8.7.2.3 Middle voice

There are a dozen roots that can take the middle voice infix *-um-* (see (36)). The middle voice in Amis designates an affected agent.

- (36) *R<om>akat cingra i=lalan*.  
 walk<MV> 3SG.NOM LOC=road  
 ‘He is walking along the road.’

### 8.7.2.4 Instrumental and location voice

Both the instrumental and location voices are formed by attaching an affix to a gerund. The prefix *sa-* attaches to a gerund to form the instrumental voice (see (37a)).

The instrumental voice takes a nominative that is an ‘instrument’ or ‘reason.’ The suffix *-an* attaches to a gerund to form the location voice (see (37b)). The nominative of the location voice is a location or time.

- (37) a. (O=)*sa-pi-tangtang=ako*      *to=pingingoyan*      *ko-na*      *kasoy*.  
 (PRED)=IV-GER-boil=1SG.GEN    ACC=bath                    NOM-this    wood  
 ‘This wood is the instrument with which I boil the bathwater.’
- b. (O=)*ka-foti^-an=ako*                    *ko-ra*                    *loma^*.  
 (PRED=)GER-sleep-LV=1SG.GEN    NOM-that    house  
 ‘That house is the place where I sleep.’

### 8.8 Negation

Negation is expressed by independent words. There are three variations: (a) general negation *ca*, (b) negative existential *awa*, and (c) prohibitive *aka*, each illustrated in (38). *Ca* and *aka* precede a gerund.

- (38) a. *Ca*      *ka-roray*      *kako*.                    (cf. *ma-ruray* ‘tired’)  
 NEG    GER-tired      1SG.NOM  
 ‘I am not tired.’
- b. *Awa*      *ko=nanom*.  
 NEG.EXST    NOM=water  
 ‘There is no water.’
- c. *Aka*      *ka-k<om>aen*      *to=^epah*.  
 PROH    GER-food<MV>    ACC=alcohol  
 ‘Do not drink alcoholic drink.’

### 8.9 Tense, aspect, mood

The voices in Amis have their own temporal, aspectual, and modal properties (see Section 8.6.2). In addition, there are two enclitics that indicate perfective/imperfective aspectual properties, and they modify the temporal, aspectual, and modal properties of the voices.

The enclitics *=to* and *=ito* indicate perfective aspect. They sometimes have the more concrete meaning ‘already’ (39a). The enclitics *=ho* and *=iho* express imperfective aspect; they sometimes have the meaning ‘still’ (39b).



- (39) a. *Mi-ngingoy=to*            *kako.*  
 AV-bathe.oneself=PFV    1SG.NOM  
 ‘I will bathe myself. / I (already) bathed myself.’
- b. *Mi-ngingoy=ho*            *kako.*  
 AV-bathe.oneself=IPFV    1SG.NOM  
 ‘I am (still) bathing myself.’

### 8.10 Information structure

Old information is typically expressed by the nominative phrase. The new information lies basically in the predicate position. See (40) for examples.

- (40) a. *O=singsi*            *ci-kacaw.*  
 PRED=teacher    NOM-Kacaw  
 ‘Kacaw [OLD] is a teacher [NEW].’
- b. *Ci-kacaw*            *ko=singsi.*  
 PRED-Kacaw    NOM=teacher  
 ‘The teacher [OLD] is Kacaw [NEW].’

In order to contrast one element, it is possible to put the element in the position preceding the predicate (secondary topicalization). The preposed element is marked with predicative and is the focus of the clause. In (41b), the noun phrase *o=dadipis* ‘the cockroach’ precedes the predicate *ma-patay* ‘have been killed’ and is the focus of the clause.

- (41) a. *Ma-patay=ako*            *ko=dadipis.*  
 UV-death=1SG.GEN    NOM=cockroach  
 ‘The cockroach [TOPIC] has been killed by me.’
- b. *O=dadipis*            *ma-patay=ako.*  
 PRED=cockroach    UV-death=1SG.GEN  
 ‘The cockroach [FOCUS], it has been killed by me.’

## 9. Clause combining

### 9.1 Overview of clause combining

Clause combining in Amis can be classified into three categories: nominal clause

linking, verbal clause linking, and the manner/quotation construction. In this section, curly brackets { } are used to indicate a clause.

### 9.2 Nominal clause linking (apposition and relative clause)

Nominal clause linking is expressed by the conjunction *a* and indicates a nominal apposition, as in (42a), or a relative clause, as in (42b). In order to relativize a clause, the verb must be nominalized by the suffix *-ay*. In the nominal clause linking, the conjunction *a* cannot be omitted.

- (42) a. *tapang a kawas*  
 leader CONJN god  
 ‘God, the leader (God as the leader)’
- b. {*ma-<sup>^</sup>efer-ay i=kakarayan*} *a* <sup>^</sup>*ayam*  
 UV-fly-NMLZ LOC=sky CONJN bird  
 ‘bird which is flying in the sky’

### 9.3 Verbal clause linking

Verbal clause linking is classified according to the following criteria: (a) whether the conjunction *a* may be used, (b) the existence of the conjunction *ta*, (c) whether “object raising” or “raising to object” may occur, and (d) whether the word order may be changed freely. Unlike in nominal clause linking, the conjunction *a* may be omitted in verbal clause linking. The parentheses ( ) show that the conjunction can be omitted. Table 8 summarizes the characteristics of verbal clause linking.

**Table 8. Verbal clause linking**

	Conjunction <i>a</i>	Conjunction <i>ta</i>	Object raising	Free word order
SVC	+	–	–	+
Subordination	+	–	+	–
Adverbial 1	+	–	–	–
Adverbial 2	–	–	–	–
Coordination	–	+	–	–

#### 9.3.1 Serial verb construction

In the serial verb construction, such as in (43), the conjunction *a* can be used.

- (43) a. **Ma-harek=to**    *cira*    (a)    **mi-nengneng**    *to=ohong*.  
 UV-finish=PFV    3SG.NOM    CONJN    AV-watch    ACC=book  
 ‘He finished reading the book.’
- b. **Fahal**    *cingra*    (a)    **ma-keter**.  
 suddenly 3SG.NOM    CONJN    UV-angry  
 ‘Suddenly, he got angry.’

### 9.3.2 Subordination

In subordination, the nominative phrase of the subordinated clause may be raised to be an argument of the main clause, as demonstrated in (44).

- (44) a. **Ma-<sup>^</sup>araw=ako**    *i=lalan*    (a)    {**mi-kalat**    **ko=waco**    *to=posi*}.  
 UV-see=1SG.GEN    LOC=road    CONJN    AV-bite    NOM=dog    ACC=cat
- b. **Ma-<sup>^</sup>araw=ako**    *i=lalan*    **ko=waco**    (a)    {**mi-kalat**    *to=posi*}.  
 UV-see=1SG.GEN    LOC=road    NOM=dog    CONJN    AV-bite    ACC=cat  
 ‘On the street I saw the dog bite a cat.’

### 9.3.3 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses can be divided into two categories: (a) simultaneity and purpose ((45a) and (45b)) and (b) condition, time, concession, and reason ((45c) to (45f)). The first type may make use of the conjunction *a*, while the second type may not. In the second type, there are optional ways (verbal morphology or conjunction-like words) to indicate the specific meaning of the adverbial clause. The reduplication in (45e) expresses concession. The curly brackets { } shows that the clause structure is fixed and the word order cannot be changed freely beyond that clause structure. (\**A*) means that the conjunction *a* cannot be used.

- (45) a. {**Mi-nengneng**    *cingra*    *to=tilifi*} (a)    {**k<om>aen**    *to=<sup>^</sup>epah*}.  
 AV-watch    3SG.NOM    ACC=TV    CONJN    food<MV>  
 ACC=alcohol  
 ‘Watching TV, he was drinking alcoholic drink.’
- b. {**Mi-nokay**    *kako*}    (a)    {**ma-lahok**}.  
 AV-return    1SG.NOM    CONJN    UV-lunch  
 ‘I will return in order to eat lunch.’

- c. {(**Ano-**)*ma-^orad anodafak*} (\*a) {*i=loma^ kako*}.  
 if-UV-rain tomorrow CONJN LOC=house 1SG.NOM  
 ‘If it rains tomorrow, I will stay at home.’
- d. {(**Yo-**)*ka^mag=ho kako*} (\*a) {*awa ko=cokap*}.  
 when-young=IPFV 1SG.NOM CONJN NEG.EXST NOM=shoes  
 ‘When I was young, there were no shoes.’
- e. {*Ma-raro(<raro>m kako*} (\*a) {*ma-tawa kako*}.  
 UV-sad<RDP> 1SG.NOM CONJN UV-laugh 1SG.NOM  
 ‘Though I am/was very sad, I laugh/laughed.’
- f. {*Nga^ay ko=romi^ad anini*} (**saka**) {*r<om>owad kita*}.  
 good NOM=day today therefore go.out<MV> 1PL.INCL.NOM  
 ‘Because it is sunny today, let’s go out.’  
 (lit. ‘The day is good today, (so) we go out.’)

#### 9.3.4 Coordination

Coordination expresses two sequential events that have no temporal overlap. In this case, the conjunction *ta* combines two clauses, as seen in (46).

- (46) {*Ma-foti^ ko=wawa*} **ta** {*mi-salama kita*}.  
 UV-sleep NOM=child CONJN AV-play 1PL.INCL.NOM  
 ‘The child sleeps, and then we play.’  
 (i.e., ‘Let’s go out and play after the child falls asleep.’)

#### 9.4 Manner/quotation construction

The manner/quotation construction is formed by the enclitics =*sa*, =*han*, or their variants. They attach to a root, phrase, or clause, and the attached part expresses manner (or attended circumstance), quotation, or contrast in discourse. Wu (2005) calls the construction with =*sa* “the ideophone forming construction,” but it seems the use of =*sa* is not restricted to ideophone forming; hence, we call it “the manner/quotation construction.”

##### 9.4.1 =*Sa* and its variants

[1] =*Sa*

=*Sa* expresses manner or attended circumstance. It attaches to a root, as in (47a), or a clause, as in (47b) and (47c).

- (47) a. *Rakat=sa tayra i=pitilidan.*  
 walk=SA go LOC=school  
 ‘[I] walked to school.’ (lit. ‘[I] go walk to school.’)
- b. {*Ma-kalat no=waco*} =*sa ma-talaw kako to=waco.*  
 UV-bite GEN=dog =SA UV-afraid 1SG.NOM ACC=dog  
 ‘Bitten by the dog, I am afraid of it.’
- c. {*Mi-^aca kako to=sapaiyo*} =*sa taira kako i=posong.*  
 AV-buy 1SG.NOM ACC=medicine =SA go 1SG.NOM LOC=Posong  
 ‘I’m going to Posong to buy medicine.’

[2] =*Saan*, =*sanay*, =*sakira*

=*Saan* (=san), =*sanay*, and =*sakira* are the quotation markers in Amis. They can also function as the hear-say evidential marker, as in (48b).

- (48) a. {*Tayra kako i=taypak anodafak*} =*saan/=sakira cingra.*  
 go 1SG.NOM LOC=Taipei tomorrow =SAAN/=SAKIRA 3SG.NOM  
 ‘“I will go to Taipei tomorrow,” he said.’
- b. {*Ma-^orad anudafak*} =*saan/=sanay.*  
 UV-rain tomorrow =SAAN/=SANAY  
 ‘[It is] said that it will rain tomorrow.’

[3] =*Sato*

The enclitic =*sato* has two uses: the manner marker and contrast/topic marker. First, =*sato* expresses a manner or a circumstance, as in (49).

- (49) *Lasa<lasa>ng=sato ma-lasang=to ma-^emin ko=tamdaw.*  
 drunk<RDP>=SATO UV-drunk=PFV UV-all NOM=people  
 ‘People are all drunk.’

Second, =*sato* can be used as a contrast/topic marker that can be translated as

‘as for ...’ in English. The sentences in (50) are an excerpt from a discourse that describes a person (*kafo^ok*) who is fighting the soldiers of the Chinese army (*koaping*).

- (50) *Ca ka-tama no=koaping ko-ra ci-kafo^ok.*  
 NEG GER-hit GEN-Chinese.army NOM-that NOM-Kafo^ok  
 ‘[The shot of] the Chinese army did not hit (that) Kafo^ok.’  
*O-ra ci-kafo^ok=sato c<om>ikay=to mi-toor.*  
 PRED-that NOM-Kafo^ok=SATO run<MV>=PFV AV-follow  
 ‘As for (that) Kafu^uk, he ran [and] followed [the army].’

#### 9.4.2 =Han

=*Han* is a manner/quotation marker similar to =*sa*. The main differences between =*sa* and =*han* are the following: (a) =*Han* is used when someone’s will is present. (b) =*Han* usually refers to an event in the future or the change of a situation by someone’s will. In contrast, =*sa* simply refers to a state or situation in the present time or the past. (c) =*Sa* is an actor voice, whereas =*han* is an undergoer voice. That is to say, the instigator of the quoted part is indicated by the nominative in the case of =*sa*, and genitive in the case of =*han*.

- (51) a. *Cofos=han=ako kiso.*  
 pour=HAN=1SG.GEN 2SG.NOM  
 ‘I will pour [water on] you.’  
 b. {*Ka-likat i=kakarayan a pa^edil to=hekal*}=**han** *no=kawas.*  
 GER-light LOC=sky CONJN CAUS-radiance ACC=earth=HAN GEN=god  
 ‘‘The light should glow and light the earth,’’ said the God.’

The minimal pair in (52) clearly shows the contrast between =*sa* and =*han*.

- (52) a. *Taladaw=sa ko=sowal no=pangcah to-rira a ^alo.*  
 Taladaw=SA NOM=word GEN=Amis ACC-that CONJN river  
 ‘That river **is called** ‘‘Taladaw’’ in Amis.’  
 b. *Taladaw=han ko=sowal no=pangcah to-rira a ^alo.*  
 Taladaw=HAN NOM=word GEN=Amis ACC-that CONJN river

‘[Someone] **named** that river “Taladaw” in Amis.’

**10. Text: *cikafo^ok no cepo^* (narrative)**

[1] *Itiyaho ira ko cecay a kapah no cepo^.*  
 itiya=ho ira ko=cecay a kapah no=cepo^  
 then=IPFV EXST NOM=one CONJN young.man GEN=Cepo^  
 once upon a time there was one young man of Cepo^

‘Once upon a time, there was a young man in Cepu^.’

[2] *Cikafo^ok hananay ko ngangan nira.*  
 ci-kafo^ok=hananay ko=ngangan=nira  
 PRED-Kafo^ok=called NOM=name=3SG.GEN  
 called ‘Kafo^ok’ his name

‘His name was (called) Kafo^ok.’

[3] *Onini a kapah tadanga^ay ko tireng.*  
 o-nini a kapah tada-nga^ay ko=tireng  
 PRED=this CONJN young.man very-good NOM=body  
 this young man was very good body

‘This young man, he was very strong (the body was very good).’

[4] *Ki^meray ko faloco^ nira.*  
 ki^mer-ay ko=faloco^=nira  
 strong-NMLZ NOM=heart=3SG.GEN  
 was really strong his heart

‘His heart was really strong.’

[5] *Ki^mer matayal.*  
 ki^mer ma-tayal  
 strong UV-work  
 strongly worked

‘[He] strongly worked.’

[6] *Matengil no niaro^ ko sowal no cimacima.*  
 ma-tengil no=niaro^ ko=suwal no=cima<cima>  
 UV-hear GEN=village NOM=story GEN=who<RDP>  
 was heard by the village the story of someone  
 ‘The village heard the story (news) from someone.’

[7] *Ira ko koapig tayni i cepo^*  
 ira ko=koapig tayni i=cepo^  
 EXST NOM=Chinese.army come LOC=Cepo^  
 there was Chinese army would come to Cepo^

*miodos to pangcah saan ko sowal.*  
 mi-odos to=pangcah =saan ko=sowal  
 AV-war ACC=Amis QUOT NOM=story  
 attack the Amis said the story

“‘There was a Chinese army. [They] would come to Cepo^ and attack Amis,” the story said.’

[8] *Ora cikafo^ok hananay tamdaw*  
 o-ra ci-kafo^ok=hananay tamdaw  
 PRED-that PRED-Kafo^ok=called person  
 that the person called ‘Kafo^ok’

*hakelong han nira ko papinapina a kapah*  
 hakelong=han nira ko=<pa>pina<pina> a kapah  
 together=HAN 3SG.GEN NOM=<RDP>some<RDP> CONJN young man  
 was took together by him some young men



**tayra i torik mitala tora safitay no koapig.**  
 tayra i=torik mi-tala to-ra safitay no=koapig  
 go LOC=Torik AV-wait ACC-that soldier GEN=Chinese army  
 went to Torik waited for that soldiers of the Chinese army  
 ‘As for (that) Kafo^ok, he took out some young men, [they] went to Torik and waited for those soldiers of the Chinese army.’

**[9] Ora koapig sato ci^efa cangra naitira i torik.**  
 o-ra koapig =sato ci^efa cangra na-itira i=torik  
 PRED-that Chinese.army SATO have-horse 3PL.NOM ABL-there LOC=Torik  
 as for that Chinese army rode horses they from there to Torik  
 ‘As for the Chinese army, [they] rode horses from Torik.’

**[10] Pasa^amis ko cikay nora koapig hananay safitay.**  
 pa-sa^amis ko=cikay no-ra koapig=hananay safitay  
 CAUS-make-north NOM-run GEN-that Chinese.army=called soldier  
 went north running of that soldiers called ‘koapig’  
 ‘The running of the Chinese army, called *kuapig*, went north.’

**[11] Oora cikafo^ok hananay misimsim to to faloco^.**  
 o-ra ci-kafo^ok=hananay mi-simsim=to to=faloco^  
 PRED-that NOM-Kafo^ok=HANANAY AV-thought=PFV ACC=heart  
 as for (that) Kafo^ok considered heart  
 ‘As for (that) Kafo^ok, [he] considered.’

**[12] Tanamen kora koapig pataynien niyam**  
 tanam-en ko-ra koapig pa-tayni-en niyam  
 try-UV NOM-that Chinese.army CAUS-come-UV 1PL.EXCL.GEN  
 would be tried that Chinese army would be made to come by us

**saan ko faloco^ nikafo^ok a tora kapah.**  
 =saan ko=faloco^ ni-kafo^ok a to-ra kapah  
 QUOT NOM=heart GEN-Kafo^ok CONJN ACC-that young.man  
 say the heart of Kafo^ok, that young man  
 “[We] will try the Chinese army, we make them come,” thought that

young man Kafo<sup>^</sup>ok.’

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