# "Transitivity Harmony" in the Rawang Language of Northern Myanmar\*

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### 1. Introduction

Rawang (Rvwang [rə'wàŋ]) is a Tibeto-Burman language spoken by people who live in the far north of Kachin State in Myanmar (Burma), particularly along the Mae Hka ('Nmai Hka) and Maeli Hka (Mali Hka) river valleys; population unknown, although Ethnologue gives 100,000. In the past they had been called 'Nung', or (mistakenly) 'Hkanung', and are considered to be a sub-group of the Kachin by the Myanmar government. They are closely related to people on the other side of the Chinese border in Yunnan classified as either Dulong or Nu (see LaPolla 2001, 2003 on the Dulong language and Sun 1988, Sun & Liu 2005 on the Anong language). In this paper, I will be discussing a particular morphological phenomenon found in Rawang, using data of the Mytwang (Myt 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.<sup>1</sup>

Rawang is verb-final, agglutinative, and with both head marking and dependent marking. There are no syntactic pivots in Rawang for constituent order or cross-clause coreference or other constructions that I have found. The order of noun phrases is decided by pragmatic principles. Among the Tibeto-Burman languages the importance of the marking of transitivity varies greatly, from transitivity not being a very useful concept at all (e.g. Lahu; Matisoff 1976:413) to being extremely important to the understanding of the morphology of the language. Rawang is of the latter type: all verbs are clearly distinguished (even in citation) in terms of transitivity by their morphology, and there are a number of different affixes for increasing or decreasing valency (see LaPolla 2000 on valency-changing derivations). One manifestation of the importance of transitivity in the language is the phenomenon discussed in this paper, what I call "transitivity harmony", where a transitive auxiliary verb must match the main verb in terms of transitivity. But let us first introduce the verb types and their marking.

# 2. Verb types and transitivity

Verbs can take hierarchical person marking, aspect marking, directional marking (which also marks aspect in some cases), and tense marking. The different classes of verb each take morphology in citation that can be used to identify that class (the citation form for verbs is the third person non-past affirmative/declarative form):

• Intransitives take the non-past affirmative/declarative particle  $(\bar{e})$  alone in the non past (e.g.  $ng\bar{\phi}\bar{e}$  'to cry') and the intransitive past tense marker (-i) in past forms (with third person argument); they

<sup>\*</sup> My thanks to Harold Koch and Rachel Nordlinger and others for helpful comments and e-mails after the presentation of this paper.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>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 = [a], a = [a], o = [a], q = [a], and c = [a] or [ts] (free variation; historically [ts]). Tones are marked as follows (using the letter a as a base): high falling tone: a, mid tone: a, low falling tone: a. All syllables that end in a stop consonant (-p, -t, -q, -k) are in the high tone. Open syllables without a tone mark are unstressed. A colon marks non-basic long vowels. Four lines are used in the examples because of the many morphophonological changes that obscure the morpheme boundaries.

- can be used transitively only when they take valency-increasing morphological marking (causative, benefactive).<sup>2</sup>
- Adjectives often take the nominaliser  $w\bar{e}$  in citation (e.g.  $t\bar{e}w\bar{e}$  'big'), but can also take the intransitive morphology, and when used as predicates function the same as other intransitive verbs and so are considered a subclass of intransitive verb.
- Transitives take the non-past third person object marker ( $\grave{o}$ ) plus the non-past affirmative/declarative particle ( $\bar{e}$ ) in non-past forms (e.g.  $r\acute{n}o\bar{e}$  'to carry (something)') and the transitive past tense marker ( $-\grave{a}$ ) in past forms (with third person O arguments); they can be used intransitively only when they take valency-reducing morphological marking (intransitivizing prefix, reflexive/middle marking suffix). In transitive clauses the agentive marking clitic ( $-\imath$ ) generally appears on the noun phrase representing the A argument.<sup>3</sup> Rawang seems to have only two ditransitive roots:  $z\acute{n}o\bar{e}$  'give' and  $\bar{v}lo\bar{e}$  'tell', and they take the same morphology as monotransitives. All other ditransitive verbs, such as  $dvt\bar{a}no\bar{e}$  'show' ( $< vt\bar{a}n\bar{e}$  'be clearly visible'), and  $shvr\acute{n}o\bar{e}$  'send' ( $< r\acute{n}o\bar{e}$  'carry'), are all derived using the causative construction.
- Ambitransitives (labile verbs) can be used as transitives or intransitives without morphological derivation (á:môē / v̄mē 'to eat'). There are both S=O type and S=A type ambitransitives. With the S=O type, (e.g. gvyaqē 'be broken, destroyed' ~ gvyaqôē 'break, destroy'), adding an A argument creates a causative, without the need to use the causative prefix. With the S=A type, as in (1), use of the intransitive vs. the transitive form marks a difference between a general or habitual situation and a particular situation respectively. 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.<sup>4</sup>

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(1) a. Ang pē zvtnē.

àng pē zvt-ē

3sg basket weave-N.PAST

'He weaves baskets.' (general or habitual sense)
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b. À:ngí pē tiqchvng za:tnòē.

àng-í [pē tiq-chỳng] zvt-ò-ē 3sg-AGT basket one-CL weave-TNP-N.PAST 'He is weaving a basket.'

<sup>2</sup> Some stative intransitive verbs can take an oblique argument marked by the locative/dative marker  $s\dot{v}ng$ , e.g.  $svr\bar{e}$  to be afraid', where the stimulus is marked as an oblique argument, and the verb remains intransitive:

(i) ngà vgīsvng svrēngē

ngà vgī-sỳng svrē-ng-ē 1sg dog-LOC afraid-1sg-N.PAST

'I'm afraid of dogs.'

<sup>3</sup> Morse (1965:348) analysed the appearance of the verbal suffix -ò as a necessary criterion for a clause to be transitive, and so argued that only clauses with third person O arguments were transitive. I have chosen to analyse this suffix as marking a third person O argument (from a comparison with other dialects, it seems this form comes from the third person form of the verb 'to do'), and consider clauses that do not have third person O arguments as transitive if the NP representing the A argument can take the agentive marker.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Often there are still two noun phrases in the clause, even in the intransitive version, so what we are talking about is morphological transitivity, as defined above, and also what Van Valin & LaPolla (1997, §4.2) refer to as "M-transitivity", transitivity defined using the number of macro-roles. In the case of examples like (1b), there would only be one macro-role, the Actor, as the Actionsart of the clause is activity. The second noun phrase does not represent an Undergoer.

• The copula,  $i\bar{e}$ , takes the intransitive morphology and is like other intransitive verbs in terms of person marking, tense/aspect marking, interrogative marking, applicative marking, and nominalization, but it has two arguments. The copula cannot take causative marking, the way most other intransitives can, though it can take the precative marker (laq-), which is a sub-type of imperative (e.g. cilce laq-(me)-i '(Don't) let him be a soldier'). Two other verbs that take two arguments but are always formally intransitive are mvy e 'to want, to like and vde 'to have, own'.

## 3. Transitivity harmony

A small subset of transitive verbs can be used following a main verb to mark the phase or other aspects of the action, such as  $d\acute{v}n$  ( $d\acute{a}:n\grave{o}\bar{e}$ ) 'be about to',  $p\grave{v}ng$  ( $p\grave{a}:ng\grave{o}\bar{e}$ ) 'begin to',  $m\bar{v}n$  ( $m\bar{a}:n\grave{o}\bar{e}$ ) 'continue',  $m\bar{u}n\grave{o}\bar{e}$  'be used to',  $d\acute{v}ng$  ( $d\acute{a}:ng\grave{o}\bar{e}$ ) 'finish'. There is also at least one ambitransitive verb that can be used as an auxiliary as well,  $daq\bar{e} \sim daq\grave{o}\bar{e}$  'be able to'. These verbs can all appear on their own as the main verb in a clause, but when they act as auxiliary to another verb, they have to match the transitivity of the main verb. For example, with a transitive main verb, the auxiliary simply follows that verb and the two verbs together take one set of transitive marking morphology, as in (2), where the auxiliary verb  $m\bar{v}n$  ( $m\bar{a}:n\grave{o}\bar{e}$ ) 'continue' follows the transitive verb  $dvk\grave{o}m\grave{o}\bar{e}$  'gather (something)', and the transitive non-past marker - $\grave{o}$  marks the combined predicate as transitive.

## (2) Paqzí sháò shvlē gō wēdō **dvkóm mā:nò**!

[paqzí shá-ò shvlē] $_{O}$  g $\bar{g}$  wē-d $\bar{g}$  [dvk $\bar{g}$ m $\bar{v}$ n- $\bar{o}$ ] $_{PRED}$  education know-TNP layer also that-ADV gather continue-TNP 'Continue to gather the educated ones that way!' (Karu Zong, 46.3)

If instead the main verb is intransitive (either originally intransitive or a derived intransitive), then the auxiliary verb must be intransitivised, as in (3), where the same auxiliary,  $m\bar{v}n$  ( $m\bar{a}m\delta\bar{e}$ ) 'continue', is made intransitive by the reflexive/middle voice suffix -shì to harmonise with the intransitive verb  $vl\varphi p$  ( $vl\varphi pm\bar{e}$ ) 'enter, go/sink into'. The reflexive/middle voice suffix is most often used for the purpose of intransitivising in this grammatical context, even though there is no obvious reflexive or middle voice meaning.

## (3) Kādō wàò nìgō, sòngmèdvm nō vlop **mv̄nshìē** wā.

kā-d $\bar{o}$  wà- $\dot{o}$  nìg $\bar{o}$ , [sòngmè-d $\dot{v}$ m]<sub>S</sub> n $\bar{o}$  [vl $\dot{o}$ p  $m\bar{v}$ n-shì- $\bar{e}$ ]<sub>PRED</sub> wā WH-ADV do-TNP though needle-CL TOP go.into continue-R/M-N.PAST HS 'No matter how (he tried) the needle keep on going inside, it is said.' (Makangya, 6.5)

In (4), the ambitransitive verb  $daq\bar{e} \sim daq \partial \bar{e}$  be able to is used first as an intransitive, as it follows an intransitive verb (which is intransitivised by the reflexive/middle marker -shi because it is reflexive), and then is used in its transitive form, as it follows a transitive verb:

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> There is a tone change from low to high tone on this verb when the auxiliary is added. This change occurs with some words, but not with all. It may be a type of stem formation, or a type of nominalization, as it appears when the reflexive/middle voice suffix or the benefactive suffix is added as well.

(4) Yvīnglòng nō wāshì daqē, wā; Tòlòng nō gwōr daqòē, wā.

yvīng-lòng nō [wā-shì daq-ē]<sub>PRED</sub> wā tò-lòng nō [gwōr daq-ò-ē]<sub>PRED</sub> wā
long-CL TOP do-R/M able-N.PAST HS short-CL TOP toss able-TNP-N.PAST HS

'Long ones can be taken for oneself; short ones can be discarded.' (Rawang proverbs, #8)

Notice we are talking here purely about morphological transitivity; as with the ambitransitive verbs, there may be two arguments in the clause, but the clause is morphologically intransitive. A noun phrase representing an actor could be added to the first clause, but it would not take the agentive marker (if a noun phrase representing an actor were added to the second clause, it would take the agentive marker).

In (5) we can see that when the main verb is intransitivised by the other intransitive marker (v-), which is used here to give the sense of a reciprocal,  $daq\bar{e}$  also has to be intransitive:

(5) Àngní dvhờ nỡ dvkū màkūí vrú kē nờ vshvt daqē, wā.
àngní dvhờ nỡ dvkū màkū-í v-rú kē nờ [v-shvt daq-ē]<sub>PRED</sub>, wā
3dl in.laws TOP ladle scoop-INST INTR-hit RECIP PS INTR-fight can-N.PAST HS
'Close relatives sometimes can fight.' (Rawang proverbs #7)

The auxiliaries follow the harmony pattern even with the different forms of the ambitransitive verbs, that is, when the ambitransitive main verb is used as an intransitive, the auxiliary verb will also be intransitive, but if the ambitransitive main verb is used as a transitive verb, then the auxiliary will be transitive. Compare (6a-b), for example:

(6) a. àng ým**dýngshì** bớ**ì**àng [v̄m-**dýng-shì** bớ**-ì**]<sub>PRED</sub>
3sg eat-finish-R/M PFV-INTR.PAST
'He finished eating.' (intransitive v̄mē 'eat')

b. à:ngí ýmpàlòng ým**dýng** bớ**à** 

àng-í ýmpà-lòng [ým-**dýng** bố**-à**] $_{PRED}$  3sg-AGT food-CL eat-finish PFV-TR.PAST 'He has finished eating the food.' (transitive  $\acute{v}m\grave{o}\bar{e}$  'eat')

The pattern is also followed when the main verb is nominalised, as in (7), where  $ngaq\~oe$  'push over' is intransitivised by the intransitivising prefix, and then nominalised by the purposive suffix (see LaPolla 2000 on the prefix, and LaPolla, to appear, on the suffix and complement structures). Because the verb is intransitive, the auxiliary must be intransitivised.

(7) Vngaqlým **dýnshìē**.

v-ngaq-lým **dýn-shì-ē** INTR-push-PUR about.to-R/M-N.PAST '(It) seems like (it) is about to fall down.'

In the Austronesian language Saliba (Margetts 1999:102-105;118) we find a similar phenomenon of transitivity harmony, though in this case the valency is increased, in two different ways. In certain

serial verb structures, if  $V_1$  is transitive, and  $V_2$  is intransitive,  $V_2$  must be causativised to make it transitive so that the two verbs have the same subject, as in (8) (Margetts 1999: 118):

(8) *ye-kabi-he-keno-Ø*3sg-touch/make-CAUS-lie/sleep-3sg.O
'he threw him down'

In certain other serial constructions there is also transitivisation, but it is achieved using the applicative marker, as in (9), where the stem *namwa* 'good, properly' takes the applicative suffix to match the transitivity of the main verb (Margetts 2005:75):

(9) *ye-hekata-namwa-namwa-i-gai* 3sg-CAUS-learn-REDUP-good-APPL-1EXCL.O 'She teaches us properly.'

A similar phenomenon is also found in some Australian languages, such as Kaythetye (Harold Koch, personal communication, July 2008) and Wambaya (Nordlinger 1999), though in the examples I know of an intransitive auxiliary is causativised to match a transitive main verb (Kaythetye), or the two verbs in certain tight serial verb constructions have to match in transitivity, such that you would say 'hit + kill' rather than 'hit + die' (Wambaya), much as the first of the two constructions discussed above in Saliba.

## 4. Discussion

My main point in writing this paper is to establish transitivity harmony as a typological phenomenon. As for the motivation and historical development of this phenomenon, each language may have its own motivations and path of development. Margetts (1999:102-105) argues that transitivity harmony of the type in (8) in Saliba is driven by the same subject constraint on serial verb constructions, and only the causative marker (which adds an A) and not the applicative marker (which adds an O) can be used for this function in that construction. In Rawang that explanation does not hold, as for S=A ambitransitives there would then be no motivation for using the intransitive vs. the transitive form, as the same referent is S and A. In the Saliba serial construction where the applicative suffix is used, as in (9), the two stems must match in transitivity as they share a single grammatical object suffix. This again cannot be the explanation in Rawang, as the resulting form in Rawang is morphologically intransitive.

Much like an antipassive construction, the reflexive/middle marker causes the A of the transitive clause to become the S of an intransitive clause, generally when there is less differentiation of the A from the O, as in reflexives and middles (see Kemmer 1993, LaPolla 2004). In the case of transitivity harmony, intransitivising the auxiliary in this way would be necessary when there is a less-differentiated or non-salient O, or when there is no O at all, as the transitive morphology would imply a specific, differentiated O, and thereby confuse the listener if no such O existed.

I think the explanation for why only the reflexive/middle voice marker is used to intransitivise the verb, and not the unmarked intransitiviser (the prefix v-, seen in (7)) is on the one hand that the reflexive/middle marker allows a second noun phrase to appear in the clause, whereas the intransitivising prefix does not, and on the other hand that intransitives marked with the reflexive/middle marker as opposed to the intransitivising prefix imply that the action was volitional. For example, the word  $t \hat{v} l$  ( $t \hat{a} : l \hat{o} \hat{e}$ ) 'to roll (something)' with the intransitivising prefix becomes  $v t \hat{v} l \hat{e}$ 

'(of something) to roll (unintentionally)', whereas with the reflexive/middle suffix, it becomes *týlshìē* 'to roll oneself (i.e. intentionally)'. So in the case of the auxiliary verbs meaning 'start', 'continue', 'finish', etc., the reflexive/middle suffix may be used because of this sense of volitionality.

#### **Abbreviations**

A	actor of a prototypical transitive	O	patient of a prototypical transitive
	clause		clause
ADV	adverbial marker	PUR	purposive nominaliser
AGT	agentive marker	PFV	perfective marker
CL	classifier	pl	plural
HS	hearsay marker	RECIP	reciprocal marker
INST	instrumental	R/M	reflexive/middle marker
INTR	intransitivising prefix	S	single direct argument of an
			intransitive verb
I.PAST	3rd person intransitive past marker	TNP	3rd person transitive non-past
			marker
LOC	locative marker (also used for	TOP	topic marker
	dative, purpose)		
N.PAST	non-past marker	TR.PAST	transitive past marker

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