

PERFECTIVE AND IMPERFECTIVE IN SPOKEN TIBETAN¹

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Is the grammar of spoken Tibetan verbs² as it relates to time one of tense or aspect? Or does it combine elements of both? Tense (following Comrie 1976. 1-2) "relates the time of the situation referred to to some other time", that is, the time to which the tense refers is situation-external. If the time to which the situation is related is the present, the tenses are absolute; otherwise, they are relative. The time with which aspect is concerned is that of the situation in itself, that is, it is situation-internal. If this time is viewed as an "unanalyzable whole, with beginning, middle, and end rolled into one", the aspect is perfective. If it is analyzed, if one sees a situation in progress, the aspect is imperfective.

The labels assigned to the verb roots of written Tibetan (Present, Perfect, Future, Imperative in Western grammar and the synonymous *thatā*, *tṣṣṣpa*, *māṣṣpa*, *qūṣṣiṣi* in spoken Tibetan) imply a tense system of Past, Present, and Future. Though spoken Tibetan does not have three-way reflexes of the written Tibetan roots, neither do its verb bases derive solely from the Perfect root. (The view that they do has been rather widely held; see, for example, Bacot 1946. 72.) As in written Tibetan there are one-root verbs (e.g. *ltogs-pa* 'to be hungry',

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2. Our transcription of spoken Tibetan is that introduced in Chang and Shefts 1964. Examples are from Chang and Chang 1978-81; the first number in citations refers to the volume, the second to the page, the third to the lines of Tibetan text. Here we have, however, standardized the transcription somewhat and, on occasion, made other modifications or corrections. Written Tibetan forms are from the dictionaries of Jäschke and Das. (We use here the transcription of written Tibetan adopted by the American Library Association.)

'phyid-pa' 'to wipe'), so in spoken Tibetan there are, to be sure, verbs with just one base. And these are greater in number than in written Tibetan; in some cases, one of the roots of written Tibetan—which may be either the Present or the Perfect root³—has been generalized to the exclusion of the other roots. For example:

Generalization of the Present root.

(1) WT Present 'jib(s)-pa, Perfect bźibs, Future bźib 'to suck' ST cṑp, e. g. cṑpqṑl 'He is sucking it' cṑpṑ reḡ 'He sucked it', cṑpqṑ reḡ 'He will suck it', cṑp! 'Suck it!'

The affricate initial of cṑp shows that its source was the root represented by written Tibetan 'jib. Fricative initials yield fricative initials, as in 'a bow': WT gźu, ST šṑ.

Generalization of the Perfect root.

(2) WT Present 'gog-pa, Perfect bkog, Future dgog, Imperative khog 'to take away, take off, pull out'

ST qṑḡ, e. g. qṑḡqṑl 'He is pulling it out', qṑḡpṑ reḡ 'He pulled it out', qṑḡqṑl reḡ 'He will pull it out', qṑḡ! 'Pull it out!' The high tone of qṑḡ shows that it derives from bkog; written Tibetan voiced-stop initials with prefixes yield the spoken Tibetan low tone, as in 'a saddle', WT sga, ST qṑ. The ṑṑ of qṑḡ- is a result of vowel harmony; with i in a contiguous syllable, ṑṑ is raised to ṑṑ. (On such vowel alternations, see Chang and Chang 1968.)

Spoken Tibetan, however, also has a goodly number of verbs with two bases. One of these bases derives from the Perfect root; in general, the second base derives from the Present root. (A verb of this sort which in written Tibetan has, for example, a Present root ending in a vowel and a Perfect root ending in this vowel followed by the -s suffix has in spoken Tibetan a base ending in this same vowel with a level tone and, corresponding to the Perfect root in -s, a base ending in a vowel with a falling tone [WT -is, -es, -as, -os, -us: ST -iṑ, -eḡ, -eḡ, -ṑḡ, -üḡ].)

3. See Chang and Chang, The Persistence of Present-tense Reflexes in Modern Spoken Tibetan.

Examples of derivation in three common verbs:

(3) 'to eat'. WT Present (b)za-ba, Perfect zos, bzas, Future bza, Imperative zo(s)

Spoken Tibetan has three bases for 'to eat': *sā*, *sḡḡ*, and *sō*. *sā* could derive from either the Present (b)za-ba or the Future bza, or it could represent a merging of the two; this base appears in verb forms whose time reference includes both present and future. (Under present we include both the continuous and the habitual.) *sḡḡ* derives by regular phonetic change from the Perfect bzas. The Imperative *sōḡ*! 'Eat!' derives from *zō*. (The falling tone and change in vowel are due to the intonation.) The negative Imperative, *maṣāà*! 'Don't eat!', derives from the base *sā*. Examples of the bases *sā*, *sḡḡ*: Present reference; base *sā* ~ *sā-*:

a. *ātā qhōtsō qhālāà sāqī yōḡ reḡ* 2. 256. 15-16 'Right now they are eating' Future reference; base *sā* ~ *sā-*:

b. ...*qhōḡ thōqōḡ phōmō tī sāqī reḡ* 4. 11. 23—12. 2 '...tonight he is going to eat this girl'

Past reference; base *sḡḡ*:

c. *ānī phōmō tī kōmāà thi cīq sḡḡpa reḡ, hōp thi qhā lā* 4. 263. 12-14 'And then, suddenly, in the wink of an eye, this girl had eaten the sausage'

(4) 'to do; to make'. WT Present byed-pa, Perfect byas, Future bya, Imperative byos.

Spoken Tibetan has a base *chḡḡ* which derives from Perfect byas. A second base, *chḡ*, we derive from the Present root byed. A parallel to the loss of the -d which we posit here is the loss of the root-final -s of written Tibetan *dgos* in spoken Tibetan *qō* 'to need to' (example 32). When these consonants, or their reflexes, were preserved, spoken Tibetan shows the falling tone and fronting of nonfront vowels: -ed yields -eḡ, as in spoken Tibetan *reḡ*, one of the verbs for 'to be', from the red of written Tibetan *red-pa*; -os yields -ōḡ, as in spoken Tibetan *sōḡ* 'to make', the reflex of the written Tibetan Perfect root *bzos*. The range of time reference for *chḡ* is the same as that of *sā* (example 3). The

spoken Tibetan negative Imperative, *mačēè!* 'Don't eat!' derives from the base *chē*. The positive Imperative, *chī!* 'Do it!', can only be said to be irregular.

Examples of the bases *chē*, *chēè*:

Present reference; base *chē* ~ *chī*-:

a. *phārcīī ātā qāp sūpēē qhātūū tīnēē māa, tī chīqī yōd rēè, tāqī yōd rēè*
2. 143. 6-8 'As for the *phārcīī*, he's just now doing, that is, studying, from the third section on down'

Future reference; base *chē* ~ *chī*-:

b. *chīcēē ṇātsōō khērāā nīī qhī seyāā tēè nēēpa chīqī yīī* 4. 328. 20-329. 2
'In the future we'll keep to what you two have said'

Past reference; base *chēè*:

c. *ānī thoqōō tī ē qhōō qhāà qhēè mācēēpa rēè; sāqōō tī ē mācēēpa rēè*
4. 194. 13-15 'And then, that night he didn't do anything at all; nor did he do anything the next night'

(5) 'to go'. WT 'gro-ba and phyin-pa.

The written Tibetan Present 'gro is the source of the spoken Tibetan base *tō*. The spoken Tibetan base to which *tō* stands in suppletive relationship does not, however, derive from the *soñ* given in dictionaries of written Tibetan as Perfective and Imperative to 'gro'. As, in the case of 'to do', *chē* is to *chēè*, so, in the case of 'to go', is *tō* to *chīī*. *chīī* derives from *phyin*, but its falling tone when it occurs in isolation (e.g. before auxiliaries) implies an *-s suffix, that is, the suffix which marks the Perfective: **phyin-s*. Examples of the bases *tō* and *chīī*:

Present reference; base *tō* ~ *tū*-:

a. *thā qhōtsōō chāpō chēè cēē thīī tūqīī* 4. 181. 9-10 'Now, they are taking him in a kind manner' (That is, they are taking him [*thīī*] while they are going [*tūqīī*].)

Future reference; base *tō* ~ *tū*-:

4. A reflex *soñ* 'to go' is found in the fixed phrase *qātsām sōṇa* [**soñ-ba*] *taa*...4. 176. 3 'After some time had passed...'. Another reflex of *soñ* means 'to be': *kēpō sōō* [**soñ*] *tsāa* 4. 50. 11-12 'since he's a king'.

b. ... nāā nīqāā tuqī yīī 3. 212. 11 ‘...I’ll go day after tomorrow’

Past reference; base chiī ~ chī- :

c. tha thiri qhēēsā, tshōōsō qhāāqā yaa yaa phār chiī tsāā... 2. 64. 14–16
‘Now, since all merchandise has been going up and up these days...’

d. ānī tīnēē sāā tī, ñecōō saṅpō taa keṅpō nāpōō chīpa reē 4. 174. 10–12
‘And then, the next day, ñecōō saṅpō and the King went together’

These examples suggest a spoken Tibetan tense system of Past and Nonpast; ‘to eat’ and ‘to do’ (examples 3 and 4) suggest, further, that the Nonpast base was a result of the merging of written Tibetan Present and Future roots. Other examples, however, show that this is not the case. Consider the following passage:

(6) ṅāmō ṅāmō cīī la yaa phomō pīkāā sum yōō reē. qhōtsō sūpū tīqēē ñēētāā. phācūū tshōqāā tuqī yōō reē. ñīmā cīq qhōtsō phācūū tshōqāā tūtūū tsā nee... qhōtsō phācūū yaqō chī yōō reē... tī lāāpa reē 4. 257. 1–8 ‘Once, a long, long time ago, there were three sisters. Every day those three went to tend the cows. One day, when they went to tend the cows...there was a good cow of theirs... this one got lost’

ṅāmō ṅāmō cīī la yaa ‘a long, long time ago’ in the first sentence establishes the time as past. In the third sentence, the -pa reē construction of lāāpa reē is one commonly associated with past-time references, e. g.

(7) qhēēsā yaa phēēpa reē 1. 247. 16–17 ‘He came up yesterday’. -qī yōō reē in the second sentence (i. e. tuqī yōō reē) is the construction we have seen in examples 3a and 4a referring to the present. This sentence, however, also refers to past time. It is not a matter of shifting tense; compare the following example, where ṅāmō ‘a long time ago’ appears in the same sentence with -qī yōō reē:

(8) ṅāmō mītsāā nāā la āmēē tāqpāā qhūqī yōō reē sesōō ra chī tūū 1. 160. 4–6 ‘A long time ago, they say, the mother always wore them in the household’

Textual occurrences of -qī yōō reē referring to past time appear in context with expressions indicating habitual actions, such as ñēētāā ‘every day’ (example 6), taqpāā ‘always’ (example 8), yaṅsē ‘often’, and namkūū nee ‘usually,

ordinarily, regularly'. This is typically imperfective⁵. For example:

(9) qhō kaqāa la tshōō kaaqāa yaṅsē tuqī yōḍ reè 4. 293. 3-5 'He often went to India to engage in trade'

(10) tīṭēē chgē ni, mēē ḡōō lēē ḡātsōō māmī tēētsa, namkūū neē šāa nāqī yōḍ reè 3. 64. 5-7 'Since it was like this, they [the Tibetan government] regularly stationed a few of our soldiers in the area of lower Tibet, too'

The -pa reè construction referring to the past occurs in context with expressions that pinpoint the time of an event, such as hōp thi qhā la 'in the wink of an eye' (example 3c), qhēēsā 'yesterday' (example 7), or specific time indications, as in

(11)...thāmā...chēqtōō qupkā ḡāpcū ḡāqūū lo tī, phōō phēēcēē šōōpa reè, qhūntēē la phāa 3. 60. 4-7 '...in the end...in the year 1959, Tibet was, for the most part, lost, that is, to the Communists'. This is typically perfective. Where -qī yōḍ reè occurs in such contexts we see the sort of imperfective extension over time of the action or event that may be termed continuous⁶. Contrast, for example, 12a and 12b, 13a and 13b:

(12) a. tshēēpēē qhūtūū, ḡīmā cīl phaaqōō nāā tēē...āqū tōpā thūūpa reè 4. 101. 9-11 'When he was searching, one day, there in the phaaqōō...he met āqū tōpā'

b. tha tīnēē qhō yāā lhēēsēē nāā la, tshēē tshēē tshēē chepēē qhūtūū, ḡīmā cīl sūūcūū rāā qhi suu tēē...āqū...laqpā tēē cōō chi khīī cēē tuqī yōḍ reè 4. 106. 2-7 'Now, after that, when he was again searching all over in Lhasa, one day, there at a corner of sūūcūū rāā...āqū...was going along, carrying a hoe in his hand'

(13) a. ...qhōō sānīī tī, tshōō kaaqāa chīpa reè 4. 284. 13-14 '...the next day

5. See Comrie, *ibid.*, pp. 27-8, on the definition of habitual as one of the two major subdivisions of the imperfective: "The feature that is common to all habituals, whether or not they are also iterative, is that they describe a situation which is characteristic of an extended period of time, so extended in fact that the situation referred to is viewed not as an incidental property of the moment but, precisely, as a characteristic feature of a whole period".

6. If we accept Comrie's definition of continuous, his second major subdivision of the imperfective, as "imperfectivity that is not habituality" (*ibid.*, p. 26), continuous differs from noniterative habitual in referring to a briefer period of time.

he went off to engage in trade'

b. thenēē sāāšōō tī, kēepō, qāpīi cīi qhi ɔō tēē, nīmā ʈōō cēē šuuqī yɔō
reē 4. 168. 12-14 'Then, the next morning, the King was sitting there under a
qāpīi, warming himself in the sun'.

-qī yɔō reē does not, however, need time or aspect expressions, such as
'yesterday', 'today', 'tomorrow', 'always', 'frequently', 'suddenly', to express
the continuous. This can be seen in examples such as the following passage,
where two sisters, attempting to deceive a third sister about the time, have closed
the windows.

(14) ānī phomō tī sēm tshāp ni, kuqū qiiqūū thi yaa cīq chēpa reē. qiiqūū
chēpēē qhūtūū, nīmā maa sūū ʈuqī yɔō reē 4. 233. 11-15 'But then this girl
grew anxious and quickly opened the windows. When she opened the windows,
the sun was setting'.

The -qī yɔō reē construction is, then, imperfective; the -pa reē construction
is not past but perfective. This does not mean that the Tibetan verbal system
has no element of tense. Tense reference is, however, not systematic. In the
first person, for example, ʈuqī yīī can only refer to the future: 'I will go'; the
corresponding third-person construction, ʈuqī reē, is ambiguous, since it may
refer to habitual actions. chīī su 'he went', on the other hand, is unambiguously
past.

The base with the suffix -qī can be followed by various forms of auxiliary
verbs meaning 'to be; to have' (yīī, yōō, yɔō reē, ʈuū); the semantic range
of these constructions varies, as the following chart shows⁷. Numbers 3 through
14 in the chart refer to examples given above; examples 15 through 23 follow
the chart. (Abbreviations: Hab., Habitual; Con., Continuous.)

7. The imperfective can also be expressed by a construction made up of the verb base with the
suffix -qī followed by the auxiliary tēē 'to stay, (honorific: šuū). We will discuss this
auxiliary on another occasion; we also exclude for now (1) occurrences in clauses of result
preceded by conditional clauses and (2) expressions of judgment with yōō.

	Future	Present		Past	
		Hab.	Con.	Hab.	Con.
-qī yīī	4b, 5b				
-qī yō̃̃		15	16	17	18
-qī rēè	3b	19			
-qīi*		20, 21	5a, 22		
-qī yɔ̃̃ rēè		23	3a, 4a	6, 8, 9, 10	12b, 13b, 14

*-qīi takes the place of the nonoccurring sequence *-qī tɕù. -qī does, however, occur with other forms of tɕù, such as the negative (mītū̀) and the interrogatives (e. g. tɕqāā?, tɔ̃̃?).

-qī yō̃̃; Present Habitual.

(15) ōō, sū̃̃tsī̃̃ t̃s̃om t̃s̃om 1a ɳɛ̃ɛ suqī yō̃̃ 2. 163. 13–14 ‘Oh, I sometimes make the food’

-qī yō̃̃; Present Continuous.

(16) ā̃tā ɳa phārcī̃̃ tāqī yō̃̃ 2. 164. 14 ‘Yes, just now I’m studying the phārcī̃̃’

-qī yō̃̃; Past Habitual.

(17) tīqē̃̃ tī qhāāqā, lɔ̃̃ rē̃̃ tō̃̃tē̃̃ taa t̃ts̃ū phāā tshuu, tshuu tɕkū; thaqā nā̃̃sī̃̃, t̃nē̃̃ lɔqɔ̃̃ phāā t̃s̃ō̃̃ tū̃̃kū; t̃ts̃ū qhāāqāl̃̃, l̃ɛ̃qā cheqāā t̃uqī yō̃̃ 3. 233. 12–234. 3 ‘As for all these, among other things, I collected each year’s autumn crops and these things here and there; similarly, among other things, I then disbursed the year-round operating supplies (for the estate; e. g. seed, food): I used to go to do the work concerned with all these matters’. There is no time expression in this sentence. Only the larger context shows that it refers to the past; this is the conclusion of a discourse that began ʈatsāā qhi cīsū taa, āā, ñ̃tsāā, lh̃̃kē̃̃, t̃t̃ē̃̃ qhi, yīqī ʈhī̃̃ ch̃̃ɛ̃̃ c̃̃ɛ̃̃ t̃ɛ̃̃p̃̃a yī̃̃ 3. 229. 1–3 ‘I was writing letters for the monastic college’s bursary and, ah, supply office and reception office, this sort of thing’.

-qī yō̃̃; Past Continuous.

(18) ñ̃mā cī̃̃ sū̃̃cū̃̃ rā̃̃ qhi suu tē̃̃...t̃uqī yō̃̃ ‘One day, there at a corner of sū̃̃cū̃̃ rā̃̃...I was going along’. (Example elicited from Mr. Nornang, 1981.)

-qī rēè; Present Habitual

(19) qhōtsōō phānēē tshuu qūqā thōō yuqī rēè 1. 32. 11-12 'They come out here from over there in the winter'

*-qī tū; Present Habitual.

(20) tawā merē ḡorēē nāā tsā lā yaa, thā cepō kḗp tūqī tūqāā nā? 2. 46. 13-15 'Just about each and every month the stripes change, don't they?'

(21) ...ātā yaqō yōōnēē, yāā lamsāā mēēpā chāānēē rā chi chiqī, tsom tsom lā 3. 193. 13-15 '...even though they're good just now, they do get spoiled right away, sometimes'

*-qī tū; Present Continuous.

(22) ātā qhātsēē sūqī tōō? 2. 83. 7-8 'How much are you asking right now?'

-qī yō rēè; Present Habitual.

(23) mm, qhōtāā, yāāqā thā qūqā cētāā sō sōsō mātāā lōqāā mātāā rā chi qhūqī yō rē, qhātēē chiqī yō rē? 1. 150. 7-10 'Mm, as for the way of dressing, in summer and winter, and so forth, do they dress differently in each (of the seasons), or how do they do it?'

The base which is the reflex of the written Tibetan Perfect root is, then, used in a Perfective construction; the base which is the reflex of the written Tibetan Present or Future root is used in an Imperfective one. We cannot, however, attribute imperfective meaning to the latter base; examples such as 3b, 4b, and 5b, which refer to the future, do not fit the definition of the imperfective as showing a situation in progress.

Is aspect expressed in both the morphology and the syntax? We have so far been examining bases with spoken Tibetan suffixes. Let us now see what bases without modern suffixes reveal about aspect⁸.

One environment in which both bases occur without suffixes is before auxiliaries. Before some auxiliaries, either base may occur. Generally, however, it is

8. Historically, the source of the distinction between, for example, sō and sōō, the two bases for 'to make', was the suffix -s of the Perfect (WT bzos). Before the -s was lost, it caused fronting of o to ö. The -s also led to the fall in pitch, with its accompanying glottal stricture. (See Chang and Chang 1973, Volume 1, xix ff. on glottalization and the falling tone.)

just one of the bases which is used before a given auxiliary. An auxiliary like *njũ* (WT *nus*) 'to dare to' may, offhand, seem to have little to do with either tense or aspect. And yet, when a verb has two bases, a choice in the base to precede an auxiliary must be made. The criteria for distinguishing perfective from imperfective offer clues to the basis for this choice.

Comrie (*ibid.*, pp. 16–21) claims to have found one feature that defines the perfective aspect: the perfective describes a complete, not a completed action. It is, for example, not punctual, though "by not giving direct expression to the internal structure of a situation, irrespective of its objective complexity, [it] has the effect of reducing it to a single point ... [or] to a blob, rather than to a point" (*ibid.*, pp. 17–18). Its defining feature is not that it indicates the end of a situation ("Indicating the end of a situation is at best only one of the possible meanings of a perfective form" [*ibid.*, p. 19]), though when contrasted explicitly with an imperfective it may do so. Though the perfective forms of certain verbs indicate the completion of a situation, the perfective is not a resultative.

And yet, when we attempt to understand why a given auxiliary follows what we have inferred to be a perfective base, some of the above features of perfectivity, peripheral though they may be, are quite helpful. The auxiliary *tshāā* 'to finish; to have already taken place' and *šāà* 'to exist as the result of an action', for example, follow what we posit to be perfective bases:

Auxiliary *tshāā* (WT 'tshar-ba, tshar) 'to finish; to have already done; to have already taken place'

(24) *sö̃ tshāāpa taqāā lamsāā tshö̃ naaqō kAp*...1. 189. 14–15 'Just as soon as they've finished making it, they dye it black...' ('to make': WT *bzo-ba*, *bzos*; ST *so*, *sö̃*)

Auxiliary *šāà* (WT, 'jog-pa, *bžag* [ST *šāà*], *gžag*, *žog*) points to a result. (As a main verb, *šāà* means 'to put, place, leave'.)

(25) *chiṇpēē šö̃ sāpa reē* 1. 158. 3 'Yes, they're made of felt'

There are, however, also auxiliaries which engage directly the central feature of perfectivity, the completeness of an action. Among these are *yö̃* and *yö̃ reē*

(negatives: *mḡè* and *yɔ̃ḡ mārēè*), which, in one of their usages as main verbs, occur in construction with the dative to indicate possession:

(26) *ḡaa rēcā nāmēē nātsōḡ yōḡ* 2. 197. 7 'I have a variety of cotton fabrics' (*ḡaa* is dative to *ḡa* 'I')

(27) *qhōḡ qhaà qhēē yɔ̃ḡ mārēè* 4. 83. 9-10 'He didn't have anything at all' (*qhōḡ* is dative to *qhō* 'he')

As auxiliaries, *yōḡ* and *yɔ̃ḡ rēè* follow suffixless bases to form the Perfect. In examples 28 through 31, the actions referred to are complete, but their effects continue into the present. (Cf. Comrie, *ibid.*, pp. 52 ff., on the criteria for defining perfect.)

(28) *thēsāā lōḡ ṭhīl yɔ̃ḡ retāā, yāā* 1. 115. 2-3 'These days they've brought electricity, is that right?' ('to bring': WT 'khrīd-pa, khrīd, ST ṭhīl)

(29) *qhūnīl ātā ē yaqāā šāà yōḡ...chēē tsāā, qhōrāā nīqāalōḡ, yaqēē rōḡ* 1. 203. 13-20 'And just now, I've put those two up there...So, both of them are up there at the encampments' ('to put' WT 'jog-pa, bžag [ST šāà], gžag, žog)

The main verbs of examples 28 and 29 have just one base in spoken Tibetan. Examples 30 and 31 show that it is the Perfective base which is used in forming the Perfect:

(30) *ṭōtā tēè chēqōḡ šūḡ yōḡ* 2. 217. 6-7 'I've marked the invitation' ('to mark': ST *chēqōḡ* with *šū*, *šūḡ* [WT *žu*, *žus*])

(31) *tuntēē qhi...katōḡ qāā nēē šāārēē so ra chi kēè yɔ̃ḡ rēè, tha...ti ātā thēsāā qām yɔ̃ḡ mārēè* 1. 117. 8-12 'From the surface of the tomb's stone slab... something like deer horns have grown, now...Even these days, now, they have not yet become dry' ('to grow': WT *skye-ba*, *skyes*; ST *kē*, *kēè*. 'to cause to become dry; to become dry': WT *skem-pa*, *bskams* [ST *qām*], *bskam*, *skom*[s])

The Perfect, then, we interpret as conclusive evidence that the bases we posit as Perfective are, indeed, just that.

Other auxiliaries refer to situations that precede action, that are potential as opposed to actual. In this they are like those finite-verb constructions which

refer to the future, constructions in which non-Perfective bases are used. (See examples 3b, 4b, and 5b.) And it is non-Perfective bases which precede these auxiliaries:

Auxiliary qo (WT dgos-pa⁹) 'to need to; to be compelled to'

(32) chgè ni, tsinmēē thi ʈu quqīl 2. 280. 7-8 'So, we have to dig this foundation' ('to dig': WT [']bru-ba, brus; ST ʈu, ʈhūū)

Auxiliary šēē (WT śes-pa¹⁰) 'to be able to'

(33) ...tuqšūū qhi šōōnēē, ʈotsēē cūptāā mānēēpēē ʈa šamtōō tsāā ni sq šīqī mārēē 1. 208. 6-9 '...even if they make it of the worse (grade), now, they can't ever make lower robes that don't cost from ten to twenty ʈotsēē' ('to make': WT bzo-ba, bzos; ST sq, sōō)

Auxiliary thūū (WT thub-pa) 'to be able to'¹¹

(34) ...phomō qēpēē qɔɔ sēyāā qhi šāmō ti, nō thūūpa reē 4. 210. 8-9 '...he was able to buy the hat his older daughter had said she wanted' ('to buy': WT ño-ba, ños; ST nō, nōō)

9. In discussing example 4, we have pointed out the parallel absence of colloquial reflexes for the root finals of written Tibetan byed and dgos. It is tempting to speculate that this may derive from the formal similarity of the expected reflexes, qōō and cheē, to Perfective bases. (qōō and cheē do occur in the fixed usage of proverbs.) qo and che would, then, be modelled after non-Perfective bases. ñōō (WT ños) 'to buy', for example, is Perfective to a non-Perfective ño (WT ño); kēē 'to be born' (WT skyes) is Perfective to a non-Perfective kē (WT skye). And yet, rare though it is, the loss of root-final consonants or their expected reflexes is not confined to verbs of this type. The -r of written Tibetan zer 'to say' is, for example, retained only in medial position: qhatsēē se yōō 4. 325. 9-10 'I wonder what they'd say'; ʈotsēē cū sere qhutūūnī 2. 184. 18 'when I say ten ʈotsēē'. Moreover, there are single-base verbs of the form -ōō and -cē, e.g. tōō 'to want to do something' (WT 'dod-pa) and cēē 'to be forgotten' (WT rjed-pa, brjed). It is perhaps not possible to determine the cause for the development of dgos to qo and byed to che.

10. -es should have yielded -cē; the nasalization of šēē 'to know; to know how to; to be able to' may derive from that of khēē (WT mkhyen-pa), the honorific for 'to know'. The falling tone of khēē could, conversely, derive from that of šēē.

11. We have a Perfective base before thūū in 4. 35. 8-9 khōrēē pūqōō phutsēē chēē thūūpa tuqēē? 'Would you be able to serve as a babysitter to a child?' We were also offered the example mōō qicā šēētsōō chēē thūūqī mītūū 'She can't control her talking'. Mr. Nornang (1981) finds acceptable either fō or fōō 'to buy' in construction with the Perfective thūūpa reē, but he would use only the non-Perfective base nō with the Imperfective thūūqī reē.

Auxiliary nũ̀ (WT nus-pa) ‘to dare to’

(35) ānī onā tē̃tsa, ṇa, pū̃qā ṣu nũ̀pa mītū̀ 2. 78. 11-13 ‘Well now, then, I can’t quite bring myself to (don’t quite dare to) buy them’ (‘to buy’: ST ṣu, ṣũ̀ [WT zu-ba, zus] with pū̃qā. The use of ṣu, ṣũ̀ shows respect to the seller.)

Auxiliary rē̃ (WT ran-pa) ‘to be time to’ (more generally, ‘to be right, appropriate’)

(36) ānī nīmā cī̀ qhō tshō̃ kaaqã to rē̃pa rẽ 4. 283. 1-2 ‘And then, one day it was time for him to go engage in trade’ (‘to go’: WT ‘gro, ST to. On this verb, see example 5.)

What is expressed by these auxiliaries is not part of a situation in progress, though it may be viewed as a preamble to action¹². This lends no support to the attribution of imperfectivity to the preceding bases; it only allows us to say that those bases which are members of two-way oppositions with bases we have shown to be Perfective are Nonperfective. Nonperfectivity is a broad concept which embraces imperfectivity; so it is the Nonperfective base which is used both in Imperfective constructions and in the -qī yī̀, -qī rẽ Future.

One auxiliary which follows Nonperfective bases may be interpreted as imperfective. This is nū̃ (WT myon-ba) ‘to (ever) experience’:

(37) lāptā̃ tē̃tsa to nū̃ 1. 47. 3 ‘I went to school for a little while’ (That is, over a period of time, I had the experience of going to school.)

In the negative, the use of nū̃ closely parallels the Habitual, i. e. Imperfective, construction found with kū̃nē̃ ‘ever’:

(38) tha, chē̃pō ṣetā̃ mē̃ to. tī ṇaa kū̃nē̃ mē̃: to mānū̃ 1. 114. 5-6 ‘Now, it must be very big. I don’t know this: I’ve never gone there’

(39) ...namkū̃ cōcō̃ qee ṇarā̃ nī̀ kōpō yī̃tū̃nī̀, kū̃nē̃ tāqī yō̃ marē̃

12. The same criteria govern the choice of bases to which suffixes are added. With the Perfective base chẽ ‘to do’, for example, we have chẽnā ‘if one does; when one does’; with the Nonperfective base che we have cheqo ‘being compelled to do’, chikū ‘yet to do’, chitō̃ ‘about to do’, chekō̃, ready to do’, chētō̃ ‘having the desire to do’, chesēm ‘thinking of doing’.

4. 90. 16–19 ‘...ordinarily, when we two were poor, your older brother never paid any attention to us’ (‘to look at, pay attention to’: WT lta-ba, bltas, blta; ST tā [~tā-], tēē. tā may derive from either the Present lta or the Future blta; again, lta and blta may have merged through the loss of the Future prefix b-.)

In some cases, the base chosen to precede a given auxiliary may appear inconsistent with that used before another auxiliary. If *qo* ‘to be compelled to’ (example 32) follows Nonperfective bases, why are Perfective bases used before *chōd* (WT *chog-pa*) ‘to be allowed to’, as in the following example?

(40) phāqēē ṅarāā tshu, tī mēēpaa, laqkēē mēēpaa, chīi chōōqī mārēē
1. 226. 13–15 ‘Over there, if we don’t have this thing, that is, if we don’t have a pass, we aren’t allowed to go in’

Of the twenty-nine textual occurrences of two-base verbs before *chōd* in Chang and Chang 1978–81, only one follows a Nonperfective base:

(41) tshēpā ṅā nēē, ānī, qhārē qhārē che chōōqī mārēē? 3. 132. 9–10 ‘From the fifth, then, which things isn’t one allowed to do?’

Perhaps the answer is that *chōd* implies that the action which is allowed is, indeed, carried out to its completion without objection or interference. Support for this interpretation is found in the examples of sentence-final *chōd* meaning ‘I/we will do’. For example:

(42) “ṅātsōō qhāā chamcāā chēē chōd” s, chēē cēē ṭhīpā reē 4. 180. 24–25
“‘We’ll treat him as kindly as possible’; saying this, they took him’

Also, though *qo* ‘to be compelled to’ (example 32) follows Nonperfective bases, it has an alternant *qo/qu*, *qho/qhu* which follows Perfective bases. The use of this unstressed sentence-final particle carries with it a guarantee or promise that one will carry out an action. For example:

(43) ṅēē ṅōptsēē qhāāqā tīnēē ṅōō qhu 2. 14. 15–16 ‘I’m going to buy all my vegetables here from you’

Another environment in which verb bases appear without suffixes is in nonfinal position in a sentence. The use of nonfinal forms in sequence lends

cohesiveness to narration and avoids a monotonous repetition of the same endings and auxiliaries.

In the following passage, the verb construction in final position is a Perfective (šüüpa reè 'they said'); preceding it are two Perfective bases (chgeè with qecā 'to talk' and thiì with qecā 'to ask'): ¹³

(44) ānī, poo taa moo nīī qecā chgeè; phom lèè qecā thiì; ānī, "tharēē, kεεpōō, thēē cīq sūüpa reè. tēē 'mēē' šüünā, tiqī marēē. taqā rāā, yūqī reè" s šüüpa reè 4. 49. 4-10 'And then the two, the old man and the old woman, talked to each other; they asked the girl, too; and then they said, "This is the only time the king said (i. e. asked for) anything. If we said 'No' to this, it wouldn't be right. It will be just as you say" '.

When, however, the verb construction in final position is an Imperfective, the bases preceding it in nonfinal position are still Perfective. For example:

(45) tgeè ni, ānī yaqšōō tī sōsōō comāā tī nīīpā nee maa sūü ni, nūqšāā šüü; nīīpā tī yāā yaa lāā; sōsōō comāā tinēē maa sūü nūqšāā šüü: tuqs chīqī reè 1. 56. 11-16 'After they sit down, then, the best one hits the ones below him, counting from the second on down, with a strip of bamboo; again, the second one gets up and hits the ones below him, counting from there down, with a strip of bamboo: this is the way they do it'

One might suspect a semantic basis for the use of Perfective bases in enumerations: first one action is completed, then another. So, here, the first one hits the others (Perfective šüü); the second then gets up (lāā; this verb has just one base, and thus no Nonperfective-Perfective distinction). But these actions are as habitual as the summing up in the final chīqī reè (WT byed-pa, byas; ST che [~chī-], chgeè). We infer that the indications of one action preceding another are implicit in the order in which the actions are stated, as in the English translation, not in the nature of the base. Another example:

(46) "thāqō tī reè; nīīpā tī reè; sūpā tī reè" s chgeè: chanšīī yīīnā, chanšīīqāā la šüü; šūqūū lō la thiì yōōnā, šūqūū lō la chgeè cεε, qe qēē qhi

13. The corresponding Nonperfective bases are šu, che, thi.

āqī kΔp šòòqī reè 1.56.2-8 ‘“This is the first; this is the second; this is the third” he puts down: on a writing board if there is a writing board; on paper, if he is writing on paper, the teacher puts down the grades’

Here, again, the Perfective bases (chgè and šüü) do not point to actions completed before what is described next. Rather, what follows the Perfective base chgè is an elaboration of the preceding statement: it tells how the teacher puts down the grades. What follows the Perfective base šüü is an alternative to what precedes: if the teacher isn’t writing on a board, he writes on paper.

The opposition of Nonperfective and Perfective bases is, then, neutralised in nonfinal position. Neutralisation is, of course, one of the criteria for identifying markedness; the member of the opposition which appears under neutralisation—here, the Perfective base—is unmarked.

There is also evidence for the unmarked quality of a Perfective construction, the Perfective base with the suffix -pΔ followed by an auxiliary verb for ‘to be’ (yīī, reè). This can be used, with habitual meaning, in place of an Imperfective construction. For example:

(47) “phō” señēē thi qhārēē chēē thu kūqī yōḍ reè?

ōō tī ceemāā kēēnēē thōḍ taa cētāā, kēwā ceemāā kuqū lēēyāā taa, ānī, yaqa chi lēēyāā qhi, chēē chgè...phō šüüpa reè 3.159.7—160.6 ‘For what purpose do they perform this thing called the “transfer”?’ ‘Well, as to this, for a higher manner of rebirth in the future and so forth, so that one will get the next rebirth quickly and, then, so that one will get a better one (i.e. a better rebirth)...they perform the transfer’ If the construction in the answer were the same as in the question, we should have šuqī yōḍ reè rather than šüüpa reè. Here -pΔ reè is an unmarked alternative to -qī yōḍ reè. This ability to encompass the meaning of the unmarked member of the opposition Comrie (ibid., p. 112) has called “one of the most decisive criteria in identifying markedness...the marked category signals the presence of some feature, while the unmarked category simply says nothing about its presence or absence”.

The unmarked quality of the modern spoken Tibetan Perfective may be the

result of diachronic change. For many verbs, the written Tibetan Perfect root, from which the modern spoken Perfective base derives, had a suffix (-s) which the sources of the Nonperfective bases—the Present and Future roots—lacked. If it is true that “unmarked categories tend to have less morphological material than marked categories” (Comrie, *ibid.*, p. 114) and, conversely, that marked categories have more, then it was the Perfect root that was historically marked. In the case of, say, the verb for ‘to look’ the Present root *lta* lacked the prefix of the Future *blta*. If extra morphemes alone decided markedness, the Future root of this verb would have been marked in relation to the Present. The Perfect *bltas*, however, with its -s suffix, would have been morphologically marked in relation to both.

We may speculate that, with the loss of prefixes and suffixes through phonological change, the Perfect roots and their reflexes were no longer perceived as formally marked. This, of course, does not resolve all questions. With the development of a two-base system (Perfective, Nonperfective), the relationship of Perfective to Nonperfective could have been equipollent. That is, neither had to become marked or unmarked. What propelled the Perfective to its position of preeminence? That it does occupy this position seems beyond question; there has been an atrophying of Present and Future roots.

Will the spread of the Perfective eventually lead to the extinction of the Nonperfective? Has it already done so in any spoken Tibetan dialect? What is the basis for the claims made by, for example, Jäschke (1954.42) and Bacot (1946.72) that the Perfect is the root underlying the spoken Tibetan verb system? An intuitive perception that the reflexes of the Perfect are more common, or something more substantial? To answer these last questions will require solidly documented field work, with extensive records of natural speech, not just elicited forms in isolation.

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西藏口語中的動詞 (二)

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中文摘要

這是我們講西藏口語中的動詞的第二篇文章。第一篇講 ergativity (集刊 51: 15-32, 1980) 這一篇講 tense 跟 aspect。西藏口語中的動詞有些有兩個形式：sɛ̃ɛ̃, chɛ̃ɛ̃, chĩĩ 是 perfective base, sa, che, tɔ̃ 是 nonperfective base。這兩個不同的 base 加上詞尾和助動詞形成種種不同的 tense 和 aspect。