4. SEMANTIC RANGE OF PA

It is obvious that the syntactic formal distribution of $pa$ is only part of the story. Chinese is a language of mixed structure, exhibiting both the ergative and the non-ergative construction; their line of demarcation depends on semantics.

A linguist thinking with Bloomfield that "our knowledge of the world in which we live is so imperfect that we can rarely make accurate statements about the meaning of a speech-form" would be content with stating which verbs can be constructed with $pa$ and which cannot. Designations such as, say, ergative verbs versus non-ergative verbs, or any other names applied to them, would then be no more than labels given to classes obtained beforehand by means of purely formal definitions.

Such a procedure, however, which was indeed the first step of my research, appeared unsatisfactory in the long run. The two lists of ergative and non-ergative verbs would eventually be so long as to exhaust the totality of Chinese verbs, the foreign linguist as well as the learner being consequently incapable of predicting which verbs can be ergative and which are not. Besides, one and the same verb, sometimes, can admit or exclude the use of $pa$ according to the spoken or living context. For example, $k'an$ 看

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(37) Cf. No. 31 (1956), 22-50.
(38) The Rise of Scientific Philosophy, Berkeley and Los Angeles 1951, 257. In a similar way, for Saussure there is no relation sign-meaning, but, inside the sign, an union signifiant-signifié (cf. footn. 7).
(40) Cf. R. H. Robins: "... meanings are not used to establish grammatical categories, but only to name them, where practicable, after their status as grammatical categories in the language has been settled by formal criteria." Ancient & Mediaeval Grammatical Theory in Europe, London 1951, 95; H. Frei, A Note on Bloomfield's Limiting Adjectives (ES 36, 1955, 278-81 §3).
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'to see', normally non-ergative, is used ergatively in PS 1584. (41) A thorough examination of the semantics of pa can therefore not be dispensed with.

4.0. The preposition pa adds to its complement a twofold semantic content: a generic one (4.1. Indication), and a specific one (4.2. Inertia) (42).

4.1. Indication. The referent corresponding to the complement of pa is always meant as actual, never as virtual (43); this complement forms an indication, and not a characterization. (44) In the non-ergative construction, on the contrary, the object may be either.

In expressions of the type c 'fan 吃飯 'to eat' (literally: eat-rice), suo1 話 'speak' (say-word), cie3t84 'write' (write-word), k'an4 看書 'read' (read-book), etc., the object is virtual, as in the English pattern to change countenance, lose face, get hold, etc. (45) When it is convertible into an ergative construction, however, the complement of pa can only be actual, i.e. an indication.

For example, in tiui lien3 'to lose face', the word lien3 is virtual. Literally, one cannot say in Pekinese, He lost his face, or He lost it:

(819) He's covered himself with shame.

他 可 丢臉 了
t' a1 k'a3 tiui1 lien3 ia
he truly lose face pf
He truly lost face.

Turned into a pa-construction (t'a1 pa2 lien2 k'a3 tiui1 ia, or pa3 t'a1 lien2 k'a3 tiui1 ia), this sentence would not be natural. It would mean, e.g. in a tale, that somebody has lost his concrete face. So it has been possible for my informant to construct sentence 1903 (His face reddened with

(41) In PS 746, c tao 知道 'to know', normally non-ergative, is constructed with the energetic preposition ζag4. Cf. 5.1.1.1.

(42) These two points correspond more or less to the oral teaching of Chu Chia-Chien 朱家勤 (Ecole nationale des langues orientales vivantes, Paris, about 1926), who explained the complement of pa as being always "determinate" (Fr. déterminé), and referring to a "change".


(45) Cf. Fr. faire feu 'shoot', lâcher prise 'lose hold', prendre parti 'side with', etc.
anger) with \( pa \). In sentence 7 (non-ergative), the subject \( lien_3 \) is actual and refers likewise to the concrete face:

It gave her such a fright that she turned pale.

\[
\text{她 害怕了 面都白了}
\]

\( t'a_1 \; gia_4 \; to \; lien_3 \; tou_1 \; pai_2 \; la \)

She feared so that her face became all white.

Therefore, it could have admitted \( pa : pa_3 \; t'a_1 \; lien_3 \; tou_1 \; gia_4 \; pai_2 \; la \) It frightened her face so as to make it all white./ Her face all feared so as to become white.

4.1.1. From the standpoint of formal analysis, the complement of \( pa \) is actual after the following criteria:

It is a pronoun (PS 246, 538, 631, 744, 880, 888, 1110, 1202, 1371, 1389, 1528, 1793, 1849, 1938); if not, it can be replaced (or referred to)\(^{(48)}\) by a pronoun;

It can be accompanied by an indicator\(^{(47)}\) (pronominal adjective, limiting adjective) or by a pronoun used in this function (PS 13, 76, 77, 91, 298, 393, 463, 551, 776, 871, 1048, 1054, 1060, 1067, 1113, 1407, 1460, 1479, 1480, 1533, 1811);

Both these criteria can be combined (PS 547: \( \varepsilon_9 \; gia_3 \) 這些, indicator, pronoun).

4.1.2 The complement of \( pa \) can be definite, as in the majority of cases, or indefinite. The Peiping Sentences offer three authentic instances of the latter type: 871 (indefinite numeral: 'two things'), 1110 (\( \varepsilon_9 \; mo_2 \; tu \) 甚麼的 'anything'), and 1811 ('any problem').\(^{(48)}\) There are two examples in Siwei Lou's additional sentences (3.3.2): 1190 ('a pig'), and 1293 ('a ship'). Jablonski's Children Rhymes contain quite a number of instances: 28.7 (to eat chestnuts), 50.8 (feather a shuttlecock), 73.4 (to put on a dressing-gown), 74.8 (to take a vow), 92.5 (to pour out pickling brine), 98.13 (to steam cakes), 98.22 (to sew clothes), 149.4 (to endure insults), 151.11 (to excite love), 154.16 (to catch hens), 159.5.2 (to ride oxen); in all these examples,

\(^{(46)}\) In one of Grootaers' sentences (no. 6), the complement of \( pa \) is taken up again after the verb under the form of a pronoun ('The door, close it'). J. Mullie has three examples of the kind: \( Het Chineesch Taalei- gen, I, Peiping 1930, \S\; 58.7 \) p. 158–9.

\(^{(47)}\) Fr. indiquant: H. Frei (title in footn: 44).

\(^{(48)}\) Sentence 560 may be definite or indefinite.
however, where the complement of \textit{pa} is not marked by an indicator, the
indefinite sense results from the context, and the interpretation is therefore
not always sure.

In grammars, "\textit{actual}" is generally called \textit{determinate}. J. Mullie speaks
of a "\textit{determinate accusative}" (WG p. 51), and his rule (the determinate
complement is the only one susceptible of the \textit{pa}-construction) is approved
by Lû Hsiang (WG p. 58). Before them, Chu Chia-Chien stressed the
same point for his students. Because of the confusion with "\textit{definite}"
and because of the parallel confusion between "\textit{indeterminate}" ('\textit{virtual}')
and "\textit{indefinite}'\textsuperscript{(50)}, the terms \textit{determinate} and \textit{determination} are misleading.

When J. Mullie (I § 58.2 in fine, p. 154) contends that there are only
few exceptions to his rule of the determinate complement of \textit{pa} (such as:
I have forgotten \textit{something}, I have beaten \textit{somebody}), he falls into this
very confusion; the element in question forms an indication: although
indefinite, it is actual. And when Grootaers adds an example from his
own collection (no. 28: There comes a wolf!) in order to prove that in
this case too the criterion of determination does not hold (p. 61), the
complement, here again, is an indication.\textsuperscript{(51)}

4.2. \textbf{Inertia}. Since indication belongs also to the non-ergative con-
struction (as subject or as object), this first semantic component of \textit{pa} is a
generic one; it forms the genus of the definition. The second component,
belonging exclusively to the ergative construction, is a specific one; it
constitutes the differentia of the definition:

The referent which corresponds to the complement of \textit{pa} is meant as
subjected to a change;\textsuperscript{(52)} it is inert, or "\textit{acted}"\textsuperscript{(53)} whereas the initiator
of the change is the energetic member of the relation (cf. § 5.2).

\textsuperscript{(49)} Cf. footn. 42.
\textsuperscript{(50)} A point stressed by Bally, § 111.
\textsuperscript{(51)} Besides, for Pekinese people, the meaning, although actual in both
cases, could be definite ('There comes the wolf!') as well as indefinite;
however, they would probably add \textit{ke} 個 in the latter case: \textit{pa}, \textit{ko lay},
\textit{laiz} \textit{la} 個 狼 來 了.
\textsuperscript{(52)} Chu Chia-Chien is, to my knowledge, the only one who noticed
this feature. Cf. footn. 42.
\textsuperscript{(53)} That is why Chinese informants happen to say that \textit{pa} adds to its
complement a "\textit{passive}" meaning.
In spite of border-line cases, this conception of "change" has a definite linguistic connotation.

4.2.1. The following is a list of classified examples taken from my material (adding WJ and WG). It has, as a classification, no bearing on linguistics except for drawing the semantic dividing line between ergative and non-ergative; the main point is to establish in which cases pa can or cannot be used, and why.

4.2.1.1. The most obvious examples are such of concrete transformations.

Form, etc. : to squeeze flat (PS 1389), divide a river (1475), run smooth somebody's doorstep (WG 1), steam cakes (WJ 98.13), eat chestnuts (28.7), suck opium (150.12, 150.17);

Colour, etc. : paint green (PS 1321), become dark-violet (1903), get dirty (1096);

Body: wake up (1849), blow one's nose (30), feed a child (WG 5);

Pain: hurt (PS 50, 76, 77), bite (1202), give a headache (1060), get ill (3.3.2), feel tired (WG 21), neglect somebody's health (12).

The following example shows that the difference between ergative and non-ergative may be rather small. Sentence 351 (There's somebody knocking at the door! ieu3 zel3 tas men2 ne 有人是打門嗎) would have been artificial with pa: simple knocking has, in the linguistic mind, no influence on the door. If the sentence, however, is 'Somebody is hammering at the door', pa becomes quite natural:

... pa3 men2 ta3 te ci3 ciap3
把門打的直響
i door knock r d resound

... knocking the door so that it continuously resounds.

The same is the case with WJ 148.18: 'He dreamt that the God of Wealth was beating his door' (pa3 men2 ci'iao1 把門敲), where the verb means 'beat (a drum)'.

4.2.1.2 Change of quantity, size, intensity, etc.: to pile up money (PS 560), spend money (WJ 148.31), widen a road (PS 336), pour (add) a liquid (WJ 92.5), stretch out (PS 321: § 3.3.2), cool (39), freeze (1371, 1370: § 3.3.2), tighten (1391), loosen (293), regulate the light (before taking a photograph: 1292).
4.2.1.3. Destruction: destroy (PS 1889), blow up a bridge (399), break (95: 3.3.2, 253, 356, 483, 1213, proverb: 3.3.2), tear (1479, WG 3), burn (WJ 148.35);

Disappearance, cessation: turn out the light (PS 1303), hide (888, WJ 53.14), throw away (give up: PS 776), lose (314, 502, 509, 856), forget (299, 662, 1050, 1263), pass the right time (1729, WG 17);

Repair: umbrella (PS 1751), clothes (WJ 98.22).

4.2.1.4. Appear: PS 1293 (§ 3.3.2), find (WG 13, 41), look after (Pachin: WG p. 43 footn.), show (PS 13), tell (make known: WJ 147.6, PS 972; enumerate: WJ 87, 3–4, 170.8, 177.2), expound one's programme (PS 694).

4.2.1.5. As a rule, an entity that changes its place is apt to take pa: to put (PS 62, 276, 298, 342, 789, 1113, 1573, WJ 19.21, WG 2), put on (WJ 73.4), fix on (PS 1468), move to (246, 880), carry to (393), send (463, WJ 144.2), throw (PS 73, 547, 1110), go away (WJ 18, 42), fly away (30, proverb: 3.3.2), run away (PS 1190: 3.3.2), remove (91, 282, 1048, 1140, 1460), fan away (WJ 39.8), draw (PS 272), take out (269, 1547, WJ 19.18), flow out, run off (WG 7, 38), bring (PS 1049, 1712), come (WG 25, 28), return (WJ 146.29), hang up (PS 1407), lift up (WJ 11.8), hang down (148.12), fall in (WG 19), bury (PS 160, 631), shake (WJ 22.7, 26.6, 60.3);

Exchange: change the sheets (PS 268), change a banknote into coins (551);

Distribution, arrangement: put order (WG 8), scatter papers (PS 1480), stir a room (1740).

4.2.1.6 An interesting fact is that an entity which is surrounded, or occupied, may enter the pa-construction: it is treated as undergoing an influence:

surrounded by a crowd (PS 1528), take into one's arms (WJ 119.4), suck the hand of one's mother (1.1), feather a shuttlecock (50.8);

occupy a table (PS 1533), enter a restaurant (WJ 170.5–6), ride oxen (159.5.2).

In WG 9 (The chain passes through this hole), the hole is occupied by the chain; in PS 1154 (The bomb burst through the steel plate), the plate is destroyed by the bomb. Sentence 1166 (We went through a forest), however, could not have admitted pa: there is neither occupation nor alteration of the forest.

4.2.1.7 Another noticeable feature is that an entity, when its movement
or liberty is checked, is compatible with *pa*:

lock up jewels (PS 312), close the door (WG 6, PS 341, 1472, WJ 167.5), keep the mouth shut (PS 32), paste the window-paper (WG 10), prop up a table (PS 1504), tie up the dog (1938), catch hens (WJ 154.16), arrest a person (149.25).

4.2.1.8 Intercourse:

Ask someone (to do something) (WJ 148.6, 148.9), receive a scolding (149.4, 149.7, 149.24), to judge guilty (PS 744), beat the enemies (760), be busy (WG 36), buy (11), sell (PS 370, 581, 1067), offer something (538), lend (1054), arrange (match) a marriage (WJ 74.5), take a wife (85.15).

4.2.1.9 Psychological:

Manage an affair (PS 1793), impress people (WJ 149.14), get impatient (148.5, 148.13), get angry (149.5: §3.4.1. footn. 17, WG 20), dishearten people (WJ 98.19, 145.32), cheat someone (WG 24), be frightened (37), take (promise) a vow (WJ 74.8, 74.21), wish a Happy New Year (‘wish the year’: 68.5), to confuse things (PS 871, 1811).

Wang Li rightly contends that the *pa*-construction does not apply to a sentence like “I love him” (WG p. 54). Indeed, from the standpoint of Chinese grammar, loving somebody has no action on the person loved. The opposite case is that of WJ 151.11 (to have a love-affair): *pa*3 c’īn2 t’iao3 excite love (seduce).

A verb such as *k’an4* look, consider’ is normally non-ergative, as expected for sensorial verbs in general (seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, feeling). In the *pa*-sentence PS 1584 (Time is very important for Westerners), however, the Chinese version ‘means that they ‘consider time so as to make it very important’.

4.2.2. Three conclusions may be drawn from this conception of inertia as the specific semantic component of *pa*(54)

4.2.2.1. A sentence expressing a state can be constructed with *pa* only if that state results from an action.

Grootaers declares that in his dialect the verb [xwe] 堆 (Pek. xuai4) expresses a state, and that it is never used alone to denote a destructive action; in the latter sense it always appears as the second member of a

(54) Examples to the contrary are extremely few, and only in WJ; 72.2 (contemplate the flowers), 158.8 (listen to a comedy).
group, as in [taxwe] 'wreck by beating' (WG p. 45 footn.). Even if
the translation may be static (31: his back is twisted, 32: one is ruined,
33: the axle too was broken), the meaning always refers, however, to a
previous action. This feature looks like the Greek perfect or, in present-
day spoken French, the compound past, which are also seemingly static
(Fr. *il est mort*='he died and now he is dead'), and it has to be viewed
in connection with the perfective particle *l* normally ending the sentence.
Further examples: Your hands are icy (PS 1370: § 3.3.2), His father is
ill (3.3.2).

4.2.2.2. A sentence expressing an event can be constructed with *pa*
only if that event exerts a modifying influence.

PS 680 (Such a great girl still playing with dolls!) shows the direct
pattern subject + verb + object (*...xì zuì uà ua n...* '...still play
doll!'). As playing with dolls has here no modifying influence on them,
the ergative pattern *pa* ua2 ua is impossible.

Likewise, in 1805 (There are many others going besides me), the subject
'many others' is not rendered with *pa*: this is not a telling displacement,
and no other sentence of the kind is built by means of *pa*. The opposite
case is, for example: He was taken to hospital (246), —to a lunatic
asylum (880), or: A pig is running away (1190: § 3.3.2), The people all
fled away (WG 30), Where is the path gone? (WG 42).

The subject of PS 1163 (Not a single branch is stirring: *pu týu*, 不動
'not move') is no more open to the use of *pa*.

4.2.2.3. A sentence expressing a creation can be constructed with *pa*
only if the complement is definite, i.e. previously in mind (since the entity
which undergoes a change must necessarily exist beforehand).

So-called effective verbs, when used as such, viz. with an indefinite object,
do not admit *pa*. Therefore, Chang Hao-An had to keep to the direct pat-
tern verb + object for all the following phrases:

bear a child (135, 928): *t’ien* xài t ti 添孩子
light a fire (1913): *tien*...*xuo* 點...火
bear fruit (1180): *ci* kuo*ti* 結果子
write a letter (1690): *cie*...*cin* 寫...信
take a photo (1066): *tào*...*p’ie* 照...像片兒
make a suit (280): *tuo*...*fu* 做...衣服
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build a villa (333):  

If the sentences had meant ‘the letter (I told you)’, ‘the photo (in question)’, ‘the stove (of our room)’, etc., pa would have been possible, as then the construction expresses a change, namely the bringing into existence of a thing that was already in the mind.

Verbs constructed with pa happen to appear as effective verbs only in the free language of translation. WJ 64. 16 “on fait la pâte” really means ‘one raises the dough’ (pa2 mie3 fà1 把面發). WJ 82. 6 “faire du thé” is actually ‘infuse the tea’ (pa3 éa3 p’ao4“茶泡). According to the context, WJ 98. 29 “allumez du feu” (pa3 xuowu3 sè5“火生) looks like ‘light the stove’. WG 2 “(Beans are sown in the following way: one) makes a hole in the earth, (one) puts a bean in it”, means more literally ‘now digging the earth(56), now pressing in the beans’ (把土—刨，把菉子—按)(57).

4.2.3. There is a connection between pa-construction and aspect.

4.2.3.1. Most pa-sentences end in the perfective particle la 了, or with a resultative expression (cf. the list of § 2; symbol: r)(58). As pa underlines a change, it is quite natural, though not always necessary, that its completion and the kind of result be explicitly stated(59).

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(55) Cf., on the contrary, WJ 98. 22: pa3 išāng fū3g2 把衣裳縫 ‘sew (mend) clothes’.

(56) Cf. PS 1127: The workers are digging the ground (ua1 ti4 挖地), which could be expressed with pa.

(57) Following the distinction made by some linguists between affective verbs, so called because “their causation affects their object in a durative sense” (Fr. cuire la pâte ‘bake the dough’), and effective verbs, “which reflect the modality of the action or the means by which the action is attained” (Fr. cuire le pain ‘bake bread’), Grootaers is of opinion that “when the Chinese wishes to express an effective verb and at the same time wishes to emphasize the modality, […] it makes use of pa, […] Having put pa with the object in front of the sentence, the Chinese leaves the leading part to the effective verb with its modality.” (p. 66-7). None of the pa-sentences of his material, however, contains an effective verb; quite the reverse, affective verbs (when defined as above) are apt to be used with pa.

(58) The only noticeable exception is PS 1533 (imperfective particle laīcù).

(59) The connection ergative-perfective has been observed in other languages too. Cf. C. Tagliavini, Osservazioni sull‘ ergativo georgico (Mélanges J. van Ginneken, Paris 1937), 190-91; W. K. Matthews, The Ergative Construction in Indo-Aryan (Lingua 3, 1952-53), 405; C. Regamey (art. cit. in footn. 36), 364 n. 9.
4.2.3.2: That permits to determine the part of truth in Wang Li's and Grootaers' theories on *pa*.

4.2.3.2.1. By means of *pa*, according to Wang Li, "common phrases with an object following the verb, can be transformed into 處置式 chuchih-shih-sentences or 'sentences of execution form'; the name is chosen because the use of such *pa*-sentences is limited to actions which are susceptible of 'execution'; therefore it does not apply to a sentence like 'I love him', nor to any kind of negative sentence." (WG p. 54). Lü Hsiang too states among the conditions imposed on the use of *pa*, that the verb must express some "action", some "execution" (WG p. 60). Wang Li further says that an execution form *stricto sensu* may also be used if, besides verb and object, there is expressed a result, a direction or destination, a form, a number, or an aspect (WG pp. 55, 65). This "consecutive form", as he calls it, "draws attention to the fact that the action of the verb is itself an effect, a result." (WG p. 55).

This theory, so far as I know it from Grootaers' exposition, does not amount to a true explanation of the *pa*-construction.

On the one side, there are *pa*-constructions without "execution". Where is the "execution" in missing an opportunity (PS 1729), in losing something (314, 502, 509, 856), in forgetting something (299, 662, 1050, 1263)? We know from §4.2.1.9 that the incompatibility of *pa* with a sentence like "I love him" is not due to lack of execution, but to the fact that loving has no modifying influence on the person loved. Again, we have seen (3.4.4) that the treatment of negatives with the *pa*-construction has nothing particular and is simply a case of a definite syntactic pattern which is common, beyond *pa*, to all prepositional syntagmas in front of a verb.

On the other side, there are "executions" and "consecutions" without *pa*. As already stated, a verb of event is not, by itself, an ergative verb (4.2.2.2), and the so-called effective verbs, when used as such, require the direct construction (4.2.2.3).

4.2.3.2.2 According to Grootaers (chap. 7: A Tentative Theory), the use of *pa* is adopted "to bring into prominence the modalities of an inherency" (p. 62). By "inherency", he means the relation existing between the theme of an enunciation and its "modality".

To an intransitive verb is added a modality expressing a finite aspect, a causality, a terminus, a form, a state, a direction or a starting point.
In a greater number of parallel cases, the \textit{pa}-construction is also found with verbs which express a causality, i.e. a causality of inherency (as Fr. \textit{égayer} 'faire être gai'). Examining his Shansi sentences, Grootaers finds the very same kind of modalities as above, as well as those listed by Wang Li: direction, result, and several aspects: of state, of reduplication, of end, of momentariness (p. 64-5).

In short, "all the sentences with \textit{pa}+noun have an identical structure and an identical syntactic function: an emphasis is put on the modality determining the theme of the sentence." (p. 65). Grootaers will have it that this emphasis does not bear on the \textit{pa}-complement: "the noun with \textit{pa} is not moved [in front of the verb] to load it with emphasis, but rather to disencumber the verb so as to make place for a modality." (p. 65).

This theory of "disencumberment" brings us back, in spite of the semantic ingredient, to the formal type of explanation (3.2), and "modalities" (in the very broad sense given to this term by Grootaers) can, other things being equal, be expressed with \textit{pa} as well as without. Take the following example:

(1562) He struck me three blows: 

\begin{verbatim}
他 捶 了 我 三 捶
t'\text{a}_1 \text{c}'\text{ue}_2 l^8 \text{uo}_3 | \text{san}_1 \text{c}'\text{ue}_2
\end{verbatim}

If this sentence is turned into a \textit{pa}-construction (t'\text{a}_1 \text{pa}_2 \text{uo}_3 | c'\text{ue}_2 l^8 \text{san}_1 c'\text{ue}_2), the "modality" (number: three blows, aspect: perfect) will remain exactly the same.

Besides, there are lots of \textit{pa}-sentences with no "modality" expressed, except the final perfective particle l^8 \text{i}, for the use of which it is not at all necessary to resort to \textit{pa}.

Finally, as Grootaers admits himself (p. 68), in the case of "subjective" \textit{pa} the formal structure of the sentence will be the same with or without \textit{pa}, and the expression of modality too. Yet he sees in the use of \textit{pa} before a "subject" simply an extension of "objective" \textit{pa}; this view, which concerns diachronistic linguistics, may be true or not, but it does not amount to an explanation from the synchronic point of view, where "subjective" and "objective" \textit{pa}, once recognized as one class (3.4.2), call for one theory.
4.2.3.3. The upshot of this discussion is that pa is not a device designed for expressing the "execution" of an action (Wang Li) and its "modality" (Grootaers), but that, on the contrary, the latter are by-products of the ergative construction.

4.3. Ergative vs. non-ergative. The interrelation, in Chinese, of ergative and non-ergative, can be examined from two points of view: that of system (Saussure's "rapports associatifs"), between elements in absentia, and that of discourse (Saussure's "rapports syntagmatiques"), between elements in praesentia(60).

4.3.1. From the first standpoint, the exchange between ergative and non-ergative obeys two different rules.

On the one hand, considering semantics alone, the pa-construction can always be replaced by a construction without pa. This is in accordance with Grootaers' conclusion that "there may be no means to find for all pa-sentences a cogent reason why pa has to be used." (p. 61). To produce only one example, PS 1371 could easily be replaced by uo3 tug4 xuai4 la 我凍僵了 'I am frozen bad', or by tug4 xuai4 la uo3 la (It) freezes me bad'. When turning a pa-construction into the direct pattern seems impossible (299), or less natural (336), it is due to syntactic formal reasons (3.2.1) that have nothing to do with the specific function of pa, which is a semantic one (4.2.: Inertia).

On the other hand, the non-ergative construction (subject+transitive verb+object, or subject+intransitive verb) cannot always be replaced by the pa-construction. While there are no cogent semantic reasons why pa has to be used, there are such for the cases where its use is impossible, and these reasons, as we have seen, rest essentially with semantics: the complement of pa can only be actual (i.e., an indication), inert, and, in particular, existing beforehand. Grootaers' statement is therefore irreversible, and when he adds that his conclusion "is clearer still when pa is

(60) This principle of classification is, in Saussure's opinion, the only way of laying the foundations of grammar (chapters headed Rapports syntagmatiques et rapports associatifs, and La grammaire et ses subdivisions). R. Jakobson says: combination and selection; cf. R. J. and Morris Halle, Fundamentals of Language, The Hague 1956 (chapter headed The Twofold Character of Language). Of course, discourse does not mean Saussure's "parole"; both system and discourse belong to "langue".

(61) I would specify: a cogent semantic reason.
used with intransitive verbs; there seems to be complete freedom in the language to drop the pa or to use it"; a distinction becomes imperative: complete freedom to drop pa, no freedom to add it at will (cf. PS 1163 and 1805: 4.2.2.2).

Whenever, in a language-system, these two conditions: a class A always replaceable by another class, that other class not always replaceable by A, are fulfilled, we have a criterion for the sort of relations that logicians call class-inclusion. Ergative and non-ergative are not contrary or contradictory classes excluding each other like, say, two classes A and B: one of the two terms of the relation (A) is included in the other (A + non-A). Let us call the ergative (E) the included term and the non-ergative (∼E) the including;

\[ E \subset \sim E. \]

This feature occurs very often in phonematic and grammatical systems. Among the tenses of present-day spoken French, for instance, the recent past is included in the compound past: \(^{(62)}\) instead of (1717) Je viens de lire sa vie 'I have just finished reading his life', we can say, as a rule, J'ai lu sa vie 'I have read his life', but the latter is not always replaceable by the former.

From the very nature of inclusion, the included term is expected to be less frequent than the including. Out of 2000 sentences, the 96 pa-sentences are a minority indeed; similarly, out of 2036 printed lines (rather short verses mostly), Jablonski's Children Rhymes contain 58 instances of pa.

Contrary to Grootaers, who maintains that the pa-complement is not moved in front of the verb for the sake of emphasis (4.2.3.2.2), H. Maspero, as we have already seen in § 3.3.3, thinks that pa is used to lay some emphasis on its complement, be it the "direct object" or the "subject" of the verb. Yet emphasis is a rather vague notion that needs a more elaborate statement:

Whenever, in an actual speech-situation, the included and the including term are equally admissible, the individual speaker has the possibility of choosing the former for the sake of precision. For instance, when there is

\[ (62) \text{ Included and including correspond to Jakobson's "marked" (merkmalshaltig) and "unmarked" (merkmalloser). Cf. Zur Struktur des russischen Verbums, Charisteria Mathes., Prague 1932, 74–83; Beitrag zur allgemeinen Kasuslehre, TCLP 6, 1936, 240–88.} \]

\[ (63) \text{ Cf. F. Kahn (title in footn. 2), 119.} \]
no cogent linguistic reason for choosing between *Je viens de lire sa vie* and *J'ai lu sa vie*, the user will prefer the first turn if he wants to be more accurate. Likewise with the *pa*-construction, which, in case of free choice, the speaker will apply whenever he is desirous of laying stress on the fact that an inert entity undergoes a modifying influence.

This means that the motive of the choice is not linguistic, but psychological. It does not belong to the language-system (Saussure's *langue*), but to its use by the speaker (Saussure's *parole*).

4.3.2. Now to the standpoint of discourse. In the sentence a *pa*-complement can only be followed by an ergative verb, but the latter may occur with as well as without *pa*; in other words, the use of *pa* presupposes an ergative verb, whereas the latter does not presuppose *pa*. This relationship of unilateral dependence(64) corresponds to what logicians call material implication. In symbols: $i \rightarrow \varepsilon \vee(65)$.  

4.3.3. It has been shown by Sechehaye that the associative order is self-sufficient and that, in principle, nothing prevents it from working alone(66), while the syntagmatic order is a complication added to the former and always presupposes the existence of it, as without which it has no real basis(67). This amounts to saying that system and discourse stay in a relationship of unilateral dependence. In symbols: $D \rightarrow S$.

If linguistics were already an axiomatized science, the truths of discourse could be presented as theorems deduced from the axioms of system. In the particular case treated in this section, the unilateral dependence of *pa* from the class of ergative verbs in the field of discourse, is itself a deduction from the fact that, in the sphere of system, the ergative class is included in the non-ergative one. In symbols: $(i \rightarrow \varepsilon \vee) \rightarrow (E \subset \sim E)$.  

(64) The classical example, since Hjelmslev, is that of the Latin preposition *sine* 'without', which presupposes the ablative case, whereas the latter is not necessarily connected with *sine*. Cf. J. Whatmough, *Language*, New York 1956, 143 (b).


(66) Cf., on a broader level than language, the system of traffic lights, where green and red, as a rule, are not combined.

5. DISTRIBUTION OF zào, ciao, AND ke. A theory which
considers pa as marking the inertial member of an ergative construction
would remain incomplete without a confrontation with the energetic member.
As with pa, I shall first present the material (5.1), turning afterwards to
its interpretation (5.2).

5.1. The material. The marks of the energetic are in Pekinese
the prepositions zào and ciao, and the preverb ke.

5.1.1. Like other prepositions, zào and ciao are a position-class; we
have to deal with signs that work now as verbs now as prepositions (Cf.
footn. 31).

As verbs, zào and ciao are sometimes used with a concrete meaning,
sometimes they perform the function of a causative mark, but there are
transitional cases where it seems difficult to make a distinction between
the uses.

Concrete zào means ‘allow, let, beg’:

(626) [It’s a private garden], you can’t go in.
不 請 進 去
pu4 zào4 cìn4 c’ü
not allow enter go (au)

It is not allowed to enter.

(1502) Stairs: Let me go down.
請 我 下 去
zào4 uɔɔɔ cia4 c’ü
let I down (v) go (au)

In 672, the meaning may be concrete (‘invite’) as well as causative
(‘let’):

To the maid: Show him into the drawing-room.
請 客 隨 客 房 去 吧
zào4 tao4 k’o4 t’i4 li c’ü4 pa
let to guest room in go (v)!

‘Let (him) go into the guest-room.

The causative uses of zào can be translated by ‘make’ or ‘let’:
(31) *Draught:* It made me sneeze.

It made me sneeze.

(284) [I pulled at his sleeve] till he followed me.

(I pulled at his sleeve) till he followed me.

(773) [She's so stubborn it won't be easy] to change her mind.

[She's so stubborn it won't be easy] to change her mind.

(868) [That is a strong argument] for accepting.

[That is a strong argument] for accepting.

(1288) *Breeze:* [Yes], it gives a delicious feeling of freshness.

[Yes], it gives a delicious feeling of freshness.

(1600) No, it's he who let her come.

(1601) No, it's he who lets her come.

=1600 without final *ta*
It cost him 180,000, [that house].

Concrete ciāo means 'call, name'. The transition to the causative appears in 324 ('Who told you to...?'), 726 (id.), 1918 ('advise to'), 1014 ('order an article').

In addition to the pa-sequence 958, there are, in Chang's use, two instances of ciāo as a causative verb:

(799) Patient is out of danger: The news has cheered me up.

(911) Laughing at his failure: What a disappointment for him, [can't you imagine it]!

We are thus in presence of two verbs which, although of different meaning when referring to concrete behaviour, can both be used as causatives.

Causative ciāo seems to be stronger than causative zhāy, but they do not form a logical pair. As the general meaning ('let') is common to both, whereas the stronger sense ('force, compel') belongs to ciāo alone, it is easier, as a rule, to replace ciāo by zhāy than the opposite. This means that the two causatives stand in a relationship of class-inclusion: the ciāo-class is included in the zhāy-class.

As a consequence, the zhāy-causative seems to be rather more frequent than the ciāo-causative (in PS, 8 zhāy against 3 ciāo; in WJ, 2 zhāy against 1).
1. *ciao*.

5.1.1.1. The *Peiping Sentences* offer 14 instances where *ça* occurs as a preposition. In the English text, it corresponds mostly to the preposition *by* introducing the agent of a passive verb:

(123) He got poisoned by an insect-bite.

He 蟲 免 咬 了 一 口 中 毒 了

He has been bitten by an insect, he got poison.

(273) The carpet is moth-eaten.

The carpet has been made bad by insects.

(505) Yard: [One can't see anything], it's all surrounded with boards.

...it's all circled up, by boards.

(524) His jaw was shattered by a bullet.

His jaw was broken by a bullet.

(525) He's been killed by a shell.

(557) Pickpocket: She's had her purse pinched.

Her money-bag has been pinched away by somebody.
(620) **Little girl**: She got lost in the crowd.

她 讓 人 亱 沒 了

t'a1 zan4 zen2|kuo3 - me2 la

She has been surrounded by people so as to become lost.

(730) **He was taken by a policeman, the drunkard.**

那 醉 鬼, 讓 巡警 抓 了 去 了

ne4 t'ue4 - kue3, zan4 cun2cin3|cua1 la c'u la

That drunkard has been taken away by police.

(746) **If he's found out, [he won't get off with only a fine].**

要 讓 人 知道 了

ia4o zan4 zon2 c1tao4 l4, ...

If it is discovered by people/if people know it,...

(1106) **Concourse of people**: [What's the matter?——] It's a schoolboy that has been run over.

有 個 小 學生 鬼 轎 車 転 了

iaus ke ciao3 ciue2sha1| zan4 c'ei1 ia4 l4

There is a little schoolboy who has been run over by a car.

(1151) **The rust has eaten away the metal.**

這 塊 鐵 全 讓 錆 咬 了

ce4 k'unai3 t'iec2 || c'uan2 zan4 ciou4 | ia4 l4

This iron has been eaten completely by rust.

(1208) I've been dreadfully bitten by a mosquito.

我 護 蚊子 叮 了一 嘴 好 的

uo3 zan4 uan2t4 | ti1 l4 | t'ue3 | xao4 to

I have been bitten a bite by a mosquito in a good manner!

(1350) **Bees**: They come attracted by the scent.

讓 香 味 招 來 了

zan4 cisai1 - uai41 | ciao1 - lai l4

e fragrant odour call come pf
After the dew: The lawn will soon dry in the sun.

The lawn will soon be dried dry by the sun.

5.1.1.2. The parallel use of ciao as a preposition is Pekinese too, but the Peiping Sentences offer no instance of it. This may be an individual trait of Chang's language, or an accidental feature due to contents of the questionnaire.

5.1.1.3. In parallel to what we have seen for zan and ciao as causative verbs, the preposition ciao is stronger than the preposition zan, and there seems to be the same relationship of inclusion between them. As far as examples are available from other sources, in and outside Pekinese, the preposition ciao is only found with verbs expressing a strong action: arrest (Mullie §185 B 1), bite (WJ 39.9, 102. last line; Mullie ibid.), deceive (WG no. 40; Mullie ibid.), devour (Mullie ibid.), freeze (Mullie §185 B 2), kill (WG no. 39; Mullie §185 B 1), push (WG p. 47 footn. 1), scold (Mullie §185 B 1 and 2), tear out (Mullie §185 B 2). The preposition zan, on the contrary, is neutral, i.e. it occurs with weak as well as with strong causations. This may explain the difference of frequency in PS (14 zan vs. 0. ciao)(71).

With this reservation (ciao, strong, included in zan, strong or weak), every statement made in the following about one of these two prepositions will be assumed to be valid for the other too.

5.1.2. Pekinese ke occurs in several position-classes: verb, preposition, and preverb, i.e. adverb prefixed to verb.

The verbal use (PS 13, 73, 1113) and the prepositional one (551, 1049) are well known. Preverbial ke means, as a rule, that an action is beneficial (463) or detrimental (1889). The semantic affinity between these three position-classes is evident from the comparison of 13 (‘give me’), 551 (‘for me’), and 463 (‘graciously’).

In four sentences, Chang Hao-An has used the preverb ke without mentioning the actor, i.e. what, in our Western languages, would be called the

(71) In WJ, however, there are 1 example of zan (148.38) against 2 of ciao (39.9, 102. last line), but these figures are too small to have a statistical value.
agent of a passive verb:

(731) The thief was arrested before he had run far.

贼还没跑多远就给逮着了
thief yet n(pt) run howmuch far then erg arrest r pf
The thief had not yet run far, then he was arrested.

(961) Cinema picture: The scene where they kiss each other has been cut out.

接吻那一节给剪去了
kiss that one scene(cl) erg cut go(r) pf
That scene of kissing has been cut away.

(1470) The dog is on the chain.

狗给拴起来了
dog erg tie(v) up come(au) pf
The dog is tied up.

(1688) The match has been put off owing to the rain.

比赛因为下雨给搅了
match because fall rain erg interrupt pf
The match has been interrupted because there fell rain.

5.2. The theory. It seems that sinologues, Chinese as well as foreign, have not yet realized the true difference between pa and some related means of expression. So when Lü Hsiang equals pa to 爱 or ciao (WG p. 60), or when Grootaers speaks of an "alternative or even simultaneous use of [pa] and [tco]" (p. 47, foottn. 1), meaning that they are equivalents.

5.2.1. In contradistinction to pa, the preposition 爱 introduces the energetic member of an ergative construction. This statement is founded on the following criteria:

5.2.1.1. First, from the syntactic formal standpoint it must be noted that the 爱-complement, like the pa-complement (§3.4.4), occurs in the position of an adverbial determinant of the verb. In the two types of expression which correspond to 'He has beaten me', and 'I was beaten
by him’, both complements have the same distribution:

\[
t, a_1 \quad p a_2 \quad u o_2 \quad t a_3 \quad l^a
\]

He me打了
he i I beat \(pf\)

\[
u o_3 \quad z a g_4 \quad t'a_1 \quad t a_3 \quad l^a
\]

我让他打了
I e he beat \(pf\)

5.2.1.2. No exchange is possible between \(z a g\) and \(p a\), in any case not without a change in the semantic design of the sentence.

After having analysed the following sentence, taken from the novel Erhnu ying-hsiung chuan 兒女英雄傳:

"\(c\) "o Œö žÙ—¹ ŒÂ "Žè 'Å ¶ pa Teng Chiu-kung lole ko p'aishou tachang

Teng Chiu-kun was so glad that he clapped his hands,

Lü Hsiang goes on: ‘...we may state that \(p a\)...has only the sense of 使 shih or 使 chiao, if not without sense at all. There are some sentences in which the use of \(p a\) seems to be only traditional, its semantic contents are slighter still, as one may find sometimes 請 jang,...’ (WG p. 60). Indeed, it is possible, in such a sentence, to replace \(p a\) by ciao or \(z a g\), but the meaning is then different: ciao or \(z a g\) would be, in that case, the causative verb: ‘It made T. so glad that he clapped his hands’.

The opposite is provided by 799 and 911 (quoted 5.1.1). If we replace the causative verb ciao by \(p a\), which is possible here though less usual, sug\(k'uai\) and xan\(c\)in\(1\) pass from the position-class of adjectives to that of verbs: ‘This news comforted my heart-inner’, ‘This chilled him how much!’

Grootaers speaks of an alternative use of \(t\(c\)o\) and \(p\(e\):

(24) \(p\(e\) tx\(a\) tcet\(c\)e ʃə̌xw\(a\) l\(a\)

把他姐々煽惑了
(He had a good job; he went elsewhere on the strength of promises of his sister, and there found nothing :) His sister took him in.

Grootaers adds: After this sentence, I said casually: ‘What?’ and the boy repeated:
(40) tco (Et) txa tcetce ñeexwal.

Grootaers gives the same translation for both, but the fact that the boy repeats his sentence with another preposition is not a proof that these two form-patterns are synonymous. In Pekinese, the first sentence could only mean 'He (or: Someone else) took his sister in', or 'His sister was taken in', in contradistinction to the second: 'He was taken in by his sister', or 'His sister took him in'. Siwei Lou suggests that the boy, made aware, by Grootaers' question, of having committed a slip of the tongue, may have added the second sentence as a self-correction.

5.2.1.3. Most of Chang's yan-sentences (except 746, 1151) can be transposed into a pa-construction without having their meaning changed. The transposition-formula is:

(123) t'a₁ ẓaŋ₄ ẓ'uⁿ₂¹ iao₃ la₁ 'He was bitten by an insect' ẓ'uⁿ₂¹ pa₃ t'a₁ iao₃ la₁ 'An insect has bitten him'

5.2.1.4 As a rule, and under the condition that the order be inverted, pa can be added to the corresponding term. The transposition-formula is:

(123) t'a₁ ẓaŋ₄ ẓ'uⁿ₂¹ iao₃ la₁ ẓaŋ₄ ẓ'uⁿ₂¹ pa₃ t'a₁ iao₃ la₁

In our Western languages, the resulting sentence will have to be rendered either by a subject-object construction: 'An insect has bitten him', or by the passive turn: 'He was bitten by an insect'. Neither fits the Chinese structure.

Although not documented by Chang's Peiping Sentences, this form-pattern, where the energetic and the inertial term are both introduced by an explicit mark, is Pekinese too, and Mandarin at large. Grootaers gives incidentally (p. 47, footn. 1) an example taken from the play Yuanye (1940), by Ts'ao Yu 曹禺:

'Call that son of a bitch with one blow pushed me on the floor...'

5.2.1.5. In this biexplicit yan-pa-pattern, the two prepositions are

(72) For the Jehol dialect, I find in Mullie (§185 B1 & 2) 2 examples of the yan-pa-construction, and 7 of the ciao-pa-construction.
never permutable. Instead of \( \text{zan}_4 \text{ c'\text{ai}_2 \text{ a}^1 \text{ la}_3 \text{ pa}_3 \text{ la}_3 \text{ i}^3 \text{ a}^3 \text{ l}^5 \), one could not construct: \( \text{pa}_3 \text{ c'\text{ai}_2 \text{ a}^1 \text{ la}_3 \text{ i}^3 \text{ a}^3 \text{ l}^5 \).

The contiguous use of the prepositions in WG no. 39, and in the order \( \text{pa-\text{ciao}} \), is contrary to the Pekinese rule:

\[
\text{pe}_\text{t}_\text{c}_\text{pa}_\text{3} \text{ gap}_\text{a}_\text{3} \text{ tas}_\text{a}_\text{3} \text{ la}_\text{3} \quad \text{(with pause after \text{pe})}
\]

He was killed by the Japanese.

As, in Grootaers' sentences 14 and 15, the negation (不) reads \text{pa}, we may perhaps understand: 'No, he was killed by the Japanese'.

5.2.1.6. It is impossible to use a \( \text{zay}-\text{complement} \) with a non-ergative verb, i.e. with a verb that does not admit \text{pa}. Sentences such as, say, 'The fire has been seen by several persons, or This book has been written by him,' could not be constructed with a \( \text{zay}-\text{complement} \).

5.2.1.7. The semantic affinity between the causative verb ('make, let') and the energetic preposition ('by') is easily perceived. In 958, for example, \text{ci}_\text{ao} \text{ is the causative verb: 'He made us...'}; if we take away the subject \text{t}_\text{a}_1 \text{ 'he'}, \text{ci}_\text{ao} \text{ begins the sentence and becomes automatically the energetic preposition.}

5.2.2. The preverb \text{ke} is the explicit mark of an ergative verb. This statement is based on the following criteria, which are partly parallel to the foregoing.

5.2.2.1. Like the \text{pa}-\text{complement} and the \( \text{zay}-\text{complement} \), the preverb \text{ke} is an adverbial determinant of the verb.

5.2.2.2. The preverb \text{ke} is compatible with the use of \text{pa} in the same construction, as in 463 or 1889. According to Chang's explanation, the \text{ke} of 1889 is akin to that of a sentence such as

\[
\text{pa}_3 \text{ s}_\text{an}_3 \text{ | ke}_3 \text{ ti}_\text{u}_3 \text{ l}^5
\]

The umbrella has been lost / I (you, etc.) have lost the umbrella\(^{73}\).

The addition of \text{pa} would be possible (though clumsy) at the beginning of the \text{ke}-sentences 731, 961, 1470, and 1688.

5.2.2.3. Like \( \text{zay}, \text{ke} \) seems to be alien to non-ergative verbs, i.e. to

\(^{73}\) Here again, no Western rendering can fit the Chinese structure. Cf. §6.1.2 and footn. 80.
verbs which do not admit pa. Sentences such as, say, This fact is known, or The river has been passed, could not be constructed with a ke-verb.

5.2.3. Like the pa-construction (cf. §§ 4.3 to 4.3.3), the zan-construction is included in the non-ergative class. On the one hand, examining the facts from the standpoint of system, the energetic pattern can always be replaced by a construction without zan, whereas the non-ergative type cannot always be replaced by the energetic. On the other hand, if we take the standpoint of discourse, we see that in the sentence a zan-complement can only be followed by an ergative verb (5.2.1.6), whereas the latter may occur with as well as without zan. As in the case of pa (4.3.2), we have here a relationship of unilatateral dependence, which is itself a deduction from the fact that, in the sphere of system, the energetic class is included in the non-ergative.

5.2.4. This does not mean, however, that inertial and energetic make exactly a pair. Although, semantically, the zan-complement refers to an entity that produces a change (in the sense stated § 4.2), in contradistinction to the pa-complement, whose referent undergoes the change, the range of zan is narrower than that of pa.

5.2.4.1. As the energetic term can only go with a "transitive" verb (cf. 3.4.2), it always presupposes its complementary term, which may be explicit or not,—but which, in the latter case, is understood: 746 ('it'), 1350 ('they'), WG no. 39 ('he'). The inertial complement, however, can do without any counterpart. A sentence such as zan t'a1 tiu1 la would suppose something that has been lost, but pa u2 san3 tiu1 la 把雨伞丢了 does not ask after an actor. If we apply the terminology used for our Western languages, we may say that the pa-complement, unlike the zan-complement, occurs with transitive as well as with intransitive verbs.

5.2.4.2. Moreover, tests made with Chang's pa-sentences show that energetic zan cannot be used in all cases where pa is possible. As a rule,
this *say* is incompatible: with sentences containing an order (393, 551, 972, 1140, 1391, 1407, 1460, 1472, 1751, 1849) or an invitation (776, 1049, 1054); with *must*-sentences (*te* : 272, 282, 293, 1793), with prohibitive sentences (*ties* : 299, 314), with interrogative sentences (268, 276, 298, 341, 547, 1048, 1113, 1573), with dubitative sentences (502, 856), etc. (76)

5.2.4.3. All this explains why energetic *say* is so much less frequent than inertial *pa* (in PS, 96 *pa* against 14 *say* and 0 *ciao*; in WJ, 58 *pa* against 1 *say* and 2 *ciao*).

5.2.5. Theoretically, to a *say*-complement one can always add a *pa*-complement, but one cannot always add a *say*-complement to a *pa*-complement. This is a criterion of class-inclusion: $e \subseteq i$.

Using an "Euler diagram", we may now represent the relationship between energetic, inertial and non-ergative in the following way:

![Euler Diagram](image)

or, in symbols: $(e \subseteq i) \subseteq \sim E$ (cf. §§ 4.3.1 and 5.2.3).

Logicians would call the relation between $e$ and $\sim E$ a transitive one.

6. PURE ERGATIVE AND MIXED ERGATIVE. At first sight, the sentences of mixed ergative languages must be some ergative, the others non-ergative. Actually, Pekinese presents in this respect three sorts of patterns: pure ergative, mixed ergative, and non-ergative. The criteria of this tripartition are the presence or absence of a grammatical subject, resp. of an ergative adverbial determinant.

A sentence containing an ergative adverbial determinant, but no grammati-

(76) This list is not exhaustive. Seemings exceptions (538, 1321, 1504) appear when initial *say* would be the verb: 'Let us...', Let me...
tical subject, is pure ergative. A sentence containing an ergative adverbial
determinant and a grammatical subject is mixed ergative. A sentence with
no ergative adverbial determinant is non-ergative.

6.1. Pure ergative. Pure ergative sentences are built up on the
scheme: ergative adverbial determinant + verb.

6.1.1. This gives the following patterns:
ke + verb;
ap-complement + verb (with or without ke);
zaq-complement + ap-complement + verb (with or without ke);
zaq-complement + verb (cf. 5.2.4.1).

6.1.2. The nature of the verb, in the pure ergative sentence, is imper-
sonal, or subjectless. If not, we should have to assume that the ap-comple-
ment is now a subject now an object (cf. §3), and the zaq-complement
now a subject now an agent ('by'). This would run against the postulate
of the correspondence signifiant-signifié by positing grammatical meanings
that are not "a property of signs", resulting from the differences of their
forms and from their distribution, but "something added to them" (Rei-
chenbach)(77) from outside.

As has been observed by Regamey for Classical Tibetan(78), the verb in
the pure ergative construction forms the center of the sentence. Applying
Bloomfield's(79) terminology, we may say that it is the head (Fr. déterminé)
of an endocentric construction. Contrarily to the Indoeuropean actor-action
expression (e.g. John ran), which is exocentric (neither John nor ran belongs
to the same form-class as the whole: John ran), a sentence such as pa2 zê2
san3 he3 tiu1 lê (quoted 5.2.2.2), like any other pure ergative sentence, is
endocentric: the verbal complex (he3 tiu1 lê) and the whole sentence

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(77) Cf. the motto heading §4.
(78) Articles cit. in footn. 18: p. 36-46, and in footn. 36: p. 369-70. In
the Chinese pure ergative construction, however, the verb, as it is accom-
panied by aspective and modal particles (chiefly lê ʕ) which are incompatible
with the noun, is not nominal, nor a subject, as Regamey will have it
for Tibetan ("verbe nominal", "verbe-sujet", "nom d'action"). Besides,
the truly nominal character of the ergative verb (or, better, the indistinc-
tion verb-noun) is perhaps only observable in languages with a parallel
indistinction of energetic and genitive: compare Proto-Indoeuropean -os
(cf. footn.90) and -ti.
(79) Language, 12.10.
stand in a relationship of form-class identity which is similar to that between milk and fresh milk. The sentence does not mean 'I (we, you, etc.) lost the umbrella', nor 'The umbrella has been lost', but (for lack of a genuine rendering): 'There is loss about the umbrella.'

6.1.3. According to Regamey(81), the Indoeuropean active-passive opposition consists in stylistic variants of a given utterance the grammatical poles of which, subject and object, are interchangeable, whereas the ergative construction is fixed: its two poles, agent [=energetic] and object [=inertial], cannot exchange their syntactic functions.

This is true for the pure ergative type. If, in

\[ \text{zan}_4 \text{ t'a}_1 \text{ pa}_3 \text{ uo}_3 \text{ ta}_3 \text{ l}^a \]

'ten 他把我打了'

'I have beaten him',

I exchange energetic t'a 'he' and inertial uo3 'me', this operation will not result in a transposition like Indoeuropean active-passive, but in a simple permutation:

\[ \text{zan}_4 \text{ uo}_2 \text{ pa}_3 \text{ t'a}_1 \text{ ta}_3 \text{ l}^a \]

'I have beaten him'.

6.2. Mixed ergative. Mixed ergative sentences are built up on the scheme: grammatical subject + ergative adverbial determinant + verb.

6.2.1. This gives the following patterns:

grammatical subject + ke + verb;
grammatical subject + pa-complement + verb (with or without ke);
grammatical subject + zay-complement + verb (with or without ke).

6.2.2. The mixed ergative type offers a double structure: the ergative adverbial complement is inserted in a subject-verb construction.

(80) Such a structure is only conceivable if one gets rid of the Aristotelian tradition. Cf. H. Reichenbach (title in footn. 38): "The grammar which we learned in school has grown out of Aristotelian logic and is by no means appropriate for delineating the structure of language. Aristotle's unfortunate failure to proceed to a logic of relations has led grammarians to the conception that every sentence must have one subject and a predicate,..." (p. 220). Most linguists (including Regamey: "verbe-sujet", "prédicat d'existence", etc.) still manoeuvre with subject and predicate when dealing with the ergative construction.

(81) Art. cit. in footn. 36: p. 366.
In a pure ergative language such as Classical Tibetan, the energetic and the inertial complement are not necessarily both expressed by an explicit mark; it is more usual and more economical to mark only one.

Energetic marked alone:

sangs-rgyas-kis chos bstan-to
'Buddha taught the law'
(The energetic term, Buddha, being expressed by the instrumental mark -kis, the corresponding term chos 'law' is automatically the inertial)

Inertial marked alone:

yon-tan-ldan-pa yon-tan-la dga
'Scholars like science'
(The inertial term, 'science', being expressed by the dative mark -la, the corresponding term yon-tan-ldan-pa 'scholars' is automatically the energetic)(82).

This state of affairs is not possible, however, in a language which, like Pekinese, has besides the ergative a subject-verb-construction where the subject is not rendered by an explicit mark, but by its position before the verb, resp. before the adverbial complement. In such a language, the ergative adverbial determinant can only be expressed by an explicit mark.

It follows that the pattern $u_2$-sans $t_iu_1$ l$^e$ (subject + verb) and $pa_2u_2$-sans $t_iu_1$ l$^e$ (ergative complement + verb) remain grammatically different, the first meaning 'The umbrella is lost', the second 'There is loss about the umbrella'.

Likewise, in the pattern subject + $pa$-complement + verb, the subject cannot be the automatic equivalent of a $zag$-complement; moreover, owing to the different extension of inertial and energetic (as noted 5.2.4.2), the addition of $zag$ would be admissible in a minority of cases only.

The difference between mixed ergative and pure ergative appears even more clearly with the pattern subject + $zag$-complement + verb; here, the subject can only be replaced by a $pa$-complement if the order is inverted, the sequence $pa$--$zag$ being unknown.

6.2.3. We have seen (6.1.3) that in the pure ergative type there is no

(82) These two examples are taken from Regamey, *ibid.*, 371-2.
transposition active-passive. In Pekinese, however, thanks to the coexistence of pure and mixed ergative patterns, something similar to the Indo-European active-passive transposition occurs, in this case between inertial and subject, resp. subject and energetic (cf. 5.2.1.3):

\[ t'a_1 \quad pa_2 \quad uo_2 \quad ta_3 \quad 1a \quad 'He has beaten me' \]
\[ uo_9 \quad \text{zay}_4 \quad t'a_1 \quad ta_3 \quad 1a \quad 'I was beaten by him'. \]

This transposition is only possible because one of the two transponends is non-ergative (sc. the subject). Even then, however, the difference between active voice and passive voice belongs here exclusively to the Western translation-language.

6.3. Frequency. Except for the pattern \( pa \)-complement + verb (3.4.3 and footn. 28) and for a few instances of the elliptic pattern \( \text{zay} \)-complement + verb (5.2.4.1), Chang Hao-An's sentences are mixed ergative or, mostly, non-ergative. The proportion is, very roughly: 1% pure, 5% mixed, and 94% non-ergative.

7. OUTLOOK. I intend to add a few points as desiderata for further research.

7.1. The diachronic problem. The coexistence of pure, mixed, and non-ergative patterns raises the question whether the Pekinese ergative construction is a survival or an innovation(83). An answer to this question could only be obtained by examining earlier stages of the language.

7.1.1. Lü Hsiang's conclusion suggests that we have an innovation: "In the beginning \( pa \)-sentences may have had no special rule, but in recent Chinese their uses become very broad." (WG p. 60).

Taking a similar line, Grootaers thinks that "subjective" \( pa \) is an extension of the use of \( pa \) with an "object" (p. 68 and footn. 1). His assumption seems to be founded on the numerical proportion. In his Tat'ung dialect "an investigation of twenty months furnished only 25 instances of \( pa + \) noun before an intransitive verb. The sentences with a transitive verb are more numerous, although no exact statistics were made." (p. 66). The same is true for Pekinese, where in Chang Hao-An's collection, there are only 19 sentences (on 96) in which the complement of \( pa \)

(83) Considering the history of other languages with a mixed structure, both possibilities occur. Linguists view the ergative construction of Georgian as a survival, and tha of Neo-Indian as an innovation (Regamey, ibid., 364).
could be alternatively translated with a subject or an object. Likewise for WJ.

This, however, does not necessarily prove that "subjective" pa is an innovation. The counter-argument would be that this disparate proportion may have existed since the beginning. It has to be noted that there are examples of the pattern pa-complement + verb in the XVIIIth century novels quoted by Wang Li and Li Hsiang (WG pp. 54, 55, 59).

Besides, the Pekinese constructions with pa could also be the remoulding of an earlier ergative structure expressed by other means.

7.1.2. It is a common belief that pa forms simply the spoken counterpart of i₃ and similar words in Classical (cf. WG pp. 36, 53 footn. 1), resp. postclassical Chinese (e.g. ciāŋ1 將 in the latter).

The semantic and syntactic distribution of i₃ however was different from that of pa. It served not only for introducing a direct object (84), but also for expressing the instrument ('by means of') (85). On the other hand, the complement of i₃ could not be the subject of the sentence.

The range of postclassical ciāŋ1 is narrower than that of i₃. Mullie has shown how, from its use as a mark of the future in Classical Chinese, it has become, by its contiguous placing with i₃, a sign of the direct object (86). It is noteworthy that this is the only function it has taken over from i₃; there is no instrumental use of ciāŋ1. Like i₃, however, it cannot introduce the subject of the sentence.

7.1.3. B. Karlgren has discovered "that Chinese originally had a nominative-genitive wu [吾] 'I', 'my' and a dative-accusative wo [我] 'me', but that already at the time of Confucius the system had started to shift: wu was still limited to the nominative and genitive, but wo had started to encroach upon these two cases in addition to preserving its original function as dative and accusative. When we proceed to the pronoun of the second person, 'thou', we similarly find two words which nowadays sound 汝 ju and爾 erh. In this case the intermingling has proceeded further. In Confucius and Mencius both occur in all the cases, but a statistical study shows that ju stands preponderantly in the nominative and genitive, 'thou',

(85) ibid. § 37, 2 (I p. 65-6).
(86) ibid. §§ 318-21 (II p. 29-33).
'th', but erh mostly in the dative and accusative, 'thee' \( ^{(87)} \).

This characteristic distribution, where nominative and genitive form one class, and accusative and dative another, which encroaches upon the nominative-genitive, points (theoretically) to an earlier, ergative structure.

N. Trubetzkoy has shown that in many ergative languages, e. g. the Eastern Caucasian group, energetic and genitive coincide partially or totally as an adverbial or adnominal determinant. \( ^{(85)} \). In such languages, to which may be added Eskimo \( ^{(86)} \) and Proto-Indoeuropean \( ^{(49)} \), the indistinction of energetic and genitive seems to be coupled with a parallel indistinction of verb and noun (cf. footn. 78). On the other hand, PIE \(*-om\) has survived as an accusative, resp. as a nominative-accusative neuter.

In the light of this theory, one could suppose that \( wu \) 萬, resp. \( ju \) 津 was the outcome of the energetic, and \( wo \) 我, resp. \( erh \) 耳 that of the inertial. In that case, the encroaching of \( wo \) upon the nominative would not have been an innovation ('...had started to encroach...'), but a survival from the use of inertial as 'subject' of an 'intransitive verb'.

I do not know if a statistics of the occurrences in Lun yü, Meng-tsi and T’an Kung \( ^{(91)} \) would substantiate this hypothesis, which should, however, not be examined for the pronouns alone, but for the whole sentence structure. The fact that the Tibetan cognate language belongs to the ergative type has perhaps a bearing on the Chinese problem.

7.2. The dialectal problem. For Grootaers, "It is possible to make an historical study of an isolated element, e. g. of pa (pa). But to reconstruct its grammatical uses, we shall have to build up the synchronic state of the grammar at each given period. In fact we possess almost no materials on the ancient synchronic systems of Chinese grammar." Therefore, "pure diachronic study of grammar is a construction of the mind and not very reliable at that." (p. 69).

\( ^{(87)} \) The Chinese Language, New York 1949, 73–4. Karlgren’s theory was first exposed in Le proto-chinois, langue flexionnelle (JA 1920).

\( ^{(85)} \) Le rapport entre le déterminé, le déterminant et le défini (Mélanges Ch. Bally, Genève 1939), 78.

\( ^{(86)} \) Cf. C. C. Uhlenbeck, KZ 39 (1906), 601; Lingua 1 (1947), 72.

\( ^{(89)} \) Cf. C. C. Uhlenbeck, ibid., and N. van Wijk, title in footn. 24.

\( ^{(90)} \) According to Karlgren, the T’an Kung 横弓, an extensive chapter in Li Ki 禮記 and one of its oldest parts, is written in early Lu 魯 dialect along with the Lun yü 論語 and Mengtse 孟子 (BMFEA 23, 1951, 116 footn. 2).
I do not think the situation is that hopeless if we consider the reconstructions achieved in other fields, such as Indoeuropean, or Semitic, or Uralian, by the method of comparative grammar. As the ergative construction in Chinese is doubtless not a "Peking curio", attempts at tracing it back to earlier stages could be undertaken by applying the technique of comparative dialectology.

7.2.1. In Chang Hao-An's Peiping Sentences, in Jablonski's Children Rhymes, in the materials quoted by Wang Li and Lü Hsiang from XVIIIth century Pekinese, in Grootaers' Tat'ung dialect, in Mullie's Jehol dialect, the pa-construction presents more or less the same syntactic and semantic distribution. Besides, it is very often used in Szechuanese, and may be a common feature of Northern Chinese dialects.

It would be useful to extend the research to other areas. Kao Ming-K'ai mentions an equivalent of the pa-construction in his Foochow dialect: "One uses hông, or tsiong:

我 共 我拍 一下
guai kong i p'a siok a."(92)
I i he beat one blow
I beat him a blow.

7.2.2. As to the energetic preposition, equivalents of Pekinese zay and ciao are distributed all over the Chinese dialectal map. Of course, grammars of the traditional sort speak in this respect of a "passive" construction.

7.2.3. However, utilizing Chinese dialects in order to reconstruct earlier systems can only be successful if the linguist has at his disposal for each geographical point under consideration a material large enough and collected along the same line; unfortunately, syntactic research tools of the "2000 sentences" type, that would provide him with an homogeneous basis for comparisons (e.g. under the form of syntactic atlases), have as yet not been applied to any dialectal ensemble.

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1. In the first part of this article (Gengo Kenkyû, 31, 1956, page 36) the reader is asked to drop the vertical line in the word u1 lu u1 lu.
2. We have made frequent use of Witold Jablonski's work (see p. 23, note 3); the Polish linguist died in July 1957.

(92) Essai sur la valeur réelle des particules prépositionnelles en chinois, Paris (thèse) 1940, § 22, p. 71-2 (hông + i, the equivalent of Pek. pas t'a; 把他, is often replaced by the sandhi-form ket).