

**The Evolution of
a Tibeto-Burman Pronominal Verb Morphology:
A Case-Study from Kham (Nepal)**

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Kham is a Tibeto-Burman language spoken in the Dhaulagiri and Rapti Zones of west-central Nepal by an estimated 30 or 40 thousand so-called "Magars" of the four northern subtribes--the Bhuda, Gharti, Pun, and Rokha. Their ethnic identity with the Magars may account in part for the reason why Kham was never mentioned in the early literature.¹ To my knowledge, the only available descriptions of the language are written either by myself or in co-authorship with Nancy Watters, my wife. Prior to our work which began in 1970 it appears that even the mere existence of the language had been mentioned only twice in the literature--first by the British Ministry of Defence (1965:96), and later by Hitchcock (1966:4), though there may be other references I am not aware of.

The Kham represented in this paper must not be confused with the Kham spoken by the Khampas of Khams province in Eastern Tibet, nor with the language of the semi-nomadic Khampas who have inhabited Western Nepal for an indeterminate period (Rai, 1973). To avoid ambiguity with either the Magars, or with the Khampas, my wife and I, when referring to the people as an ethnic community, have come to call them "Kham-

Magars" (Watters and Watters, 1973; Watters, 1975). We continue, however, to refer to the language itself as "Kham," which is the name used by the people themselves.

Typology.

Kham has loose lexical bonds with Shafer's West Central Himalayish Section (1966), composed of Chepang, Hayu, and Magar. Shafer observes that although the genetic relationship of these three languages is not so clear "they have more in common with each other than with any other language or group of languages." His classification appears to have been established purely on lexical grounds. Of these three languages, two of them, namely Chepang and Hayu, exhibit typical features of the complex pronominalized type languages of East Himalayish. That is, their verbal morphologies include personal affixes designating the person and number of both the subject and object (1st, 2nd, 3rd person X sg, dl, pl number X incl, excl for 1st dl and pl). In addition, they share in an East Himalayish trait which has been referred to as "participant ranking" in Chepang (Caughley, 1973), and a "person hierarchy" in Hayu (Michailovsky, 1974). A similar system is attested for Bahing (Eauman, 1974). The systems are complex and each language has its own rules, but in general, only the dominant argument of a transitive verb is marked in the verb for person and number agreement. In the more complicated cases, the number of the recessive argument is marked as well, and in certain combinations, the person and number of both arguments is marked. In Chepang and Sunwar there is furthermore an overt morphological affix in the verb to indicate whether the dominant argument marked in the verb is a subject or an object. (For a brief

comparison of these two systems, see Hale and Watters, 1973).

Kham too has a complex pronominal verb morphology, but it cannot be said to share in the typical morphological features of East Himalayish as does Chepang and Havu. In Kham there is no inclusive/exclusive distinction in the first person, nor is there a dominance hierarchy for marking person and number in the verb. In transitive verbs the person and number of both arguments is marked in the verb in all cases (even where one of the arguments is inanimate). Bauman (1974), on the basis of wide comparisons all across TB argued convincingly for the position that the complex pronominal verb morphology of the family "reverts to a feature of the proto-language." He was forced, however, to conclude that there are many deep-seated differences between Kham and the typical patterns found in other TB pronominalized languages. He notes that Kham "more than any other language seems to overstep the norms." For example, regarding the phenomena of tense/aspect concord in TB he is forced to the conclusion that "Kham seems to be a true exception at this point." Regarding object affixes, which in other TB languages typically have a high incidence of correlation with intransitive subject affixes, he is forced to eliminate Kham from consideration "by reason of its exceptional agglutinative approach to affixation." Regarding the predominate pattern of pronominal suffixation in his sample of languages, he is able to provide a rationale for the negligible cases of prefixing in other languages, but concedes to the fact that Kham "resists explanation on this as on other criteria."

I was of the opinion that the patterns of pronominal affixation in Kham were of sufficient divergence from the norm in TB as to be explained only in terms of an independent

innovation. Surprisingly, the verbal syntactic pattern of affixation in Kham is S-V-O, a pattern which is found in Munda--the group of languages which are most commonly proposed as a substratal source for the pronominal verb morphology in TB. Pinnow (1966) shows that the verbal syntactic pattern in Munda can be traced to an earlier SVO order. Kham, however, is an extremely well behaved SOV language (Greenberg 1963, Lehmann 1973, Kuno 1974) leaving no trace of having undergone a change, and an earlier SVO word order must be rejected. Therefore, in accounting for the 'odd' syntactic patterns in the Kham verb I looked for internal motivations in keeping with SOV principles. Recalling Cowgill's (1963) observation that the morphophonemic complexity of affix classes in Indo-European is in direct proportion to its antiquity, I considered the highly agglutinative, almost isolating, verbal morphology of Kham of particular significance. Cowgill proposed that, "Applied to non-Indo-European languages (his) observation might help to determine the relative age of different sets of affixes: the more morphophonemic alternation a set shows or entails in adjoining morphemes, the longer it is likely to have been in the language." What follows, then, is the result of my pursuit to substantiate these assumptions on the basis of a fairly detailed survey of other Kham dialects. It is hoped that the study will positively benefit the whole study of diachronic universals.

A Proposed Historical Development.

After an investigation of other Kham dialects in May 1975 I was surprised to find that Kham does, in fact, have origins in a native TB system such as that proposed by Bauman. The reconstructed system very closely resembles those systems in

the Kanauri dialects of West Himalayish, in which only subject affixes are attached to the verb. Innovative processes at work in early Kham, however, resulted in morphological flipping such that affixes designating the subject came to be prefixed to the verb stem, and an original set of affixes designating the object came to be suffixed to the verb. The innovations have been so far reaching in Taka Kham (a Northwest dialect in which I had done all my previous study) that traces of an earlier system are almost entirely lost from view. I will demonstrate that these innovative processes have been closely associated with the underlying syntactic processes of ergativity, genitivization, and certain focus and thematic considerations. What follows is a step by step account of the evolutionary process involved in producing the modern system in Taka Kham.

Stage One--the Early Pronominal System.

A verbal paradigm from the Southwestern Kham dialect of Mhai suggests the following approximations for proto subject suffixes in the Kham verb:

	<u>sg</u>	<u>dl</u>	<u>pl</u>
1st	-ng	-ci	-e
2nd	-n	(?)	(?)
3rd	-o	(?)	-m

Figure 1. Proto subject affixes in the Kham verb.

The 1st dual form -ci was probably only a vestigial form even at the proto stage, but it at least shows a link with the native TB form which Bauman reconstructs as a possible *si.

My present assumption is that the inclusive/exclusive distinction was lost with the dual. Dual was again redeveloped independently. It is quite clear that the modern dual forms are recent. In the Bhuji dialect of NW Kham (which is the most conservative in terms of phonological change) the independent dual pronouns are ge nis 'we two' and je nis 'you two' (I am not sure of the 3rd dual pronoun). In Taka, the two forms have contracted to 1st 'gin, and 2nd 'jīn. In Maikot of NW, the forms have further contracted to 1st gĩ, and 2nd jĩ.

There is no evidence to support a view that proto Kham had anything other than subject forms affixed to the verb--much like the system in Kanauri. There are, in fact, a remarkable number of correspondences between the Kham and Kanauri pronominal verb affixes. According to Brandreth (1878) the Milchan dialect of Kanuri has: (he shows no dual forms)

	<u>sg</u>	<u>pl</u>
1st	-k	-e
2nd	-n	-en
3rd	-o	-e

Figure 2. The pronominal subject affixes in Milchan.

Furthermore, the suffixed pronominal forms of proto Kham have apparent links with the East Himalayish languages. For example, in EH, 3rd pl is often represented by mi/me, as in Limbu, Sunwar, Bahing, and Hayu.

There are other rather remarkable similarities between the pronominals of EH and those of WH (West Himalayish). In EH the common 1st sg pronoun employs some sort of velar stop,

as in gu, go, ko, ka, etc. In some of the languages there is an oblique form (associated with the genitive) which typically ends in -ng, as in kong (Sotang and Kulung), and kang (Dhimal). Some of the languages, especially Khaling, have tended to crystallize their pronouns in what appears to have been the oblique form, with the result that the pronominal inflection is no longer productive. The free pronoun in Khaling is ung. In Central Kanauri of WH the inflectional system is still productive, and the genitive of 1st sg go is ang, which clearly resembles EH. Far on the other end of the pronominal map is Tiddim Chin with 1st sg ka, and a corresponding conjunct colloquial form -ing.

2nd singular is equally interesting. 2nd sg has two competing forms--na, which is general in TB, and khe (and its equivalents) which is general in the Bodish languages. In EH the two forms occur compounded, possibly in what was an oblique form, as in khene (Limbu), khana (Bantawa-Rai), and gyana (Thulung-Rai). In those languages of EH in which the inflectional system is still productive, as in Kulung, the form of the oblique case is an. In Central Kanauri the nominative form of 2nd sg is ka with a genitive kan. The conjunct pronominal form is -an.

What I am suggesting is that perhaps the subject pronominal verb affixes in EH, WH, and the Chin languages for that matter, were introduced at some ancient time in the history of TB when pronominal inflection was a productive process, and that the verbal forms may be ultimately associated with the genitive.² Khaling, more than any other language in EH, seems to have crystallized its free pronouns in what may have at one time been the oblique case. The free pronouns in Khaling are:

	<u>sg</u>	<u>dl</u>	<u>pl</u>
1st Incl.	ung	ici	ik
2nd	in	eci	en
3rd	am	amsu	amh h am

Figure 3. Personal pronouns in Khaling (Toba and Toba, 1975).

These pronouns bear striking resemblance to the verbal affix forms of Kham (and of Kanauri as well). In the following paradigm, I have taken the liberty to supply the 2nd dl and pl forms from Kanauri, since they are missing in my reconstruction of Kham.

	<u>sg</u>	<u>dl</u>	<u>pl</u>
1st	-ng	-ci	-e
2nd	-n	(-ec)	(-en)
3rd	-o		-m

Figure 4. The verbal affix forms of proto Kham, with missing forms supplied from Kanauri.

Stage Two--3rd Person Object Affixes.

Stage 2 of pronominal verb affix development in Kham is the development of 3rd person object affixes. The development was controlled by, or closely associated with the ergativity system in Kham. My definition of ergativity follows that of Comrie (1973). In Comrie's 'ergative configuration' the subject of the intransitive verb and the object of the transitive verb are both in the unmarked case, while the subject of the transi-

tive verb is in the agentive or instrumental case. In the 'nominative configuration' the subjects of both the intransitive and transitive verbs are in the unmarked (nominative) case, which the object of the transitive verb is in the accusative case.

Kham has a 'split-ergativity' system--3rd persons participating in the ergative configuration, while 1st and 2nd persons participate in the nominative configuration. The modern system, however, has borrowed the accusative/dative marker -lai from Nepali which is optionally applied to the object of transitive verbs, thereby weakening the notion of ergativity. The early accusative marker (used on 1st and 2nd person objects) was probably -na, a morpheme still used in some modern dialects of Kham. Due to the areal influence of Nepali, however, even -na has a distribution analagous to the Nepali -lai. These facts, however, do not prevent me from positing a true ergative configuration for 3rd person in early Kham. Bailey (1909) observes for Central Kanauri that the accusative is generally the same as the nominative. He further observes that the agentive case is not used for intransitive verbs, but "nouns which are the subject of transitive verbs are in the agent case for all tenses. 1st and 2nd personal pronouns are in the nominative case. Pronouns of the 3rd person are in the agent case for past tenses, otherwise they are in the nominative."

It is precisely this kind of a system--one of split-ergativity--which would breed the pattern found in Kham of prefixing 3rd person objects to the verb stem. The ergative configuration being restricted to 3rd person, 3rd person pronominal objects were in the unmarked case and came to be appended to the verb stem as prefixes. 1st and 2nd person

object pronouns were not appended to the verb for the simple reason that they participated in the nominative configuration, and thus had an intervening accusative case marker between the personal pronoun and the verb stem.³

It appears that the redevelopment of the dual distinction (which had been generally lost) had already occurred prior to the appendage of 3rd person pronouns. Immediately following the free 3rd pl pronoun 'ya, the numeral 'nis 'two' was added, and this was later contracted to 'yani 'they two.' In contradistinction to the new dual form, a new 3rd pl was developed utilizing the nominal pluralizing morpheme -ra (in competition with -ng). This resulted in 'yara which is current in some dialects, or yang which is current in others. Singular 'ol was never appended to the verbal complex, its absence being sufficient to establish contrast.

It is clearly evident that 3rd person object verbal prefixes were, in fact, at one time free, isolable forms from their present day phonological shape. The prefixes still retain something of their inherent tones, so that the combination of prefix + stem in these cases is exactly analagous to the tone compounding of compound nouns.⁴ True prefixes are atonal, that is, they receive their tonal characteristics from the stem to which they are attached. Thus, the affixation of 3rd person objects is of sufficient antiquity for tone compounding to have occurred, but not of such antiquity that the morphemes have lost their tonal identity.

The modern 3rd person pronouns are really more demonstrative in character than what we normally think of as pronouns, two of the forms being often deictic in nature, and the

third form being a sort of anaphoric pronoun whose antecedent is an indefinite relative pronoun (jo, a Nepali loan), as in:

'ao 'this person'
 'no 'that person'
 'ho (as in 'whoever drinks poison, he will die')

At the end of Stage 2, pronominal verb morphology in Kham included all persons suffixed as subjects (from Stage 1) and 3rd persons prefixed as objects.

'yara-	}	stem + tense-	{	all
'yani-				subjects
Ø				suffixed

Figure 5. Pronominal verb morphology in Kham at the end of Stage 2.

Stage Three--the Origin of Modern 1st and 2nd Person Pronominal Verb Affixes.

a) 1st and 2nd Person Subject Affixes.

Kham, in keeping with basic SOV characteristics, has no native relative pronouns, but instead makes use of relative participles. Proto Kham had two relative participial constructions. One (henceforth the 'subjective participle') was formed by adding -o to verb roots. As such, it made unique reference to the subject of the relativized clause (either as an adjective or as a nominalization), as in:

ja:h-o 'mi: 'the man who put it down'
 ja:h-o '(he) who put it down'

but NEVER:

*ja:h-o 'ri:h 'the water which was put (poured)'

The so-called 'adjectives' are formed in the same manner in Kham, from a special semantic class of attributive verbs, as in:

gyo:h-o 'mi: 'the man who is big, the big man'

gyo:h-o '(he or that) which is big, the big one'

There is evidence of a second relative participle in proto Kham which was formed by adding -s to verb roots. As such, it made unique reference to the object of the relativized clause (henceforth, the 'objective participle'). The passive form of this participle was -si-s, which also made unique reference to the object, but without any implicit reference to a subject. Bailey (1915) describes a passive or stative participle in Lower Kanauri which ends in -shi-s, the passive alone being -shi. Thus, the passive of yong-mu 'to nourish' is yok-shi-mu 'to be nourished,' and the passive participle is yok-shi-s 'nourished one.' He does not report a participial -s being attached to verb roots without its being conjoined to the passive (unless the verb is stative). I am, however, positing such a structure for proto Kham.

These relative participles functioning in or as NPs were subject to NP derivations. Most notably, the non-passive objective participle (in which an agent was implied) was subject to a possessive derivation with the underlying subject (agent) of the relativized verb being viewed as the possessor. That is, in the participle, agent is related to the action in a way analagous to the relation of possessor to possessed item.

Thus, comparing an actual noun with the nominal objective participle, we have the following:

'nga: nga-	}	
'je: je-		'ja: (jug)
'ol o-		poh-s (hitting)
'ya: ya-		

being translated as: 1) 'the jug of my, your pl, his, their ownership,' which is analagous to 2) 'the one of my, your pl, his, their hitting.'

The assertion that the pronominal prefixes on the non-passive objective participle are, in fact, possessive pronouns receives strong support from their phonological identity with the possessive pronouns occurring with nouns. Prefixed 1st and 2nd person (sg and pl) possessive forms, whether attached to nouns or to the objective participle, are atonal. That is, phonological compounding does not occur with these prefixes. Their tonal behavior is determined by the inherent tone of the stems to which they are appended.

3rd person dl and pl possessive prefixes, on the other hand, are tonal, forming compounds with the stems to which they are attached. The 3rd singular prefix o-, however, is atonal, patterning after the 1st and 2nd person prefixes. My point is that even though the tones are irregular from one person form to the next, they are nevertheless invariant across nominal and verbal stems--supporting the view that they are, in fact, one and the same.

I should also mention that the 1st and 2nd person dual forms 'gin- and 'jin-', respectively, do not pattern after the

other 1st and 2nd person forms, but have the same tonal characteristics as 'ni'. This is due to the fact that they have developed from the contraction of ge'ni and je'ni ('we two' and 'you two'). The original ge- and je- were atonal, but by combining and contracting with the following 'ni' they picked up its tonal characteristics.

b) 1st and 2nd Person Object Affixes.

Schachter (1973) shows that there are striking formal similarities between constructions involving restrictive relative clauses and certain focus constructions such as the cleft sentence. The relationship is valid not only for English, but for many other unrelated languages. Schachter's observation is valid for Kham as well and helps clarify the origin of 1st and 2nd person object affixes. The non-passive objective participle discussed above is equivalent to an English restrictive relative clause of the type, 'the one whom I saw.' True to form, the construction in Kham has as one of its basic optional transformations a cleft-like construction. The cleft sentence has no surface copula as in English, consisting instead of two conjoined NPs, the first of which expresses 'given' information, and the second 'new' information (Halliday, 1967). Thus, where the objective participle participates in such a cleft construction, the participle itself serves as one of the two NPs, and its referent or antecedent (the object) is invariably the other NP. Where the object is a personal pronoun, the order is objective participle + object pronoun, the relative being given information and the object complement new, as in:

a) 'nga: nga-	} poh-s	a) 'nga:
b) 'nxng nx-		b) 'nxng
c) 'no-e o-		c) 'ge:

where a) → b) is 'nga: nga-poh-s 'nxng 'the one of my hitting is you' ('the one I hit was you,' or 'you are the one I hit'), and c) → a) is 'no-e o-poh-s 'nga: 'the one of his hitting is me' ('the one he hit was me,' or 'I am the one he hit').

Although in early Kham this was an optional syntactic process, the process became frozen into a morphological unit through its invariant order and recurrent usage (the modern cleft is a slightly modified form). The object pronominals came to be incorporated into the complex and phonetic assimilation occurred in the following way:

	<u>Thabang</u>	<u>Taka</u>
s-'nga:	-sxng	-'na (fronting of velar nasal)
s-'nxng	-sxn	-'ni
s-'je:	-ci	-'ci (devoicing in both dialects)
s-'ge:	-si	-'si (prefix pre-emption in both dialects--a very common occurrence in Kham, especially where <u>s-</u> precedes a velar consonant, as in PTB <u>s-kyur</u> > Kham <u>syur</u> 'sour,' PTB <u>s-g-la</u> > <u>s-gya</u> > Kham <u>sya</u> 'moon,' etc.).

It is of considerable significance that these object pronominal affixes ('na, 'ni, 'sin, 'cin, 'si, 'ci) though morphologically bound and syntactically frozen, are, phonologically speaking, still separate words. A phonological word, it will be recalled, consists of a stem pitch and a suffix pitch. I noted earlier that certain pronominal prefixes (notably 3rd

person prefixes), by tonal assimilation, were 'welded' onto the verb stem in such a way as to form phonological compounds. With the verbal pronominal forms presently under discussion, however, no such assimilation has taken place. The tones on these forms are stem pitches. In such cases, the suffix pitch which inherently follows the verb stem collides with the pronominal stem pitch, and tone perturbation occurs.

After the assimilation of the participial marker -s with the object pronominal forms, the other relative participial -o apparently came into usage on these forms. Although the earlier form of contrast between subjective and objective participles (-o vs. -s) was lost, the distinction itself was not lost. In current usage, where the relative is preceded by a possessive pronoun, the relative uniquely refers to the object of the relativized verb, otherwise it uniquely refers to the subject, as in:

o-poh-o	'(that) which he struck'
poh-o	'(he) who struck it'

In an earlier analysis of Kham (1973a) I referred to the objective participle as the "passive verb form" since when functioning at a clause level the syntactic object was invariably fronted in the sentence to thematic position (OSV), as in:

'ao	'zihm	ram-e	o-'jxy-o	'this house was
this	house	Ram-agt	he-built-it	built by Ram'

Where the objective participle functions in this manner, however, the construction consists of the following constituents:⁵

'ao 'zihm	/	ram-e o-'jxy-o	ø
Subject		Pred-nominative	Copula

It is not possible for the agent to function in thematic position for the simple reason that it is tied syntactically to the participle as possessor. As a result, its semantic content is very similar to the English passive. Its literal meaning is something like, 'this house is of Ram's building.'

In a later analysis (1973b) I discovered that this particular verb form when used in an active word order (SOV) performs a very interesting function in the organization of narrative discourse. In that special function, I referred to the verb form as the "orientation" verb form (to contrast it from the regular "narrative" form I will refer to it henceforth as such). Its function could still be referred to as a relativizing one perhaps, but instead of functioning relative to NPs, it functions relative to a whole discourse. A narrative discourse typically starts off with a complete sentence (in active order) whose final verb is in orientation (or objective participial) form. It sets the stage of the narrative by orienting the hearer to the spacial and circumstantial setting in which the narrative takes place. In stories of more than one 'episode' it will occur again to "reset" the stage. It also occurs occasionally within an episode to give the hearer certain information needed for the interpretation of particular events (but which does not belong to the series of events itself). It is as though the speaker steps out of the story momentarily to insert relevant background information.

Stage Four--Metamorphosis.

Before the developments of Stage 4 began, pronominal morphology on verbs was such that "orientation" verbs (from the objective participle) were complete in their affixation of pronouns designating both subject and object. Pronouns designating the subject were prefixed, and those designating the object (except 3rd person) were suffixed. In the regular "narrative" form verbs, however, the affixation of object pronouns was not complete. All subject pronouns were suffixed (a trait retained from the proto-language), and only 3rd person object pronouns were prefixed (from Stage 2). This created a curious 'polarity' between the syntactic arrangement of narrative forms versus orientation forms, such that in orientation verbs the syntactic arrangement was:

sub-verb-obj

and in narrative verbs,

obj-verb-sub

where only 3rd person pronouns occur in the object slot.

Since the orientation verb was contrastively complete in its affixation of pronouns designating both subject and object, and narrative verbs were complete only in case there was a 3rd person object, a linguistic 'osmosis' took place in which 1st and 2nd person object forms were copied from the orientation verb into the incomplete narrative verb. Later, once the precedent of copying orientation forms into the narrative verb had been established, even the prefixed subject forms (from Stage 3a) were copied into the narrative verb. Finally, the original

Notice from the illustration above that in early Kham the tense-person complex 'kx-ng was an isolated phonological unit separated from the verb stem (this is clear from the modern shape of the tense affix in Taka). Thus at the 4a object-copy stage, the unit poh-'ci was transposed wholesale into a position preceding the tense-person unit.

Next I will illustrate a sample evolution from Taka where the subject is 1st or 2nd person and the object is 3rd person. (In the preceding sample, both subject and object were from 1st or 2nd person categories).

<u>narrative form</u>	<u>orientation form</u>	<u>commentary</u>
poh 'kx-ng		Stage 1--finite narrative verb inflected for person and number--here 1st sg.
'yara-poh 'kx-ng		Stage 2--appendage of 3rd person object pronouns.
	poh-s	The non-passive objective participle.
	nga-poh-s	Stage 3a--possessive prefix corresponding to agent prefixed to nominalized verb.
nga-'ra-poh 'kx-ng		Stage 4b--copy of prefixed subject. The syllable <u>ya</u> is replaced by new subject. (Note that 4a is not relevant here).
nga-'ra-poh-'ke		Stage 4c--loss of old subject marker. Modern narrative form.
	nga-'ra-poh-o	The modern orientation form.

Where the subject and object are both 3rd person, the evolution in Taka was as follows:

<u>narrative form</u>	<u>orientation form</u>	<u>commentary</u>
poh 'ke-m		Stage 1--finite narrative verb inflected for person and number of subject--here 3rd pl.
'yara-poh 'ke-m		----- Stage 2--appendage of 3rd person object pronouns. -----
'yara-poh-'ke-rx		A change in the form of 3rd pl subject from <u>m</u> to <u>rx</u> . The modern narrative form. -----
	'yara-poh-o	----- The modern orientation form. -----

In the Southwestern Kham dialect of Mhai, the metamorphosis of narrative verbs is not nearly so complete as it is in Taka and other Northwestern dialects, and therefore offers some valuable clues as to the intermediate steps in Stage 4--thus substantiating my claims for the proposed evolutions in the three samples above. In Mhai, all forms (except those with 2nd person subjects) which were contrastively complete at the end of Stage 2 for person and number of both subject and object (i.e. 1st and 3rd person subjects with 3rd person objects) underwent no further change. Thus, in Mhai we have:

		3rd Person		
		Object singular	dual	plural
Subject				
1st	sg	poh-kx-ng	yan-poh-kx-ng	yara-poh-kx-ng
	dl	poh-kx-ci	yara-poh-kx-ci	yara-poh-kx-ci
	pl	poh-k-e	yara-poh-k-e	yara-poh-k-e
3rd	sg	poh-k-u	yan-poh-k-u	yara-poh-k-u
	dl	poh-ki-ni	yan-poh-ki-ni	yara-poh-kx-m
	pl	poh-kx-m	yara-poh-kx-m	yara-poh-kx-m

Figure 6. 1st and 3rd person subjects with 3rd person objects in Mhai.

In Mhai, the metamorphosis of Stage 4 began as it did in Taka--perhaps before the split between NW and SW dialects--an osmotic process in which non-3rd person object affixes were transposed from orientation verbs into the incomplete narrative verbs. Strangely, however, in the early stages of Mhai evolution only 1st pl -'si was transposed into the narrative verb. Other 1st and 2nd person object forms were delayed and transposed into the narrative verb at a much later date--in a decayed form and in a different syntactic position. Consider the following examples, the first two of which illustrate forms with the 1st pl -'si (which was transposed early), and the rest of which illustrate other objects:

<u>Taka</u>	<u>Mhai</u>	
poh-si-ke-o	poh-si-k-u	'he hit us'
poh-si-ke-rx	poh-si-kx-m	'they hit us'
poh-ni-ke-o	poh-k-u-nu	'he hit you'
poh-ci-ke-o	poh-k-u-cu	'he hit you pl'
poh-na-ke-o	poh-k-u-ngu	'he hit me'

In Taka, the object affixes in the example (-si, -ni, -ci, -na) all follow the verb stem in a systematic way. In Mhai, however, after the introduction of -si, the pattern of affixation changes. The reason for this shift is likely to be accounted for in terms of a loss of contrastive pitch distinctions in Mhai. As mentioned earlier, it is obvious from Taka that tense was formerly an isolable morpheme, for it still carries an inherent stem pitch. In the southern sub-dialects of NW, however, contrastive pitch is generally absent. This may or may not be the case for Mhai which is in the same general area. Assuming it to be true, as I suspect, the evolution of objects pronominals in Mhai would have been as follows:

<u>narrative form</u>	<u>orientation form</u>	<u>commentary</u>
poh 'ke-u		In early Kham, stem and tense-subject were two separate phonological units.
	o-poh-'si	----- The frozen cleft construction following Stages 3a and 3b.
poh-'si 'ke-u		----- When -'si was copied into the narrative verb in Stage 4a, it was copied as the full unit poh-'si.
poh-ki-u		----- With the loss of pitch contrast in Mhai, stem and tense became a single accentual unit. This effectively blocked the intrusion of object affixes between stem and tense.
	o-poh-ci-u	----- The shape of orientation verbs at the time of pitch loss.
	o-poh-cu	----- Orientation forms underwent further phonological development, shifting from -nga-u, -ni-u, -ci-u to -ngu, -nu, -cu.
(cont'd)		-----

(cont'd from preceding page)

<u>narrative form</u>	<u>orientation form</u>	<u>commentary</u>
<p>↓</p> <p>poh-k-u</p> <p>↓</p> <p>poh-k-u-cu</p>		<p>The earlier two morphemes <u>ki-u</u> contracted into a single syllable <u>-ku</u> analogous to the development of <u>i-u</u> forms in the orientation verb.</p> <p>-----</p> <p>The later developed object forms <u>-ngu</u>, <u>-nu</u>, <u>-cu</u>, etc. (from preceding page) were copied into the narrative verb in their decayed form following the accentual unit of stem + tense. This form of object copy occurred only where the subject was 3rd sg. In all other cases the blockage of Stage 4a was total.</p> <p>-----</p>

Notice that where object incorporation took place early (which is true of all objects in Taka, and true only of -si in Mhai) the pronominal forms si, ni, ci, na/nga had not yet undergone phonological decay in the orientation forms and were copied into the narrative verbs in a phonological stable position and thus protected from phonological change. Their stability in the narrative verb apparently tended to arrest their change in the orientation verb as well. Thus, we have -si-u in both Mhai and Taka, but -na-o, -ni-u, and -ci-u only in Taka. In Mhai they are -ngu, -nu, and -cu respectively. The following examples illustrate the orientation forms:

<u>Taka</u>	<u>Mhai</u>	
o-poh-na-o	o-poh-ngu	'he hit me'
o-poh-ni-u	o-poh-nu	'he hit you'
o-poh-ci-u	o-poh-cu	'he hit you pl'

In the full development in Taka, and only in the incipient stages of Mhai, the order of development in Stage 4 was:

- a) incorporation of object affixes (linguistic osmosis),
- b) copy of prefixed subject affixes (a move towards symmetry,
- c) loss of old subject suffixes.

In Mhai, the blockage of step a) greatly hampered the development of pronominal affixes in the narrative verb. The new order switched to:

- a) copy of prefixed subject affixes
- b) loss of old subject suffixes
- c) incorporation of object affixes in the position previously occupied by old subject affixes.

The only forms in Mhai which have successfully completed the new cycle are those in which the subject is 1st person and the object is 2nd person. It is fairly obvious that the new cycle began its initial stages immediately after the blockage of the original Stage 4a. Notice the following forms:

nga-poh-kx-n	'I hit you'
nga-poh-kx-cin	'I hit you dl'
nga-poh-kx-ci	'I hit you pl'
gin-poh-kx-n	'we dl hit you'
gin-poh-kx-cin	'we dl hit you dl'
(same as 1st pl)	'we dl hit you pl'
ge-poh-kx-n	'we hit you'
ge-poh-kx-cin	'we hit you dl'
ge-poh-kx-ci	'we hit you pl'

From these forms it is obvious that the trend in Mhai of attaching pronominal object forms after tense was already in force. It also seems safe to assume that these 2nd person object pronominals were incorporated into the narrative verb before their phonological decay in the orientation verbs, for the forms are -n, -cin, and -ci (not -nu, -cinu, or -cu). At the time of affixation they were probably -ni, -cini, and -ci, later reduced to the present forms through the loss of -i (the -i was retained on -ci because -c is not a possible final consonant in Kham). With the loss of the vowel -i in the narrative forms, resistance to change was lost in the orientation forms as well, leaving the following forms:

nga-poh-nu	'I hit you'
nga-poh-cinu	'I hit you dl'
nga-poh-cu	'I hit you pl'

The final forms to consider are those in which the subject is 2nd person. These forms have developed only as far as Stage 4a in the new scheme (for Mhai). That is, they have accomplished the copy of prefixed subjects, but have not yet lost the old subject suffixes (subject is redundantly marked). Thus, what was formerly:

poh-kx-n	'you hit him, me'
poh-si-kx-n	'you hit us dl, pl'
yan-poh-kx-n	'you hit them dl'
yara-poh-kx-n	'you hit them'
poh-kx-cin	'you dl hit him, me, us dl'
yan-poh-kx-cin	'you dl hit them dl'
vara-poh-kx-cin	'you dl hit them'

poh-kx-ci	'you pl hit him, me'
poh-si-kx-ci	'you pl hit us dl, pl'
yara-poh-kx-ci	'you pl hit them dl, pl'

has currently become (after the copy of prefixed subject):

nx-poh-kx-n	'you hit him, me'
nx-poh-si-kx-n	'you hit us dl, pl'
nx-na-poh-kx-n	'you hit them dl'
nx-ra-poh-kx-n	'you hit them'
jin-poh-kx-cin	'you dl hit him, me, us dl'
jin-nx-poh-kx-cin	'you dl hit them dl'
je-ra-poh-kx-cin	'you dl hit them'
je-poh-kx-ci	'you pl hit him, me'
je-poh-si-kx-ci	'you pl hit us dl, pl'
je-ra-poh-kx-ci	'you pl hit them dl, pl'

Presumably, the next development we may expect is the loss of the old subject affixes, and finally the incorporation of the object affixes in the position formerly occupied by the subject affix. Who knows? We may live to see some of it!

Conclusions.

My treatment of Kham pronominal verb prefixes recalls to mind Konow's treatment of such prefixes being basically possessive pronouns modifying an underlying noun. Similarly, Maspero (1948) concluded that "the pronoun designating the subject was considered a determinant of the verb and, taking the same form and the same place as the determinant of the noun (possessive), was prefixed to the verb. The pronoun designating the

object was considered a complement of the verb and was suffixed to the verb. A verb having both an agent and an object was placed between the prefixed subject and the suffixed object."

Apparently, both Konow and Maspero based their conclusions on the syntactic similarities between nouns and verbs. Konow, attempting to explain how these two very different syntactic classes could be so similar, jumped to the conclusion that the TB verb was basically a noun. Any syntactic similarities between nouns and verbs in Kham, however, are linked historically through an intermediate form--the nominalized verb or objective participle--and it would be utterly wrong to assert that the verb itself has nominal characteristics.⁶

Footnotes.

¹ The Magars are a tribe of recognized ancient standing in West Nepal, and their name was adopted not only by Kham speakers, but also by other ethnic communities in the west whose languages are obviously of the Gurung Branch (e.g., the Chantel Magars, and the Tarali Magars).

² In the face of Darai (south-central Nepal) and related languages, this is not at all an unlikely possibility. Pronominal verb affixes in Darai clearly resemble the possessive pronouns suffixed to nouns (Kotapish and Kotapish, 1975). Emeneau (1965) shows related phenomena in Iranian, Indo-Aryan, and even Dravidian. Although these languages are unrelated to TB there may be implications for areal or typological universals not yet understood.

3 Actually, more central to the argument is the fact that -na, the accusative marker, has an affixial status, and when attached to noun stems it allows for the completion of the word tone (word tone being composed of a stem pitch and a suffix pitch--see footnote 4). The accentual unit or phonological foot being complete, compounding is not free to occur. With the pronouns 'yara and 'yani, on the other hand, only the stem pitch was realized on the pronoun itself, the suffix pitch coalescing with the following verb stem. Such is the phenomenon of word compounding.

4 Tone in Kham, like tone in other Nepalese TB languages, is a word phenomenon. Word tone in Kham has the further complexity of being neatly divided into a stem pitch and a suffix pitch (two phonetic pitches to a single toneme). Thus, the full tonal potential of a word is realized 'ideally' only if the word stem (any number of syllables) is followed by a morphological suffix, as in:

'zihm-kx 'at the house' (Tone 1--high stem, low suffix)

ka:h-lai 'to the dog' (Tone 2--falling stem, rising suff.)

If, on the other hand, in a given sequence, the word stem is not followed by a morphological suffix, a tone collision occurs. The suffix pitch associated with the first stem coalesces with the stem pitch of the following stem, causing tone perturbation, as in:

'mi: 'cyu:-ke-o 'he looked at the man'

where the low Tone 1 suffix pitch associated with 'mi: occurs on top of the high Tone 1 stem pitch of 'cyu:, causing the phonetic pitch of 'cyu: to be mid.

In compounds, two stems harmonize in such a way that tone collision no longer occurs. The inherent tone of either stem, however, is still retrievable. This can be seen in the following set of examples:

a) 'ka:h'ma cyu:-ke 'look at the bitch!'

b) 'ka:h'ma-lai cyu:-ke 'look at the bitch!'

The inherent tone of the first member in the compound (ka:h 'dog') determines the tone of both syllables in the compound (i.e. the stem pitch of the compound), but only in case there is no suffix attached to the compound. The second stem of the compound ('ma 'female') determines the tone of the word (stem and suffix), but only in case there is a morphological suffix attached. Thus in a) the compound word ka:h'ma manifests a Tone 2 stem pitch because Tone 2 is the inherent tone of ka:h, and the compound is not followed by a suffix. In b), on the other hand, the compound is followed by the suffix -lai. Thus, the second member of the compound, 'ma, which is inherently Tone 1, determines a Tone 1 suffix pitch for the suffix -lai. Since there is only one possible tone per word (stem pitch + the associated suffix pitch), the whole word (stem and suffix) manifests Tone 1 in its two parts.

⁵ That this is an equative copular construction can be seen by negativizing the construction. Although the positive equative copula is a 'zero' morpheme, the negative is ma:hkx, as in:

'ao ram-e u-'zihm Ø 'this is Ram's house'

'ao ram-e u-'zihm ma:hkx 'this is not Ram's house'

likewise, with the objective participle:

'ao 'zihm ram-e o-'jxy-o Ø

'this house is of Ram's building'

'ao 'zihm ram-e o-'jxy-o ma:hkx

'this house is not of Ram's building'

Chomsky (1970) identifies two nominal types in English--
 derived nominals, and 'gerundive nominals'--on the basis
 that only derived nominals have full NP characteristics. The
 objective participle in Kham is a nominal of derived nominal
 status in terms of its derivational potential. Its functions
 parallel those of an NP, including subject, object, locative,
 predicate nominative, etc., and may take any of the NP case
 markings. It can be possessed, and takes negative and plural
 markers associated only with NPs. None of these processes
 are applicable to verbs, and only some of them are applicable
 to the gerundive. For example:

<u>contactic function/</u>	<u>objective part.</u>	<u>gerundive</u>	<u>verbal</u>
nominal negative	yes	yes	no
nominal plural	yes	yes	no
accusative	yes	yes	no
nominative	yes	no	no
genitive	yes	no	no
possessive	yes	no	no
locative	yes	no	no

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