ON THE ASPECTUAL OPPOSITION OF PASSIVES
IN MODERN HEBREW*

Tsuguya Sasaki

1 INTRODUCTION

The present study is concerned with the alleged aspectual opposition of two passive verbal patterns (binyanim) in Modern Hebrew, i.e., PAUL and NIF'AL, as exemplified in (1), and its correlation with what I call 'inherent aspects' (cf. section 2.2).

(1) a. hamixtav katuv(PAUL)
   ART-letter written
   'The letter is written'

b. hamixtav nixtav(NIF'AL)
   ART-letter be.written(PRS)
   'The letter is written'

Previous studies on aspect in Modern Hebrew are not only restricted in number but far from being exhaustive, which is in a marked contrast with the state of the art in Biblical Hebrew. In this respect the above-mentioned issue is no exception. As will be shown in section 3.3 below, the problem is that those studies dealing with the opposition of PAUL and NIF'AL are contented with the description of prototypical examples and are attempting a formulation, which, it seems, does not apply to all cases.

This study is a modest attempt to fill this lacuna. In chapter 2 below the terminology to be employed hereafter is explained briefly so that the subsequent discussions will not be
circular. In chapter 3 general characteristics of the Modern Hebrew verbal system (verbal patterns, tense-aspect, and passive, among others) are elucidated; a brief mention is also made of the previous studies concerning the difference between PAUL and NIF'AL. In chapter 4, which is the main body of this study, I consider the aspects which PAUL and NIF'AL represent in 'events', 'telic processes', 'atelic processes', and 'states' (cf. section 2.2) respectively, and implicative relations in the present and past tenses. Chapter 5 is a summary of the preceding chapters.

2 THEORETICAL PREREQUISITES

2.1 THREE LEVELS OF NP REPRESENTATION

In accordance with Andrews (1985), Dik (1981), Geniušienė (1987), Givón (1984), etc., it is assumed in this paper that noun phrases have three levels of representation: morphological marking, syntactic functions, and semantic functions. In the following paragraphs each will be discussed in turn.

By 'morphological marking' I am referring to three categories: inflectional endings (e.g., nominative, accusative, ergative, absolutive, etc.), morphologically autonomous elements, and adpositions (i.e., prepositions and postpositions). Only the latter two are found in Modern Hebrew: accusative marker (ACC) et, and prepositions such as le-, be-, min, al, etc. (cf. Rosén 1966: 62-65).

What I call 'syntactic functions' (also called 'grammatical relations', etc.) are language-dependent categories comprised of 'subject', 'object', etc. They are defined according to
morphological and syntactic properties in a specific language. As far as Modern Hebrew is concerned, three syntactic functions are postulated: subject (S), object (O), and oblique (OBL). They can be defined on the basis of their morphological properties as shown below.

\[(2)\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>morphological verb marking</th>
<th>verb agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Ø ~ ACC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBL</td>
<td>prepositions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now let us focus our attention on 'semantic functions' (also called 'thematic roles', 'case roles', etc.). Although a number of studies have been made thus far about language-independent semantic functions, none of them seem to be wholly coherent and decisive. The following is but a tentative definition of five (obligatory) ones which are relevant to this study.

\[(3)\] a. agent (AG): a participant who initiates something (intentionally)

b. stimulus (ST): a participant that stimulates someone's feelings or perception

c. recipient (RE): a participant who receives something

d. experiencer (EX): a participant who feels or perceives something

e. patient (PA): a participant that is in a certain state or undergoes a change of state

Consider the following examples.

\[(4)\] a. bišnat 1881 alaben-yhudas.ag le-yisrael

In-year 1881 immigrate(PST) Ben-Yehuda to-Israel

'In 1881 Ben-Yehuda immigrated into Israel'
b. he passed away before the completion of the dictionary
   he pass.away(PST) before completion ART-dictionary
   'He passed away before the completion of the dictionary'

c. before hundred years publish(PST) Zamenhof ACC
   hasefer ART-book harišon basafa haxadaša
   ART-first in ART-first in ART-language ART-new
   'A hundred years ago Zamenhof published the first book in the new language'

d. he gave us a wonderful present
   he give(PST) to-us present wonderful
   'He gave us a wonderful present'

e. All of us know both of them well
   all-us know(PRS) ACC two-them well
   'All of us know both of them well'

2.2 VALENCY, TRANSITIVITY, DIATHESIS, AND ASPECT

Linguists are not consistent in their use of valency, transitivity, diathesis, and aspect. It is often the case that one term is employed to denote several concepts, and on the contrary, one concept is expressed by different terms. It is necessary, therefore, that I make explicit what I mean by these categories.

The term 'valency' is used here in its narrowest sense, i.e., to denote the number of participants with obligatory semantic functions that a predicate can take. Predicates can be classified according to their valency as follows.

(5) a. a valent: a predicate with the valency of 0
b. univalent: a predicate with the valency of 1  
c. bivalent: a predicate with the valency of 2  
d. trivalent: a predicate with the valency of 3

For the term 'transitivity' I retain the traditional meaning. In other words, it is employed to denote a pure syntactic category of predicates. On the basis of transitivity, predicates can be classified into the following three divisions.

(6) a. intransitive: a predicate with no object  
b. monotransitive: a predicate with one object  
c. ditransitive: a predicate with two objects

Care must be taken not to confuse transitivity with valency; they are not identical. Monotransitive verbs, for example, are not always bivalent, and vice versa.

Also confusing is the term 'diathesis'. In general, 'voice' and 'diathesis' are used interchangeably among linguists of the Western tradition. In this study, however, they are kept apart as suggested by Xolodovič (1970). According to his definition, diathesis is "a pattern of correspondences between units at the syntactic level and units at the semantic level"; on the other hand, voice is "a regular marking in the verb of the correspondences between units at the syntactic level and units at the semantic level," i.e., "a diathesis grammatically marked in the verb" (Xolodovič 1970: 13).

It may safely be said that this approach surpasses the treatment of 'voice' by Barber (1975). Geniušiene (1987: 52-58) is an elaboration of the 'two-level diathesis' by Xolodovič to the effect that the 'three-level diathesis' must be postulated by adding one more level of representation called 'referent structure' to syntactic and semantic levels of representation (i.e., syntactic and semantic functions). I adopt here the
two-level diathesis, which is sufficient for the present purposes. In other respects, however, Geniušienė (ibid.) is followed mutatis mutandis. Though less elaborate, Comrie (1985b) is also a stimulating treatise which essentially tries the same approach as does Geniušiene, and complements it with some aspects which are not dealt with by the latter such as 'causatives'.

Those diatheses which are characterized by a shift in correspondences between syntactic and semantic functions vis-à-vis 'basic diatheses' are called 'derived diatheses'. The latter, in turn, are divided into the following two categories: 'causative diatheses' and 'recessive diatheses'. The former are characterized by valency-increase, while the latter, which comprise the so-called 'passives', 'anticausatives', 'reflexives', 'reciprocals', etc., by valency-decrease. To summarize, diatheses are classified as shown in (7) below.

(7)  
| basic diatheses | causative diatheses |
| derived diatheses | recessive diatheses |

This concept is utilized in explaining the so-called verbal patterns (биньаним) of Modern Hebrew in section 3.1.

More chaotic is the term 'aspect'. It cannot necessarily be said that representative works on aspect such as Comrie (1976), Dahl (1985), etc. are clear-cut and cover all those topics which are at issue under the rubric of aspect in the scholarly journals and monographs. Though the author does not draw a conclusion herself, Yamada (1984) is an excellent survey which gives us useful information on the state of the art in aspectology.

On the basis of Yamada (ibid.), Dik (forthcoming), etc., I classify aspects as follows: 'inherent aspects', 'presentational aspects', 'phasal aspects', 'quantificational aspects', and
'qualificational aspects'.


a. dynamic vs. stative: this opposition is clear intuitively, and is almost unanimously accepted among linguists

b. punctual vs. durative: the absence vs. presence of the quality of lasting in time

c. telic vs. atelic: the implication vs. non-implication of the terminal point

Combining these three oppositions, the following four categories, which I call 'event', 'telic process', 'atelic process', and 'state', are conceivable.

(9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dynamic</th>
<th>punctual</th>
<th>telic</th>
<th>event</th>
<th>..........</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>durative</td>
<td></td>
<td>atelic</td>
<td>telic process</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>atelic process</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>state</td>
<td>..........</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


a. perfective: "indicates the view of a situation as a single whole, without distinction of the various
separate phases that make up that situation" (Comrie 1976: 16)

b. imperfective: "pays essential attention to the internal structure of the situation" (Comrie ibid.)


a. perfect (resultative): describes "a state that is the result of an earlier situation by giving expression to the earlier situation" (Comrie 1981: 66)

b. prospective: describes "a state [...] related to some subsequent situation, such that the seeds of this situation are already present in the earlier state, by giving expression to the subsequent situation" (Comrie ibid.)

etc.


a. habitual: refers to a situation that takes place habitually

b. iterative: refers to a situation that is repeated

c. semelfactive: refers to a situation that takes place once and once only

a. intensive
b. diminutive

etc.

3 VERBAL SYSTEM OF MODERN HEBREW

Generally speaking, Hebrew verbs are composed of three consonantal 'radicals'; the combination of the three radicals makes up a 'root'. Various semantic modifications are assumed by root modifications (such as internal vowel change and affixation), which can be divided into the following two sets: 'conjugations' (ntiyot) and 'verbal patterns' (binyanim).

(14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PAST</th>
<th>PRESENT</th>
<th>FUTURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAAL</td>
<td>FaMaL</td>
<td>FoMeL</td>
<td>yiFMo/aL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAUL</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>FaMuL</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIF'AL</td>
<td>niFMaL</td>
<td>niFMaL</td>
<td>yiFaMeL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIEL</td>
<td>FiMeL</td>
<td>meFaMeL</td>
<td>yeFaMeL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUAL</td>
<td>FuMaL</td>
<td>meFuMaL</td>
<td>yeFuMaL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HITPAEL</td>
<td>hitFaMeL</td>
<td>mitFaMeL</td>
<td>yitFaMeL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIF'IL</td>
<td>hiFMiL</td>
<td>maFMiL</td>
<td>yafMiL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUF'AL</td>
<td>huFMaL/</td>
<td>muFMaL/</td>
<td>yuFMaL/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hoFMaL</td>
<td>moFMaL</td>
<td>yoFMaL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table, where F, M, and L stand for the first, second, and third radicals respectively, the conjugations refer to the horizontal rows, while the vertical ones represent the
seven verbal patterns called PAAL, NIF'AL, PIEL, PUAL, HITPAEL, HIF'IL, and HUF'AL; PAUL is also included here for the sake of convenience, though not treated as such in a number of grammars. The first set of root modifications denotes person, gender, number, and tense. The latter assumes the functions of altering valency, transitivity, diathesis, and aspect. Let us examine them in more detail in the sections which follow.

3.1 VERBAL PATTERNS (BINYANIM)

As was mentioned above, change in valency, transitivity, diathesis, and aspect is indicated morphologically by the change of verbal patterns. Unlike conjugations; in which there is a regular correspondence between forms and functions, the functions each verbal pattern assumes are not always predictable, though not completely anomalous. As Berman (1978) puts it, there are three possible views on the treatment of verbal patterns.

(15) a. Total regularity: "This approach takes the view that the consonantal root is the lexical "prime" in a language such as Hebrew, the various morphological patterns associated with it (i.e., the binyan for the verbal system) being no more than obligatory additives which are connected to the roots in regular and predictable ways." (Berman ibid.: 87)

b. Total anomaly: "According to this view, the "word" is the lexical prime in Hebrew for verbs as well as for nouns and other categories [...]. That is, the lexical entry should be composed of the root together with a given binyan pattern for verbs - for neither the root nor the binyan alone can be taken to have independent
value." (Berman ibid.: 91)

C. Lexical redundancy: "[...] the view taken here is intermediary between the two more extreme positions outlined above, and it attempts to take account of two interrelated sets of variables simultaneously: (i) the syntactic processes manifested by the binyan system in general—such as transitivity, causativeness, inchoativeness, reciprocity, etc.—and (ii) the specific properties of each binyan in itself." (Berman ibid.: 95)

I adhere to the third alternative on the basis of the author's argument for it (cf. Berman ibid.: 95-100). It is also assumed that PUAL and HUF'AL are marked vis-à-vis PIEL and HIF'IL respectively, which, together with PAUL, NIF'AL, and HITPAEL, are marked vis-à-vis PAAL. The major functions which each verbal pattern assumes are illustrated below, though not exhaustively, with the terminology explained in chapter 2; cf. Ariel (1973), Ben-Asher (1973), Berman (1978), Berman (1979), Berman (1980), Cole (1976), Junger (1985), Junger (1987), Téné (1968), Téné (1969), etc.

(16) PAAL

a. basic diatheses

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{A1} \\
AG \\
S \\
\text{A2} \\
PA \\
S \\
\end{array} \]
(17) PAUL

a. basic diatheses

\[ \Delta 2 \]
\[ \Delta 3 \]

b. recessive diatheses

\[ \Delta 6a - ('passive') \leftarrow \Delta 6 \ (PAAL) \]
18. NIF’AL

a. basic diatheses
   Δ₁
   Δ₂
   Δ₃
   Δ₄
   Δ₅

b. no change of valency / change of aspect
   Δ₁[dynamic] <- Δ₁[stative] (PAAL)
   Δ₂[dynamic] <- Δ₂[stative] (PAAL)
   Δ₃[dynamic] <- Δ₃[stative] (PAAL)

c. recessive diatheses
   Δ₆ₐ- <- Δ₆ (PAAL)
   Δ₇ₐ- <- Δ₇ (PAAL)
   Δ₆ₗ- ('anticausative') <- Δ₆ (PAAL)
   Δ₇ₗ- ('anticausative') <- Δ₇ (PAAL)
\(A6c-\text{('reflexive')} \leftarrow A6 \text{(PAAL)}\)

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
 & AG & PA \\
\hline
S & & \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
 & AG & PA \\
\hline
S & 0 & \\
\end{array}
\]

\(A7c-\text{('reflexive')} \leftarrow A7 \text{(PAAL)}\)

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
 & EX & ST \\
\hline
S & & \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
 & EX & ST \\
\hline
S & 0 & \\
\end{array}
\]

\(A6d-\text{('reciprocal')} \leftarrow A6 \text{(PAAL)}\)

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & AG_1/PA_2 & AG_2/PA_1 \\
\hline
S & & \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & AG & PA \\
\hline
S & 0 & \\
\end{array}
\]

\(A7d-\text{('reciprocal')} \leftarrow A7 \text{(PAAL)}\)

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & EX_1/ST_2 & EX_2/ST_1 \\
\hline
S & & \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & EX & ST \\
\hline
S & 0 & \\
\end{array}
\]

(19) PIEL

a. basic diatheses

\(A4\)

\(A5\)

\(A6\)

\(A7\)

\(A8\)

b. no change of valency / change of aspect

\(A6[\text{intensive}] \leftarrow A6 \text{(PAAL)}\)

c. causative diatheses

\(A2^+ \leftarrow A2 \text{(PAAL)}\)

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & AG & PA_i \\
\hline
S & 0 & \\
\end{array}
\quad
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c}
 & PA_i \\
\hline
S & & \\
\end{array}
\]
(20) PUAL

a. recessive diatheses

Δ6a− <- Δ6/Δ1+/Δ2+ (PIEL)
Δ7a− <- Δ7/Δ3+/Δ7a+ (PIEL)

(21) HITPAEL

a. basic diatheses
(22) HIF’IL

b. recessive diatheses

\[\begin{align*}
\Delta 6a^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 6/\Delta 1^+/\Delta 2^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 7a^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 7/\Delta 3^+/\Delta 7a^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 6b^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 6/\Delta 1^+/\Delta 2^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 7b^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 7/\Delta 3^+/\Delta 7a^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 6c^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 6/\Delta 1^+/\Delta 2^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 7c^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 7/\Delta 3^+/\Delta 7a^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 6d^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 6/\Delta 1^+/\Delta 2^+ \quad (\text{PIEL}) \\
\Delta 7d^- & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 7/\Delta 3^+/\Delta 7a^+ \quad (\text{PIEL})
\end{align*}\]

a. basic diatheses

\[\begin{align*}
\Delta 4 \\
\Delta 5 \\
\Delta 6 \\
\Delta 7 \\
\Delta 8
\end{align*}\]

b. causative diatheses

\[\begin{align*}
\Delta 1^+ & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 1 \quad (\text{PAAL}) \\
\begin{array}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{AG} & \text{PA}_1 \\
\hline
\text{S} & \text{O} \\
\hline
\end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|}
\hline
\text{AG}_1 \\
\hline
\text{S} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\end{align*}\]

\[\begin{align*}
\Delta 2^+ & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 2 \quad (\text{PAAL}) \\
\Delta 3^+ & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 3 \quad (\text{PAAL}) \\
\Delta 4^+ & \quad \leftarrow \Delta 4 \quad (\text{PAAL})
\end{align*}\]
In Modern Hebrew three tense forms are morphologically distinguished: PRESENT, PAST, and FUTURE. They roughly correspond to what Comrie (1985a) calls 'relative present', 'relative past', and 'relative future' respectively. What is meant by relative tense is that "the referent point for location of a situation is some point in time given by the context, not necessarily the present moment" (Comrie ibid.: 56); to put it another way, "the present moment is, unless barred by context, always available as a reference point for relative tenses" (Comrie ibid.: 58).

As far as basic diatheses are concerned, aspects such as
perfective, imperfective, perfect, prospective, etc. are indicated neither synthetically nor analytically. Hence the semantic range each tense form covers is much wider than in those languages which are possessed of more elaborate aspectual distinctions, e.g., English. Let us consider the following examples (cf. Rosén 1966: 31, 71, 79).

(24) a. hašemeš zoraxat
   ART-sun shine(PRS)
   'The sun shines/The sun is shining'
   b. ani ba maxar
   I come(PRS) tomorrow
   'I am coming tomorrow'
   c. ani gar birušalayim ze. eser šanim
   I live(PRS) in-Jerusalem this ten year(PL)
   'I have been living in Jerusalem for ten years'

(25) a. kolumbus gila et amerika
   Columbus discover(PST) ACC America
   'Columbus discovered America'
   b. hiskamnu
   agree(1.PL.PST)
   'We have agreed'
   c. tilfannu lemoše, ki xikinu
telephone(1.PL.PST) to-Moses, for wait(1.PL.PST)
zman rav
time much
'we rang Moses up, for we had been waiting a long time'

(26) a. axake ad maxar
   wait(1.SG.FTR) until tomorrow
   'I will wait until tomorrow'
   b. nedaber im hamore
talk(I.PL.FTR) with ART-teacher

'Let's talk with the teacher'

The habitual aspect alone is expressed analytically, i.e., by means of haya to be + PRESENT. This is, however, confined to the past tense. haya is also used as a copula in the past and future tenses. Here are some examples.

(27) a. hu haya omer tamid ...
   he be(PST) say(PRS) always ...
   'He always used to say .../He would always say ...'

b. yosef talmid
   Joseph student
   'Joseph is a student'

c. yosef haya talmid
   Joseph be(PST) student
   'Joseph was a student'

d. yosef yihye talmid
   Joseph be(FTR) student
   'Joseph will be a student'

3.3 PASSIVE AND OTHER RECESSIVE DIATHESES

It is not so easy to give a definition of 'passive' in a language such as Hebrew, where there are no formal means to demarcate it from the so-called 'anticausative', 'reflexive', and 'reciprocal' as shown in (16)-(23). It is inevitable to have recourse to the meaning. My tentative definition is that the diatheses characterized by Δ6a- or Δ7a- are passives. The division between passive, anticausative, reflexive, and reciprocal is, however, minute and not so clear-cut as it may seem at first. There are a number of cases in which it is possible to interpret both as
passives and as, e.g., anticausatives. Hence, in dealing with the issue in the following chapter, I was obliged to restrict myself to a small number of examples which are for all intents and purposes passives.

Furthermore, a brief look at (16)-(23) will show that they pose one more problem: are there any differences recognizable between the two passive verbal patterns of PAAL and PIEL respectively, i.e., between PAUL and NIF'AL on the one hand, and between PUAL and HITPAEL on the other; and if there are any, what do the oppositions stand for? There have not been many researchers who have engaged themselves in the treatment of this issue. To the best of my knowledge, there are no more than six studies which are worth mentioning, though not necessarily satisfactory in every single point: Rosén (1955: 239-249), Rosén (1956: 139-143), Rosén (1966: 126, 142), Rosén (1977: 179-183), Berman (1978: 165-168), and Kutscher (1982: 259).

Rosén’s contributions to the study of Modern Hebrew in general cannot be emphasized too much. The same holds true of the topic at hand. As far as I know, he was the first to point out the aspectual oppositions of the above-mentioned pairs implicitly in Rosén (1955: 239-240) and explicitly in Rosén (1956: 139-143). This phenomenon is again mentioned briefly in Rosén (1966: 126, 142). Rosén (1977: 179-183) is a summary and elaboration of his preceding studies on this issue; incidentally, this book is filled with insightful descriptions of Modern Hebrew. The following is a summary of his claims in chronological order.

(28) Rosén (1955: 239-240)

a. |FaMuL |NIF'AL |
   |"hešlem p'ula" |"asu p'ula" |
(29) Rosén (1956: 139-143)

a.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PUAL</th>
<th>HITPAEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PST</td>
<td>FuMaL (infectivum[sic])</td>
<td>hitFaMeL (infectivum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>haya meFuMaL (perfectum)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRS</td>
<td>meFuMaL (perfectum)</td>
<td>mitFaMeL (infectivum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTR</td>
<td>yeFuMaL (infectivum)</td>
<td>yitFaMeL (infectivum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yihye meFuMaL (perfectum)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(30) Rosén (1966: 126, 142)

a.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PAUL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(perfect)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(31) Rosén (1977: 179-183)

a.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FaMuL</th>
<th>niFMaL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(stative)</td>
<td>(fientive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meFuMaL</td>
<td>(mitFaMeL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(stative)</td>
<td>(fientive)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. hašaar sagur(PAUL)

ART-gate closed

'The gate is closed (= Das Tor ist geschlossen)'

c. hašaar nisgar(NIF’AL)

ART-gate be.closed(PRS)

'The gate is closed (= Das Tor wird geschlossen)
d. hakesef mešulam(PUAL)
   ART-money be.paid(PRS)
   'The money is paid'

e. hakesef mištalem(HITPAEL)
   ART-money be.paid(PRS)
   'The money is (being) paid'

Berman (1978: 165-168) also treats this issue as part of the overall treatment of the Modern Hebrew tense-aspect system. On the whole, her interpretation coincides with that of Rosen except that PAUL is regarded as expressing the perfective aspect. Her claim can be summarized as follows.

(32) a.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAUL</th>
<th>NIF’AL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PST</td>
<td>niFMaL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(statal/perfective)</td>
<td>(kinetic/true passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRS</td>
<td>niFMaL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(statal/perfective)</td>
<td>(kinetic/true passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTR</td>
<td>yiFaMeL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(statal/perfective)</td>
<td>(kinetic/true passive)</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAUL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kinetic/true passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haya meFuMaL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kinetic/true passive) or (statal/perfective passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(kinetic/true passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yiFaMeL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. kol hamkomot tfusim(PAUL)
all ART-seat(PL) taken
'All the seats are taken'

c. kol hamkomot nitpasim(NIF'AL)
all ART-seat(PL) be.taken(PRS)
'All the seats are (=get) taken'

d. hatauyot mesumanot(PUAL)
ART-error(PL) be.marked(PRS)
'The errors are marked'

As is the case with a number of linguists, especially Semitists, Berman seems to have fallen into the fallacy of confusing perfective with perfect. According to her, 'perfective' focuses on "the state to which the verb refers" (Berman ibid.: 168). It will be evident to everyone that what she calls 'perfective' refers to what is generally understood as perfect (resultative) among linguists (cf. section 2.2).

Lastly, let us focus our attention on Kutscher (1982: 259). In essence, what he maintains is in agreement with Rosén and Berman, though the terminology employed is different. Let us consider the following.

(33) a.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAUL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PST</td>
<td>haya FaMuL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(stative passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRS</td>
<td>FaMuL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(stative passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTR</td>
<td>yihye FaMuL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(stative passive)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUAL</th>
<th>HITPAEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PST</td>
<td>FuMaL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(action passive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>haya meFuMaL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As (28)-(33) show, these studies have one deficiency in common: they assume tacitly (or at least on the basis of a tiny portion of the material) that one and the same rule applies to all cases regardless of the inherent aspectual characters which the predicates have. My claim is that this is untenable: there must be some variations in the (presentational or phasal) aspect which each verbal pattern represents according to its inherent aspectual character.

The following chapter is concerned with this problem. However, it is confined to the opposition of PAUL and NIF’AL in the present and past tenses. The opposition of PUAL and HITPAEL will be left over till later on as a desideratum, for it may well
be surmised with reason that PUAL is to HITPAEL what PAUL is to NIF‘AL. The future tense is likewise excluded from the present discussion, as it is closely related to mood, and to describe it meticulously is beyond the scope of this study.

4 THE CORRELATION OF PASSIVE AND ASPECT

As was mentioned in section 2.2, three pairs of oppositions are conceivable in terms of the inherent aspectual characters of predicates: dynamic vs. stative, punctual vs. durative, and telic vs. atelic. Their combination, in turn, makes four types of categories: event [dynamic / punctual / telic], telic process [dynamic / durative / telic], atelic process [dynamic / durative / atelic], and state [stative / durative / atelic]. It is apparent that stative and punctual, stative and telic, and punctual and atelic are incompatible with each other respectively.

As regards bivalent monotransitive predicates, which have passive counterparts in Modern Hebrew, the following examples illustrate passives of events, telic processes, atelic processes, and states respectively.

(34) events
   a. gamar et haavoda⁹
      'to finish the work'
   b. ganav et hataxšitim
      'to steal the ornaments'
   c. hafax et hašulxan
      'to turn the table over'

(35) telic processes
Events, telic processes, and atelic processes are distinguishable in terms of the co-occurring time-adverbials: the former two are compatible with be- 'in' (e.g., beša‘a 'in an hour') but not with bemešex 'for' (e.g., bemešex šaa 'for an hour'); on the contrary, the opposite is the case with atelic processes. Consider the following examples.

(a) a. gamartī et haavoda beša‘a  
finish(1.SG.PST) ACC ART-work in-hour  
'I finished the work in an hour'

(b) *gamartī et haavoda bemešex šaa
Furthermore, a little reflection upon the above examples
will easily lead us to recognize the difference between (38.a)
and (39.a), as Vendler (1957: 147) points out. It is quite
natural to interpret that the writing of the letter continued
during the period indicated by that time-adverbial in the latter.
As regards the former, however, it makes all the difference in
its interpretation. Obviously, it is not implied that the
finishing of the work continued during that period; rather, some
other activities required one hour to lead to a culmination,
i.e., the finishing of the work.

In the sections which follow, I will consider the
correlation between events, telic processes, atelic processes,
and states on the one hand, and the aspeectual values PAUL and
NIF’AL denote in the present and past tenses on the other.

4.1 PASSIVES OF TELIC PROCESSES

At the outset, before commencing the analysis, it seems
worthwhile to reaffirm what is meant by 'perfective',
'imperfective', 'perfect', and 'prospective' in this study so that unnecessary misunderstandings may not arise (cf. section 2.2). 'Perfect' is reserved here for a phasal aspect which focuses a state resulting from some activity; accordingly it corresponds to the so-called 'perfect of result' (Comrie 1976: 56-58, Dahl 1985: 133-136). In addition, it cannot be emphasized too much that perfective and perfect should be strictly kept apart. They are quite distinct in nature, though there are some overlaps between them.

Now let us focus our attention on passives of telic processes. Consider some examples arranged in the order of PAUL (PRESENT), NIF'AL (PRESENT), PAUL (PAST), and NIF'AL (PAST).

(41) a. hamixtav katuv(PAUL)
   ART-letter written
   'The letter is written (= has been written)'
b. habayit banuy(PAUL)
   ART-house built
   'The house is built (= has been built)'
c. hamsiba aruxa(PAUL)
   ART-party prepared
   'The party is prepared (= has been prepared)'

(42) a. hamixtav nixtav(NIF'AL)
   ART-letter be.written(PRS)
   'The letter is written (= is being written)'
b. habayit nivne(NIF'AL)
   ART-house be.built(PRS)
   'The house is built (= is being built)'
c. hamsiba neerexet(NIF'AL)
   ART-party be.prepared(PRS)
   'The party is prepared (= is being prepared)'

-28-
(43) a. hamixtav haya katuv(PAUL)
   ART-letter be(PST) written
   'The letter was written (= had been written)'

   b. habayit haya banuy(PAUL)
   ART-house be(PST) built
   'The house was built (= had been built)'

   c. hamsiba hayta aruxa(PAUL)
   ART-party be(PST) prepared
   'The party was prepared (= had been prepared)'

(44) a. hamixtav nixtav(NIF‘AL)
   ART-letter be.written(PST)
   'The letter was written'

   b. habayit nivna(NIF‘AL)
   ART-house be.built(PST)
   'The house was built'

   c. hamsiba neerxa(NIF‘AL)
   ART-party be.prepared(PST)
   'The party was prepared'

In the above examples, (41.a)-(41.c) are used to refer to a present state resulting from the writing of the letter, the building of the house, and the preparing of the party respectively; in other words, PAUL (PRESENT) denotes (present) perfect. In contrast, (42.a)-(42.c) are used in the context where the implied terminal point is as yet reached, which means that NIF‘AL (PRESENT) denotes (present) imperfective.

PAUL (PAST) is simply a past counterpart of PAUL (PRESENT), i.e., (past) perfect. However, this is not the case with NIF‘AL. Change from NIF‘AL (PRESENT) to NIF‘AL (PAST) is not a mere change of tense, but it involves aspect as well: NIF‘AL (PAST) indicates that the implied terminal point beyond which the
writing of the letter, etc. cannot go on was actually reached, and not that the writing of the letter was ongoing, i.e., it indicates (past) perfective. As a corollary, NIF’AL (PAST) implies PAUL (PRESENT), while NIF’AL (PRESENT) never implies PAUL (PRESENT).

4.2 PASSIVES OF EVENTS

With passives of events the situation is the same as in the telic processes treated above except for NIF’AL (PRESENT). First let us examine some examples.

(45) a. haavoda gmura(PAUL)
   ART-work finished
   ‘The work is finished (= has been finished)’

    b. hataxšitim gnuvim(PAUL)
   ART-ornament(PL) stolen
   ‘The ornaments are stolen (= have been stolen)’

    c. hašulxan hafux(PAUL)
   ART-table turned over
   ‘The table is turned over (= has been turned over)’

(46) a. haavoda nigreret(NIF’AL)
   ART-work be.finished(PRS)
   ‘The work is finished (= is about to be finished)’

    b. hataxšitim nignavim(NIF’AL)
   ART-ornament(PL) be.stolen(PRS)
   ‘The ornaments are stolen (= are about to be stolen)’

    c. hašulxan nehpx(NIF’AL)
   ART-table be.turned.over(PRS)
   ‘The table is turned over (= is about to be turned over)’
As is the case with telic processes, PAUL (PRESENT), PAUL (PAST), and NIF'AL (PAST) denote (present) perfect, (past) perfect, and (past) perfective respectively, and NIF'AL (PAST) implies PAUL (PRESENT). However, when it comes to NIF'AL (PRESENT), it is not (present) imperfective but (present) prospective that is indicated. There is every reason for imperfective to be incompatible with events. As Comrie (1976: 24) puts it, imperfective is characterized by "explicit reference to the internal temporal structure of a situation, viewing a situation from within," therefore it presupposes the inherent durative character on the part of the predicates. Apparently, events lack internal complexity perceptually. It follows that
imperfective and events are essentially incompatible with each other.

4.3 PASSIVES OF ATELIC PROCESSES

Passives of atelic processes are different from those of telic processes in many ways. The essential difference between the two is that in the former the semantic opposition between PAUL and NIF'AL is in many cases neutralized in terms of denotation, if not connotationally. Consider the following examples.

(49)  a.  haagala dxufa(PAUL)
       ART-cart pushed
       'The cart is pushed'

       b.  haagala mšuxa(PAUL)
       ART-cart pulled
       'The cart is pulled'

       c.  haoved daruš(PAUL)
       ART-worker required
       'The worker is required'

(50)  a.  haagala nidxefet(NIF'AL)
       ART-cart be.pushed(PRS)
       'The cart is pushed'

       b.  haagala nimšexet(NIF'AL)
       ART-cart be.pulled(PRS)
       'The cart is pulled'

       c.  haoved nidraš(NIF'AL)
       ART-worker be.required(PRS)
       'The worker is required'

(51)  a.  haagala hayta dxufa(PAUL)
       ART-cart be(PST) pushed
'The cart was pushed'
b. haagala hayta mšuxa(PAUL)
   ART-cart be(PST) pulled
   'The cart was pulled'
c. haoved haya daruš(PAUL)
   ART-worker be(PST) required
   'The worker was required'

(52) a. haagala nidxfa(NIF'AL)
   ART-cart be.pushed(PST)
   'The cart was pushed'
b. haagala nimáxa(NIF'AL)
   ART-cart be.pulled(PST)
   'The cart was pulled'
c. haoved nidraš(NIF'AL)
   ART-worker be.required(PST)
   'The worker was required'

The aspectual ranges covered by PAUL (PRESENT) and NIF'AL (PRESENT) on the one hand, and by PAUL (PAST) and NIF'AL (PAST) on the other are the same, i.e., imperfective.\(^{11}\) There is, however, some difference between PAUL and NIF'AL in other respects, as far as daraš et haoved 'to require the worker', for instance, is concerned.\(^{12}\) It is natural that PAUL and NIF'AL (came to) be differentiated somehow, for it is redundant that a language has two forms with exactly the same meaning.

### 4.4 PASSIVES OF STATES

The last concern in this chapter is passives of states. I have not noticed to date any difference whatever between states and atelic processes in terms of the aspectual values PAUL and NIF'AL
represent, as the following examples show.

(53) a.  habaxura ahuva(PAUL)
        ART-girl loved
        'The girl is loved'

        b.  hašem zaxur(PAUL)
        ART-name remembered
        'The name is remembered'

        c.  hanos'im klulim(PAUL)
        ART-topic(PL) included
        'The topics are included'

(54) a.  habaxura neehevet(NIF'AL)
        ART-girl be.loved(PRS)
        'The girl is loved'

        b.  hašem nizkar(NIF'AL)
        ART-name be.remembered(PRS)
        'The name is remembered'

        c.  hanos'im nixlalim(NIF'AL)
        ART-topic(PL) be.included(PRS)
        'The topics are included'

(55) a.  habaxura hayta ahuva(PAUL)
        ART-girl be(PST) loved
        'The girl was loved'

        b.  hašem haya zaxur(PAUL)
        ART-name be(PST) remembered
        'The name was remembered'

        c.  hanos'im hayu klulim(PAUL)
        ART-topic(PL) be(PST) included
        'The topics were included'

(56) a.  habaxura neehava(NIF'AL)
        ART-girl be.loved(PST)
'The girl was loved'

b. hašem nizkar(NIF'AL)
   ART-name be.remembered(PST)
   'The name was remembered'

c. hanos'im niklu(NIF'AL)
   ART-topic(PL) be.included(PST)
   'The topics were included'

All the above examples indicate imperfective aspect. As is the case with atelic processes, the opposition of PAUL and NIF'AL is neutralized. It is surmised that the same tendency toward non-aspectual semantic differentiation is stronger here. Furthermore, it seems that the more frequently the verb is used, the more likely it is that PAUL and NIF'AL are differentiated semantically (but not in terms of aspect). This holds true of such common verbs as xašav 'to think' (xašuv (PAUL) 'important' vs. nexšav (NIF'AL) 'to be thought') and raa 'to see' (rauy (PAUL) 'suitable' vs. nir'a (NIF'AL)'to be seen, seem').

5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have attempted to elucidate the aspectual opposition of two passive verbal patterns, i.e., PAUL and NIF'AL, in the present and past tenses. It has been shown that the aspects they represent are not always the same, pace Rosén, Berman, and Kutscher, but depend on the inherent aspectual characters of the predicates as summarized below.

(57) events
It has also been pointed out that there are implicational relations between PAUL (PRESENT) and NIF’AL (PRESENT) / NIF’AL (PAST) as follows.

(61) events / telic processes

NIF’AL (PAST) ---→ PAUL (PRESENT)
NIF’AL (PRESENT) ⏯→ PAUL (PRESENT)

(62) atelic processes / states

NIF’AL (PAST) ⏯→ PAUL (PRESENT)
### ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE GLOSSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second Person</th>
<th>Third Person</th>
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<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>Accusative Marker</td>
<td>PRS</td>
<td>PST</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### NOTES

* My sincere thanks are due to Avi Ashkenazi, Dafna Berlfein, Shai Friedman, and Sandra Peretz (in alphabetical order), who served as informants. This study was greatly inspired by the treatment of -ata/-ita (imperfective and perfect passive participles of Esperanto respectively) by Kalocsay & Waringhien (1985: 143-148).

1. In order to avoid unnecessary confusions, I employed capitals to indicate language-specific forms (e.g., PRESENT); on the other hand, terms which are not in capitals stand for language-independent functions (e.g., imperfective).

2. As a rule, definite noun phrases are marked with ACC.

3. This term, employed in Talmy (1985), is not so widely used as the other semantic functions listed here.

4. Some scholars (e.g., Andrews 1985) postulate a separate semantic function called 'theme', for a participant that is
in a certain state.

Originally, Geniusiene employs the term 'base diatheses'.

'Presentational aspects' and 'quantificational aspects' correspond to what Dik (forthcoming) calls 'presentation' and 'quantification' respectively.

In the following some representative classifications are contrasted, the level of analysis being ignored.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Telic Process</th>
<th>Ateleic Process</th>
<th>State</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Vendler (1957)</td>
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<td>accomplishment</td>
<td>activity</td>
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<td>Kenny (1963)</td>
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<td>Lyons (1977)</td>
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<td>Kalocsay &amp; Waringhien (1985)</td>
<td>verboj</td>
<td>verboj</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

For the sake of convenience, conjugations according to person, number, and gender are omitted from the table.

I have followed the method of using 3.M.SG.PST as the citation form of the verb.

For the distinction of perfective and perfect, see Comrie (1976: 62-64) and Dahl (1985: 138-141).

Here NIF'AL (PAST) does not imply PAUL (PRESENT) as in events and telic processes.

(49.c) implies that the worker itself is required, while (50.c) implies that the worker is required to do something.

REFERENCES


Ben-Asher, M. 1972. binyaney haapoal - inyan ledikduk o leميلון. hauniversita 17/2. 31-34.


RESUMO

PRI LA ASPEKTA OPOZICIO DE PASIVOJ EN LA MODERNA HEBREA

La nuna esploro to provas analizi la supozan aspektan opozicijon de du pasivaj formoj en la moderna hebra, kiuj estas nomataj PAUL kaj NIF'AL kutime, limigante al la prezenco kaj la preterito. Oni klarigas kontraŭ la ĝisnunaj studoj, ke la aspektaj valoroj esprimataj de PAUL kaj NIF'AL ne ĉiam estas samaj, sed varias laŭ la propraj aspektaj karakteroj de la predikatoj. Nome, evidentigas koneksa korelativeco inter la jenaj du aferoj: unue, ĉu PAUL kaj NIF'AL indikas perfektivan, imperfektivan, perfektan aŭ prediktan aspektojn; due, ĉu la predikatoj implicas limpunkton kaj/aŭ la daŭrekon. Krome, oni rimarkas kelkajn implicajn rilatojn inter PAUL kaj NIF'AL.

(佐々木嗣也，博士後期課程)