Fifty-five structures of the Chinese language are described and their particular usage patterns are discussed for the use of teachers, linguists, and advanced students of Chinese. Each structure is listed by its major structural element(s), its grammatical element(s), or a combination of the two. The examination of each structure consists of an analysis of the form (formal features and/or variant forms), examples in Chinese with the English translation, and notes on usage (formal properties, behavior, and meaning). In some cases, structures are contrasted for clarification. (MSE)
STUDIES OF CHINESE LANGUAGE STRUCTURES

by

Chih-ping Chang Sobelman, and others
STUDIES OF
CHINESE LANGUAGE
STRUCTURES

By
Chih-ping Chang Sobelman

With Mrs. Chih-yu Chang Ho
Mr. Charles Hamond
Mr. Paul Mandel
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Forword

The present work is of special significance in at least two respects: (1) It is a useful contribution to coping with problems of Chinese usage that have not been adequately handled elsewhere. (2) It is an exemplary demonstration of the added contribution that language teachers can make in utilizing their classroom expertise to produce practical study aids of high quality.

As a contribution to coping with problems of Chinese usage, the present work helps to fill the big gap between textbook presentations and full-scale grammars. Textbooks tend to limit their discussions of usage to ad hoc explanations or to only slightly more generalized analyses geared to a particular student level. Grammars tend to be ponderous tomes so overwhelming in their specialized terminology and exhaustive treatment as to frighten away many students and teachers who might otherwise benefit from them.

Ms. Sobelman has chosen to aim her work at a target lying between the extremes just mentioned. The patterns presented are limited in number but have been treated with judicious thoroughness, without excessive jargon but in a coherent and lucid fashion. Students and teachers alike will find the material useful and informative. It can be approached either as a reference work, that is as a source of information on specific structures that have caused trouble and have brought about a need for further elucidation, or as a supplementary study aid into which one might dip at random for the pleasure of expanding one's knowledge by the many-faceted insights presented therein.
There is added significance in this work in the fact that it is the product of a person who is primarily a language teacher. While extensive contributions to Chinese language teaching have been made by armchair strategists with sometimes limited battle experience in the classroom, the enormous potential contribution of classroom veterans has been inadequately realized. Ms. Sobelman has drawn on her extensive teaching experience, added to it some knowledge of how linguistic science can help make greater sense of this experience, and produced a work of genuine synthesis.

Concretely, the author has taken note of specific student difficulties and mistakes in her classroom; checked textbooks, grammars, and other sources as to whether they treat these problems, and if so how; collected samples of the problem patterns from other native speakers; considered the pattern from various aspects; written out a tentative exposition of the pattern; tried out the material on students and colleagues; and finally returned to the drawing board for further reworking of the material into the present form.

We have here, then, not only a useful contribution to our knowledge of Chinese linguistic structures. We have also an equally useful demonstration of the added role that can be played by language teachers. Ms Sobelman's work shows that you don't have to be a Ph.D. to produce a creditable publication in the area of Chinese language teaching. It is hoped that other language teachers will take heart despite their unfortunately low position on the academic totem pole and will also draw on their classroom experience to add to our store of useful aids for the study of Chinese.

John DeFrancis
**Introduction**

In writing this book, the author has not attempted to compile just another collection of supplementary materials, reference book or textbook on the Chinese language. Instead, it should be considered as a combination of the three.

On the one hand, as a collection of supplementary materials, this work will be quite valuable to students for facilitating the comprehension of complex grammatical patterns not adequately analyzed in the average Chinese language text. On the other hand, as a reference book, this study will provide the reader with a convenient tool for finding the meaning, grasping the function and understanding the underlying significance and principles of the patterns. Finally, as a textbook, this work will be useful to advanced Chinese students and linguists.

In this way, the author intends to reach a varied audience including teachers, students and linguists of Chinese. Teachers will find this book most useful because it is a compilation of patterns containing copious explanations and numerous examples. This will simplify the teacher's task in the presentation of grammatical complexities. Students will make good use of this book, despite the fact that there are no exercises, by utilizing it to improve upon their basic grasp of the language. Linguists will find this work most interesting, despite the fact that the terminology has been simplified, since the author has analyzed many significant patterns which have heretofore been neglected.

To have rigidly followed linguistic convention would have made this book too unwieldy for the average student or teacher. Instead, while maintaining linguistic methodology as a matter of prime concern, the
The author has written a work accessible to all.

Furthermore, the author has not confined herself to a single linguistic approach. Rather, she combines the three major types of procedures: structural, transformational and semantic. Briefly, the structural method is an analysis of linguistic data based on form (word order, particles, etc.). The transformational style shows the relationship between a given and its underlying pattern. The semantic approach focuses on the content rather than the form by comparing the meanings of linguistic elements in different contexts. The combined use of these three methods is well suited to the author's goal of effectively presenting her findings in a readily understandable manner.

Thus, the author has compiled a multi-purpose work designed to meet the needs of the teacher, student and linguist. In order to satisfy such a wide range of requirements, she has analyzed a large variety of patterns ranging from those which are highly significant and yet have been neglected in other texts to those which seem extremely simple. However, this apparent simplicity belies the fact that they are fundamental to one's understanding of the workings of the language. Hence, by focusing on what seems to be simple, the reader will be able to internalize the principles of the language rather than merely treating each case as a new vocabulary item. Therefore, by meeting various purposes and communicating with a widespread audience, the author hopes to highlight the joy of studying, teaching and analyzing Chinese.

Charles Hammond
Chih-yu Ho
Paul Handel
Preface

Organization. There are fifty-five (55) structures presented in this work. Each structure is listed by its major structural element(s); either by its Chinese element alone as in "THE USAGE OF ge"; its grammatical element(s) as in "THE USAGE OF N N S V N"; or the combination of both as in "THE USAGE OF NP bu NP'. The order of presentation of these structures is by alphabetical arrangement of the first Chinese element or the first grammatical element, whichever case may apply. For instance: the study of the usage of Adverb - Noun Phrase proceeds that of all VP bu VP. The usage of yi H1 H1 proceeds that of yi V N N, and the usage of youdeyi proceeds that of youdian.

Presentation. The study of each structure consists of the following sections:

I. Form
II. Examples
III. Notes

This format of presentation is designed to correspond to that of "Structure Notes for Read About China" - a previously published work of the author - which has been favorably received by its users.

Section I: Form lists all the formal features and/or the variant forms of a structure being studied. Section II: Examples lists all examples illustrating the form or forms as presented in Section I. The examples are given in both Chinese and their English translations. Section III: Notes presents the study of the formal properties, behavior and meaning of the structure being examined. Whenever necessary, contrastive study is included to distinguish the structure in question from others.

Index. Following the entries as described above, there are two indexes. The first is an index of all entries listed in order of occurrence in the text. For instance:
This means that the study of the usage of 'hao VP' is the twentieth entry in the present work and in its presentation there are three other structures included for comparison and differentiation, i.e. 'cai peng VP', 'lai/gu VP lai/gu' and 'weideshi .... cai ....'

The second index provides cross references for all structures covered in this work alphabetically. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hao</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hao, S</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hao bu hao</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicates that the word 'hao' occurred in three different entries of this structural study: in entry number 20 as in 'hao VP', in entry number 28 as in 'hao, S' and in entry number 40 as in 'hao bu hao'.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pron</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V N/Pron de N</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pron de N</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gei Pron lai ge VP/S</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gei Pron V NU M NP</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pron-xie</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicates that 'Pron' occurred in this work many times in varied contexts. In entry number 12, it occurs in the context of 'V N/Pron de N', in number 15 in the context of 'Pron de N', in 17 in the contexts of 'gei Pron lai ge VP/S' and 'gei Pron V NU M NP' and in number 51 in the context of 'Pron-xie'.

Explanation of Grammatical Terms. A few grammatical terms are used in this work to facilitate the analysis of these structures. These terms are used for the purpose of teaching Chinese to non-native speakers whose interests are learning the language rather than theoretical research.

1. For a full discussion of these terms please refer to the Preface in "Structure Notes for Read About China" by Schelrrm, No. Far Eastern Publications. New Haven, Conn. Pp iv - viii.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>ADV</td>
<td>Adverb</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aux V(P)</td>
<td>Auxiliary Verb(Phrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Comment of a Topic-Comment Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO-VP</td>
<td>Co-verbial Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO</td>
<td>Direct Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EV(P)</td>
<td>Equative Verb(Phrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FV(P)</td>
<td>Punctive Verb(Phrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IO</td>
<td>Indirect Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LV(P)</td>
<td>Locative Verb(Phrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Movable Adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neg</td>
<td>Negative Marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Noun Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NU</td>
<td>Numerals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pron</td>
<td>Pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PW</td>
<td>Place Word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Question Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QW</td>
<td>Question Word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>Resultative Ending</td>
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<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Sentence - a complete T-C Construction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sp</td>
<td>Specifier</td>
</tr>
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<td>SVP(P)</td>
<td>Stative Verb(Phrase)</td>
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<td>T - C</td>
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<td>TW</td>
<td>Time Word</td>
</tr>
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<td>V</td>
<td>Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>Verb Phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X, Y</td>
<td>Variables</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Explanation of Symbols.** A few symbols are used to facilitate the discussion and presentation in this work. They are explained in the following text:

- A virgule sign is used to separate alternatives.
- *na lai/gu* means *na lai* or *na gu*
When used in the presentation of formal structural elements, it encloses the optional element(s). For instance:

\[ \text{bu} \ (VP) \ \text{le} \] means the VP is optional.

Or, it indicates an element is omitted:

\[ \text{bu chi le} \]
\[ \rightarrow \ \text{bu} (\ \ ) \ \text{le} \]
\[ = \text{bu le} \]

It indicates a transformational, conversional or derivational relationship between the two elements (or groups of elements). In the following example, A is transformed to B, and C is transformed from D.

\[ A \rightarrow B \]
\[ C \leftarrow D \]

It indicates an interchangeable relationship between the two elements (or groups of elements). In the example below, A is interchangeable with B.

\[ A \leftrightarrow B \]

The equal sign indicates that two elements (or groups of elements) are identical, either by their own rights in a certain usage, as in:

\[ \text{hao} = \text{kevi} \]
\[ \text{hao ni lai ba!} \]
\[ \text{kevi ni lai ba!} \]

Or, as a result of a transformation, as in:

\[ \text{bu chi le} \rightarrow \text{bu} (\ \ ) \ \text{le} = \text{bu le} \]

The brackets are used to enclose a crude translation or a decoding of a Chinese sentence into English.

An asterisk at the beginning of a construction of a string of words indicates that that construction or that string of words is not acceptable utterance in Chinese.
An empty circle is used at the beginning of a sentence or a construction to indicate that that sentence or construction is not acceptable or not applicable to the current discussion, though it might otherwise be a normal expression in Chinese.

+ A plus sign indicates an affirmative VP.

- A minus sign indicates a negative VP.

± A combination of plus and minus signs indicate the VP in question may either be affirmative or negative.

NA It is an abbreviation for Not Acceptable or Not Applicable.
Acknowledgments

To all my students who have provided me with stimulating thoughts and probing questions in search for better understanding of the Chinese language, and with enormous collection of learning difficulties which crystalized the profound complexity of languages in contact, I would like to dedicate the present work.

To Dr. John DeFrancis whose dedication of his life long career to the teaching of Chinese language has become the single most important inspiration to people like myself in the profession; and, whose generously shown confidence in me has become a lasting guiding force in the making of my own career in the same profession, I wish to express my profound respect and gratitude.

To the Department of Education, Washington, D. C. - its staff and members of its Review Board - whose research grant allowed me to complete the present study;

To Rita Chow, my former classmate, who provided me with abundant samples of Chinese expressions drawn from her ardent love for literature and from her richly endowed life-style;

To Charles Hammond and Paul Mandel, two former students and trusted friends, who offered me not only their editorial talents but most importantly their relentless and unbiased criticism;

To C. J. S. and H. J. of Beijing and G. Q. J of Shanghai, through their efforts this work is published in the present form;

And to my sister, Mrs. C. Y. Ho, who has become my indispensable partner in all ventures, I wish to extend my sincere appreciation.

C. P. S.

Pound Ridge, N.Y.
September, 1982
1 The Usage of Adverb-Noun Phrase

I. Form:

Adverb - Noun Phrase

II. Examples:

A. 就戏这一个人在哪坐着呢!

Only the opera buff is still sitting there!

B. 光歌舞弹唱的老师傅就请了好几位。

(Of the masters of song and dance alone, we invited quite a few.) We invited quite a few of the masters of song and dance alone.

III. Notes:

A.1. Generally, adverbs do not occur directly before a noun or noun phrase. However, movable adverbs, usually double syllable adverbs, may be used before a NP topic of a Topic-Comment construction. For instance:

(1) 确实这个比那个好。

This one is truly better than that one.

(2) 偏偏他不在家。

Unfortunately he was not home.

Thus, the NA appears to be a case of Adv- but in function it is really modifying the entire Topic-Comment construction.

A.2. It is also acceptable for adverbs, single or double syllable, to occur before a Nu-N-(H) construction, whether the Nu-N-(H) is serving as a comment in a Topic-Comment construction or not. For instance:

(3) 他才三岁。

He is only three years old. (Topic-Comment construction)

(4) 这儿只五本书。

Only five books here. (T-C construction)

(5) 这儿恰好五把椅子。

There are just five chairs. (T-C construction)

(6) 正好两个月。

Just two months. (topicless construction)
(7) 已经七年了。

Already seven years.
(Topicless construction)

A.3: In contrast, the usage to be examined here is that of single syllable adverbs, which are normally called 'fixed adverbs' and which occur before a noun or a NP: a phenomenon which appears to be in violation of the rules concerning usage of adverbs.

B.1. Following is a list of examples in which this special word order, Adverb-Noun, occurs.

(8) 就场长没走。

Only the manager of this factory did not leave.

(9) 别人的话你都信，我的话你不信。

You believe everybody else, but not me.

(10) 偏他不爱念书。

He alone is not fond of studying.

(11) 只三王二事挣钱。

Only Wang Er works to earn a living.

(12) 无机票就二百块。

The airline ticket alone costs 7200.

(13) 你一个人吃也不够。

There won't be enough for your consumption alone.

(14) 另车二家也捐助了一些。

In addition, the Lees and the Wangs also donated some.

(15) 岸上净杂草。

On the shore, there are only wild plants.

(16) 又鱼又肉，我们大吃一顿。

We heartily ate both fish and meat.

B.2. These occurrences include the following categories of adverb functions:

a. Modification of the following N/NP only:

(17) 就菊花也不好看了，得有别的配衬。

Chrysanthemums alone will not look good either. There should be some other things.
b. Modification of the following NP-VP or Topic-Comment construction:

(18) 单老王表演功夫还得多和别的节目。

We need other activities besides Lao Wang’s demonstration of qongfu.

c. Modification of the following NP comment of Topic-Comment construction:

(19) “这儿就桌子椅子” “那不够”

There are tables and chairs only. That won’t be sufficient.

D. In a disjunctive pattern:

(20) 你你的又我的一共十二件。

Both yours and mine, there are altogether twelve items.

8.3. Looking at the phenomenon from another angle, the adverb-noun functions may be categorized in the following ways:

a. Adverb-noun in the Topic position of a Topic-Comment construction:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(17) 花儿</td>
<td>也不好看</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18) 老王表演功夫</td>
<td>不够</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(20) 你你的又我的</td>
<td>一共十二件</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, the adverb-noun word order appears to be an exception to the general behavior of adverbs in Chinese: not only does the adverb occur before a noun, but it is before the topic.

b. Adverb-noun in the Comment position of a Topic-Comment construction:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(15) 岸上</td>
<td>垃杂草</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19) 这儿</td>
<td>桌子椅子</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here, the adverb is occurring before a Comment and it appears to be in the normal usage. However, the Comment is unusual in that it is a NP.

In the former case (a), the adverb may be omitted and the remaining structure is still an acceptable sentence. In the latter case (b), if the adverb is omitted, the remaining structure will not be an acceptable sentence. Thus in the former case these adverbs are functioning as adverbs, while in the latter case the adverbs are functioning as main verbs.

8.4. Whichever function they may have or wherever they occur in a T-C construction, they may all be considered to be derived forms from related movable adverbs. For instance, all such adverbs may be converted to a two-syllable adverb without affecting the meaning of the original sentence.

(8) 就场长没走   ↓   就是/就有场长没走
(9) 独有/独有的话不听   ↓   独有/独有的话不听
(10) 他不爱念书   ↓   他爱/他不爱念书
(11) 只有二作事挣钱   ↓   只是/只有王作事挣钱
(12) 无机票就二百块   ↓   无机票就二百块
(13) 你一个人吃       ↓   你吃/你爱/你有你一个人吃
(14) 另三王二家也       ↓   另外/另三王二家也
(15) 岸上净杂草       ↓   岸上净杂草
(16) 又鱼又肉的       ↓   又鱼/又鱼又是/又有肉
(17) 唯独花也       ↓   唯独/唯独花也
(18) 单单/单单/单有王表演       ↓   单单/单有王表演
(19) 这儿就果子椅子       ↓   这儿就果/果子椅子
(20) 又你的又我的       ↓   又是你的又是我的
B.5. It must be noted that though a two-syllable adverb may be abbreviated, the number of adverbs which may be so abbreviated is restricted. In addition to those used in the above illustrations, there are the following:

(21) a 可你得小心。
b 只你或他一个去就可以了。

c 亦文亦武他二者兼得。

d 小红小白跑了一趟。
e 操菜很受欢迎。
f 觅天河明朗。
g 实我政府之功绩。
h 老少皆知。
i 都哪有卖的？

However, you should be careful.
Either you or he, one person needs to go.
Both Wen and Wu, he has qualifications in both.
Xiao Wang made the trip in vain.
Only stir-fried dishes are popular.
Vainly the Milky Way shines brightly.
Truly it is the achievement of our government.
Unexpectedly both old and young are well-informed.
Where are the places selling this? (see pattern 都 )
2. The Usage of ai vP1 bu vP1

I. Forms:
   A. ai vP1 bu vP1
   B. ai vP1 bu vP1 de X

II. Examples:
   A.1. 你爱吃饭就是这个！
   A.2. 爱调查不调查反正我不管。
   A.3. 爱吃药不吃药死了别怪我。
   A.4. 这份工作他们爱作不作你何必着急。
   A.5. 你爱把书送去不送去。
   B.1. 把饭都给你摆在桌子上他还是
   B.2. 他拿着一本杂志爱看不看的翻着。
   B.3. 戏票都买好了，他却爱去不去的
       躲在哪不动。

   Whether you like to eat it or not, this is it!
   Whether you investigate it or not, I do not care; anyway, it is not my business!
   Whether you take the medication or not, if you die, don't blame me!
   Whether or not they take this assignment, must you be so worried!
   Return this book or not. It's up to you.
   I even get all the food on the table for him. (He still shows a disgusting air of wanting to eat yet at the same time not wanting to eat.) He still disgusts me with his indecisiveness.
   He has a magazine in his hand and is (thumbing through the pages as if he wants to read it, yet at the same time not wanting to read it) thumbing through the pages half-heartedly.
   I bought the tickets for the show already, (but he is still sitting there...
B.4. I asked him to come for dinner tomorrow, but he is not moving as if he wants to go yet at the same time not wanting to go. He is still sitting there like a bump on a log as if he can't make up his mind to go or not. I invited him to come for dinner tomorrow (he is still undecided—wanting to come yet at the same time not wanting to come—and has not answered me), but he is still undecided whether to come or not, and has not yet sent me his reply.

III. Notes:

A.1. Briefly, the meaning of 为 VP 1 但 VP 1 in Form A is "whether (one) does VP 1 or not is no one else's concern" or "whether or not (one) does VP 1 or not, the speaker is indifferent." The meaning of this structure in Form B is 'half-heartedly,' 'hesitantly,' 'indecisively,' etc.

A.2. When used alone, Form B expresses the subject's contradictory behavior. When used as a modifier, it expresses indecisiveness, hesitation, half-heartedness, etc.

B.1. Form A is a contracted form of a complex sentence structure:

Aux VP 1 jiu VP 1, bu Aux VP 1 jiu bu VP 1

The Aux verb must be 为 (为), and in both parts of the complex sentence the verb phrases are identical. For example:

(1) Basic Structure: 爱吃就吃, 不爱吃就不吃

爱吃( ) ( ) 不吃

Resulting: 爱吃不吃 (correct)
(2) **Basic Structure:** 想吃就吃，不想吃就不吃

想吃( )不

**Resulting:** 想吃不吃

(3) **Basic Structure:** 可以吃就吃不可以吃就不吃

可以吃( )不

**Resulting:** 可以吃不吃

B.2. Though the contracted form contains an affirmative VP and a negative VP, it is not to be confused with the affirmative-negative question constructions, such as *yao bu yao* (要不要), *qu bu qu* (去不去), *chi bu chi* (吃不吃), etc. **AI** is never itself a question construction.

B.3. In Form A, the **VP** may be any of the following:

- Single syllable verb, as in II-A-1, II-B.1-4.
- Bimomial verb, as in II-A.2.
- Simple verb, as in II-A-1-2, II-A-4, II-B-1-4
- Complex verb, as in II-A-3
- Verb phrase, as in II-A-3.

The restriction is that only action verbs are to be used.

B.4. If the VP is a phrase built around a complex verb, it may be stated in the following way for clarity and economy:

a. **Omitting the object:**

25
whether you cook or not
whether you hand in your homework or not
whether you buy it on my behalf or not
whether you deliver this book or not
(same as (4))
(same as (7))
I have told you everything I know, believe it or not.
All conditions are clearly stated. It is up to the delegation to accept them or reject them.
b. As the first component in a compound sentence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>你爱干什么</td>
<td>我不管</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whether you work or not, I do not care!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他爱去不去</td>
<td>你何必着急</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whether he goes or not, why worry! It is his own doing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.6. As a comment, ai VP^1 bu VP^1 may have the sentence particle le (了) as in yaokan...le, but without yaokan.

(14) 要看要看看看。 Read it or don't read it (whatever suits you).
(15) 你爱看不看了。 It depends on whether you want to read it or not.
(16) 我都告诉你了你爱信不信了。 I told you everything already. Believe it or not it is up to you now.
(17) 话已经说尽了你爱听不听了。 I have said everything (I could have said); take it or leave it, it is up to you now.

C.1. Form B is a contracted form of a different compound sentence structure: Aux VP^1 kashi/ex/que bu VP.

In this structure the Aux VP is either ai VP or any other Aux verbs. The VPs must be identical, and the adverb kashi (可是) or ex (而) or que (但), etc., meaning 'on the contrary.' For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>爱着可是不看</td>
<td>I like to read, but will not read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>爱着( )不看</td>
<td>(correct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>爱着不看</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
454 ETA X4K.
SAL (..) 3:46.

(19) 能作 可是 不作
能作 ( ) 不作
能作 不作

(20) 能作 可是 不作
能作 ( ) 不作
能作 不作

(21) 能作 可是 不干
能作 ( ) 不干
能作 不干

C.2. Although Form B also has an affirmative-negative VP structure, Form B, like Form A, is not an affirmative-negative question construction.

C.3. The VP in Form B may be a single syllable verb or a bisyllabic simple verb. For example:

(22) 他爱理不理的哼了一声。
He responded "hum!" half-heartedly.

(23) 他爱理不理的讨厌他。
[He shows a disgusting attitude of wanting to respond and half not wanting to respond.] He has an annoying attitude of disinterest.

C.4. The contracted form of Form B may be used to modify either a NP (24) or a VP (25) or may be an independent comment in a T-C construction (26) and (27).

(24) 爱要不的要态去讨厌。
His half-hearted acceptance is annoying.

(25) 不爱不就的推推让让到现在还没决定。
He has been undecided about accepting the assignment and up to now has not made any decision.
(26) 他会喝不喝，你不会喝却喝起来没完。

(27) 他想去不去谁也管不着他。

He knows how to drink, but will not (you don't know how to drink, yet have been drinking endlessly).

He desires to go, but will not go. No one can interfere with his decision.

D. Form A and Form B compared.

D.1. In the minimal context, the distinction between Form A and Form B of ai VP^1 bu VP^1 is difficult to detect:

(28) 你爱去不去，

Whether you go or not (see if I care!).
or: You would like to go (I know) yet you aren't going to go.

However, when this structure is followed by another sentence which functions either to supplement or to complement ai VP^1 bu VP^1, the meaning becomes clear.

(29) 你爱去不去我不管。

Form A

(30) 你爱去不去自找倒霉！

Form B

D.2. In a minimal context these two forms may sometimes be distinguished in the following ways:

By different stress pattern: In Form A the primary stress is on ai (爱); in Form B the primary stress is on both ai (爱) and bu (不).

By the presence or absence of a pause in either two VPs: In Form A there is no pause between ai VP and bu VP. In Form B there may be a pause separating the ai VP from bu VP.
By the varied ways in which the forms are used: Form A may not be a modifier; Form B may modify another element.

(11) 他来不来。

(12) 他来不来的样子。

E. Form A compared with wulun ( 无论 ) etc. and suibien ( 随便 ).
Form A ai VP bu VP is a self-sufficient statement, therefore it may be used alone. wulun/etc. question construction is a dependent clause, and must be followed with a statement to the effect that 'it does not matter.' Form A ai VP bu VP may be followed by suibien as reinforcement. suibien may be used alone or followed by a statement of alternatives, but it is not restricted to a choice of two as in ai VP bu VP.

(11) 你来不来随便你便。

(12) 随你便。

(13) 你来不来与我无关。

• 无论你来不来/无论你来

(14) 你随便怎么写我不管。

Whether you come or not, do as you please.
Do as you please.
Whether you come or not, I am not concerned! (correct)
NA
Write whichever way you please, I am not concerned! (correct)
The Usage of X ba, Y

I. Forms:
   A. X ba, Y
   B. \( x^1 \text{ ba}, \ y^1 \)
      \( x^2 \text{ ba}, \ y^2 \)

II. Examples:
   A.1. 他 fails to understand X.
       他就不理解 X.
   A.2. 你为什么不早打听一下呢?
       你为什么不早打听一下呢?
   B.1. 事情了吧，他不找，学校吧，
       他进不去。
   B.2. 新的汽车吧，他买不起：
       旧的汽车吧，他又不要。

III. Notes:
   A. The special usage of ba (吧) to be examined here may be considered
      as an "indicator" or "marker" of supposition. ba is suffixed either to
      a single supposition or to multiple suppositions stated in a series.
   B.1. Form A is a Topic-Comment construction in which ba is suffixed to
      the topic, and is a topic marker:
      | TOPIC     | COMMENT |
      |------------|---------|
      | X ba, Y    | Y       |
      | X ba, Y?   | Y?      |
   B.2. Form A is a statement of supposition, in which the Topic presents
      the supposition, and the Comment offers the remarks on the supposition,
or states the consequence of it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Supposition)</td>
<td>(Remarks or consequence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) 现在训练吧，</td>
<td>得多少人力物力时间！</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 你把差事做完了吧,</td>
<td>是不是拿到钱很难说。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 既是中国东西吧，</td>
<td>也卖不出好价钱。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) 就说这本书的内容吧,</td>
<td>组织不错文笔不行。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) 就拿你来说吧，</td>
<td>在这种情形下会去吗?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we train teachers now, how much is the cost in terms of time, money, and manpower?

Suppose you have the job completed, it is difficult to say whether or not you can get paid.

Even for a Chinese product, it is hard to sell for a good price.

Just considering the contents of this book, its organization is fair but the style of writing is poor.

For instance, under these circumstances, would you have gone?

B.3. There are many expressions that are used to introduce a supposition in Chinese:

a. 以……来说吧

b. 以……来看吧

c. 拿……来讲吧

d. 凭……来看吧

e. 凭……来说吧

f. 按……来看吧
Nos. a-f may be used with NPs, and adverbs such as jiu (就), zhī (只), gōng (光), and dān (单) may be used before yī (以).

Nos. g-n may be used with VPs or T-C constructions. The indicator of supposition ba may be used with each of them.

B.4. The variable X in X...ba may be a VP (as in (1) and (3)), or a T-C construction (as in (2)). When the variable X is a N or NP, it is generally preceded by supposition introducers such as the following: jírú (假如), zhòng (如果), or yáoshi (要是).

However, in Chinese the supposition is frequently presented with no overt marker. For instance, at times neither the introducer such as jírú or the indicator ba is overtly expressed. Thus, both introducer and indicator of supposition are optional. For example:

(II.A.2)

就算你事先不知道吧，你……

( )你事先不知道( )，你……
C.1. Form B is a compound sentence, in which the structure of Form A is repeated, either in duplicate or in triplicate.

### Duplicate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic^1 Comment^1</td>
<td>Topic^1 Comment^1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x^1 hs, r^1;</td>
<td>x^2 hs, r^2;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Examples:

6. If you go, he will not be pleased; if you do not go, he will not be pleased either.

7. If we let you go there, he is not happy; if you call him here, he is still not happy.

8. If I speak, I am afraid of offending someone; if I do not speak, I will not be able to settle this matter.

9. You cannot go; he will not go.

10. [As for the husband, (he) cannot find any job; as for (my) child, (he) is good for nothing.] (My) husband has no employment; my child has no ambition.

### Triplicate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
<th>COMPONENT III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic^1 Comment^1</td>
<td>Topic^2 Comment^2</td>
<td>Topic^3 Comment^3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x^1 hs, r^1;</td>
<td>x^2 hs, r^2;</td>
<td>x^3 hs, r^3;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Examples:

11. [As for his wife, he was unwilling; when it was suggested that he be sent to your place, he thought it would be too much trouble; asked to go home, he refused.]
(12) 春假吧；太短；暑假吧；太热；寒假吧；太冷。
Spring vacation is too short; summer vacation is too hot; winter vacation is too cold.

(c.1) In Form B, where there is more than one topic and more than one comment, the relationship between topic and comment and between topics and comments can be summarized in the following way:

a. The structural features:

\[
X^1 \neq Y^1, \quad X^2 \neq Y^2
\]

When \(X^1\) is not the same as \(X^2\), and \(Y^1\) is not the same as \(Y^2\), the adverb \(Y\) may be used before \(Y^2\).

\[
X^1 \neq Y^1, \quad X^2 = Y^2
\]

When \(X^1\) and \(X^2\) are the same, and \(Y^1\) and \(Y^2\) are the same, the adverb \(Y\) may be used before \(Y^2\).

b. Topics:

The variables \(X^1\) and \(X^2\) must maintain a contrastive relationship which offers a multiple of alternatives. This relationship may be expressed as a combination of affirmative and negative versions of the same \(X\) as in (13) below, or contrasting elements as in (14), or completely different constructions as in (15):

(13) 这盆花搬进来吧，没地方放；不搬进来吧，天冷一定会死。
If I bring this plant in, there is no place to put it; if I don't bring it in, the cold weather will kill it.

(14) 你买吧，他不肯卖，我买吧，他也不肯卖。
(If you try to buy it, he will refuse to sell it; if I try to buy it, he will also refuse to sell it.)
He won't sell it to either you or me.
(15) 吐他到老师家去吧，他不去；请老师到家里来吧，他又不肯。

If you ask him to go to his teacher's house, he will not do it. If you invite the teacher home, he will not allow it.

He neither follows (others') instructions to go to his teacher's home, nor will be accept the proposal of inviting the teacher over.

C. When \( y_1 \) and \( y_2 \) are different or in contrast with each other, adverb you (又) may be used before \( y_2 \) as in (16) below; when \( y_1 \) and \( y_2 \) are the same, then adverb \( y_2 \) (也) may be used, as in (17). \( y_1 \) and \( y_2 \) may both be affirmative (18), or both be negative (19), or both affirmative and negative (16) and (17).

(16) 你去吧，你生气；你不去吧，他又不高兴。
When you go, he becomes angry; when you do not go, he becomes unhappy. He will be angry if you go and unhappy if you don’t.

When you leave, he is unhappy; when you do not leave, he urges you to go.

(17) 你去吧，他不愿意；你不去吧，他又恨你。
If you go, he will be angry; if you do not go, he will still be angry. He will be mad whether you go or not.

(18) 你去吧，他生气；你不去吧，他也生气。

(19) 你去吧，他不太赞成；你不去吧，他也不太赞成。

Whether be is used in Form A or in Form B, it gives a relaxed and more unsure tone. Compare the following:

i.就算你不知道，……

ii.就算你不知道吧，……

The tone of voice of i. is more serious than ii in mentioning “even if I assume that you had no knowledge of it....,” while ii can be translated into “suppose we assume that you had no knowledge of it....,”
or "let us for a moment assume that you had no knowledge of it."

D.2. Form A presents a single supposition and is therefore used to stress, dramatize and focus the listener's attention on one single point or on a single issue. For instance:

(20) 他这样作是不得已，就拿你来说吧；
在那种环境中也会如此的。

Here postulating what 你 (you) would have done in the similar situation stresses he这样作是不得已

Form B presents two or more suppositions which are followed by two or more comments, usually to indicate a sense of frustration or hesitation.

(21) 我要吧，不好意思张嘴；我不要吧，
我用什么工具呢？不知怎么办好。

I am embarrassed to open my mouth to ask for it; yet if I do not ask for it, what tools am I going to use? I really don't know how to solve the dilemma!

D.3. In Form A and Form B, the comment may be expressed in question form.

(22) 我接受这份工作吗，我做得了吗？
我不接受吧，要什么别的工作呢？

If I accept the assignment, will I be able to carry it through? If I refuse the assignment, what other assignment could I ask for?

(23) 就说爱吧，你爱的是什么呢？

Suppose you love it, what is there to be worthy of your love?

When the comments are in question form, they may be interrogative questions or may sometimes be rhetorical questions used to provoke more and deeper thinking.
(24) 你去吧，会有什么结果呢？你不去吧，会有什么害处呢？这些问题都要好好考虑过了再作决定。

If you go, what result will there be? If you do not go, what bad effect will there be? All these problems should be properly considered before making decisions.

E. Comparison of ba and ne (呢)

Both ba and ne may be used to mark the statement of supposition either in Form A or in Form B.

(25) 你说呢，不知他爱的是谁？

You may say "love" but we don't know whom he loves.

(26) 你说呢，不知他爱的都是谁？

(same)

(27) 你去吧，太麻烦；你不去吧，又不行。

If you go, it is too much trouble; if you do not go, it won't do.

(28) 你去呢，太麻烦；你不去呢，又不行。

(same)

Both are optional features and serve to tone down the seriousness and harshness of the supposition.
The Usage of \textit{bu} (VP) \textit{le}! 不 (VP) 了！

I. Form:
\begin{quote}
(NP) \textit{bu} (VP) \textit{le}!
\end{quote}

II. Examples:
\begin{enumerate}
\item \begin{quote}
A. “你为什么偷东西？我非罚你不可！”

“我不了！”
\end{quote} \begin{quote}
Why did you steal? I must punish you!

I will not do it again.
\end{quote}

B. “再吃点儿”

“不了”
\end{enumerate}

III. Notes:
\begin{enumerate}
\item In spoken language, \textit{bu} VP \textit{le} (不 了) is often shortened to \textit{bu} (不), when the omitted \textit{VP} is understood from the context.

\item This usage must be distinguished from the single-word-sentence usage of \textit{bu}, as in ni \textit{qu} \textit{me} (你去吗), \textit{bu}, \textit{wo} \textit{bu} \textit{qu} (不,我不去).

\begin{quote}
(See section C-1 below.)
\end{quote}

\item \textit{bule} is abbreviated from the pattern \textit{bu} VP \textit{le}, which means 'no longer VP,' or 'does not VP any more.' Example II-A, \textit{wo} \textit{bu} \textit{le} is a shortened form of \textit{wo} \textit{bu} \textit{tou} \textit{le} (我不偷了) or \textit{wo} \textit{bu} \textit{tou} \textit{douxi le} (我不偷东西了), 'I will not steal any more,' shortened to 'I will not do it anymore.'

\item In abbreviating the full version, NP \textit{bu} VP \textit{le}, either the NP or \textit{VP} or both may be omitted. For instance, in II-B, \textit{bule} is abbreviated from \textit{wo} \textit{bu} \textit{zai} \textit{le} (我不来了). The full construction omits both the topic and the VP resulting in \textit{bule} (\textit{wo} \textit{bu} \textit{zai} \textit{le}), and the translation 'no more' is derived from 'I will not have any more.'
\end{enumerate}
B.3. When both NP and VP are omitted, the form bu le is idiomatically used as a polite and cordial rejection. The cordial manner is reinforced by the tone of voice. bu-le may be rendered simply as 'no, thank you,' even though xiexie (谢谢) is not used.

B.4. In declarative sentences the NP is never a second person pronoun, but in interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative sentences there may be a singular or plural second person pronoun. For instance:

(1) "你不来了?"
   "(Is it true that) you do not come any more?"

(2) "你们不来了?"
   "(What?) You do not come any more!"

(4) "你不来了。"
   "Don't you come again!"

B.5. In an imperative sentence, the NP is second person pronoun but never third person.

(3) "你别了。"
   "I will not do it any more."

(5) "他不来了。
   "(I know) he does not come any more."

(6) "他不来了?
   "(Is it true that) he does not come any more?"

(7) "他不来了!
   "(What?) he does not come any more!"

C.1. Compare the usage of bu as part of the full structure bu VP le and its elliptical form bu le.

Usage bu of A-2 may be either the single word sentence bu (不) or an abbreviation of bu VP.
We are all obliged to you. Please accept our present.

No, I cannot accept it.

The success of this project is greatly due to your effort.

Not at all. It’s the result of our cooperation.

To scramble eggs, we need low temperature, O.K.?

No, no, no, Chinese-type scrambled eggs need high temperature.

(8) "我们都要谢谢你，你请接受我们这个小礼物吧！"

"不，我不能接受。"

"我们都应该谢谢你，请你接受我们这个小礼物吧！"

"不，我不能接受。"

(bu—single word sentence)

(9) "这件工作的成功都是你的力量。"

"不，不，不，大家的合作，大家的合作。"

(bu—bu shi, bu shi, bu shi.)

(10) "炒鸡蛋用小火行吗？"

"不，不，不，中国炒鸡蛋用旺火。"

(bu—bu xing)

C.2. The tone on bu of of bu le is always dropping tone. The tone on bu of single-word-sentence may vary depending on the omitted VP.

C.3. The meaning of the expression bu le remains the same, 'no more.' The meaning of the expression bu, /s/ may vary from adamant refusal, denial, to verification of facts, from 'I absolutely refuse to VP,' 'I can’t possibly do VP,' to 'I am afraid it is not so.'
The Usage of \textit{bu} \textit{vp}^1 \textit{ve dei} \textit{vp}^1
\textit{不 \textit{vp}^1 也得 \textit{vp}^1}

I. Form:
\textbf{bu} \textit{vp}^1 \textit{ve dei} \textit{vp}^1

II. Examples:

A.1. 你不吃也得吃。

A.2. 他不干也得干。

B.1. 他不投资也得投资。

B.2. 他不接受也得接受。

C.1. 他不想吃也得吃。

C.2. 他不肯干也得干。

D.1. 他不愿意投资也得投资。

D.2. 他不敢接受也得接受。

E.1. 他不肯也得肯。

[\textit{Not eating must eat.}]  You may not want to eat, but you must. You must eat, there are no two ways about it.

Though he does not feel like doing it, he must. Even if he refuses to do it, he must do it. He must do it; there are no two ways about it.

Even though he refuses to invest, he must invest. Even if he resists investing (his money), he has to do it. He must invest (his money); there are no two ways about it.

He must accept it; he has no choice.

Even though he is unwilling to do it, he must do it. He must do it; there are no two ways about it (or: he has no choice).

Even though he is unwilling to invest (his money), he must do it. He must invest (his money); there are no other alternatives.

Even though he does not accept it, he must.

He just has to be willing, and that's that.
III. Notes:

A. Essentially, this structure conveys the meaning of an imperative statement; i.e., in spite of the resistance or opposition of the subject or regardless of the circumstances of the subject, a certain action must take place. The topic ranges from that of friendly advice to that of an ultimatum.

B.1. There are three absolutely essential and immutable elements in this structure: bu (不), ye (也), and dei (得).

B.2. None of the following is acceptable by itself:

(1) 吃也得吃

NA

(2) 不吃也得吃

NA

不吃得吃

NA

Sentence (1) occurs only as a part of a larger structure, as shown below.

(3) 吃也得吃, 不吃也得吃, 非吃不可。

[If he likes to eat, then let him eat; if he does not like to eat, he still has to eat; he simply must eat!]

(He) must eat whether he likes to or not!

Sentence (2) is a contracted expression formed by omitting the Auxiliary Verb.

(4) 他不愛吃也吃。

[He does not love to eat it, yet he does eat.]

He still eats it, even if he is not crazy about it.
(5) 他不愿意吃也吃。
Even if he is unwilling to eat it, he eats it anyway.

(6) 他不能吃也吃。
He eats it, even though he is not allowed.

B.3. The VP precedes ye de (也得) may be any of the following:


Complex verb:
  V-O: Sentences II-B-1.
  Compound V: Sentence II-B-2
  V-REV: Sentences (7) and (8) below.

Auxiliary Verb: Sentence II-E-1

VPS:
  Aux VP: Sentences II-C-1, II-C-2, II-D-1, and II-D-2.
  Adv. CP: Sentences (9) and (10) below.
  CO-VP: Sentences (11) and (12) below.

(7) 不拿出来也得拿出来
(8) 拿不出来也得拿出来
(9) 不会看也得看
(10) 不多买也得买
(11) 不坐火车也得来
(12) 不管他弄也得弄

In short, there is no restriction on the type of VP that may be used before ye de.

B.4. The VP following ye de must be the duplicate of the main verb in the VP before ye de, but not the entire VP. For example:
Even if you do not like to go, you still have to go.

B.5. If the main verb is a Verb-Object compound, or the main verb requires an Object, then the following are possibilities:

a. VP is duplicated:

(14) A: "He does not eat rice."

B: "Even if he does not eat rice, he just has to. I am not going to prepare anything else (but rice) for him."

b. Only the verb is duplicated:

(15) A: "He refuses to eat anything!"

B: "Even if he refuses to eat, he just has to eat!"

c. The object is transposed:

(16) A: "He does not intend to accept this assignment."

B: "Even though he does not intend to, he just has to accept it."

B.6. In certain situations, the change of status le (了), but not the completion le (了), may be used.

(17) A: "You said that you did not care to read this book yesterday. Why are you reading it now?"

B: "The instructor mentioned today that this book will be on the test. Even though I do not care to read it, I just have to do it."

45
The les(了) at the end of the sentences in both cases indicates a changed situation.

8.7. The negation marker before VP is always bu (不).

(a) 不干也得干 (correct)

* 没干也得干

NA

In other words, the usage of this form is limited to 'incompletion aspect' structurally.

8.8. The bu VP is a contracted form of bu Aux VP, such as the following:

```
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{neg Aux VP} & \rightarrow & \text{neg VP} \\
\hline
\text{(19)a} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\text{(19)b} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\text{(19)c} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\text{(19)d} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\text{(19)e} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\text{(19)f} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\text{(19)g} & \text{不干 VP} & \\
\hline
\end{array}
```

In other words, any of these expressions can be used either in their contracted form bu VP or in their uncontracted form.

8.9. The entire structure bu VP is derived from the following:

a. 就是不 Aux VP, 也得 VP

b. 纵使不 Aux VP, 也得 VP

c. 即使不 Aux VP, 也得 VP
Whatever is expressed before ye del either is not acceptable or worthy of consideration to the speaker, or is impractical or not applicable to a certain situation. What follows ye del either represents the ultimate instruction or request of the speaker, or represents the utmost necessity or obligation imposed by certain circumstances.

Thus the entire structure is often used to mean that something must be done, or that a certain action must be performed, despite strong opposition; it can also be expressed in the following ways:

a. 不 VP 不行
b. 非得 VP
c. 非 VP 不可
d. 一定得 VP
e. 不管 Aux VP, 不 VP, 非得/反正得 VP

For instance:
II-A-2 不干也得干
a. 不干不行
b. 非得干
c. 非干不可
d. 一定得干
e. 不管你愿意干不愿意干反正得干

B.10. Furthermore, the VP following ye del is always dependant on the VP and precedes ye del. When the form ye del VP occurs alone, it has
other meanings. For instance:

(21) 我也得吃。
I too have to eat.

(22) 鸡也得吃。
Even chicken has to be eaten. There is a chicken dish which still has to be eaten.

(23) 这种药也得吃。
You still have to take it, even if it is this kind of medication. You have to take this kind of medication too.

(24) ( )也得吃
still has to be taken/consumed
6 The Usage of NP\textsuperscript{1} \textbf{bu} NP\textsuperscript{1} \textbf{bu} NP\textsuperscript{1} NP\textsuperscript{1}不 NP\textsuperscript{1}

I. Form:
\textbf{NP\textsuperscript{1} bu NP\textsuperscript{1}}

II. Examples:

A.1. 人不人鬼不鬼是什么东西呀？

It is neither human nor monster, what is it?

A.2. 山不山，水不水，不知道他画的是什么？

Mountains are not mountains, streams are not streams, do not know what it is that he painted?

Neither the mountain nor the stream is properly painted, who knows what it is that he painted?

B.1. 钱不钱的事情到不要紧。

Matters of money or not money are unimportant.

It is not a matter of money.

B.2. 这件事与学位或学位的问题没关系。

This matter is unrelated to the question of academic degree or no academic degree.

This is unrelated to the question of having an academic degree.

C.1. 买日本货不日本货，便宜就好。

I do not care whether or not they are Japanese goods, if they are inexpensive, it will be fine.

Who cares whether it is a Japanese product or not, as long as it is inexpensive it is all right with me.

C.2. 新车不新旧无所谓有车就行。

[New car or no new car, it does not matter, as long as we have a car.]

It does not make any difference whether or not it is a new car, as long as we do have a car.
III. Notes:

A.1. The noun used before and after bu (不) must be the same, and may be any of the following:

- Single syllable
- Multiple syllable
- Simple noun
- Compound noun
  - Sentence II-C-2.
  - Sentence II-C-1.

A.2. Basically, nouns in Chinese may not be negated, and bu (不) may negate only VPs. Thus NP<sup>1</sup> bu NP<sup>2</sup> is not a complete structure. It is derived from a full structure by omitting the verbal element. There are two different full structures from which NP<sup>1</sup> bu NP<sup>2</sup> is derived.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td>N&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt; neg EV N&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td>v&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt;N&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt; neg v&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt;N&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.1. The full structure of (A) — N<sup>1</sup> neg EV N<sup>2</sup> — is a Topic-identification construction in which the identity is denied. Compare the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT (Identification)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>老张 不是中国人</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>他 不像他父亲</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lao Zhang is not a Chinese
[He does not look like his father.]
Though Chinese, he does not look Chinese. [Being Chinese does not resemble Chinese.]

Sentence (4) is derived from sentence (3), above.

(3) 中国人 不像中国人.

(4) 中国人不( )中国人

Similarly the following expressions occur when the EV is omitted; i.e., sentence (7) is derived from (6) and sentence (9) is derived from (8).

(5)  山不像/是山。
(6)  山不( )山
(7)  水不像/是水。
(8)  水不( )水

B.2. The contracted expressions, in the form of $N^1$ bu (EV) $N^1$, are always used in duplicate, parallel constructions, such as:

(9)  人不人鬼不鬼
(10) 山不山水不水
(11) 男不男女不女
(12) 僧不僧俗不俗

These parallel constructions are used in larger structures, such as:

(II-A-1) 人不人，鬼不鬼，这是什么东西呀？
(II-A-2) 山不山，水不水，不知道他画的是什么！

Here the parallel construction quite dramatically describes the subject matter 这 (东西) in II-A-1 and 他画的 (画) in II-A-2. This type of parallel construction, however, may not be used either
independently or as a comment on a topic. For example:

- 这张画山不水水不水

- 山不水水不水

B.3. $N_1$ bu $N_1$, $N_2$ bu $N_2$ may also be expressed in the following ways:

(a) $N_1$ ye/wei neg EV $N_1$ N$2$ you/ye neg EV $N_2$ as in (14) below.

(b) $N_1$ ye bu $N_1$, $N_2$ ye bu $N_2$ as in (15) below.

(c) $N_1$ fei $N_1$, $N_2$ fei $N_2$ as in (16) below.

(13) 人即不像人，鬼又/也不像鬼。

(14) 人也不是人，鬼又/也不是鬼。

(15) 人是人，鬼非鬼。

As in the case of all contracted expressions, it has a great deal of emphasis which is lacking in its counterpart, the full expression.

C.1. The full structure (B) is an affirmative-negative phrase which presents the alternative of an action, whether it occurs or not. Compare the following examples:

(16) 挣钱不挣钱

(to earn money or not to earn money)

(17) 是日本货不是日本货

(is Japanese product or is not Japanese product)

The form $N$ bu $N$ may also be derived from the structure as illustrated by (16) and (17), $V$ bu $V$ neg $V$ bu $V$. For instance, (18) below is derived from (16) and (19) is derived from (17):

(16) 挣钱不挣钱

(17) 是日本货不是日本货

(18) 不( )钱

(19) 日本货不( )日本货
In such contracted forms, it is not always clear exactly which verb has been omitted. Therefore, as we see below, the verb used in each verb-object expression is different from the others, but each of the following phrases may be contracted into the same single expression, \( N^1 \text{ bu } N^1 \):

1. 拿钱不拿钱
2. 要钱不要钱
3. 给钱不给钱
4. 用钱不用钱
5. 带钱不带钱

Note the special case of the verb you (有). While in the uncontracted form, the negation mark is \( \text{mei} \) (没). In the derived form, \( \text{mei} \) is changed to \( \text{bu} \) (不). Thus:

1. 有钱没有钱 钱不钱

Therefore, from the structure \( N^1 \text{ bu } N^1 \) it is only possible to know that a structural element—a verb—is omitted, but it is not possible to know which precise lexical item has been left out. However, since the structure in question is never used independently, the omitted \( V \) is usually determined from the context.

C.2. The \( N^1 \text{ bu } N^1 \) as derived from (B) may be used in the following larger structures:

As a topic:

1. 钱不钱不要紧。

Money or no money, it is not important.

2. 学位不学位我们一会儿再说。

Degree or no degree, let us talk about it again later.
Whether it is a Japanese product or not, it would not matter much.

the matter of money

the question of an academic degree

the influence of being a Japanese product (or, being made in Japan)

The matter of having money or not is not my concern.

You should share your reactions concerning the question of academic degrees.

The impact of being a Japanese product is fairly significant.

This is nothing else but a matter of money.

Whether or not you find any job may not necessarily be related to the problem of an academic degree.

In his opinion, it is affected by whether or not it is a Japanese product.

Who cares about money (cost) let us make the reservation first.
(38) Whether you have a degree or not is unimportant, as long as you are capable.

(39) It does not matter whether it is a Japanese product or not—whatever is inexpensive is acceptable.

(40) As long as you like this assignment, money is unimportant.

(41) The primary goal is to increase one's knowledge; whether one works for a degree is not significant.

(42) It does not matter whether it is a Japanese product or not. As long as you are ready to sell, I will buy (take it).

C.3. The NP₁ by NP₁ form derived from structure B, may also be expressed in the following ways:

(a) 是否 \( V \ N \) as in (43) and (44) below.

(b) 与否 \( V \ N \) as in (45) and (46) below.

(43) 是否赚钱

(44) 是否要钱

(45) 赚钱与否

(46) 用钱与否

D. In summary, the form NP₂ by NP₁ should be treated as a derived form of two formally identical but syntactically different forms: NP₁ by NP₁ (A) and NP₁ by NP₁ (B). Because of the basic structural difference between (A) and (B), the derived forms from each of them are used differently.
The Usage of VP/S 不?

I. Form:

VP/S 不?

II. Examples:

A. 不是中国小说不?

B. 不元元，你要什么不?

III. Notes:

A. The negative 不 (不 ) is suffixed to a statement (Topic-Comment construction or Topicless construction) and thereby converts the statement into an affirmative-negative question.

B.1. This usage of 不? (不 ?) is derived by omitting the negative part of the affirmative-negative question construction:

NP VP neg VP?  NP VP neg (VP)?

(8) 你要不?  → 你要不?  Do you want it or not?

(9) 他买书不买书?  → 他买不?  Does he want books?

(10) 这个像小说像不?  → 这个像小说不?  Does this sound like a novel?

(11) 你要一个不?  → 你要一个不?  Would you like one?

B.2. Generally, an affirmative-negative question construction is presented as having the following variants:

(a) VP neg VP? 你要书不要书?  Do you want books or not?

(b) VP neg VP? 你要书不要书?

(c) V neg V Obj 你要不要书?

To this list, the following variant should be added:
Variant (a) is the base form and while technically any of these variants may be used in any circumstances, (b), (c), and (d) are derived from (a) in order to avoid clumsiness when the object is a long and involved NP.

For instance, if the object is *wu zhuotian cong NY mai lai de shu* (我昨天从纽约买的书), the base form (a) or (b) would render the sentence very clumsy, as in (12) and (13):

(12) *Dei*nt to my *bought from NY yesterday or not?

(13) *Don't*nt to my *bought from NY yesterday or not?

In this case either (c) or (d) is preferred:

(14) *Do you want the book I bought from NY yesterday or not?*

(15) *Do you want the book I bought from NY yesterday or not?*
The Usage of *cai* Aux VP/SVP ne

I. Forms:
   A. *cai* SVP ne
   B. *cai* Aux VP ne

II. Examples:
   A.1. 他才英俊呢！
   A.2. 他才不英俊呢！
   B.1. 他才想去呢！
   B.2. 他才不想去呢！

III. Notes:
   A. This use of adverbial *cai* (才) with ne (呢) emphasizes the SVP or the Aux VP, as the case may be.
   B.1. There are the following variations to the structure in this usage:

Affirmative, Negative VP:

(1) 他才英俊呢！
He certainly is handsome!

(2) 他才想去呢！
He indeed would like to go!

(3) 他才不英俊呢。
He really is homely.

(4) 他才不想去呢。
He certainly will not go.

B.2. The intonation pattern for this usage is:

   TOPIC *cai* VP  ne

(5)a 他才英俊呢！
He certainly is stupid!

(5)b 他才想去呢！
He really is dying to go!
(5c) 他才不聪明呢！  
He certainly is not smart!

(5d) 他才不去呢!  
He certainly would not like to go.

C. Contrast between cai VP ne meaning 'on the contrary' and cai VP ne meaning 'certainly.'

C.1. In both cases cai...ne is used with Aux VP or SVP and affirmatively or negatively:

(6) 他才聪明呢。  
a. He, on the contrary, is stupid.
b. He, no one else, is stupid.
c. He certainly is stupid.

(7) 他才不聪明呢。  
a. He is not smart (contrary to what you think).
b. He really is not smart.

(8) 他才去呢。  
a. He wants to go (no one else).
b. He certainly is dying to go.

(9) 他才不去呢。  
a. He is the one who is not willing to go.
b. He certainly is not willing to go.

C.2. Although the structure appears to be the same, there is a crucial distinction to intonation. In cai...ne meaning 'on the contrary,' the primary stress is on the topic. In cai...ne meaning 'indeed,' the primary stress is on the adverb cai.

(10a) 他才笨呢。  
He is stupid (no one else).

(10b) 他才笨呢。  
He is stupid (indeed).
He, on the contrary, is not stupid.

He is not stupid.

He wants to go.

He wants to go.

He does not want to go.

He does not want to go.
The Usage of cat EVP/FVP

I. Forms:
   A. cat EVP ne
   B. cat FVP ne

II. Examples:
   A.1. 他才是“天下无双”呢。
   A.2. 这才叫“放下屠刀立地成佛”呢。
   B.1. 他才不买呢。
   B.2. 我才不怕呢。

III. Notes:
   A. This form is used to express the speaker’s assertive identification of
     the topic in A and the negative aspect of the FVP in B.
   B.1. Form A is used with an affirmative EVP. It serves to emphasize
     that the topic is a perfect example of the comment.
   B.2. The NP after the EV may be of the following forms:
     EV - regular noun
       (1) 他才是地道的北方人呢。
     EV - formula phrase
       (2) 他才是市井雷门呢。
   B.3. The intonation of Form A places primary stress on the NP after the
     EV and places the secondary stress on the topic.

   [He is indeed a case of one of a kind.]
   He is indeed one of a kind.

   [This is indeed what they mean when they say “putting down the butcher's knife
   and becoming a Buddha right on the spot.”]
   He certainly will not buy it
   I certainly will not be scared of it.

   He is certainly a perfect example of a northerner.
   He is certainly a perfect example of "making a fool of oneself by foolish
   display."
B.4. Contrast Topic cai EVP na which emphasizes Topic-Identification with cai....ne which means 'on the contrary.'

B.4.a. These two structures appear to be identical. However, when the topic is emphasized, the EVP is always affirmative. When cai....ne is used to mean 'on the contrary,' the EVP may be negative. For example:

(3) 他才是好学不倦呢。
      否定结果表明是好学而不倦。

B.4.b. In intonation, there is a difference in where the primary stress lies. To emphasize the topic, the primary stress is placed on the NP or on the formula phrase after the EV, while in the other usages, the primary stress is on the topic.

(3)b 他才是好学不倦呢。

C.1. Form B is used to express the speaker's feeling of certainty. The FVP used in cai....ne may either be affirmative or negative. Note that the negative in the FVP may be omitted as in the examples.

(1) ****
(2) ****

(3) a 他才是好学不倦呢。
      否定结果表明是好学而不倦。

C.1. Form B is used to express the speaker's feeling of certainty. The FVP used in cai....ne may either be affirmative or negative. Note that the negative in the FVP may be omitted as in the examples.
(4)a 我们刚刚好，给他这些油腻的菜，
你才吃呢。

He is just recovering from an ulcer, now you are offering him these rich dishes (how will he eat it? He certainly will not eat it.

(4)b 我们刚刚好，给他这些油腻的菜，
他才不吃呢。

(5)a 你说一个七十多岁的老年人能在两小时跑了三十英里，不可能，我才信呢。

You maintain that an elderly man in his 70’s can run 30 miles in two hours. It is impossible (how can I believe it). I certainly will not believe it.

(5)b .......我才不信呢。

C.2. Though both cai EVP ne and cai negative FVP he carry the same message (the speaker’s confidence in his judgment and the negative result of the FVP), there is, however, a difference.

C.2.a. The affirmative expression: 他才吃呢 is the equivalent of 他怎么会吃呢 or 他怎么可能吃呢. In the affirmative expression, cai...ne is an equivalent of zemia hui (怎么会), 'how can it be likely to happen' or zemia kenery (怎么可能), 'how can it be possible?' It is used to indicate a rhetorical expression, such as 'how can one...?' which implies that 'one cannot,' or 'how can it be possible,' which means that 'it cannot be possible.' On the other hand, the negative expression, adv cai...ne is a marker of assertion or emphasis: 'certainly,' 'really,' 'no doubt about it,' etc.

C.2.b. In addition, this usage of cai...ne should be contrasted with
cai...ne, which means contrary to normal expectations. For example:

(6)a. 他才吃呢。

He (not I) will eat it.

(6)b. 他才不吃呢。

He (not I) will not eat it.

The ambiguity of the structure is clarified by intonation in the following way:

In the usage where cai...ne emphasizes the negative aspect of the FVP, the primary stress is placed on the FVP with secondary stress placed on the topic, and there is no pause between the topic and its comment.

(6)a. 他才吃呢。

(6)b. 他才不吃呢。

In the usage where cai...ne is used to indicate contrary facts, the primary stress is placed on the topic and there is a pause between the topic and the comment. For example:

他才吃呢。

他才不吃呢。
The Usage of NP Chuwai

I. Form

NP chuwai

II. Examples:

A. 这本书除外你都可以拿。
   Except for this book, you may take any others.

B. 出席大会的会员除外，尚有旁听十五名。
   In addition to those members attending the conference, there are also 15 observers.

C. 本会会员每年每人需交会费十元。
   All members of this association should pay the annual dues of $10 each, excluding honorary members and student members.

III. Notes:

A. While the word chuwai (除外) is sometimes simply defined as a verb meaning 'with the exception of' or 'not counting,' it is also often rendered as 'to exclude.' If it is to be seen as a regular FV, it must be understood that its behavior displays certain unique characteristics.

B.1. chuwai is always preceded by a NP, either simple noun as in (1), SV-de N as in (2), VR-de (N) as in (3), or T - C construction in (4)

(1) 中国书除外
    not including Chinese books/other than Chinese books

(2) 好的除外
    not including the nice ones/other than the nice ones

(3) 已经坏了的除外
    not including those that are already broken down/other than those that are already broken down

(4) 你买的中国书除外
    not including/other than those Chinese books you brought
B.2. The form NP chuwal may be used as the first or second component in a compound sentence. When so used, NP chuwal component is the exception to the general rule of the other component. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP chuwal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (5)  
已经报名的除外 | 其他学生必需 |
| 五月一日到校 | Nothing is on sale, |
|              | except for the Chinese books. |
| (6)  
中国书除外 | 别的都不减价 |
|          | Except on these 7 holidays, you do not have to do calligraphy exercises everyday. |
| (7)  
这七天假期除外 | 不必每天写大 |
| 小写字练习 | Do not buy more of any kind of fruit except papaya. |
| (8)  
木瓜除外 | 其他水果都不需要再买 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP chuwal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (9)  
凡持入场券的 | 职工家属除外 |
| 由第一号门入场 |  |
| (10)  
每年每人应选读 | 特别学生除外 |
| 十五个学分 |  |
| (11)  
凡成绩总平在乙等以上的直升升 | 外国学生及留 |
| 级不需要考试 |  |
|              | 级学生除外 |

Except those who already registered, students must arrive at school on May 1. Nothing is on sale, except for the Chinese books.

Except on these 7 holidays, you do not have to do calligraphy exercises everyday.

Do not buy more of any kind of fruit except papaya.

Ticket holders may enter the arena from Gate No. 1, except families of employees.

Every student should register for 15 credits every school year, except special students.

All those whose averages are above 8 will be promoted to higher grades without examination, with the exception of foreign students and students who were repeating the grade for the second time.
then used as a second component, words like danhik (但是), and keshi (可是), may precede it to emphasize its exceptional character.

B.3. NP chuwai may also be used after another NP, usually to offer additional information as an afterthought.

(12) 这些书，中国书除外，要卖多少钱？

What are the prices of these books, aside from the Chinese books?

(13) 决定参加的会员，职员除外，一共五十名。

There are altogether 50 members who decided to participate, not counting officers.

C. chuwai and chule....yiwei (除了....以外) compared:

C.1. Both chuwai and chule....yiwei may serve as either the first or second component in a compound sentence, in either case, the relationship between its components remains the same.

(14) 中国人以外还有日本人。

There are Japanese people in addition to Chinese.

除了中国人以外，还有日本人。

(15) 中国书除外别的都贵。

All books are expensive except Chinese books.

除了中国书以外，别的都贵。

C.2. chuwai may be used with only NP; ....yiwei may be used with either NP, VP, TC, or even SV.

(16) 除了你买以外，谁都不买。

No one wants to buy it, except you.

(17) 除了你以外，没有什么特别。

There is nothing special about it, except that it is expensive.
C.3. In *chule...yiwai*, *chule* may be shortened to *chu* (除) or *yiwai* (以外) may be replaced by *zhui* (之外), but not simultaneously. *chule*, in contrast, may neither be abbreviated nor omitted.

C.4. *chule...yiwai* is the first component while NP *chuwai* is usually the second component.

(18) 除了中国书以外，别的都贵。 除(l)中国书以外别的都贵。

All books are expensive, except Chinese books.

— D. *chuwai* and Punctive Verbs which are similar.

D.1. *chuwai* may function as certain Punctive Verbs do when they occur as comments of a Topic-Comment construction.

(19) 以上者开除。 Those who have violated the rules will be expelled.

(20) 记过三次者停学。 Those who have had three warnings will be suspended.

(21) 高中生不算。 Those who are in the senior high are not counted.

(22) 留级生除外。 Those who have to repeat the course grade are excluded.

The object of the verb *kaishu* (开除)、*tingxue* (停学)、*busuan* (不算) and *chuwai* (除外) is the preceding NP. 
D.2. chuwai differs from others in the following ways:

D.2.a. chuwai may not have aspect markers le (了), she (著), guo
(过), ne (呢), etc.

(23) 他停学了。 He is suspended/has been suspended.
(24) 他降班了。 He is demoted/has been demoted.
(25) 他开除。 He is expelled/has been expelled.
(26) 这个不算了。 It is not counted/has been excluded.
(27) 他停过学。 He had once been suspended.
(28) 他降过班。 He had once been demoted.
(29) 他开除过/他开除过。 He had once been expelled.

D.2.b. The object of chuwai must precede chuwai. The other verbs may be followed by their object.

(30) 本校开除学生三名。 Our school has expelled three students.
(31) 今年开除会员三名 NA

D.2.c. chuwai may not be used to modify other elements while the other verbs may serve as VPs modifying nouns.

(31) 开除的学生 the students being expelled
(32) 停学的理由 the reason for suspension
(33) 除外的会员 NA

In short, if one is to consider chuwai as a FV, the many restrictions in its applications must be noted.
The Usage of NP dao“....” NP 道“......”

I. Forms:
A. NP/S dao: “----”
B. NP/S V-dao: “----”

II. Examples:
A.2. 老王气上胸头, 道: “好!” ’ Lao Wang became extremely angry and said, “Fine!”

III. Notes:
A.1. In this pattern dao (道) is used as a marker of a direct quotation. It is always followed by a colon and quotation marks.
2. The functions of Form A and Form B are slightly different in that in Form A, dao is used independently to signal the relationship between the preceding NP/S and the following quotation. Thus for Form A the semantic function includes both (1) to say and (2) the function marker of a direct quotation. In Form B, however, dao is part of a compound. The first element of the compound is an action-manner verb. The semantic function of dao in the compound is to indicate that a quotation follows.
A.3. Therefore, in Form A the word dao is translated as "----说: ‘----’" while in Form B it is often not translated.
B.1. In Form A, dao may be modified in the following way:
Lao Wang hurriedly said: "Fine."

Lao Wang said again: "Fine."

Lao Wang then said: "Fine."

At this juncture Lao Wang, crying and shouting, said: "Fine, fine!"

It may be preceded by either a NP or a S:

Lao Wang saw it, became very angry, and said: "Fine."

Lao Wang considered this to be a reasonable proposal and hurriedly said "Fine."

Lao Li signaled Lao War, with his eye. Lao Wang said: "Fine!"

"Fine!"

B.2.a. In Form B, dao occurs in synonymous compounds. It is sometimes optional, as illustrated in the example below. When dao is omitted, the direct quotation may immediately follow the main verb.

Lao Wang asked: "Is it O.K.?"

Lao Wang explained: "There are more perfect ones than broken ones."

Lao Wang replied: "Fine!"

B.2.b. However, in the following sentences the first element of the compound is an action manner verb and therefore may not be used by itself to indicate a direct quotation. Dao is the obligatory link between the topic, verb, and quotation.

Lao Wang smiled and said: "Fine!"
B.2.c. A variation of the type of example listed under B.2.b. is when the verb represents a thought, rather than an utterance.

(5) a. Lao Wang thought, "Why?"
   Lao Wang thought, "Why?"

(5) b. Lao Wang thought (secretly figured), "Better leave here soon!"
   Lao Wang thought (secretly figured), "Better leave here soon!"

B.3. Whether 大 is used in Form A or Form B, it is almost always translated as 'say.' It is important to note that 大: "--" may never be used with "-le." For instance: * 老王道了 "好!" is not an acceptable grammatical utterance.

C. Contrast between 大 and shuo used as quotation markers.

C.1.a. Both are used as markers of direct quotation.

(6) a. 他说: "好!"
   He said, "Fine!"

C.1.b. Both may be followed by quotations of silent thoughts or utterances.

(7) a. 他想道: "对吧!"
   He thought: "It probably is correct."

(7) b. 他心里道: "对吧!"

C.1.c. Neither may have the suffix -le.

* 他说了 "好" NA
* 他道了 "好" NA
C.1.d. Both may be modified by adverbs:

(8) a 他又道: “好!”  
He said again: “Fine!”

(8) b 他又说: “好!”

(8) c 老王便道: “好!”  
He then said: “Fine!”

(8) d 老王便说: “好!”

C.1.e. Both may be preceded by a NP or S:

(9) a 他心裏暗道: “好!”  
He was secretly pleased and said: “Fine!”

(9) b 他心中暗自讲: “好!”

C.2. However, there are important differences.

C.2.a. Shuo may be modified by manner modifier VP de or VP zhe, while dao may not:

(10) 高兴的说: “好!”  
	happily said: “Fine!”

(11) 笑着说: “好!”  
said with a smile: “Fine!”

C.2.b. Dao may be used as the second element of a verb compound, while shuo may not:

(12) 老王问: “谁?”  

Lao Wang asked: “Who is it?”

(13) 老王喊: “别动!”  

Lao Wang shouted: “Don’t move!”
C.2.c. Shuo may be used with time words such as suotian 'yesterday' and jintian 'today,' but dao may not:

(14) 昨天老王说: “我的工作太多”
Yesterday Lao Wang said: "The work load is too heavy."

C.2.d. Shuo is preferred in modern writing whereas dao is found mainly in classic novels or in modern historical novels such as wu-xia xiao-shuo 'novels of chivalry.'
12 The Usage of V N/Pron de N

I. Forms:
A. V N de N
B. V Pron de N

II. Examples:
A. 投考王的票。
   Vote for Lao Wang
B. 他的状。
   Sue him.

III. Notes:
A.1. On the surface, the form V N/Pron de N is similar to structures such as mai ni de fang (买你的房), 'buy your house,' in which a verb is followed by a modified object where the modification is a possessive N or Pronoun. The form in question has a complex derivation. It is derived from a VP construction of Verb-Object, where the verb is a VO compound.

   \[ \text{VP} \]
   \[ \text{Verb} \quad \text{Object} \quad [7] \]
   \[ \text{VO Compound} \quad \text{Noun/Pronoun} \]

B.1. Normally, an object may not follow a VP which is a VO compound. Expressions such as *写信你 'or *打电话你 'are not acceptable. In these cases, the OBJECT may be expressed using a CO-VP preceding the main VERB: CO-VP, N-VP. Thus, the above NA expressions may be converted into the following acceptable expressions:

   \[ \text{CO-VP} \quad \text{N-VP} \]
   \[ \text{CO-Verb N/Pron} \quad \text{VO compound} \]

(1) 给你 打电话
to call you on the phone
However, certain VO compounds may not be used in the CO-VP M-VP structure without altering the original meaning of the expression. For instance, the expression 'to vote for you' may not be expressed as '给你投票 (to cast the vote on your behalf)' and 'to sue for you' may not be expressed as '给你告状 (to sue someone on your behalf).

For VO compounds that may not be expressed in the structure of CO-VP M-VP the structure V N/Pron  de N must be used.

B.2. The structural relationship between elements of this form is as follows: The basic structure is VERB OBJECT, where the VERB is a VO of the special type. Since CO-VP may not be used for this special type of VO, it is then transformed into V N/Pron O by splitting the VO and placing the O of the VO after the N/Pron. The particle de ( 的 ) is added to strengthen further the syntactical linkage. This complex process is diagrammed below:

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{VP} & \text{VERB} & \text{OBJECT} \\
\hline
\text{VO} & \text{N/Pron} & \\
\hline
\text{V} & \text{N/Pron} & \text{O} \\
\hline
\end{array} \]

(3) 投 老王 的票 to vote for Lao Wang

(4) 告 你 的状 to sue you

B.3. The structure of this form has the following restrictions:

B.3.a. The VERB must be one of the special type of VOs, from which
the 0 may never be omitted without changing the meaning of the verb.

For instance, **tou piao** (投票) 'to vote,'  **tou lan** (投篮) 'to shoot the basket (basketball),'  **gao shuang** (告状) 'to sue,'  **gao jia** (告假) 'to request a leave of absence.' Other such verbs may include the following:

(5)a. **xiao** 耍
(5)b. **shuo** 说
(5)c. **shan** 闹
(5)d. **dan** 打
(5)e. **shu** 诉
(5)f. **xian** 谓
(5)g. **xiang** 像
(5)h. **han** 挂
(5)i. **kai** 开
(5)j. **qiao** 桥
(5)k. **lun** 论
(5)l. **da** 打
(5)m. **lan** 拦
(5)n. **shang** 上

8.3.3. The N/Pron may not be a noun which cannot be personified, such as **shu** (树), 'tree.'
B.4. The particle de serves here as a structural link and may be omitted.

(6)a 开他的玩笑
     to make fun of him
(6)b 开他( )玩笑

(7)a 说他的闲话
     to gossip about her
(7)b 说他( )闲话

C. Comparison of V N/Pron(de)O and VO1O2:

When de is omitted, the structure appears to be that of a verb with two objects, VERB OBJECT1 OBJECT2. Compare the following (8) and (9):

(8) 给 你 钱
to give you money

VERB N/PRON (de) OBJECT

(9) 迷 你(的) 话
to create a rumor about you

These two similar structures may be distinguished in the following ways:

C.1. For the VERB OBJECT1 OBJECT2 structure, either OBJECT1 or OBJECT2 may be omitted; the remaining form is still an acceptable expression.

For instance, gei ni (qian) = gei ni ( 给你 ) is 'to give you,' and gei (ni) qian = gei qian ( 给钱 ) is 'to give money--to pay.' However, for the form VERB N/PRON (de) OBJECT, the N/Pron may be omitted without changing the basic meaning, but not the OBJECT. If the OBJECT is omitted, either the remaining part means something entirely different: zhe...
to look for you,' as opposed to 赶人马前 (to make trouble for you,' or render the expression nonsensical as in 赶人马前 (to make trouble for you,' or render the expression nonsensical as in shan ni (占你) from 赶人马前 (占你便宜).

C.2. VERB OBJECT^1 OBJECT^2 may never have de between the two OBJECTS. If it does, the meaning is entirely different from the original. For instance:

(10)a 我问老王问题。 I ask Lao Wang questions.
(10)b 我问老王的问题。 I ask Lao Wang's questions.

C.3. The VERB OBJECT^1 OBJECT^2 may be converted to a ba construction or to prestated topic construction. The VERB N/Pron (de) OBJECT may not.

(11)a 我给你钱。 I give you money
(11)b 我把钱给你。 " "
(11)c 我给你。 " "

D. Contrast Verb with a Modified Object where the modifier is N/Pron de form with V N/Pron de form.

D.1. The verb in Verb with a Modified Object may not be a VO compound (13). In V N/Pron de N, the verb and the modified N must be a VO compound (14).

(13) 言你的朋友 (言 = simple verb) to sue your friend
... " "
(14) 投你的票 (投 = VO compound) [to cast my vote for you]
... " "
D.2. The object in Verb with a Modified Object may be modified in many ways:

(15) a. *buy your house
(15) b. *buy your new house

The object in V N/Pron de N may not be modified.

- *make fun of you
- *your new house

D.3. The marker de is not optional in Verb with a Modified Object, except where special usages are permitted (your father, etc.). The marker de is in all cases optional in the form under discussion.

(15) a. *buy your house
(15) b. *make fun of you

D.4. When the Object in both forms is quantified, the quantity statement may occur before or after the N/Pron de in the modified Object:

(17) a. *buy one of your houses
(17) b. *buy a house of yours

In this V N/Pron de N construction, the quantity statement replaces de.

(18) a. *make unnecessary trouble for you once or twice/couple of times
* 找你的一次麻烦

NA

* 找你一次的麻烦

NA
I. Form:
Topic-dou-Comment

II. Examples:
A. 你都作什么了?  What (things) do you do?
B. 你都给他什么?  What (things) do you give him?
C. 你都给谁钱?  To whom do you give money?
D. 你都到哪去了?  Where did you go?

III. Notes:
A. The usage of dou (都) to be examined here cannot be simply rendered into English. It functions to convert a simple Question Word question (QW question) into a question for which a plural answer is expected.
That is, to the question "Who?" the answer anticipated is not just one single individual, but possibly a number of individuals.
To the question "Where?" the answer is not just a single location, but possibly a collection of separate locations. For example:

(II-D) 你都到哪去了?  Where (what places) did you go?

B. This particular usage of dou has the following characteristics:
B.1. It occurs only in a Question Word question construction. In other question constructions, the function of dou is different.
(1) 你都要什么?  What (things) do you want? (correct)
B.2. It may occur in the following structures:

1. Topic * do you Comment? (where the comment contains the QW)
2. * do you Topic (where the topic is the QW) Comment?

In the case of (1), the QW constitutes either the whole comment (4) or part of the comment (5-12).

(4) 你都怎么了? What happened to you (all these days)?
(5) 你都买什么? What things do you want to buy?
(6) 你都给谁钱? Whom (pl.) do you give money to?
(7) 你都给他什么? What things do you give him?
(8) 你都替谁买? On whose (pl.) behalf do you buy it?
(9) 你都为什么? For what reasons (do you do that)?
(10) 你都到过哪? Where have you been?
(11) 你都买那本书? Which books do you want to buy?
(12) 你都怎么准备? In what ways do you prepare it?
(13) 谁去了? Who went (all of those who went)?
(14) 都哪卖? [Where are the places where this is available?] Where is this available?

Examples of cases wherein the topic of a question construction is a QW:
B.1. Structurally, these are derived and shortened from the following possible forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(13) 都 (有) 谁去了?</td>
<td>都 (有) 谁走了? [Who went to the evening party yesterday?]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) 都 (有) 哪卖?</td>
<td>都 (有) 哪卖? [What are all the places where this book is sold?]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16) 都 (有) 谁教过?</td>
<td>都 (有) 谁教过? [What things are broken?]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17) 都 (有) 哪个时?</td>
<td>都 (有) 哪个时? [Which is correct?]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18) 都 (有) 什么运到了?</td>
<td>都 (有) 什么运到了? [What were delivered?]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.4. Furthermore, all of them may be used in a larger structure as comments to other topics.
(22)-(16) 这班学生 都(有)谁教过： Who has taught this class?
(23)-(17) 这份答案 都(有)哪个对？ Which items : is set of answer's are correct?
(24)-(18) 我们订的货 都(有)什么运到了？ of our ordered merchandise, what has been delivered?

B.5. The question construction can be either affirmative or negative. All the illustrations given above are affirmative. The following are illustrations of negative question construction:

(25) 这里有五家有名的饭店，你都 没去过哪家？ Of these five well-known restaurants, which ones have you not been to?
(26) 我们这些人，他都没请谁？ (Among us, whom did he not invite?)
(27) 这些书你都不要哪本？ Of these books, which don't you want?

B.6. The question construction can be used to refer to an action in the past, present, or future.

(28) 昨天你都到哪去了？ Where did you go yesterday? (past)
(29) 今天你都到哪去了？ Where do you want to go today? (present)
(30) 明天你都到哪去了？ Where are you going tomorrow? (future)

B.7. The question construction can be one of the five major construction types. For example: Topic-Identification type in (31), Topic-Function type in (32), Topic-Location type in (33), Topic-Existence type in (34), and Topic-Description type in (35).
What are all the nüo of Qi Baishi?
What does he do?
In which libraries can this book be found?
What points of interest are there in New York City?
In what ways is New York City known? (Why is New York City famous?)

C. Comparison of QW question with dou and QW question without dou:

C.1. In terms of the questioner's expectations:
With dou, the questioner expects to have a full account of possible answers.
Without dou this expectation is lacking.

C.2. In terms of answers:
Without dou both A¹ and A² below are satisfactory answers.

Q: "What should I get?"

A¹: "You should buy a pencil."
A²: "You should buy a pencil, a notebook, etc."

With dou, A³ is the expected answer to (37) but not A².

Q: "What should I get?"

A¹: "You should buy pencil, paper, books, etc."
A²: "You should buy a pen."
A³: "You should just buy a pen, that's all."

However, when only a single item is to be given as the answer (i.e., only bu (笔) is needed) to a question with dou, the adverbs jiu (就) or zhi (只) are used as in A³ below:

A³: "You should just buy a pen, that's all."
C.3. In terms of English translation:

With *dou*, plural forms are used whenever possible; without *dou*, either singular or plural can be used.

(38) 你买什么书?  What books are you buying?
(39) a 你买什么书?  What book are you buying?
(39) b 你买什么书?  What books are you buying?

C.4. Finally, although *dou* in this particular function occurs in a question, it does not occur in the answer to the question.

(40) 问: “你都应当买什么?”    “What should I get?”
答:  “你应当买纸跟铅笔……”    “You should get paper and pencil…”

D. If the QW occurs in the topic position, the function of *dou* differs from that under discussion. For instance:

(13) 谁都来。  (NA) *Everybody comes.*
(14) 什么都贵。  (NA) *Everything is expensive.*
(15) 哪都有。  (NA) *It exists everywhere.*
(16) 谁都来了吧?  (NA) *Has everybody come?*
(17) 谁都买了?  (NA) *Who already bought it?*
(18) 哪都有了?  (NA) *Which place has already acquired it?*
The Usage of Topic 今且 Comment 来

II. Examples:
A. 天都亮了。
   It's morning already, let's get up!
B. 都四点了，该做晚饭了。
   It's already 4 o'clock, it's time to prepare dinner.
C. 他们走了，你才来，当然见不着了。
   He has left already, and only now are you here. Of course you can't see him.
D. 忙得我都累了，他也不帮忙。
   It has been so busy, I am tired already, but he still won't give me a hand.

III. Notes:
A.1. Generally speaking, there are six major functions that may be attributed to the adverb 今且 (今且): They are:
   a. **Totalizing the topic**
      (1a) 他们都有了。
      [They, all of them have it.]
      (1b) 书都卖了。
      [Books, all sold.]
   b. **Totalizing the object**
      (2) 这些书我都很喜欢。
      [These books, I like all of them.]
   c. **Inclusive usage of 今且**
      (3) 谁都有。
      Everybody has it.
   d. As the adverb 'even'
      (4) 书都卖了。
      Even the books are sold out.

*Here we use 'even' as a label to signify a particular function of 今且 which is generally translated as 'even' in English.*
e. Inclusive usage of GW construction

(5) 你都看什么书了?  What books have you read?

f. As the adverb 'already'?

(6) 书都卖了  The books are already sold out.

Among the six functions, the first four have been explained in other language texts. The fifth function is discussed in chapter 70-A. The last function is to be presented here.

B.1. The topic of the structure Topic doou Comment le may be either singular or plural. For example:

(7) 他都走了。  he is gone already.

(8) 他们走了。  They are gone already.

The Topic may be either the subject or the object of the VP in the Comment position.

(9) 那个我都卖给他了。  I already sold him that one.

(10) 相机都毁了，谁还能照呢!  The camera is smashed already—how could anyone take pictures?

B.2. The VP may be either affirmative or negative.

(11) 我都买了。  I already bought it.

(12) 我都不干了。  I have already stopped working.

The VP may be FV, FV, VM, CP-V, EV, or you.

(13) 我都醒。  I am already awake.

(14) 我都洗了。  I already cleaned it.

(15) 我都打算做了。  I am already planning to do it.

*Here, as in d above, the word 'already' is used as a label for a particular function of dou as illustrated in example (6).
(16) 我都替你送去了。
I already delivered it for you.
(17) 他都做父亲了。
He is already a father.
(18) 我都有了。
I already have it.

The VP may either indicate that an action will take place or that an action is completed.

(19) 晚饭都快做好了。
Dinner is almost prepared.
   (not yet ready)
(20) 书都快卖完了。
The books are almost sold out already.
   (not yet sold out)
(21) 晚饭都做好了。
Dinner is already ready.
(22) 书都卖完了。
The books are already sold out.

B.3. The sentence particle le is obligatory in this construction. When le is omitted from sentence (7) to (18), the dou will be interpreted as serving some other functions:

(23) ←(7) 他都走。
Even he leaves.
(24) ←(8) 他们都走。
All of them leave.
(25) ←(9) 那个我都卖给他。
Even that one will I sell him.
(26) ←(10) 相机都毁了……
Even I will sell them all.
(27) ←(11) 我都买。
Even I will buy it.
(28) ←(12) 都不喝酒。
Even I don’t drink wine.
(29) ←(14) 我都洗。
Even I will do some washing.
I wash them all.
(30) 4 (15) 4

(31) 4 (18) 4

C. Comparison between the fourth category (dou as adverb 'even') and sixth category (dou as adverb 'already'):

C.1. Both functions share the following features:

Affirmative and negative VPs:

(32) 老王把出去了。
Even Lao Wang went out.
Lao Wang went out already.

(33) 老王就不出去了。
Even Lao Wang would not
Lao Wang already
go out. Lao Wang already
decided not to go out.

SVP, FV, Aux-VP, CO-VP, EV, you:

(34) 他都报告了。
He already reported it.

(35) 他们都忙了。
He is already busy.
He is busy now.

(36) 他都是美国公民了。
He is an American citizen
already. Even he is an
American citizen now.

(37) 纽约市又有电影院了。
There is already a Chinese
theatre in New York.
Even New York has a Chinese
cinema now.

(38) 他都会做了。
He knows how to do it already.
Even he knows how to do it now.

(39) 他都替你做了。
He did it for you already.
Even he did it for you now.

C.2. dou as adverb 'already': the particle le is obligatory. dou as adverb 'even': the particle le is optional.
(19) 他都走了。  Even he leaves.
(7) 他都走了。  He left already.

C.1. **Dou**  as adverb 'already': the stress is on the VP.
As adverb 'even,' the stress is on the topic.

(7) 他都走了。 He left already.

C.3. Doh  as adverb 'already': the stress is on the VP.
As adverb 'even,' the stress is on the topic.

(7) 他都走了。 He left already.

C.4. The adverb **dou** may not be replaced by ye (也) when used to mean already.
The adverb **dou** may be replaced by ye (也) when used to mean 'even.'

(40) 他四岁了。 He is four years old already.

C.4. The adverb **dou** may not be replaced by ye (也) when used to mean already.
The adverb **dou** may be replaced by ye (也) when used to mean 'even.'

(40) 他四岁了。 He is four years old already.

C.5. **dou** as adverb 'already': the structure can be followed by another in
which adverb *cai* (才) is used. As adverb 'even', the structure cannot
be so followed by adverb *cai*.

(41) 他病了, 你才来看他。 You did not come to see him until he was already sick.

C.6. As adverb 'already': the topic may be a time word, place word, or
noun, or the topic may be omitted. As adverb 'even': the topic may be
either quantified noun, place word, noun, VP, or T-C construction.

(42) 四岁了。 Four years old already.

(43) 现在四岁了。 Four years old already.

42
It is dark already. 
Even the sky is darkened. (noun)

The gates of Peking are closed already. Even the entrances of Peking are closed. (place word)

He can't even speak clearly. (:) 

It will not do even if he does the washing. (T-C)

In other words, when a place word and simple noun are in the topic position, the sentence is ambiguous.

C.7. As adverb 'already': no other NP can precede its topic. As adverb 'even': the following NP precede the topic: lian...., jiushi...., naba...., etc.

Even you cannot go.

Even if you come (you) cannot accomplish it.

As adverb 'already': the topic of a Topic-Identification construction can be a time word, i.e., 今天, 明天, 去年, etc.
and the comment may be time expressions such as 一月, 一九七八, 星期一, etc.

As adverb 'even': time words or time expressions cannot be used in comments.

Today is Friday already. (correct)

It's 2 o'clock already. (correct)

Today is Friday already. (correct)

It's 2 o'clock already. (correct)

NA
D. Comparison of Topic dou Comment le and Topic yi jing Comment le.

D.1. They both indicate to what extent the topic has been reached or has reached, and can occur with the same set of Ws:

(54) 他都困了。

= 他已经困了。

(55) 今天都星期五了。

= 今天已经星期五了。

(56) 他都来了。

= 他已经来了。

D.2. dou...le, although complete in structure, usually contains an implicit statement. yi jing...le is complete in structure and is a straightforward statement which does not contain any implicit statement.

(57) 问：“他走啦！”

答：1 “他已经走了” 老王回答心想

“他都走了你才来，有什么用！”

答：2 “他已经走了，你来晚了，真可惜。”

答：3 “他已经走了” 老王回答。

Q: “Has he left?”

A1: “He has left already.”
answer Lao Wang, thinking you did not show up until after he has left, what is the use!

(A clear case of dissatisfaction on the part of Lao Wang.)

A2: “He already left. You came too late. It is a pity.”

Lao Wang said.

(An explicit statement of dissatisfaction.)

A3: “Yes.”

Lao Wang answered.

(A simple and matter-of-fact report.)
D.3. In terms of question-and-answer usage, *dou*...*la* is not an answer to a question but a comment on or about one's feelings, opinions, or attitude on things. *yijing*...*la*, on the other hand, may be used as an answer to a question.

(58) 问： "你多大了？"
答： "我十岁了。"

问： "都十岁了，时候过的真快；
上学了吗？
答： "没呢！"

问： "都十岁了，还不上学？"
答： "我十岁了。（59） 问： "今天几号？"
答： "三十号。"

问： "都快三十号了时候真快，
接到他的信了吗？
答： "没呢！"

丙： "都三十号了还没他的信，一
定出事了。"

(59) 问： "你多大了？"
答： 1 "四岁。"
答： 2 "已经四岁了。"
答： 3 "都四岁了。"
I. Form:
   A. ge M N
   B. ge VP

II. Examples:
   A.1. 各位朋友的协助
       assistance from each friend
   A.2. 各位的协助
       " "
   A.3. 各朋友的协助
       " "
   B.1. 各有所好
       each has one's own likes
   B.2. 各尽己任
       each performs one's duty

III. Notes:
   A. The word ge (各) may be used as a specifier before a M-N, N or a N. It may also be used as a pronoun immediately followed by a VP. In each case, ge refers to each individual element respectively:
      (1) 各作各的事
          Each person attends to her own affairs.
      ge may refer to a prestated topic which is a collective group of things:
      (2) 全校学生各个都需要交费。
          [As far as the student body of the school is concerned, each member must pay tuition]
          Each and every student of the entire school must pay tuition.

   B.1. In Form A, the specifier ge, either the N or the M may be omitted.
   Hence there are three variants:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a)</th>
<th>(b)</th>
<th>(c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specifier M</td>
<td>Specifier N</td>
<td>Specifier M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>各 M-N</td>
<td>各 N</td>
<td>各 N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>这个地方</td>
<td>这个地方</td>
<td>这地方</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>那个地方</td>
<td>那个地方</td>
<td>那地方</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>哪个地方</td>
<td>哪个地方</td>
<td>哪地方</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.2. The differences between *shèi* (这), *nài* (那), and *nài* (哪) and *gě* are as follows:

a. While the other specifiers may precede a number, *gě* may not.

(7) 这几本书
    * 各几本书
    ** 各儿本书

As a result, *shèi*, *nài*, and *nài* may refer to a quantity of more than one single item, while *gě* may not.

```
这本书 ← quantification → 各家商店
        ← specification
```

d. Furthermore, *gě* may be used with the adverb *dōu* (都) to emphasize inclusiveness, as in " 各个地方都有 " " it's available everywhere." " 这个地方 " may only be used with *dōu* if it is in the lián...dōu or jǐshí...dōu... patterns.

- 这个地方都有
  ** 这个地方都有

(It is available even in this place.)

C.1. Form B is the pronominal form of *gě*. The noun it replaces may sometimes be stated in the context. For instance:
C.2. The pronominal usage of ge may replace any personal noun. For instance:

(11) [Lao Wang, Lao Li, and Lao Zhang have weaknesses]
    They have weaknesses.
    Each and every one of them has weaknesses.

It may be used in Pronoun-de-N.

(12) [Lao Wang, Lao Li, and Lao Zhang attend to their own business]

    They attend to their own business.
    Each attends to his own business.

C.3. As a pronoun, ge has the following characteristics:

a. ge may replace personal or nonpersonal nouns (as stated in C.2.)

(13a) [Of these students, each has his or her own skills.]

(13b) [Of these schools, each has its merits.]

b. ge may replace ge M-N (each noun), ge M-N siji (each his or her own noun), or gesi (each one himself or herself):
(14) 每所学校有其自己的特点
→ 各有不同的特点
Each school has its own characteristics.

(15) 老王老李有老王老李的特点
→ 各有不同的特点
Lao Wang and Lao Li each has his own way of doing things.

c. 由于总是用作主语，而 de 作 N 是总是用作普通动词的主语。

(16) 各有不同的本领。
Each has his own capability.

(17) 各付各的钱。
Each pays her own share.

(18) 各管各的职务。
Each takes charge of her own assignment.

C.4. de 可以用于分摊。

(19) 这些书各拿三本。
[Of these books, each takes three]
Each takes three of these books.

(20) 他们各捐五元。
They each contribute 50 cents.

有时动词省略以避免重复。

(21) 他们每个人捐了多少钱?
How much did each of them contribute?

(21)a 老张捐五元，老李捐五元。
Lao Zhang contributed $5.00,
Lao Li contributed $5.00,
Lao Wang contributed $5.00.

(21)b 各捐五元。
Each contributed $5.00.

(21)c 各捐五元。
$5.00 each.

C.6. The underlyg structure is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>ge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他们</td>
<td>各</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D. Comparison of ge and mei. (参)

D.1. ge may precede M-N, M, or N; mei may precede M-N, M, but not N, with the exception of the word ren (人), 'person.'

D.2. ge may be used as a pronoun but not as an adverb; mei may not be used as a pronoun, but may be used as an adverb.

Pronoun usage:
(23) 你们各买一份吧!
* 你们各买一份吧!

Adverbial usage:
* 你们各取一次签一个名

(24) 你们各取一次签一个名。
Everytime you take it out, you must sign your name.

D.3. As a specifier ge may not be followed by numbers; mei may be.
(25) 每三位客人
* 每三位客人

Thus ge always refers to a single item (single group or individual), while mei has no such restrictions.
(26) 每位客人 = one single individual
* 每位客人

* 每三位客人 = every three individuals.
D.4. *ge* is never duplicated; *mei* may be duplicated.

* 各各地方 NA

(27) *每每给人方便* often offers conveniences to others.

D.5. *ge* may be used to modify a noun, *ge-de-N*; *mei* may not be used to modify a noun in the form of *mei-de-N.*

(28) *各有各的工作。* Each has his or her own job.

* 每有各的工作 NA
16 The Usage of $\text{V ge }x$  

I. Forms:

A. $\text{V ge}$ quantity statement
B. $\text{V ge}$ descriptive statement
C. $\text{V ge}$ negative expression

II. Examples:

A.1. 住个一年半载的  
A.2. 去个一两趟再说。  
B.1. 吃个饱  
B.2. 弄个鼻青脸肿的怎么办？  
C.1. 打个不停  
C.2. 说个不休

to stay for a year or so
We shall see after a trip or two.  
eat till fully satisfied
[get bruised nose and swollen cheeks, what can be done]  
get bruised all over, then what?
to hit incessantly  
to talk endlessly

III. Notes:

A.1. In each of these forms, the function of $\text{ge (个)}$ is the same; it indicates what result the verb is to produce or to what degree the verb is to be carried out.
A.2. The difference lies in the statement which follows the $\text{V ge}$. The statement in Form A is one of nonspecific quantity. The statement in Form B is a description. In Form C, which occurs relatively infrequently, the statement is a negative expression.
A.3. The word $\text{ge}$ is derived from $\text{yi ge (一个)}$. The usage of $\text{(yi) ge}$ converts whatever follows it into a NP, so that the whole structure is a Verb-NP.
B.1. In Form A, the statement after V-ge may be either a formulaic expression or any idiomatic nonspecific quantity statement. For example:

1. 等个十天八天
   wait for 8 to 10 days

2. 英个两三打杯子
   buy 2 or 3 dozen glasses

3. 打个四圈八圈麻将
   play 4 or 8 hands of Mah-Jongg

4. 输个三五十块钱
   lose 30 to 50 thousand dollars

5. 静养个十天半个月
   recuperate for 10 to 15 days

Expressions such as 'yi...ban...' (一...半...), 'san...liang (三...两...), 'san...wu...' (三...五...), etc., are all idiomatic numerals indicating nonspecific quantity.

B.2. In Form A, ge is never yi ge.

B.3. The V-ge quantity statement may be used either as the main VP or as a Topic for further comment.

6. 等个十天八天再说
   We shall see after 8 to 10 days.

7. 打个几圈麻将也不算不务正业
   To play a few hands of Mah-Jongg cannot be considered "ignoring one's own proper profession."

8. 不太严重你休息个十天半个月就行了
   It is nothing serious; you need to rest for 10 to 15 days and you will be fine.

C.1. In Form B, V-ge may be followed by a simple SV or a SVP, such as:

9. 吃个饱
   eat till heartily satisfied

10. 忘个干净
    forget everything

11. 推个清账
    shirk one's responsibility completely
or a SVP:

(12) 吃个酒足饭饱

(13) 弄个鼻青脸肿

(14) 吃...个

(15) 吃...个

C.2. ge converts what follows into a NP. The converted NP structurally is the Object of the verb which precedes it, but semantically it expresses the extent to which the action (verb) is to be or has been carried out.

VERB | OBJECT
--- | ---
NP | Nu-M N/S

(14) 吃 | 一个 饱
(15) 吃 | 一个 酒足饭饱

eat till you are full

[eat a case of sufficient drinks and food] Eat till you are fully satisfied.

C.3. The verb may have completion aspect marker le indicating that the action has been completed. For instance:

(14) a 吃了 一个饱

(15) a 吃了 一个酒足饭饱

D. Compare V de SVP and V ge SVP.

Although they appear similar on the surface in that they are both verb-particle-SVP, V-de and V-ge contain different implications and have different semantic features.

D.1. V de SVP indicates that the SVP is either a potential or a habitual result of the verb. For instance:

吃了饱 | can have enough

吃了快 | eat fast (always)
On the other hand, V ge SVP refers to a single event and the SVP indicates the projected extent or result of the verb. For instance:

(16)a 明天玩个痛快！
Enjoy it thoroughly tomorrow!

(16)b 昨天玩了个痛快。
We enjoyed it thoroughly yesterday.

D.2. V de SVP has a negative version in which de is replaced by bu (不).

(17)a 我作得完
I can get it done.

(17)b 我作不完
I cannot get it done.

V ge SVP is always affirmative, though the SVP may be stated negatively.

○ 我不吃个一干二净
○ 我没吃个一干二净

°(I refuse to consume all of it)=
°(I did not consume all of it)=
categorical denial
categorical denial

(18)他吃个不亦乐乎。
He ate till he was full.

D.3. In V de SVP, de is a bound form suffixed to the verb; in V ge SVP ge is part of the NP—since ge is a measure for a NP and its function here is to convert the SVP into a NP.

D.4. Since the implication of V de SVP is "habitual" or "potential" V de SVP does not have completion form.

° 他吃了得完
° 他吃完了

The implication of V ge SVP is that of a basic Verb Object structure, therefore it may have a completion version:

(19)a 玩个痛快
Have a good time.

(19)b 玩了个痛快
had a good time
D.5. In summary, the above comparison is summarized in the following chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>V de SVP</th>
<th>V ge SVP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>habitual</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potential</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completion aspect</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affixation</td>
<td>to the preceding verb</td>
<td>to the following noun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E.1. In Form C, V-ge is followed by a restricted number of negative expressions: they are 不停, 不止, and 不休, which indicate the endless and interminable performance of an action. For instance:

(20) a v 个不停
(20) b v 个不止
(20) c v 个不休

endlessly v

E.2. In this usage, Form C, the word ge is never replaced by vi-ge and may not be omitted when the verb is single syllable:

(21) 真可笑大家都笑个不停。 That was truly funny; everybody laughed endlessly.
*真可笑大家都笑一个不停 NA

2.3. The verb in V ge Neg VP is always single syllable. Conversely, when the verb is not a single syllable word, the word ge must be dropped.

(22) a 别招他，他会骂个不停。 Do not provoke him. Otherwise, he would yell at you forever.
(22) b 别招他，他会咒骂不停
The Usage of 其 Pron lai ge VP/S

I. Form:

NP₁ 其 NP₂ lai ge VP/S

II. Examples:

A. 你给他来个不理。
   [You give him no response.]
   Don't answer him.

B. 他给你来个一问三不知。
   [He gives you three I-don't-knows to each question.]
   He gives you a totally ignorant response.

C. 他给你来个混水摸鱼。
   [He gives you catching fish in muddy water treatment.]
   He takes advantage of your situation.

III. Notes:

A. The form NP₁ 其 NP₂ lai ge VP/S indicates an attitude, a mode of behavior, or a reaction of NP₁ to NP₂. The reaction, attitude, or mode is expressed by ge VP/S.

   B.1. The NP₁ in this structure may be either a personal noun or one which may be personified:

   (1) 老师们给学校当局来了个不闻不问
       Teachers show the school authority the attitude of detachment and noninvolvement.
       I ignore the teachers.

   (2) 学校当局给学生代表来了一个先礼
       The authority gave the student representatives the treatment of "xian li hou bi."  
       后兵.

   Lao shi in (1) and xuesheng dang ju in (2) are personal and personified nouns, respectively.

   B.2. The NP₂ in this structure may be a nonpersonal noun, but NP₁ may not be.

   (3) 老王给校方的通知来个不理。
       Wang totally ignored the notice from the school.
George C. Scott's reaction to his Oscar award as best actor was not to accept it.

B.3. *lai* is the main verb in this structure and *lai-NP* is the main VP of this structure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP^1</td>
<td>CO-VP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>gei NP^2</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) 你给我个不理

However, verb *lai* may be omitted. When it is omitted, *gei* becomes the main verb and the resulting structure becomes *gei* with direct and indirect objects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP^1</td>
<td>Main Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>gei</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) a 你 给 他 个不理

B.4. The measure word *ge* is an abbreviated version of *yi ge*, in the sense of 'a certain attitude,' 'a particular behavior,' or 'a certain reaction.' The function of (yi)ge is to convert whatever follows it into a NP object of *lai*, whether it is a verb, a verb phrase, or a sentence. Therefore, *ge* is not an optional feature.

B.5. The expressions following *ge* may be any of the following:
Any of these expressions may be used after the measure word ge; affirmative or negative, SVP or PVP, simple or complex, but the phrase must describe the attitude, behavior, or reaction of NP° to NP2.

B.6. As its N-VP, lai may have a completion aspect marker.

(5)b 你给他来了不理

C. Compare this form with other similar structures:

C.1. Topic gei NP° lai ge NP2 (-VP/S) and Topic gei NP° Verb Nu-M-NP2.

C.1.a. When the main verb is lai this structure means that the Topic NP expresses a certain kind of attitude or reaction (NP°) to NP2. When the main verb is not lai, the structure means that the Topic (NP°) is doing something (Verb NP°) for the sake of or for the benefit of NP2. This is the most common usage of gei as a co-verb.

| TOPIC (NP°) | gei NP° | verb NP° |

(5) 我  给他买个帽子  I buy a hat for him.

C.1.b. In the structure where the main verb is lai, lai may be omitted. The structure is thus abbreviated to NP gei NP (lai) ge VP/S. In a similar structure, where the main verb is not lai, no segment of the structure may be omitted without changing the original meaning.
Don't answer him.

I buy a hat for him.

I give him a hat.

In the structure where the attitude of the topic is indicated, the object of the main verb jiai is a NP converted from a VP or an S. In the other structure the object of the main verb must be a NP.

The number used in the form indicating attitude is always 'one,' which is often omitted. The number in the other form is unrestricted.

I get him two hats.

The measure in the attitude pattern is always ge. While in the other pattern, the measure may be whatever is appropriate from the following noun.

I will find him a hat.

Other expressions involving the use of jiai include the following:
(9) 你给我吃药！
You take the medicine!

(10) 我给你吃药！
I will take the medicine!

The former is strictly imperative and the latter is a declarative sentence expressing desperation.

C.2.a. In the imperative usage as well as the expression of desperation, the CO-VP 'gei NP' may be omitted.

(9)a 你吃药！
(10)a 我吃药！

But 'gei NP' expressing attitude cannot be omitted.

C.2.b. The NP2 in gei NP2 for the imperative usage must be first person and the Topic NP1 in the form for the declaration of desperation must be first person.

(9)b 你给他吃药
NA *(You feed him medicine.)

(10)b 他给你吃药
NA *(He feeds you medicine.)

There are no such restrictions for the attitude pattern:

(11) 老三给老四(不)个不\*

C.2.c. The expression as in (9) is strictly imperative, in (10) is declaration of desperation, but in (5) may either be imperative or declarative, but never desperation.

C.3. In summary, there are four expressions in the structure NP1 gei NP2 M-VP, as shown in the following chart:
Their similarities and differences are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>(9)</th>
<th>(10)</th>
<th>(12)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
<td>Strictly imperative</td>
<td>Declarative of desperation</td>
<td>Imperative/declarative</td>
<td>Imperative/declarative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP² issues order for NP¹</td>
<td>NP² issues order for NP¹</td>
<td>NP¹ is target of NP¹’s attitude</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP¹ is ordered by NP² to do action(VP)</td>
<td>NP¹ is ordered by NP² to do action(VP)</td>
<td>NP¹ is actor, NP² is actor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP² must be first person</td>
<td>NP² must be second person</td>
<td>NP¹ is recipient of NP²’s action</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP² is not the beneficiary</td>
<td>NP² is not the beneficiary</td>
<td>NP¹ is 1st person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP² optional</td>
<td>NP² optional</td>
<td>NP¹ is actor, NP² is actor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example sentences:
(9) ni gēi wǒ qí yào You take the medicine!
(10) wǒ gēi nǐ qí yào I take the medicine!
(12) ni gēi wǒ mái shū You buy books for me.
(5) wǒ gēi tā lái gē bù lì I ignore him!
18 The Usage of *gei* VP

I. Form:

```
Topic *gei* VP
```

II. Examples:

A. 你给你倒。
   You go to pour it.

B. 他挣来钱能一下子都给喝掉了。
   If he does earn some money, he would spend it all on liquor.

C. 黑旋风被逼着了。
   Hei Xuan Feng has been captured.

III. Notes:

A. Generally speaking, the verb *gei* in addition to being used as the main verb of a sentence may be used in the following three cases:

a. **CO-VP**: Topic *gei* NP VP:
   
   (1) 我给你画。
   I will draw for you.

b. **ba** construction: Topic ba NP *gei* VP:

   (2) 我把钱给你了。
   I lost the money.

c. **jiao/rang** pattern: Topic jiao/rang NP *gei* VP:

   (3) 老李叫老王给关起来了。
   Lao Li has been locked up by Lao Wang.

However, in all three cases when the NP is understood or mentioned in the immediate context, it may be omitted, as shown below:

```
(a) Topic *gei* (NP) VP  ----> Topic *gei* VP
(b) Topic (ba NP) *gei* NP  ----> Topic *gei* VP
(c) Topic (jiao/rang NP) *gei* VP  ----> Topic *gei* VP
```
The end result in all three cases of omission is identical: Topic gei VP. Thus, in a given context, these three usages of Topic gei VP must be distinguished.

8.1. In the case of (a), the CO-VP usage of gei, the omitted NP is the Indirect Object (IO).

(4) 我给(你)倒去。
     I will pour it out (for you).

(5) 劳你驾给(冯狗子)找刷头的老王去。
     May I trouble you to go and fetch Barber Wang Wu (for him)?

(6) 我可没工夫给(您)灌二回。
     I won't have time to heat it for the second time (for you).

One of the conditions for the omission of the IO is that it must be clear from the context. For instance, the context of (4) is the following:

(4)a 四嫂您可别叫娘子去臭沟……
     "Siacao, you must not send Niuzi to the (open) sewer...."

……娘子，来，给我……我给倒去。”
     Niuzi, come, give it to me... I will go to pour it out.

Here it is apparent that wo gei dau qu is a shortened version of wo gei Niuzi-dao-qu. "I will, on Niuzi's behalf, pour it out."

The context for (5) is the following:

(5)a 冯狗子断了腿，老赵向刘掌柜："劳您驾，Feng Gouzi broke his leg. Lao Zhao (asking Manager Liu): "May I trouble you to fetch Barber Wang Wu? He (Wang Wu) knows how to fix broken legs."

Here, gei zhao is gei Feng Gouzi zhao, to go fetch the barber who is also a medical man for the injured Gouzi.

The context for (6) is the following:
(6) a. 女儿：‘饭好了，酒热了，

父亲：‘我得把院子打扫干净

女儿：‘饭凉了，我可没工夫

父: "The food is ready, the wine is heated, but you don't know how to enjoy this good service!"

父: "I must clean the yard before I can sit down to eat with peace of mind."

父: "If the food (and wine) get cold, I won't have time to heat them for the second time."

Here the daughter prepared a nice hot meal for her father, yet her father would have preferred to clean the yard before eating his supper. The daughter objected to his idea for fear the food would get cold and she would not have time to reheat everything once again for her father. Therefore, *gei re er hui* refers to *gei nin*—the father—*re er hui*.

B.2. Although the omitted NP in the above illustrations is the object of the verb *gei* in CO-VP usage, not all NP in such occurrences may be omitted. For instance, in the following cases, the NP may not be omitted:

a. Imperative usage of CO-VP *gei wo*:

(7) 你给我滚出去!

You get out of here!

b. Declarative-expression of desperation:

(8) 我给你吃!

I will eat!

B.3. The NP is often dropped when it shares the same reference with the topic:

(9) 虎妞请冯先生写几个字。

Huniu requested Mr. Feng to write a few characters.

Here the omitted NP after the verb *gei* is either Huniu or ta as shown below:
Expression (9)a is NA. Expression (9)b is acceptable but not as compact as (8), and thereby not as powerful an expression.

C.1. In the case of (b), the 具 construction, III-A-b, the omitted NP is the object of the main verb in a sentence:

(10) 要是他挣点钱他会(把挣的钱) 都给输光了。
    If he does earn some money, he would lose it—the money he earned—all at gambling.

(11) 他(把车)给撞的稀烂。
    He smashed it—the car—beyond repair.

(12) 他(把信封上的地址)给写错了。
    He wrote it—the address on the envelope—wrong.

C.2. Note that the omitted segment is not the NP alone, but the "具-NP" phrase.

C.3. In the case of (b), the NP object of the main verb may have been transposed to a topic position following the procedure shown below:

(10)a 挣的钱他给输光了。
(11)a 车他给撞的稀烂。
(12)a 信封上的地址他给写错了。

The structural diagram is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10)a 挣的钱</td>
<td>他</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11)a 车</td>
<td>他</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12)a 信封上的地址</td>
<td>他</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C.4. It must be noted that the word gei is indispensable in (10),
(11), and (12), but not in (10a, b, (11)a, b, and (12)a, b. That is:

Topic gei VP

a. Topic ba-NP (gei) VP

b. NP Topic (gei) VP

For instance:

(13) 老刘: “我昨天拿家来给的钱呢?
    刘太太: “他都给输光了!”

(14) 赖王: “你知道吗？他又一文不名了?
    昨天晚上全(给)输光了!”

(15) 老李: “他辛辛苦苦挣来的钱昨天晚上
    全(给)输光了!”

Lao Liu: "What happened to the money I brought home
yesterday for John?"
Mrs. Liu: "He lost it all at gambling!"

Lao Wang: "Do you know why
he is penniless again? He
lost all the money he earned
at gambling last night!"

Lao Li: "He lost all his
hard earned money at gambling
last night!"

D.1. In the case of Cc), where it is used with jiao/rang, the word gei
is used in a pattern often identified as "passive voice." It is a pattern
in which a particular action is directed or applied to someone or some-
thing by some other person or some other things.

In this pattern the object or the recipient of action is the topic,
the actor is introduced by jiao or rang and the action is introduced by
gei. For example:
D.2. The NP\textsuperscript{2} may be understood or stated in the context. In the case of (c) the omitted NP is not the Actor, nor is the object as in the case of (a) CO-VP construction and (b)b-a construction. Furthermore, the omitted segment is not the NP alone but the jiao/rang NP phrase.

(5) 黑旋风（叫国军）给逮着了。 
Hei Xuan Feng has been captured by the Army.

(16) 房子（叫河水）给淹了。 
The house was flooded by the river.

(17) 敌人（叫我方陆军）给歼灭了。 
The enemy was smashed by our infantry.

E. In summary, the form Topic gai VP may be the end result of three different derivations.
The Usage of Pron\textsuperscript{1} \textit{gei} Pron\textsuperscript{2} VP

I. Forms:
   A. \textit{ni} \textit{gei} \textit{wo} VP!
   B. \textit{wo} \textit{gei} \textit{ni} VP!
   C. Pron\textsuperscript{1} \textit{gei} Pron\textsuperscript{2} VP!

II. Examples:
   A.1. 我的小姑奶奶，你给我进去吧！
   B.1. 我已经穿的够多的了，你还叫我穿，
   C.1. 我给你买书。
   B.2. 我告诉你去是没用的，你非叫我去不可，
   C.2. 你给我买书。
   C.3. 老大给老二买书。

   A.2. 你给我过来！
   B.3. 不喝就给我滚出去！
   C.3. 你给我买书。

III. Notes:
   A.1. \textit{gei} Pron in a sentence structure may have various usages. The
       most familiar ones are:
   a. \textit{gei} Pron NP.
Whether *gei* Pron is followed by a NP or a VP, *gei* Pron is an inherent part of the structure and its semantic function remains constant.

A.2. However, the usage presented here is similar only in appearance to (a) and (b) above.

Pron\(^1\) *gei* Pron\(^2\) VP means Pron\(^1\) performs an action (VP) under the order of Pron\(^2\) or at the request of Pron\(^2\). In this structure *gei* Pron\(^2\) is optional.

B.1. In Form A, Pron\(^2\) is restricted to the first person.

(4) 給我滚出去!
(You) Get out of here!

(5) 給我們滚出去!
The speaker is therefore the one who gives the order or makes the request. The order or request to do a particular action (VP) is directed to Pron\(^1\).

B.2. Pron\(^1\), the one who receives the order, can be second person, either singular or plural. As in other imperatives, the second person pronoun is often omitted.

(*ni/nimen*) *gei* wo/women VP!

Such an order may be given to the second person but directed to a third person, for example:

(*ni/nimen*) jiao/yang te/tamen *gei* wo/women VP!
(6) 让/叫他给我出去！ Ask him to get out of here.
(7) 让/叫他给我进来！ Ask him to come in!
(8) 让/叫他们给我们值班！ Ask them to keep standing up!
(9) 让/叫他们给我们值夜班! Ask them to keep standing up!

B.3. The VP is always affirmative and may be either transitive VP or intransitive VP, such as: guanahang (关上) 'to close,' tuichu (推出去) 'to push out,' zhurui (住嘴) 'to shut up,' wanghouzhan (往后站) 'to stand back/to back up.'

B.4. Adverbs may be used before get Pron:
(10a) 你得给我出来! Come out here!
(10b) 你们都给我出来!

Negative command bie (别) may also be used:
(11a) 你别给我忘了！ Don't you forget it!
(11b) 你别给我胡说八道了! Don't you talk nonsense!

B.5. This structure usually consists of the entire range of imperative expressions from earnest persuasion to irrevocable order:
(12a) 小红，您就给我进去吧! You'd better go inside, miss!
(12b) 你们都得给我规矩些! You'd better all behave yourselves!
(12c) 给我滚! Get out!

B.6. In all these expressions, get wo is optional. However, the difference
between Pron1 gel Pron2 VP! and Pron1 VP! is that the former indicates the
speaker's strong determination in enforcing the command, while the latter
is merely a command.

Compare the normal command expression wo jiao ni gun! and this special
imperative form ni gel wo gun! The former may be interpreted as:

(13)a 我叫你滚!
 I ask you to leave! (not stay)
(13)b 我叫你滚!
 I ask you to leave. (not anyone else)
(13)c 我叫你滚!
 I do ask you to leave. (I
 did not inquire if you would
 leave)
(13)d 我叫你滚!
 I ask you to leave. (no one
 else)

While the latter ni gel wo gun! can be interpreted as:

(14)a 你给我滚!
 You get out!
(14)b 你给我滚!
 You get out!

The former depends on the vocal stress to indicate which of the words
is being emphasized. In the latter (14a, 14b), the stress is implicit
in the structure.

Furthermore, the former leaves room for the listener to ponder how
seriously the command is intended while the latter is unquestionably in
earnest.

8.7. To review, Form A is therefore an imperative structure, where
Pron2 is the one giving the orders and Pron1 is the Actor of VP in
compliance with Pron2's order. The meaning of gel is different from
the usual co-verbal usage of gel 'for the sake of' or 'for the benefit of.'

C.1. In Form B, Pron2 is restricted to second person, singular or plural:
(15a) 我给你签字！
I will sign it!
(15b) 我给你们签字！
I will sign it!

Pron1 is restricted to first person, usually singular, but sometimes plural.

(16) 我吃了，你要信我，我再给你吃！
I took my medicine. If you don't believe me, I will take it again! (Just to satisfy you)

(17) 我们都签字了你一定要我们当面签；
好！我们再给你签一次！
We all signed. If you insist that we should sign before you, we will sign it again!

C.2. Negatives are not used with 做 Pron VP. Adverbs may be used before 做 Pron or VP:

(18a) 我立刻给你办。
I will do it for you immediately.
(18b) 我给你再干。
I will do it for you again.
(18c) 我们都给你干。
We will all do it for you.

C.3. Form B is not an imperative structure. In Form B, Pron1 is making a concession to agree to do the action of VP under pressure or coercion from Pron2. Such a concession, as illustrated in II-B-1, II-B-2, may indicate a desperate effort to please Pron2. For instance:

(19) 我知道你愿意我离开你，我明天就要给你走！走的远远的！
I know you want me to leave you. Fine. I will leave you tomorrow and I will go far away.

(20) 一年到头都得喝这苦药，今天大过年的你们还逼着我喝，好！喝！我给你们喝！……
"Everyday I have to take this bitter herb medicine. Even today—New Year's Day! You people won't let me skip it. Fine. I'll drink it. I will drink it (as you ordered)……"
C.4. Although _ni_ is optional, a comparison between Pron¹ _ni_ VP and Pron¹ VP shows the semantic weight of _ni_ in this structure.

(21)a 好！你逼我，我就走！
Fine: If you force me, I will leave.
(21)b 好！你逼我，我就给你走！
Fine: You force me to leave, but I am leaving against my own will.

Thus Pron¹ _ni_ VP expresses not just what Pron¹ is going to do (VP), but also expresses that Pron¹ is in a helpless situation brought on by Pron².

D.1. Form C is the most frequent and most familiar usage of _gei_ Pron VP, referred to in II-A-1. It generally occurs in the structure Pron² _gei_ Pron¹ VP meaning 'Pron¹ does VP for the sake of/for the benefit of Pron².'

(22)a 我给他写信。
I write him a letter.
(22)b 他给你做饭。
He will cook for you.

Where the Pron¹ is the Actor of VP and the action is carried out for the benefit of Pron²:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTOR/BENEFACTOR</th>
<th>gei</th>
<th>OBJECT¹/BENEFICIARY NP/VP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>给</td>
<td>你</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>给</td>
<td>你</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D.2. This usage of _gei_ is not restricted to pronouns. For instance:

(23) 哥伦比亞大学训练科学家。
Columbia University trains scientists for New York City.

E. Comparison between Forms A, _ni_ gei VP, B, _wo_ gei _ni_ VP, and C, Pron gei Pron VP:
E.1. In all three forms, Pron₁ is the ACTOR of VP, and is to perform the action of VP for the benefit of Pron₂, either willingly or unwillingly.

E.2. In Form A, Pron₁ is ordered to do the action of VP by Pron₂. In Form B, Pron₁ is doing the action of VP under pressure from the expectation of Pron₂. In Form C, Pron₁ is neither pressured nor ordered by Pron₂. Pron₁ is doing the action of VP for the benefit of Pron₂.

E.3. In Form A, Pron₂ is the one giving the orders. In Form B, Pron₂ is the one exerting pressure. In Form C, Pron₂ is the beneficiary of Pron₁'s action (VP).

E.4. In Form A, Pron₁ can be second and third, Pron₂ must be first person. In Form B, Pron₁ must be first person and Pron₂ must be second person. In Form C, neither Pron₁ or Pron₂ has any restrictions. Furthermore, they may be nonpersonal nouns.

E.5. In Form A, the message is a command. In Form B, the message is an act of concession or a desperate effort in a desperate situation. In Form C, the message is a matter of fact statement of a benefactor-beneficiary situation.

E.6. In Form A, the negative imperative bie may be used before gei Pron₂. In Form B, no negatives may be used. In Form C, bie (不), mei (没), and bie may all be used.
The Usage of Hao VP

I. Form:

| Topic | Hao | Comment |

II. Examples:

A. 我开著门你们好进来。
   I will keep the door open so you people can come in.

B. 你先说，说完好忙你的去。
   You report first. After you finish you can go attend to your work.

C. 把棉衣服拆洗拆洗天冷了好穿。
   Clean these padded garments, so when the climate changes, you will have something to wear.

III. Notes:

A. Here Hao (好) is used as an adverb and occurs before a VP.

In this usage it means "so as to be able to" or "so that." In structural terms, it links two otherwise independent units and thereby indicates a cause-effect or action-purpose relationship between the two components.

Therefore, the above examples illustrate that something is taking place (component I) in order to facilitate the occurrence or performance of something else (component II).

B.1. The structure Topic Hao Comment is therefore always used as a second component in a compound sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 我开著门</td>
<td>你们好进来</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 你先说</td>
<td>说完好忙你的去</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 把棉衣服拆洗拆洗</td>
<td>天冷了好穿</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B.2. The components may be in the following forms:

(a) T-C Construction

(b) Topic-omitted Construction

B.3. As long as one component is a facilitating factor of the other, they may be linked by hao to form a compound sentence as illustrated above. For instance: ta bu chu qu (他不出去) and ta dang ni (他等你) may be linked by hao as in:

(4) He is not going out, so he can wait for you.

(5) He is going to drive, so you may rest.

B.4. When both components share a common topic as in (4), the repeated topic is often omitted.

(4) He is not going out...
8.6. Component I may be in the habitual present, future, or completion aspects but component II is always stated in the incompletion aspect. However, while the form of component II remains in an incomplete aspect its time element is determined by the content of component I. For instance, hao na waikuat (好拿外快) 'so as to get extra pay' in the following sentences remains in the same form but has three different time references because of differences in the preceding component I:

(10) 他三月加了班，上月好拿外快。 He worked overtime in March, so he could get extra pay last month.
(11) 他上月加了班，这个月好拿外快。 He worked overtime last month, so he could get extra pay this month.
(12) 他这月加班，下月好拿外快。 He works overtime this month, so he can get extra pay next month.
The function of adverb *hao* is to bring out the cause-effect or action-purpose relation between two components, but it is not always interchangeable with other adverbs for similar functions.

C.1. Compare *hao* and *weidashi* (为的是).

C.1.a. *hao* must occur before a VP; *weidashi* may occur before a VP, a T-C, or a NP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence 1</th>
<th>Sentence 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(13) 我开车 你好休息。</td>
<td>I will drive so that you can rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) 我开车 为的是让你休息。</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15) 我开车 为的是你得休息。</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16) 我开车 为的是你。</td>
<td>I will drive for your sake.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C.1.b. *hao* may occur only in Component II of a compound sentence of cause-effect or action-purpose relationship. *weidashi* may also occur in Component I of a compound sentence of such relationship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component I</th>
<th>Component II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(13) 我开车</td>
<td>你好休息</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>你好休息</td>
<td>我开车</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) 为的是让你休息</td>
<td>所以我开车</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>为的是你得休息</td>
<td>所以我开车</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16) 为的是你</td>
<td>所以我开车</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C.1.c. In a compound sentence, *hao* indicates the component in which it occurs (Component II) is the intended result or purpose of the other component. For instance:
C.1.d. hǎo may occur in Component II with a Topic or subject matter different from that of Component I.

(13) 我开车 你好休息。

weidēshī always implies that the Topic or subject matter is the same in both components. There is no other difference in meaning between the structure with hǎo and that with weidēshī.

(14) 我开车为的是让你休息

= 我开车(我)为的是让你休息

(15) 我开车为的是你得休息

= 我开车(我)为的是你得休息

(16) 我开车为的是你

= 我开车(我)为的是你

C.2. Compare hǎo with cāinèng ( 才能 )

C.2.a. Structurally both hǎo and cāinèng are used before a comment or a VP:

(1) 我开着门你们好进来

(1)a 我开着门你们才能进来

(2) ……说完好忙你的去

(2)a ……说完才能忙你的去

(3) ……天冷了好穿

(3)a ……天冷了才能穿
C.2.b. Semantically, hao indicates a possible or potential result of Component I. caineng indicates the preceding statement is a necessary prerequisite for producing certain expected results (in Component II).

C.2.c. Therefore, in certain cases hao and caineng are not interchangeable.

(17) 我想买一个录音机来录音。 I am planning to get a tape recorder so as to make recordings.

(18) 我准备补习英文好进美国的学校。 He plans to brush up on his English so as to enter an American school.

(19) 上边的命令考试及格才能升班。 We have orders that only those who pass the examination can be promoted.

(20) 要是他不去，你才能去。 If he declines to go, then you can go.

In these illustrations, hao and caineng are not interchangeable.

Therefore, while caineng is used strictly in Component II of a conditional construction, hao may be used in any construction that indicates a cause-effect relationship or an action-purpose relationship.

C.3. Compare hao and lai...lai (来...来) and/or zu...zu (去...去).

C.3.a. Both are used to indicate purpose:

(21) 我到纽约来好念书。 I come to New York so as to study.

(22) 我到纽约来念书来。

(23) 我开车好把东西带去。 I will drive so as to bring all the things with me.

(24) 我开车去把东西带去。
C.3.b. hao is an adverb; lai...lai or qu...qu is a disjunctive verb phrase. Therefore, structures which may be joined by hao are unlimited (III-c.1.b) while structures which may be joined by lai...lai or qu...qu are restricted in the following ways:

C.3.b.1. The two structures must share a common topic—a personal noun or pronoun.

C.3.b.2. One of the two structures must have lai or qu, and thus must involve "going" or "coming".

C.3.b.3. Component II may not be negative.
The Usage of VP/S haole

I. Forms:
   A. VP - haole
   B. S - haole

II. Examples:
   A.1. Since you do not like to cook, how about this—I will cook and you will wash dishes.
   A.2. How about doing it this way? I will loan you my book.
   B.1. How about letting me (or why don't I) loan you my book?
   B.2. Since you do not like to cook, how about letting me cook (or why don't I cook) and you wash the dishes?

III. Notes:
   A.1. The form haole (好了) may be used in many different ways.

The discussion here will concentrate on two of the Bound Form usages: Verb Phrase - haole and T-C construction - haole.

   A.2. As a bound form, haole suffixed to a verb phrase (VP) or a Topic-Comment construction (S) indicates a suggestion and therefore for this discussion will be designated as a suggestion marker.

   A.3. Briefly, when haole is suffixed to a phrase, it converts the phrase into a suggestion introducer. When haole is suffixed to a T-C it converts the T-C from a statement of fact to a statement of suggestion.

   B.1. In Form A, the phrase is restricted to the following:
B.2: An important characteristic of *haole* is that it must occur with another sentence. Expressions of the type with *haole* implicitly indicate that there is a suggestion, but that the suggestion is not explicitly stated in the phrase to which *haole* is suffixed.

Therefore, these phrases are logically incomplete in themselves and the missing suggestion must be presented in a separate statement, which always follows the phrase containing *haole*. As such, this usage of *haole* must be a part of a compound sentence.

(4) 那么着好了，你把钱给我我替你买

How about doing it another way—you give me the money and I will buy it for you.

In the above example, 那么着好了 is the introducer of the suggestion. 把钱给我我替你买 is the statement of suggestion.

It is important to note that if the normal order is reversed, and the suggestion precedes the introducer, the structure becomes NA. For instance:

How about this/that way...?
C.1. In Form B, T-C construction haole, the sentence is restricted
to a statement of suggestion. Therefore, certain types of constructions
are automatically excluded, namely, Topic-Description, Topic-Existence,
Topic-Identification with EV shi (是 ) and xing (姓 ), and Topic-
Function with Aux VP and Resultative Verbs.

Examples of types of constructions which may be suffixed with
haole and converted from statements of fact to statements of suggestion
are listed below:

(5) 你在家好了? * *
     How about if you stay home? (Topic-Location)

(6) 你吃好了? *
     How about if you eat? (Topic-Function)

(7) 你开出去好了? * * *
     How about if you drive out there? (Topic-Function with
     complex verb)

(8) 你替我买好了? *
     How about if you would buy it for me? (Topic-Function
     with CO-VP)

(9) 你当主角好了? *
     How about if you take the leading role? (Topic-
     Identification)

(10) 你去主角的父亲好了? *
     How about if you would take the part of the hero's
     father? (Topic-Identification)

C.2. The T-C construction to which haole is suffixed can be either
simple or compound, affirmative or negative. In a compound sentence,
haole is suffixed to the last component. For example:

(11) 你来。 → 你来好了?
     How about coming yourself? (Simple S, affirmative)

(12) 你不要。 → 你不要好了?
     How about refusing it? (Simple S, negative)
The T-C construction may be declarative or imperative, but not narrative.

(15) 我明天去 → 我明天去好了?
     (declarative) How about my going tomorrow?
     Why don't I go tomorrow?
     (Imperative) How about waiting here?
     Why don't you wait here?
     (narrative) He writes neatly.

(17) 他写得清楚 → *他写得清楚好了
     (narrative) He does things properly.

C.3. The T-C construction may be followed by a “?” or “.” depending on the tone of voice of the speaker. In other words, it may be a suggestion (for someone) to follow, or a suggestion (for someone) to consider.

It may be translated as “I suggest that you...do such and such,” or “Would it be all right if...?”

D. Comparison of Form A and Form B:

Form A is not an independent statement, and is always followed by a comma and a statement of suggestion; therefore it is always part of a compound sentence. Form B is an independent statement and is the suggestion itself.
and it is a complete sentence structure, therefore may be followed by a period or a question mark. It may also become part of a compound sentence.

Both Form A and Form B may be followed by a Question Phrase (i.e., v-ku-v-type, v-me type) but may not be directly followed by a question particle:

(19) 你怎么了?

(20) 你去不去好?

Those Question Phrases, by their nature, are constructions separate from the Phrase haole and from the T-C construction haole.

E. Comparison of haole and ha (吧):

E.1. By suffixing either haole or ha to a phrase as in Form A or a T-C construction, a suggestion is indicated. But haole may be suffixed either to a negative or an affirmative sentence, while ha may only be suffixed to an affirmative sentence to mean a suggestion.

(21) 你不去好?

(22) 你不去吧?

E.2. When ha is suffixed to a negative sentence it functions as a particle for confirmation. It indicated a question, not a suggestion.
E.3. When *haole* is suffixed to a negative sentence, it maintains its
function as a marker of suggestion. The key distinction between *haole*
in an affirmative and in a negative statement is as follows:
Affirmative statement - *haole*: It opens the topic for discussion or
further negotiation.
Negative statement - *haole*: It offers an alternative, sometimes the
only alternative, not anticipating further discussion.

For example:

(23) 我们一块去好了？
(What do you think? How
about it?)

(24) 你不理他好了？
(If he does not like you),
How about ignoring him?
(Will that solve the problem?)
The Usage of *jian X jiu Y*

I. Forms:
   A. *jian X jiu Y*
   B. *jian X, jiu Y*

II. Examples:
   A.1. 见人就笑
   A.2. 见钱就拿
   A.3. 见糖就吃
   A.4. 见烟就抽
   B.1. 见主人不添酒就敲着桌子喊道：
       “添酒来！”
   B.2. 见老虎已经打死就想把它拖下山去。
   B.3. 见有人吃东西就走过去了。
   B.4. 见我吃了点酒就用说话来吓我。

III. Notes:
   A. Form A and Form B do not necessarily mean 'seeing X' but usually mean 'whenever X, Y.'
   B.1. Form A is a contracted construction of two VPs, $VP^1$ is a Verb-Object (noun), and $VP^2$ is Adverb-Verb, *jian* $VP$. There can never be a pause between the two VPs in Form A.
Whenever there are books, he will buy them. He buys books indiscriminately.

Whenever there is liquor, he will drink it.

Whenever there are weeds, pull them.

Whenever they find gunpowder they confiscate it.

The noun in \( vP^1 \) must be a simple noun. Although single syllable nouns are most common, multiple syllable nouns may also be used (4).

B.2. Form A can have only one topic in direct construction with \( vP^1 \) and \( vP^2 \). Therefore, the topic must precede both \( vP^1 \) and \( vP^2 \) – \( jian \ N \ jiu \ vP \).

He smiles at whomever he sees.

This child eats candy whenever and wherever he can find it.

B.3. Form A is derived from the following:

\( vi \ meici \ jian \ N \ jiu \ v \quad \text{每次见 就} \)

Therefore the whole expression is used to comment on the customary or habitual behavior of the topic.

B.4. The verb \( jian \) (见) in \( vP^1 \) may have the following suffixes indicating that \( jian \) is accomplished, rather than indicating that the whole expression happened in the past.

Whenever he meets someone he smiles.

(same)

(same)
Thus, they may occur with adverb \( yi \) (一) and/or \( mei \) (每次).

For instance:

(8) a. 

As soon as he meets someone he smiles.

(8) b. Everytime he meets someone he smiles.

(8) c. 

(same)

(8) d. 

(same)

(8) e. 

(same)

C. Compare \( yi \ X \) jiu Y and \( jian \ X \) jiu Y.

C.1. In \( yi \ X \) jiu Y, the \( X \) is a VP; in \( jian \ X \) jiu Y, the \( X \) is a N.

(9) 一见他他想你。

As soon as I see him, I think of you.

(10) 见 (书) 他就想你。

Whenever I see him I miss you.

C.2. In \( yi \ X \) jiu Y, \( yi \) is an adverb; in \( jian \ X \) jiu Y, \( jian \) is a verb.

Adverbs can precede any verb including \( jian \) in \( jian \ X \) jiu Y. Thus, sentence (12) below may be a part of sentence (11).

(11) 一见他就着意。

As soon as I see him I am worried.

(12) ( ) 见他着意。

Whenever I see him I am worried.

C.3. \( yi \ X \) jiu Y may either have a single topic or two different topics—

'Topic 1: \( yi \ X \), Topic 2: jiu Y.' (Sentences (14) and (15) below). jian X jiu Y may have only one single topic — 'Topic jian X jiu Y.'

(13) 

Whenever he sees books, he wants to buy them.

(14) 

As soon as he comes here he is happy.

(15) 

As soon as he comes, you are happy.
Because of the above distinction, $yi\ X\ jiu\ Y$ can accommodate a
pause, formally indicated by a comma - $yi\ X, jiu\ Y$, while $jian\ X\ jiu\ Y$
cannot.

D.1. Form B is similar to Form A in that the structure consists of
$VP^1$ and $VP^2$, where $VP^1$ is $jian\ X$ and $VP^2$ is $jiu\ VP$. However, the variables
$X$ and $Y$ do not have restrictions as those in Form A.

(16) Seeing the broken things strewn over the ground, she knew that something
had happened.

(17) He saw a lot of miscellaneous articles and felt surprised.

(18) In view of the fact that the work was done, he prepared
to go home.

(19) Seeing the picture he again remembered the many
heartbreaking events.

(20) Seeing that the fire lit up the sky, she led her family
away.

(21) Seeing that it could not be accomplished, he found an
excuse and left.

D.2. Form B may otherwise be expressed by the following:

'[zai/dang/dengdao....de shihou]' (sentence (22) below).

(22) When the job was completed, he left.

(23) When he saw the pictures, he was deeply moved and
cried.
D.3. As in the case of rei/dang, when the X in jian X is a VP or a T-C, jian is optional. For instance:

(24) (见)人笑就笑。Whenever others smile, he smiles.
(25) (见)人打架就躲开。Whenever there is a fight, he tries to get away.

D.4. As in any compound sentence where the first component presents the condition, cause, etc., and jiu introduces the consequence, results, etc., it is possible to express the degree of 'inevitability' either by changing the adverb jiu to yushi (于是) to indicate an ordinary temporal sequence by changing it to eik (才) to indicate the consequence which takes place only under specific circumstances. For example:

(26)a 他见工作完于是准备走。When the work is done, then prepare to leave.
(26)b 他见工作完马上准备走。When the work is done, he will immediately leave.
(26)c 他见工作完才准备走。He will not prepare to leave until the work is done.

E. In summary, the following are the similarities and dissimilarities between Forms A and B:

a. Form A: yi is optional
   Form B: jian is optional
b. Form A: X is N
   Form B: X may be NP, VP, or T-C construction
c. Form A: There is no pause between jian X and jiu Y.
   Form B: There may be a pause between them, indicated by a comma.
d. Form A: It may be used with adverbs yi (一) or meich (每走)
Form B: It may be used with phrases zai/dang/dangde...de shihou

e. Form A: There may only be one single topic that must come before jian x jiu y.
Form B: There may be two topics, either used before jian x or jiu y.

f. Form A: It must maintain the form jian x jiu y.
Form B: It may be expressed with adverbs mashang (马上), cao (才), yushi (于是), etc., instead of jiu (就).

Footnote: In idiomatic and formulaic expressions where the VP^2 is a multisyllabic expression or a Verb-Object construction, jiu may be omitted. For instance:

\[ \text{jian } \text{vp}\]
\[ \text{ VP}\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>见利</th>
<th>益义 [Whenever there is profit he forgets righteousness.]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>冯人</td>
<td>忘好 at the sight of money.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>见顺</th>
<th>衍轮 [Whenever the wind blows, direct your rudder accordingly:]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>显风</td>
<td>转轮 Sail with the wind.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
23 The Usage of Aux VP\(^1\) jiu VP\(^1\)  

I. Form:  

Aux VP\(^1\) jiu VP\(^1\)  

II. Examples:  

A. 能买房就买房子。  
   Buy a house when you can.  
B. 不能买房就不买房。  
   Don't buy houses if you can't afford it.  
C. 不能买房就不买。  
   Don't buy a house if you don't have to.  

III. Notes:  

A. This is basically a variation of a conditional construction (i.e., condition-consequence). It is derived from yaoshi Aux VP\(^1\) jiu VP\(^1\) (要是 Aux VP\(^1\) 就 VP\(^1\)) with yaoshi omitted.  

B.1. There are two components linked in a condition-consequence relationship. The basic elements are: (1) the Aux VP in Component I, (2) jiu (就) in Component II, and (3) the VP of Aux VP\(^1\) repeated in Component II.  

B.2. Negation of this pattern may be accomplished in one of two ways:  

1. By negating the Aux VP in Component I and the VP in Component II. The negative marker bu (不) is always used in Component I. However, bu, bie (别), or buyong (不用) may be used in Component II.  

   (1) 你不愿买就不买。  
      Don't buy it if you don't want to.  
   (2) 你不愿买就别买。  
      Unless you want to buy it, don't.  
   (3) 你不愿买就不用买。  
      If you don't want to buy it, there is no need to.
b. By negating only the verb in both components, the only negative marker to be used is bu.

(4) 你想不买就不买。  If you prefer not to buy it, don't buy it.

B.3. The object of both the Aux VP in Component I and the repeated VP in Component II may be explicitly stated.

(5) 你想买房子就买房子。  Buy a house if you want to.
(6) 你不想买房子就不买房子。  Don't buy a house if you don't want to.
(7) 你想不买房子就不买房子。  Don't buy a house if you prefer not to.

When the object is not explicitly stated, there must be a prestated object:

(8) 这所房子你想买就买。  [As for this house, if you want to buy it, buy it.]

B.4. Usually, the use of different Aux Verbs does not significantly change the meaning of the pattern, but when the Aux Verb is de (得), the meaning of the pattern changes in the following way:

(9) 你得作就作。  [If you get a chance to do it, then do it.]

Example (9) implies that 'you had better do it when you get a chance.' Other Aux Verbs do not have this coercive connotation. For example:

(10) 你应该作就作。  Do it if you should.
(11) 你会作就作。  Do it if you know how.

Furthermore, for de...jiu... (得....就....) there is an alternate semi-literary form, de...gai... (得...且...). Thus (9) may be stated as follows:
B.5. The semi-literary form de...die... has more restrictions in usage, as is the case in many semi-literary forms.

a. For instance, in the colloquial form Aux VP^1 liu VP^1, the VP may have a verb and object as in (13) below:

(13) 他能教中国史就读中国史。  
He may teach Chinese history if he is capable of doing so.

(14) 你得学点能学点吧！  
You had better learn some skills when you get the chance to.

However, the semi-literary form de...die may not have a VO compound or Verb-Object construction.

b. There are vocabulary restrictions as well. Compare the following:

(15) 抱怨人的时间饶人。  
Forgive others when you can.

(16) 抱怨人处且饶人。  

(17) 过过一天就过一天。  
Live one day at a time, or make do with what comes.

(18) 过过且过。  

More literary vocabulary is necessary as is demonstrated by the choice of chu (处) over difang (地方).

c. The more concise expression in (18) is an example of another constraint of a literary usage.

d. The colloquial form may have negated versions (see B.2 above), but the semi-literary form may not.

* 得不说且不说。  
NA

* 不得过且不过。  
NA
B.6. The subjects of Components I and II are always identical and the subject of Component II may be omitted (as is below).

(19)a 你会看书 你就看书。
       Read a book when you can.

(19)b 你会看书 ( ) 就看书。

B.7. The adverb jiu is not optional in the following cases:

a. When the Aux Verb is affirmative, and
b. When the VPs (VP1 and VP2) are consistently affirmative or consistently negative (+Aux + VP1 jiu + VP2).

(20)a 你能唱 就 唱。
       Sing if you can.

(20)b 你能唱 ( ) 唱。
       NA

(21)a 你能不唱 就 不唱。
       Don't sing if you can get out of singing.

(21)b 你能 ( ) 不唱。
       NA

The adverb jiu is optional in either of the following cases:

a. When the Aux VP1 and VP2 are consistently negated: (+Aux VP1 jiu + VP2)

b. When the whole structure is duplicated and contrasted affirmatively and negatively:
(+ Aux VP1 jiu + VP2), (- Aux VP1 jiu - VP2).

(22)a 你不能唱 就 不唱。
       Don't sing if you cannot sing.

(22)b 你不能唱 ( ) 不唱。

(23)a 你能唱 就 唱，不能唱就不唱。
       Sing if you can, don't if you cannot.

(23)b 你能 ( ) 唱，不能 ( ) 唱。

(24)a 你应当买 就 买，不应当买就不买。
       Buy it if you should, don't buy it if you should not.
Thus, *jiu* is optional when both components are negated, as illustrated in B.I.A. and if the whole structure is duplicated and contrasted, as in the illustrations (23) and (24) above.
24 The Usage of QW Phrase$^1$ jiu QW Phrase$^2$ QW Phrase$^1$ 就 QW Phrase$^2$

I. Form:

QW Phrase$^1$ jiu QW Phrase$^2$

II. Examples:

A. 你喜欢谁你就请谁。
   Invite whoever you like.

B. 你要什么我就买什么。
   I will buy whatever you want.

C. 谁想来谁就来。
   Whoever wants to come will come.

D. 他什么好看就买什么。
   He buys whatever is pretty.

III. Notes:

A. This is a combination of the following two patterns with slight modification:

(a) non-interrogative usages of QW

(1) 谁都想来。
   Every one wants to come.

(2) 他不买什么。
   He does not buy anything special

(b) conditional usage

(3) (东西)要是便宜就好卖。
   It will be easy to sell if it is inexpensive.

(4) (东西)要是便宜就给你买。
   I will buy it for you if it is cheap.

Therefore the basic meaning of the QW Phrase$^3$ jiu QW Phrase$^2$ is:

\[ \text{whenever/whichever/wherever/whomsoever } \text{VP}^1 \text{ whichever/whichever/wherever/whomsoever } \text{VP}^1 \]

B.1. There are two basic components in this structure:
Component I is the condition and Component II is the consequence. They are linked by (1) the usage of adverb jiu (就) in the second component, indicating the causal relationship between them and (2) the repeated usage of a QW in its non-interrogative function in both components.

B.2. The construction types of the two components may or may not be identical. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II: Construction types and meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(5) 什么有用</td>
<td>什么就贵  Topic Description + Topic Description  Whatever is useful is expensive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) 什么有用</td>
<td>他就什么 Topic Description + Topic Function He wants (accepts) whatever is useful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) 你需要什么</td>
<td>你买什么 Topic Function + Topic Function You buy whatever you need.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) 谁想买</td>
<td>谁买 Topic Function + Topic Function Whoever wants to buy it, may buy it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) 哪个是你的</td>
<td>你就拿哪个 Topic Identification + Topic Function Take whichever is yours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) 字典在哪</td>
<td>书在哪 Topic Location + Topic Location The place where the dictionary is is where the book is.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B.3. The QNs in components I and II must be identical, though their functions may differ.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
<th>QN Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>什么有用</td>
<td>什么就去</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Subject + Subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>什么有用</td>
<td>他就拿什么</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Subject + Object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.4. The conditional relationship may be expressed with structural signals such as "yi... jiu..." (要是 ... 就 ...), "ruquo... jiu..." (如果 ... 就 ...), "zhivao... jiu..." (只要 ... 就 ...), etc.

Since the signal is optional, one may omit it.

(11a) 要是你不念书你就不能毕业。 If you don’t study you can’t graduate.

(11b) 你不是念书你就不能毕业。

(11c) 你不念书( )不能毕业。

In the case of (11c), the conditional relationship between these two components is expressed only by the sequential arrangement of the two components.

(12a) 谁要是有钱谁就买。 Whoever has money may buy this painting.

(12b) 谁( )有钱谁( )买。

(12c) 谁有钱谁买。

B.5. When the QNs used in this structure are objects of verbs in the components, the subjects of verb phrases in both components may differ.

For example:

(13) 你想请谁我就( )谁写信。 I will extend an invitation to whomever you want to invite.
When the second subject is omitted, there are the following rules concerning the adverb *jiu*:

a. If the VP in Component I is an Aux VP (i.e., Auxiliary V - V - O) the adverb *jiu* is optional.

(14) 你要到哪去就到哪去。  Go wherever you want.
(14)a 你要到哪去( )到哪去。

(15) 你爱怎么用你就怎么用。  Use it whichever way you like to.
(15)a 你爱怎么用( )怎么用。

b. If the VP in Component I is a simple Verb-Object and it is repeated in Component II (i.e., Verb₁-Verb₁, *jiu* Verb₁-Verb₁), the adverb *jiu* is not optional.

(16)a 你说什么你就说什么。  Say whatever you like.
(16)b 你说什么( )说什么

* NA

(16)c 你说什么( )说什么

NA

c. If the VP in Component I is a simple Verb-Object and is different with the VP in Component II (i.e., V₁-V₂, *jiu* V₂-V₂), adverb *jiu* is optional.

(17) 你爱什么你就有什么。  You will have whatever you desire.
(18) 他说什么( )是为什么。  Whatever he says goes.
C. Compare (a) QW Phrase jiu QW Phrase and (b) Aux VP jiu VP.

C.1. Both are variant forms of conditional constructions such as yaoshi..., jiu..., and both therefore consist of two components: Component I presenting the condition and Component II presenting the consequence.

C.2. In addition to jiu as a structural feature, both have certain repeated elements. In (a) the repeated element is the QW. In (b) the repeated element is the VP.

C.3. When both (a) and (b) share similar features in their respective Component I (i.e., Aux VP), the adverb jiu is optional in (a) but not in (b).

C.4. The particular optional feature of jiu in (a) demonstrates that the repeated QW in both components is an important structural signal for the condition-consequence relationship of the components. In contrast, jiu as an obligatory feature of (b) indicates that the repeated VP is of no significance to the structural linkage of the components.
The Usage of vp1 _attention_ vp1 de shi X  

I. Forms:
   A.  vp1_jiu V  de shi NP/VP/S
   B.  SV1_jiu SV  de shi NP/VP/S

II. Examples:
   A.1. 怕就怕是你。  
       [The one which is being feared is none other than you.]  
       You are the one I fear.
   A.2. 苦就苦的是不识字。  
       [That which is suffered is being illiterate.]  
       Being illiterate is precisely the reason for suffering.
   A.3. 疼就疼的是他孝顺。  
       [That which is treasured and loved is his being filial.]  
       His being filial is the reason why he is loved.
   A.4. 恨就恨的是他不争气。  
       [That which is greatly regretted is his lack of ambition.]  
       What is regrettable is his lack of ambition.
   A.5. 讨厌就讨厌的是他坏嘴子。  
       [That which is objectionable is his being a chatterbox.]  
       His being a chatterbox is the reason why he is objectionable.
   B.1. 好就好是他有钱。  
       [That which is fortunate is his being rich.]  
       His being rich is precisely what is fortunate.
   B.2. 坏就坏是他太老。  
       [That which is bad is being old.]  
       Its toughness is precisely why it is bad.
   B.3. 贵就贵的是他的签名。  
       [That which is expensive is his signature.]  
       His signature is precisely what makes it expensive.

III. Notes
   A. This structure is used to indicate emphatically the object or the purpose of an action or a comment/description.
B.1. The two variables 'X' in this structure must be identical.

They may, however, be either verbs or SVs.

(1) 卖就卖的是他的名。 What sells it is his name.

(2) 否认就否认的是这一点。 What is denied is precisely this point.

(3) 爱就爱的是这块玉。 What is treasured is this piece of jade.

(4) 好就好的是没人知道。 What is fortunate is that no one else knows it.

(5) 糊涂就糊涂的是这儿。 What he is confused about is this point.

They may be single syllable words such as those in sentences II.A.1, 2, 3, and 4; II.B.1, 2, and 2; and (1), (3), and (4), or they may be multi-syllabic as in II.A.5, (2), and (5). Single syllable words are most frequently used in this structure, and VO compounds are never used here.

Expressions consisting of VO compounds may be stated in the following manner: \( v^1 \) 就 \( v^1 \) 的是 NP:

(6) 做就做的是给他吃的饭。 What is prepared is his food.

When I cook, I only cook for him.
Whether the variable $X$ in this structure is a verb or a $SV_i$, it is never negative. Negative qualities, intentions, etc. must be expressed in positive terms. Thus:

- 不喜欢就不喜欢的是你
  (correct)
  You are the person I despise.
- 不好就不好的是太老
  NA
- 坏就坏的是太老
  (correct)
  Same as II.B.2.

B.2. The variable $Y$ in this structure can be one of the following:

**NP:**

- (11) 得罪就得罪的是他。
  He is the one who is offended.
- (12) 要就要的是珠宝玉器。
  Precious collections are what are desired.
- (13) 好就好的是这点聪明。
  This bit of cleverness is just why he is valued.

**VP:**

- (14) 怕就怕的是不东西。
  What is feared is the inability to eat.
- (15) 饕就吃的是重归故里。
  What is greatly hoped for is to return to one's own home town.
- (16) 可怜就可怜的是无依无靠。
  Being destitute is what is pitiful.
(17) His not being discovered is just what is regrettable.

(18) What is greatly sought after is the peace and security of one's family.

(19) His refusal to work hard is just what makes him hateful.

When $Y$ is a VP or a T-C, it can be either affirmative (such as (15) and (18)), or negative (such as (4), (6), (7), and (19)).

B.3. The whole structure can be used in a larger structure as a comment in a Topic-Comment construction.

Form A:

$X$ 就 $X$ 的是 $Y$ → Topic $X$ 就 $X$ 的是 $Y$

(II.A.1) 他怕就怕的是你

(II.A.5) 他讨厌就讨厌的是他碎假子

Form B - when $Y$ is not a T-C construction:

$X$ 就 $X$ 的是 $Y$ → Topic $X$ 就 $X$ 的是 $Y$

(15) 他在偷的是重归故里

(16) 他可怜就可怜的是无依无靠

(5) 他糊涂就糊涂的是这儿

(II.B.2) 他坏就坏的是太老
Form B - When Y is a T-C construction:

a. X* Y

b. X 110,11 Y.

From the following illustrations of the transformation process, the characteristics of this structure are revealed.

Form A has been transformed from a basic structure of a verb and its object (X=Verb, Y=Object). In the first step of the transformation, the V-O structure is changed into a Topic-identification construction. X Y X 110,11 Y. From X 110,11 Y, a second step transformation for the sake of emphasis and of exclusiveness involves repeating the verb and employing the adverb before X 110,11 Y. The complete process is shown below:

Basic: X Y (X is the Functive Verb and Y the Object)

Step 1: X 110,11 Y

Step 2: X 110,11 Y.
When the similar transformation process is applied to a different basic structure, the result is Form B. For Form B, the basic structure is \( X \) is because \( Y \).

The entire transformation process is shown below:

Basic: \( X \) is because \( Y \)

Step 1: \( X \) is \( Y \)

Step 2: \( X \) is \( Y \)

(6)a 好是因为他有钱

(6)b 好的是他有钱

(6)c 好就好的是他有钱
The Usage of X jiushi Y

I. Form:

X jiushi Y

II. Examples:

A. 他就是要赌个结局。
   He just wants to gamble.
   He insists on gambling.
   He is the one who wants to gamble.

B. 他就是不谈政治。
   He insists on not talking about politics.
   He just won't talk about politics.
   He is the one who will not talk about politics.

C. 他就是不思。
   He persistently acts irresponsibly.
   He is the one who acts irresponsibly.
   He just acts irresponsibly.

III. Notes:

A. Briefly, in addition to the well-recognized usages of jiushi (就是), meaning 'none other than' and 'just, only,' there are other varied semantic functions which are determined by structures, construction types, and other linguistic environments. Two of them will be examined here, namely, the emphasis of the topic ('he is the one') and the obstinacy or perversity of the topic.

A.2. In the structure X jiushi Y, variable X is the topic, variable Y is the VP, and jiushi is the adverb that precedes the VP. jiushi together with the VP constitute the comment. In other words, this structure is a Topic-Comment construction: NP jiushi VP.
A.3. There are four different semantic functions of jiushi. The word jiushi may occur in all T-C construction types, each of which has a different connotation from the other. For instance:

a. Topic-Identification: NP$^1$ jiushi NP$^2$

(1) 他就是我朋友。 He is none other than my friend. [He is the one who is my friend.]
He is just my friend. [Nothing more than that]

b. Topic-Description: NP$^1$ jiushi SVP

(2) 他就是懒。 He is only lazy.
He is the one who is lazy.

c. Topic-Location: NP$^1$ jiushi zai PW

(3) 他在家。 He is the one who is at home.

d. Topic-Existence: PW jiushi you NP

(4) 这儿就是有中国书。 There are books here
This place Chinese books.

e. Topic-Function: NP$^1$ jiushi FVP

(5) 他就是做中国饭。 He is the one who cooks Chinese food.
He cooks Chinese food only.
He insists on cooking Chinese food.

There are four different semantic functions of jiushi:

i. 'none other than'

(6) "记得我跟你说的那本书吗？" "Remember the book I told you about?"
"记得。" "Yes, I remember."
"就是这本。" "This is it."
ii. 'only, nothing else'

(7) 他什么都好就是懒。

He has many good qualities, the only problem is that he is lazy.
[He is O.K. except for being a bit lazy.]

iii. 'to be the one'

(8) "你们谁也不知道这个是什么？"

"他就是知道。"

None of you knows what that is? [He is one who knows]
He does.

(9) "你们没人会说中国话！"

"谁说的？我就是会！"

Not even one of you can speak Chinese? Who says so?
[I am one who can speak Chinese.]
I can!

iv. 'to be insistent'

(10) 我们都劝他不要去，他就是不听。

We have all tried to tell him not to go. He just won't listen.

Among the various construction types, the four semantic functions are distributed in the following ways:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Topic-Identification</th>
<th>Topic-Description</th>
<th>Topic-Location</th>
<th>Topic-Existence</th>
<th>Topic-Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the illustrations given in the preceding section, it is clear that not all of the functions of jiushì are commonly shared by all construction types.

Function i is exclusively used in Topic-Identification.

Function ii is used in Topic-Description, Topic-Existence, and Topic-Function.
Function iii is used in all five types.

Function iv is used only in Topic-Function construction.

In short, aside from the well-known function of 'none other than,' and 'only,' the most frequent semantic function is (iii) and the most unique, though not necessarily less frequent, is (iv). Here we will examine these semantic functions, (iii) and (iv).

B.1. The word jiuhō in semantic function (iii) indicates an exception to the remark which has just been made.

(11) 甲对乙：“我敢说你一个朋友也没有。”
丙对乙：“不用听他的，
我就是你朋友。”

(12) 甲：“我敢说我们这儿没有人懒。”
乙：“谁说的？他呢？他不就是懒吗？”

(13) 甲：“我们都得出去工作，没有例外。”
乙：“那么她呢？
为什么她就躲在家里？”

(14) 甲：“这个地方真糟，
连一张本地的地图都买不到。”
乙：“真的吗？老王店里就是有地图。”

(15) 甲：“没人喜欢中国饭，
我就不做中国饭了。”
乙：“怎么呢？我就是喜欢中国饭。”

A to B: "You don't even have a single friend, I bet!"
C to B: "Don't listen to him. I am your friend."

A: "I can declare that none of us is lazy."
B: "Oh yeah? How about him? He is lazy."

A: "We all have to go out to work. No one can be exempted from it."
B: "Well then, how about her? Why does she just stay home?"

A: "This place is terrible. I cannot even find a place which sells local maps."
B: "Really? Lao Wang's store has them."

A: "Nobody likes Chinese food. I am not going to make Chinese dishes any more."
B: "Why do you say no one likes it? I do."
In most of these illustrations, the word *jiushi* may be shortened to *jiu* (就) except in Topic-Identification constructions.

B.2. Generally, in spoken language, this usage of *jiushi* may be readily distinguished from others by intonation, with primary stress on the topic. For instance:

(11) 我就是你朋友。
(12) 他就是懒。
(13) 她就是在家。
(14) 老王店里就是有地图。
(15) 我就是喜欢中国饭。

But, in the written language, where intonation markers are missing, this usage may only be distinguished from the others by context. For instance:

(16) 甲： “谁都很勤快，没人象你这么懒！” 乙： “老王就是懒。”
    A: “Everyone else is diligent, no one is as lazy as you are!”  B: “Lao Wang is lazy.”

(17) 甲： “老王有很多特长技能。” 乙： “老王就是懒。”
    A: “Lao Wang is good at many things.”  B: “He is just lazy.”

B.3. The usage of *jiushi* in its semantic function (iii) may occur with either an affirmative VP or a negative VP. It may include a statement of past, present, or future events or habitual happenings. For instance:

(18) 他就是不听话。  He is the one who does not listen to others (habitual)
(19) 他就是不想去。  He is the one who will not/does not want to go (present or future)
B.4. In this usage, the structure X jiushi Y may be expanded to be 
X jiushi Y de N. For instance, (12) is expanded to be (21):

(12) 他就是懒。
(21) 他就是懒的人。

The transformation process of (21) to (12) is as follows:

(21) 他就是懒的人。
→ 他就是懒。

(12) 他就是懒。

And (12) may be further contracted to (22)

(22) 他就是懒。

B.5. The VP with which jiushi is used in semantic function (iii) may 
have the following aspect markers:

(5a) 他就是做中国饭。
He is one who makes Chinese food.

(5b) 他就是做过中国饭。
He is one who has experienced making Chinese food.

(5c) 他就是做了中国饭。
He is one who made Chinese food.

(5d) 他就是等著你呢。
He is one who is waiting for you.
C.1. When jiushi indicates the speaker/topic's perversity in committing certain acts, (iv), the structure X jiushi Y is a Topic-Function construction. (See III-A.3.)

C.2. The word jiushi in its semantic function (iv) is distinguished from other usages by intonation in spoken language. For instance:

(23) a. 他就是要看书。
   b. 他就是要看书。
   c. 他就是要看书。

But, in the written language, where intonation markers are absent, usages (iv) and (ii) have to be distinguished by the context. For instance:

(24) "太不好意思了！你们没有人要看书！"
   A: "How come no one wants to read? Shame on you!"
   B: "no wants to read."

(25) "大夫叫他休息不要看书。"
   A: "The doctor asked him to rest and not to use his eyesight in reading."
   B: "What can I do? He insists on reading."

C.3. This usage may occur with affirmative VP or negative VP.

(25) 他就是要看． (affirmative)
(26) 他就是不看书． (negative)

C.4. The time element may not be expressed within the structure X jiushi Y, but occurs either before or after it and the aspect marker le (了) cannot be used.

(25) 他就是要看。 (correct)
D. Comparison of (iii) and (iv) and others:

D.1. In addition to their differences in intonation patterns and construction types, they are different also in the fact that (iii) may have a VP with *guo* (活), *le* (了), or *she...n* (说...呢) markers, but (iv) may not.

D.2. Semantic function (iv) compared to adverb *fei* (非) or *si* (死):

D.2.a. *feiyao* (非要), *siyu* (死鱼), and *jiushi* may all occur in Topic-Function construction to mean insistence, persistence, and determination against all odds, to do something. However, adverb *si* (死) or *siyu*
I may be used with a negative verb phrase only.

(32) 他就是要在看。
He insists on seeing it.

(33) 他非要去看。
(same as above)

(34) 他死(也)要看。
NA

(35) 他非不看。
He persistently refuses to see it.

(36) 他死也不看。
(same as above)

D.2.b. Each of the adverbs may have an abbreviated form. jiu or jiuhi may both occur before either an affirmative VP or a negative VP.

si or sive may both occur only before a negative VP. However, the difference between fei and feiyao is that the former may occur with either affirmative or negative VPs, but the latter may occur with only affirmative VPs. In short, they are used as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affirmative VP:</th>
<th>Negative VP:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他 看书（……）</td>
<td>他 不看书（……）</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{ 就是</td>
<td>非 }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>就</td>
<td>非要</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D.2.c. The adverb 耳(yao) reflects only the intentional commitment of the subject to do the action, 具体 in addition reflects the circumstantial pressure for such a commitment, while 给 represents the most determined attitude, or inherent ability or inability.

(37) a 他死也不去。
(37) b 他就是不去。
(37) c 他非不去。
(38) a 他死也学不会。
(38) b 他就是学不会。
(38) c 他非学不会

intention alone
innate ability

(NA)
The Usage of "来"

I. Form:

X 来 (On M N)

II. Examples:

A. 我们要打球你来不来？
   We want to play ball. Would you like to join us?

B. 这件事我办不了你来吧？
   I cannot handle this matter. You had better do it.

C. 他不会做饭下厨房来一气。
   He does not know how to cook; he is in the kitchen just fooling around.

D. 这个钉子没打进，你得再来一下！
   This nail is not securely hammered in. You have to hammer once more.

E. 好酒！再来一杯！
   Excellent wine! Have another!

F. 咱们来两盘麻将呀！
   How about having a couple of rounds of Mah-Jongg?

G. 真想来八圈麻将。
   I really would like to play eight rounds of Mah-Jongg.

H. 这次不作计较，下次再来一套
   我就不客气了。
   I will not say anything this time. If he does it again, I will not be this tolerant.

I. 昨天的迎新晚会节目新颖不落俗套，
   时间的控制也很适宜很受欢迎。明年的迎新会，可以照样来一回。
   The welcome party for the newcomers last night was a success; the program was filled with entertaining numbers, the length of each number was perfectly controlled...in short, it was very well received. Next year, we should do the same as we did last night.

J. 伙计：“张先生您来了！今天来点什么？
   张：“今天就我一个人随便小吃，你给我配几样吧！

   Waiter: “How are you Mr. Zhang? What is your pleasure today?”
   Zhang: “I am by myself, and just want to have a bit.”

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Whatever you recommend.

Waiter: "Well, then, I will serve you a drink with appetizer. After your drink, I will serve you a soup, and a dish that will whet your appetite. Will that be all right?"

Zhang: "Fine."

Attendant: "What would you like to have today?"

Customer: "Get me four pounds of soybean paste, and three pounds of your best sesame oil."

Customer: "You today buy what?"

Attendant: "Whatever you like."... "Would you like to have today?"

Customer: "Get me four pounds of soybean paste, and three pounds of your best sesame oil."

III. Notes:

A. Briefly, the word *lái* (来), besides having a usage as a motion verb or a directional verb ending, has a special pro-verbal usage which will be examined here.

B. I. This special usage of *lái* may be further divided into the following subgroups:

a. *lái* may replace a particular verb or verb phrase already mentioned in the context. It is used as an intransitive verb.

(1) 我们要打纸牌, 你买吗? (We are going to play cards: will you play with us?)

(2) 这个书钉, 没钉住, 再来一下。 (This staple is not properly stapled. Do it once more.)

b. *lái* may replace a particular verb or verb phrase that is in the context implicitly or explicitly and it is followed by a noun or a quantified noun. The verb or verb phrase which *lái* replaces may be deduced from the characteristics of the noun or noun phrase. It is used as a transitive verb.

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Yesterday we played a few rounds of go.

This bottle is straight from our hometown. Have a little.

(3) 昨天我们来了几盘棋。

(4) 这瓶是直接从家乡运来的，来一点。

(5) 他说这次没罚他，他下次再这么来，就不客气了。

(6) "别泄露你的来源。" "为什么？"

"这样下来，没人肯告诉你消息了。"

(7) "今天吃点什么？"

"给我来点好茶，来点水饺。"

b. *lai* may represent a concept expressed in forms beyond the limit of a verb or verb phrase structure. (See 6-3-b below)

(8) "Don't disclose your sources."

"If you do, no one will offer you any information."

"What would you have today?"

"Get me some of your best tea and home-made dumplings."

B.2. This usage of *lai* may occur in the following constructions:

In an affirmative or negative construction, as in sentences (8) through (14), in a question construction, as in sentences (11) through (13), in the completion aspect as in sentence (14), in the resultative form as in sentences (8), (17), and in modified form with adverbs, as in sentences (15) and (16).

(8) *这种工作我来不了，您另请高明吧！* I can't handle this type of job. Please find someone else to do it.
I have played two games, and I am going to stop now. You had better take over.

Are you sure you do not want to do it anymore? Then I will do it.

I suggest we play basketball. Who wants to play?

I am going to stop now. Would you like to do it?

He is not going to do it. Would you do it then?

Yesterday they played ball. Did you play? No.

The ice cream is ready. Who wants it? You must hurry. The weather is too hot. It will melt in no time.

The dumplings are done. We cannot all eat together. You eat first. There is enough for all of us. Let’s eat together.

How about playing a game of go? No. I cannot. If it is chess I can do it, but not if it is go.

B.3. Based on the above description, the behavior of lai is similar to other functive verbs. The differences are:

a. Functive verbs in Chinese clearly prescribe certain types of actions. In contrast, lai does not prescribe any kinds of activities in this special usage.
b. Functive verbs may not be other functive verbs, while lai may take the place of verbs of action or activity. For example.

where lai represents actions mentioned in the context, lai represents da qiy (打球) in (II-A), ban (办) in (II-B), zuofan (做饭) in (II-C), and ding (盯) in (II-D).

where lai represents actions deduced from the noun or number-measure, lai represents he (喝) from yi bei (一杯) in (II-E), xia (下) from wei (围棋) in (II-F), and da (打) from baijiang (麻将) in (II-G).

where lai represents a concept which is expressed in a structure longer than a verb, verb phrase, or Topic-Comment construction.

In (II-H) lai represents a particular type of behavior. One may deduce that what it represents is something unreasonable, unwelcome, or unacceptable from the context.

In (II-I) lai represents a particular way in which the evening program is planned, coordinated, and presented, the description beginning at jiemu (节目) to hen shiyi (很适宜).

where lai represents more complicated verbal concepts, such as two combined different verbal concepts.

In (II-J) lai combines the waiter's na (拿) or dian (点) and the customer's jiao (要), dian (点), or chi (吃).

In (II-K) lai combines the store attendant's sheng (盛) or zhuang (装), or na (拿) and the customer's xiao (小), or mai (买).

Here there is an additional complexity involved in the use of the pro-verb lai. In the structure of X gel Y lai Nu N, lai maintains an actor-action relationship with both X and Y. This complicated relationship
will be discussed in Section C-3 below.

C. Compare the pro-verb *lai* with other pro-verbs:

C.1. In a quantified action structure - Verb Nu M, such as *kan yi ci* (看到了) or duration of action structure - Verb Nu M, such as *kan yi tian* (看一天), *lai* (来) is used in the same manner as the other so-called pro-verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pro-verbs</th>
<th><em>lai</em></th>
<th><em>nong</em></th>
<th><em>suo</em></th>
<th><em>geo</em></th>
<th><em>yan</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nu M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>yi ci</em></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>yi tian</em></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C.2. In the structure X *gei* Y Verb, such as *ta gei ni mai* (他给你买) when the verb is *lai* the structure can only mean 'X is doing something on behalf of Y.' However, when the verb is any of the others, the structure can mean either 'X is doing something on behalf of Y.' or 'X is doing something and will transfer the ownership of the result to Y.'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>X on behalf of Y</th>
<th>X to Y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(18a) 他给你来</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18b) 他给你弄</td>
<td></td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18c) 他给你做</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18d) 他给你摘</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18e) 他给你干</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C.3. In the structure of X *gei* Y Verb Nu M, there is a clear distinction between *lai* and the other pro-verbs, in that the others have applications in common with other functive verbs, while *lai* does not.

(19a) 他给你来一碗汤。

He will get a bowl of soup for you.
All sentences, except (19a), share the following features:

a. **Actor:** ta (他)

   **Action:** main verb governed by the actor (ta)

   **Object:** Nu M N

   **Recipient of the Object:** ni (你)

b. Of all the elements, *gei ni* (给你) may be omitted with no change in the structure or the meaning.

c. If the elements *ta* (他) and *gei* (给) are omitted, the syntactical relationship between the sentence elements becomes:

   **Actor:** ni (你)

   **Action:** main verb governed by the actor *ni*

   **Object:** Nu M N

   **Recipient:** unknown

For instance:

(19)b  他给你弄一碗汤。

( )你弄一碗汤。

(19)c  他给你做一碗汤。

( )你做一碗汤。

(19)d  他给你找一件事。

( )你找一件事。

(19)e  他给你干一件事。

( )你干一件事。
However, in the sentence with *lai* as the main verb, the syntactical relationship between sentence elements is different:

a. Actor: **ta** and **ni**

Action: main verb (here *lai*) governed by **ta** and **ni**

Object: **Nu M N** (一碗汤)

Recipient of the object: **ni**

b. If the element 221 (给你) is omitted, the syntactical relationship between sentence elements becomes:

Actor: **ta**

Action: main verb governed by the actor **ta**

Object: **Nu M N** (一碗汤)

Recipient of the Object: **ta**

For instance:

(19)a 他[给你]来一碗汤。

*He will get a bowl of soup for you.*

(20) 他( )来一碗汤。

*He will have a bowl of soup.*

c. If the elements **ta** (他) and 221 (给你) are omitted, the syntactical relationship changes and the meaning of pro-verb *lai* becomes clearly defined.

(19)a 他给你来一碗汤。

*lai = duanlai - bring here*

*he = to have/to drink*

( )你来一碗汤。

*lai = he = to have/to drink*

c. 4. Furthermore: ... a pro-verb, each of the four *nong*, *zuo*, *gao*, and *gan* represents a different set of actions, such as:

*nong* may mean 选, 择, 挑, 收拾, 整理,

*gao* may mean 干, 办, 承当,

*gan* may mean 做, 办, 承当,
zuo may mean 当，任，承担，烹调，写作

but only lai can represent nong, gao, gao, and zuo in addition to others explained in the previous sections. For example:

(21) A: "This watch is not running."
   B: "Let me fix it for you... no good, it is still not working."
   C: "Let me do it."

lai stands for nong

(22) A: "我们这个工作须先搞一个计划。"
   B: "你要我草拟一个。"
   A: "I can't possibly cook for 50!"
   B: "I will share the job with you. You will be in charge of the main dishes, I'll take care of the dessert.

lai stands for gao

(23) A: "这件工作谁愿意干？"
   B: "我干，告诉我什么时候交差？"
   C: "我也可以干。"
   B: "Laowang, would it be all right to ask you to draft a plan for me?"
   Lao Wang: "I cannot take on such a heavy assignment. If the three of us work together what would you think of that?"

lai stands for gao

(24) A: "我们几个人能做五十个人的饭，我一个人不能胜任。"
   B: "我们几个人能做五十个人的饭，我一个人不能胜任。"
   B: "Let me fix it for you... no good, it is still not working."
   C: "Let me do it."
（甲）：「誰做小菜呢？」
（丙）：「我來，我做小菜。」

A: "Who is going to prepare appetizers?"
C: "I will do it. I'll be in charge of appetizers."

lai stands for suo

C.5. In conclusion, compared to the other four, lai is a pro-verb in the sense that it may be used as a substitution for all actions.
The Usage of Lai, 来，S

I. Form

来，S

II. Examples:

A. 你们都看不懂吧！来，我给你们看看。 I guess none of you can read it. Let me take a look at it.

B. 这儿一共有三百来，你一半我一半。 Altogether there are 300. Half for you and half for me.

C. 这片地种菜不成来，咱们改种常青树。 This lot is no good for growing vegetables. Let's plant evergreen seedlings.

D. 咱们都算不出来，来，找他帮忙。 We cannot figure it out. Let's ask him for help.

III. Notes:

A. In this particular usage, 来 functions as a 单词句 (Single word sentence).

By definition, it is a word used all by itself to form a complete and independent sentence.

来 as a word which forms a single word sentence may be rendered as "Come!" or "Come on!" or may be omitted in translation.

B.1. 来 as a single word sentence may be used to respond to a preceding sentence as in the following:

(1) 老王: “文斌，帮我把这个算出来。” Lao Wang: "Wen-bin, help me to figure this out."

文斌: “来” Wen-bin: “O.K.” (Come; let me figure it out for you.)
B.2. *lai*, the single word sentence, may also be followed by another sentence:

(2) Lao Wang: "Wen-bin, help me figure this out."

Wen-bin: "Come, let me figure it out for you."

Thus the structure *lai*, S consists of an explicit positive response:*-lai*, and an explicit response:-S.

B.3. The sentence that *lai* precedes most frequently begins with the first person or second person pronoun.

(3) He is no match for you. Let's race.

B.4. Compare sentences with *lai* and those without *lai*.

B.4.a. The expression *we kai che song ta qu* (我开车送他去) occurs in each of the following illustrations (10-13). The difference is that the expressions without *lai* are descriptive statements while those with *lai* are conversational responses to a suggestion.
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(8) 你不能开车送他去，我开车送他去。  If you cannot take him there by car, I will do it.

(9) 自从我们搬到城外，他上学天天我 开车送他去。  Since we moved to the suburbs, I have been driving him to school every day.

(10) 你不能开车送他去吗？  我开车送他去。  You can’t take him there by car? Let me do it.

(11) 你怎么看？ 没有校车？ 他怎么上学？  What? The school bus is car?  How will he go to school?  Let me take him to school too.

NA

B.4.b. As responses to questions, sentences without let are used as answers in the following contexts:

S-na type question construction

(12) “你开车送他去吗？”  “我开车送他去。”  “Do you take him there by car?”  “Yes, I do.”

Question Word type question construction

(13) “谁开车送他去？”  “我开车送他去。”  “Who takes him there by car?”  “I do.”

Choo type question construction

(14) “你或他开车送他去？”  “我开车送他去。”  “Do you or does he take him there by car?”  “I do.”

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For all of the above questions, the lal: 5 form is not used, but it is used in response to the following types of requests and expressions of willingness:

**Direct request**

(15) “文斌你开车送他去吧？”
“来，我开车送他去。”

(16) “我希望你开车送他去！”
“来，我开车送他去。”

**Indirect request**

(17) “我有事不能开车送他，他自己没车没法去，你能帮他想办法吗？”
“来，我开车送他去。”

(18) “最后一班车已过去了，他怎么回去呀？”
“来，我开车送他去。”

B.4.c. Sentences with lal indicate a commitment to an immediate action which is absent in sentences without lal. Therefore, when immediate action is suggested, lal may be used. If subsequent future action is suggested, lal is not used. For instance:

(19) “等会以后回去，那时候，公共汽车也没班了，他怎么回去呀？”
“没问题，我开车送他去。”

- “来，我开车送他去。”
- “How about taking him there by car, Wen-bin?”
- “O.K., I will.”
- “I hope you will drive him there.”
- “All right, I will.”
- “I have an engagement and cannot drive him. He does not have a car, so he cannot make it on his own. Could you help him to figure out a way to go there?”
- “Come, I will take him there.”
- “The bus had its last run already. How can he go back?”
- “(Come,) I will take him there.”

*NA* *(Come I drive him home.)*
Just now the radio reported a thirty minute or more delay on the train. I will miss my final examination. What shall I do?

I will take you there by car.

Come, I will take you there by car.

Thus the use of 起 as a single word sentence is limited. It expresses (1) that the speaker is committed to a particular course of action, (2) that a response to a request or a suggestion of a solution is following, and (3) that the action or suggestion is to be implemented immediately.

起 is often used in repeated form. For instance:

(a) 来，来，来

(b) 来，来

Let me propose another toast to you.

Please help yourselves.

C. Compare 好 (好) and 起.

C.1. 好, as illustrated in the following dialogue, functions differently than 起:

甲：“明天早晨你先到这儿来，我们在家把草案看一看，再一块儿从这儿去开会。”

乙：“好，就这么办。”

Here 好 is used by Speaker B to indicate his acquiescence. It is therefore
an evaluation and an opinion of Speaker A's proposal. Linguistically it
is the comment of a T-C structure where the T is omitted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(23)b</td>
<td>乙 (明天……开会) 好</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

lai implies a suggestion, not agreement. It signals that there is a
suggestion or response forthcoming and serves to indicate that the speaker
is offering the following suggestion or recommendation.

(24) 甲： "我们得赶紧，把这工作作完。" 乙： "来，我们一块动手。"
丙： "来，把工作分三部分我们三个
人一个人做一部分。用不了多
久就可以完了。"

Therefore, the single word sentence usage of "lai" is Component I in a
compound sentence consisting of at least two components:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component I</th>
<th>Component II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(24)b</td>
<td>我们一块动手</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D.2. "hao" does not have a semantic relationship with what follows.

For instance:

(25) 甲： "明天请你早点来好吗？" 乙： "好。几点？"

A： "Please come earlier tomorrow. Is that O.K.?"
B： "Fine. What time?"
Hen hrp is a comment on Speaker A's proposal, "come earlier tomorrow."

while jiu'an (几点) is an entirely independent entity.

lai serves to indicate that the speaker is offering the suggestion or recommendation.

(26)甲: "文斌请你给小王看看小王的作业? 乙: "k n-bin, please take a
look at Xiao Wang's work."

乙: "来，我给你看看。"

乙: "I will take a look at it for you."

Here wo-gei ni-kankan is not a response to Speaker A, but is directed to
Xiao Wang.

D.3. In a context in which both hao and lai may be used at the beginning
of a response, such as the example below, the difference between them is
very subtle.

(27)甲: "小王这个数学题太难了，你能帮 A: "This math problem is too
difficult. Can you give Xiao
Wang some help on it?"

乙: "来，我帮他算。

乙: "O.K., I will help him."

乙: "来，我给小王算。"

乙: "Come. I will help Xiao
Wang figure it out."

In this situation both hao and lai may be used, but there is a difference.

Answer (a) with hao indicates the speaker's agreement or consent to what
is requested. It is then followed by a restatement of the request, i.e.,
"我能帮他 " from "你能帮他吗"

Answer (b) indicates the speaker's commitment to a course of action in response to the request and a statement of what that commitment entails, i.e., "我给他小王算"
E. Compare lai and nemme ( 那么 ).

E.1. nemme has a dual function. It comments upon the statement of Speaker A, which precedes it, and signals the suggestion that follows. For example:

(28)甲: “这个问题太难了，我作了一早晨
也找不出解答”
乙: “那么，找文斌帮忙。

A: "This problem is entirely too difficult. I worked on it the whole morning, but could not find the solution."
B: "If that's the case, you should ask Wen-bin for help."

lai has only single-direction-function: to signal the following suggestions.

E.2. nemme must always be followed by a statement (suggestion or otherwise) to be considered a full and independent sentence. lai may be used alone.

(28)甲: “这个问题......解答”
乙: “那么”

F. Compare hao, lai, and nemme.

F.1. Since hao was originally a comment, it may have a negative version. Neither lai nor nemme may have negative versions.

F.2. hao has a question form: A “—— 好不好?” or “—— 好吗?”

nemme may not be an answer to a question or comment on a statement.

lai in this usage may not have a question form.

F.3. hao and nemme themselves do not bring out the immediacy of what follows, while lai does.

F.4. Though hao does not always precede a suggestion, nemme does. When they do precede suggestions, neither implies that it be implemented immediately, as lai does.
The Usage of \( V\)-lai/ou/ zou

I. Forms:

Topic \( V\)-lai/ou/ zou (NP)

II. Examples:

A. A swallow flew here from the south.

B. Suddenly, this big bird flew away.

C. Please bring a dictionary with you.

D. He walked away with your book.

E. He made and brought here a pot of excellent tea.

F. It took no time for us to finish eating the chicken you made and brought to us.

III. Notes:

A.1. \( V\)-lai, \( V\)-qu, and \( V\)-zou are members of verb compounds \((V\)-V\) with directional endings, in other words directional verb compounds. These compounds share a common feature: the direction conveyed by the particular ending (-lai, -qu, -zou) is in reference to the speaker: -lai a motion toward the speaker or speaker’s location, -qu a motion away from the speaker to a particular destination either explicitly stated or understood, and -zou a motion away from the speaker without consideration of destination.

A.2. The first verb component in the compound is a motion verb, either transitive or intransitive. When the performance of the motion requires a change of location for the actor, or the object, these three directional endings are used.
A.1. There are altogether 4 different categories of these directional compounds:

Category (A). The first verb is an intransitive verb of motion. The actor changes location in carrying out the motion. Examples are 
fei (飞), piau (漂), and pao (跑).

Category (B). The first verb is a transitive verb of motion. It requires the actor to change locations. The object also changes location as a result of the performance of the motion. Examples are 
bui (推), dai (带), and song (送).

Category (C). The first verb is a transitive verb of motion. It does not require the actor to change places in performing the action. The object also is not involved in location change as a result of the first verb. Examples are dun (炖), sheng (蒸), and jian (煎).

Category (D). The first verb is a transitive verb of motion. It does not require the actor to change locations in performing the action. However, the object is involved in a change of location as a result of the action. Examples are tóu (扔), ji (寄), and fàng (放).

B.1. The directional compound of (A) is composed of Vi-lai, Vi-qu, or Vi-zou as in the following:

(1) 他们跑来拿东西.   私 (2) 他们把花顺著溪流飘走.     桂 (3) 他听到屋子里有声音, 便进去了. 
They ran over here to get these things.  He saw the falling blossoms  "float away in the creek.  He heard noises in the room and so he went in.
With an intransitive verb as the first component of the compound, the actor moves in the direction indicated by either -lai, -qu, or -zon, while performing the action of the Vi.

B.2. (A) type verbs are unique in that they may be used as VPs in the following structures: "NP(subject)VP" or the inverted "NP VP (subject)":

\[ \begin{align*}
(4) & \quad \text{NP (subject)} \quad \text{VP} \\
& \quad \text{一片红枫叶} \quad \text{漂来了} \\
\end{align*} \]

A red maple leaf floats over here.

\[ \begin{align*}
(4) & \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{NP (subject)} \\
& \quad \text{漂来了} \quad \text{一片红枫叶} \\
\end{align*} \]

Other examples are:

\[ \begin{align*}
(5) & \quad \text{NP (subject)} \quad \text{NP (subject)} \\
& \quad \text{两只小船慢慢的漂来了} \quad \text{two small boats sail over here.} \\
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
(5) & \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{NP (subject)} \\
& \quad \text{慢慢漂来了两只小船} \quad \text{"} \\
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
(6) & \quad \text{NP (subject)} \quad \text{VP} \\
& \quad \text{两三个小孩子向东岸游去了} \quad \text{Two or three children swim towards the eastern shore.} \\
\end{align*} \]

In the inverted usage in each case above, the NP (subject) must not be a personal pronoun.

\[ \begin{align*}
(7) & \quad \text{NP (subject)} \quad \text{NP (subject)} \\
& \quad \text{我向东岸游去了} \quad \text{I swam towards the eastern shore.} \\
\end{align*} \]

Nor may it be a specified noun:

\[ \begin{align*}
(8) & \quad \text{NP (subject)} \quad \text{VP} \\
& \quad \text{这个小孩子向山下滑去了} \quad \text{This child is skiing down the hill.} \\
\end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
(8) & \quad \text{VP} \quad \text{NP (subject)} \\
& \quad \text{向山下滑去了这个小孩子} \quad \text{"} \\
\end{align*} \]
B.3. The (A) type verb compounds may occur in "split form" with a place word between the 2 components:

进 
进屋
出来 
出来

Many of them may accommodate another directional indicator and may be converted into a compound with 3 verbs, such as 走上来, 'walk up here,' 走下去, 'walk down there,' etc.

C.1. (B) type verbs are composed of vt+lai, vt+qu, and vt+zou.

(5) 他推来了一辆车。 He pushed a cart here.

(10) 你拉走一头牛。 Pull a cow away from you.

The characteristics of type (B) compounds are that the action of the motion verb and the direction of the directional verb are closely linked so that the actor and the object are both involved in spatial changes and that the two verbal elements—the motion verb and the directional ending—are carried out simultaneously. We may represent this phenomenon in the following way:

\[ NV = \text{In (9) 他推来一辆车} \]

\[ 'He pushed a cart over here.' \]

\[ 'he' exerts the 'push' towards the speaker's on a cart. 'a cart.' \]

The result is that both the actor and the object move toward the speaker.

C.2. (B) verbs are readily coded to a he construction.

(9) 他推来了一辆车 他把一辆车推来了

(10) 你拉走一头牛 你把一头牛拉来

D.1. (C) type directional compounds are similar to those of type (B) in that they are composed of vt+lai, vt+qu, or vt+zou.
The remark by Speaker B clearly indicates that the master's decision to come home for dinner is entirely unexpected.

The previously determined course of action does not have to be explicitly stated in the context. For instance:

(6) "Don't you still have the thing I wanted to borrow from you which I mentioned to you yesterday?"

By the structure we know that Speaker B implies that the 'decision to borrow it' is a reversal of what Speaker A decided yesterday.

B.5. In this usage neither you nor le may be omitted.

(7) "He came back to eat"

(8) "He again/for the second time came back to eat"

B.4. This usage of you VP le does not give clear indication whether the VP has taken place, or whether VP is going to take place.

(9) "He reversed himself in that he is not going; he reversed himself and refused to go"

(10) "He reversed himself and at it. He reversed himself and will eat it now."
He reversed himself and was unwilling to do it.

C.1. When *you...le* indicates repeated action, the stress is on *you...le*.

He came back again yesterday.

When *you...le* indicates a reversal of decision, the stress is on the VP.

He reversed himself and came yesterday (after all).

C.2. When *you...le* indicates repeated action it may have quantitative statement placed after it.

He came back again twice.

When *you...le* indicates a reversal of decision, it may not have a quantitative statement.

NA ° (He came twice vs. He went twice)

C.3. Even when the VP is a neg VP, the basically different stress pattern distinguishes the reversal from repeated absence of action (or inaction).

For example:

He refused to go for the second time.

Once again he refused to go.

He reversed himself and now is not going.

He reversed himself and he refused to go.

D. Compare *you...le* with change of status *le* pattern.

D.1. Change of status *le* may be used with affirmative and negative Aux VP and negative FVP only. The *you...le* pattern indicating reversal
of decision is used with affirmative or negative Aux VP or FVP.

D.2. When both le and you...le occur with negative FVP, the distinction lies in the fact that you...le indicates reversal of decision while le indicates a simple change in status. For instance:

(18)a 他不吃了。 He stopped eating. He does not eat anymore.

(18)b 他又不吃了。 He reversed himself and won't eat anymore.

(19)a 他爱看书了。 He likes to read now.

(19)b 他又爱看书了。 He reversed himself and is now fond of reading.

(20)a 他不打算作了。 He does not plan to do it again /anymore.

(20)b 他又不打算作了。 He reversed himself and won't do it now.
The Usage of "you SVP le" 又 SVP 了

I. Form:

you SVP 了

II. Examples:

A. 这个太大了。 On the other hand this is too big.
B. 这个太干了。 This is too dry, on the other hand.

III. Notes:

A. The "you... le" used with a SVP indicates that the quality expressed by the SVP is 'not desirable either,' whether the quality itself is a desirable quality or not. For example, 漂年 (便宜) 'inexpensive,' is usually a desirable quality, but it is not when used with you... le.

(1) 十块钱太贵了, 五块钱又便宜了我们

订七块半吧!

$10 is too high, $5 is too low on the other hand. Let's set the price at $7.50.

B.1. The structure "you... le" may be used with any SVP, whether single syllable or double syllable, whether affirmative or negative, whether of win quality or yang quality.

(2) 又大了。 This on the other hand is too big.
(3) 又小了。 This on the other hand is too small.
(4) 又不够了。 This on the other hand is too insufficient.
(5) 又复杂了。 This on the other hand is too complicated.
B.2. The intensifier adverb tai ( 太 ) may be used with the SV in this structure but the meaning remains the same.

(2) 这个又大了。这个又太大了。This on the other hand is too big.

B.3. The stress in this structure, you SVP le, is on the SVP, not on you...le.

(6) 这样作又不公平了。This way of handling it is, on the other hand, unfair.

(7) 不加水又干了。If you do not add water, on the other hand it will be too dry.

B.4. The SVP in you SVP le may be used with yowie-( 有些 ) , -yidiar ( 一点儿 ), or duanhaa...yidiar ( 多少 .... 一点儿 ).

(8)a 这个又有些高了。This, on the other hand, is somewhat too tall.

(8)b 这个又高了一点儿。This, on the other hand, is a bit too tall.

(8)c 这个又多高了一点儿。This, on the other hand, is more or less a bit too tall.

C. Compare with the other functions of you....le.

The different stress patterns distinguish the meaning of you....le.

(9)a 这个又高了。This again is too tall.

(9)b 这个又高了。(This was once before considered too tall)

(10)a 这个又不够了。This again is insufficient.

(10)b 这个又不够了。(It was insufficient once before)

(10)c 这个又不够了。(Previous one is perhaps too much for our purpose. This one is too little)
D. Compare with tai...le.

The adverb tai (太) is an intensifier indicating extreme degree. Thus when tai...le is used with a SV, it indicates that the SV is excessive. It may mean either desirably excessive as in na tai hao le (太好了 'this is terrific!') or undesirably excessive as in na-tai-hao le (太好了 'this is too good (for this.)'

On the other hand, you SVP le indicates that the SV is undesirably excessive for a particular purpose in addition to some other quality which has already been proven to be undesirably excessive. Thus, you SVP le may also be expressed as you tai SVP le.
The Usage of Youde vP/S

I. Forms:
   A. youde Topic Comment
   B. Topic youde VP

II. Examples:
   A.1. 有的我买
        Some (of them) I would buy.
   A.2. 有的他们想看
        Some (of these) they want to read.
   B.1. 他有的干
        I have things to do.
   B.2. 他们都有的穿
        They all have things to wear.

III. Notes:
   A.1. youde (有的) may refer to a part of a whole, either small or large quantity, as in Form A. youde may also mean that there is a certain quantity of something which is larger than the desired or necessary quantity and therefore comes to mean 'a lot' as in Form B.
   A.2. In both forms, youde is (1) indefinite in number and (2) indefinite in quantity and reference. Thus, youde refers to an unknown quantity of unspecified articles.
   B.1. In Form A, youde, meaning part of a whole or portion of a lot, is a Topic Word; it is always used in the topic position of a T-C construction, whether it is a subject or an object. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   (1) 有的 我 喜欢    Some (of these) I like.

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(2) 他有的能吃 Some (of these) he can eat.

(3) 这些东西有的是我的 Some of these things are mine.

youde in both (1) and (2) is the object of its verb respectively, while youde in (3) is a subject.

8.2. youde may be used with a noun as in youde shu (有的书), 'some books,' youde ren (有的人), 'some people.' The resulting form youde N is more specific than youde in reference but still indefinite in quantity.

(4) 有的人喜欢你 Some people like you.

(5) 有的他喜欢 Some he likes.

(6) 他有的书想卖 Some books he will sell.

8.3. The negative version of Form A youde is meiyou VP de, not meiyoude. In other words, the negative version of (1) is (1)a, not (1)b below:

(1) 有的我喜欢

(1)a 没有我喜欢的

*(1)b 没有的我喜欢

The negative version of Form A youde N is meiyou N, not meiyoude N. For example, the negative versions of (4), (5), and (6) are (4)a, (5)a, and (6)a respectively:

(4) 有的人你喜欢你

(4)a 没有人喜欢你

(5) 有的他喜欢

(5)a 没有人他喜欢
C.1. In Form B youde refers to the existence of certain unspecified things of an unspecified quantity. However, that unspecified quantity is subjectively considered by the speaker to be 'more than a bare minimum' or 'more than enough.' Therefore wo youde gan means that 'there will be enough work to keep me busy.' On the other hand, wo you shi gan means 'I have work to do.' you shi gan is nothing more than 'to have work to do,' which gives no indication of the quantity of work. Compare the following:

(7)甲: "你在家做什么呢?"
乙: "您不用管了，我有的干。

(8)甲: "你在家做什么呢?"
乙: "你不用管了，我有事做，我要作报告呢。"

C.2. In Form B, youde is not a topic word, while youde in Form A is. youde in Form B is derived from verb object you N; the N is replaced by de, which is a noun substitute. The structure wo youde gan is derived from (wo) you ke-v de N.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wo</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>我</td>
<td>有</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The negative version of *youde* is *neida*. Therefore, the negative versions for (9) and (10) are (9)a and (10)a.

(9) 我有的干

(9)a 我没的干

(10) 我们都没有的穿

(10)a 我们都没有的穿

C.4. *youde* V of Form B may be modified by adverbs or Aux V. For instance:

(11) 这回我可有的干了。

(12) 他真没的吃。

(13) 他也有的买。

(14) 他们应该有的穿。

C.5. The topic can be omitted if it is understood from the context.

(15) 有的说就说，不必吞吞哇哇的。

(16) 有的吃有的穿大家就该知足。

C.6. Form B may take *le* (了), *ne* (呢), *ma* (吗), and *he* (吧) as sentence particles.

(17) 这回他可有的批评了。

Having food in our stomach and having clothes on our back, we should be contented.
(18) 这孩子将来有的受呢。

[This child will have plenty to suffer from.]
This child will face a lot of hardship in the future.

(19) 他今天晚上有的吃吗?

[Does he have anything to eat tonight?]

(20) 这一大堆文件都得审核。

[This whole stack of documents must be examined. Now, you must admit that you have enough to do!]

你承认你有的干了吧!

Note that in the above examples these particles ie, ne, ma, and ba are related to the verb following youde, i.e., 挑选, 使, 吃, 干.

On the surface, Form B might appear to be an "Aux V," but there are significant characteristics peculiar to youde.

D. Compare youde and Aux V:

D.1. An Aux V may have affirmative-negative forms neng bu neng, keyi bu keyi, etc., which is a question pattern. youde may not. youde meide means "those which one has plus those which one does not have."

D.2. An Aux V can be used independently. "Na neng lai ma?" "Neng." "Na keyi lai ma?" "Keyi."

youde may not be used independently. "Ta youde gan ma?" "Youde gan."

"youde." NA

E. Form A and Form B compared.

E.1. Form A is a noun phrase; its full form is youde N. Form B is a verb phrase, it is derived from a Verb-Object form of you N.

E.2. In terms of a sentence structure, Form A, "youde Topic Comment", is derived from Subject-Verb-Object by transposing the object to the topic position:

Subject-verb-object (youde) —— Object (youde) subject —— verb
Form B: Topic youde Object is an imbedded sentence structure; Subject- Verb Phrase - Verb Phrase, and is the result from the following derivation:

Subject - Verb (you) - Object (modified N)

E.3. The negative form of Form A, youde Topic Comment, is neiyou Topic Comment de. The negative form of Form B, Topic youde Comment, is Topic neiide Comment.

E.4. In Form A, if sentence particles le, ma, ma, and ba are used, they are used in construction with the verb in the structure, not with youde:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{youde} & \quad \text{wo mai le} \\
\text{youde} & \quad \text{xihuan ta ma?}
\end{align*}
\]

In Form B, these sentence particles are used in construction with youde:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ta} & \quad \text{youde gan le}
\end{align*}
\]

E.5. Form A means a portion of the whole of something. Therefore it is translated as 'some' or 'some N.' Form B means 'there is something to V' or 'there is more than the sufficient thing to V.' Thus Form B not only indicates 'something' but also conveys a sense of larger quantity.

The source structure is you ke V de N. ke is an essential element and is not replaceable by other adv/aux, such as 应当 V de N or 能 V de N. The latter two will not be transformed to 有 N 能 V or 有 N 应当 V and still be acceptable as meaning 有 de 能 V or 有 de 应当 V.

我有的能作 = 我有的应当作, 有的 = 有的 in Form A

我有的可干 = 我有的干, 有的 = 有的 in Form B
The Usage of *youdeshi*

I. Forms:

A. *youdeshi*...NP

B. NP *youdeshi* NP

C. NP *youdeshi*

II. Examples:

A.1. 有得是钱。
      There is a lot of money.

A.2. 有得是人要来。
      There are a lot of people who want to come.

B.1. 他有得是钱。
      He has a lot of money.

B.2. 钱有得是。
      There are a lot of books on the table.

C.1. 桌子上有得是书。
      [As for the money, there is a lot.] There is a lot of money.

C.2. 妻要来的人有得是。
      [As for the people who want to come, to come, there are a lot.] There are a lot of people who want to come.

III. Notes

A. *youdeshi* (有的是) is a verb meaning 'to have a lot of.'

B.1. *youdeshi* is an indivisible verb construction. Therefore it can be used as a main verb in a sentence construction. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Main Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) 我</td>
<td>看</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 我</td>
<td>有得是</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The differences between *youdeshi* and other verbs used as main verbs in sentence constructions are the following:

**B.2.a. *youdeshi* cannot be negated.** For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AFFIRMATIVE</th>
<th>NEGATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>我看书</td>
<td>我不看书</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*我不看书* → 買了書 (NA)

**B.2.b. Its negative counterpart is simply *meiyoudeshi* (沒有) but never *meiyoudeshi* (没有).** For example:

(3) 书有的是书, 没有

There are a lot of books, but no newspapers.

**B.2.c. It cannot be suffixed with an aspect marker such as *le* (了), *ne* (了), *she* (著), *guo* (过), etc.** For example:

(4) 我看书了.

I read books

NA */(Now I have a lot of books.)*

(5) 我看书呢。

I am reading a book.

NA

(6) 我看着书呢。

I am reading a book.

NA
(7) 我看过书。 I have read books before.

8.3. The similarities of youdeshi and other verbs are:

8.3.a. Its object can be transposed to the topic position.

(8) 他看书 → 书他看 (correct)

(9) 他有书 → 书他有 (correct)

8.3.b. A verb phrase constructed using youdeshi can be followed by another verb phrase, making a sequence of verb phrases. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subje</td>
<td>VP&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(10) 我 上学念书 I go to school to study.

(11) 我 有的是工夫念书 I have a lot of time to study.

8.3.c. Since it is a verb construction centered around you, it shares certain features of the verb you: it may have either a personal noun, a personal pronoun, or a place word expression as its topic. For example:

Personal noun:

(12) 学生们有的是主意。 Students have a lot of ideas.

Personal pronoun:

(13) 他们有的是钱。 They have a lot of money.

(14) 谁有的是钱? Who has a lot of money?

Place word expressions:

(15) 北京有的是有名的学校。 There are a lot of well-known schools in Peking.
There are a lot of chairs in the room.

There are a lot of pens here.

There are a lot of flowers of this kind?

B.4. The expression in Form A is a phrase, which can be used by itself.

Question: "Are there pencils?"

Answer: "There are a lot."  

B.5. The NP in Form A can be of any of the following: simple noun (25), compound noun (26), and modified noun (27), (28), and (29).

(16) 有的是椅子。

(17) 有的是钢笔。

(18) 有的是这种花?

There is a lot of paper.

There are a lot of research books.

There are a lot of pretty flowers.

There are a lot of paintings that you like.

There are a lot of people who want to study.

B.6. Form B is a Topic-Comment construction in which youdeshi is the main verb: the topic NP\(^1\) may be a personal noun, a personal pronoun, or a place word expression (see III-3.d), and NP\(^2\) may be any of the noun constructions illustrated in section III-5 above.

B.7. Form C is also a Topic-Comment construction. However, youdeshi makes up the entire comment part of this construction, in the form of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>有的是 (As for x, there is/are a lot of) There is/are a lot of x.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B.8. In Form C,NP\(^1\) can be any of the noun constructions illustrated in section III-5. For example,

(25) 画有的是。

(26) 研究工具有的是。

(27) 画画儿的笔有的是。

(28) 你要的东西有的是。

(29) 小学老師有的是。

There are a lot of paintings (simple noun).

There are a lot of research tools.

There are a lot of paint brushes.

There are a lot of things you wanted.

There are a lot of primary school teachers.

B.9. Other possible translations are 'plenty of' or 'many.' For example:

(30) 有的是笔。

(31) 有的是人要来。

There are plenty of pens.

There are many people waiting to come.

B.9. Contrast youdeshi and you han duo (有很多)

B.9.a. The construction of youdeshi is indivisible. The construction of you han duo is you (有) plus han duo (很多). In other words, though the English translation may be similar, there are the following differences:

(32) 他—有的是—书

(33) 他—有—很多—书

In sentence (32), youdeshi is the main verb; it governs a simple unmodified unmodified object shu (书). In sentence (33), you is the main verb; it governs a modified object han duo shu.

B.9.b. In terms of meaning, youdeshi implies a definitive tone, relatively authoritative in describing something being numerous or plentiful. In
element of emphasis in the modification. Where you han duo is used, such emphasis has to be indicated by intonation. For instance:

(34) a. "There is plenty of wheat in the north."  
    b. "Yes. There is plenty of wheat in the north."  
    c. "Yes. There is plenty of wheat in the north. (no doubt about it)"

(35) a. "He has a lot of Chinese books."
    b. "There are a lot of notebooks (available). They are not expensive either. Why don't you get another one?"

C. Ambiguity in the usage of youdeshi.

C.1. There is often a high degree of ambiguity when youdeshi is used in a sentence construction. For example ta-youdeshishu (他有的是书) can be translated differently according to two different structural analyses:

Analysis (i):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他有的 (N)</td>
<td>是中国书 (The things) he has are Chinese books.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis (ii):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>有的是 中国书 He has a lot of Chinese books.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis (i) uncovers a "Topic-Identification" construction, in which the
topic ta you de (他有的) is being identified by the comment sheng guo shu (中国书). Analysis (ii) is a "Topic-Function" construction, in which the topic is ta, and the comment informs the reader what the subject of the sentence does.

C.2. To clarify or identify which structure is the correct one in a given context, the following method may be used:

C.2.a. negation: The Topic-Identification construction can be negated, while the Topic-Function construction cannot be.

他有的是中国书→他有的不是中国书 (correct)

C.2.b. Transposition of object: The Topic-Identification construction cannot accommodate the transposition of objects, while the Topic-Function construction can.

他有的是中国书  →  中国书他有是 (correct)

他有的是中国书  →  中国书他有是 (NA)

C.2.c. Intonation features: The Topic-Identification construction may have two possible pauses, before and after shi (是); while the other may have a pause only before youde/youdehi.

C.3. A second type of ambiguity arises from the translation to English and may be illustrated by the following sentences:

(36) 有的是可买的书。 There are plenty of books

(37) 有的是书可买。 worth studying.

(38)
The basic difference between these two sentences lies in their structures, as shown in the following analysis:

For (36):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifier</td>
<td>Noun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For (37):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C.4. Based on the analysis above, the structure in (36) is a verb followed by a modified object, and in (37) a Topic-Description construction where *kemai* describes *youde shi shu*. This basic difference entails the following characteristics:

C.4.a. Modification: Modifiers of nouns can be added to the object of (36). Modifiers may be added to both Topic^2 and Comment^2 of (37).

(38) (from (36)) 有的是可买的有意思的书。 *There are a lot of interesting books worth buying.*

(39) (from (37)) 有的是有意思的书可买。 *There are a lot of interesting books indeed worthy of being bought.*

C.4.b. Extension: Adding a Topic. One may add a topic to sentence (36) without changing the basic structure. When one adds a topic to sentence (37) the basic structure undergoes a change.

(40) (from (36)) 他有的是可买的书。 *He has a lot of books worth buying.*
In other words, when supplied with a topic, sentence (41) reveals two
different structures, the first resembling the original sentence (37) and
the second revealing a compound sentence structure, where the two topics
(TOPIC$^1$ and TOPIC$^2$) are identical in their reference.

C.4.c. Extension: Adding Comment. Sentence (36) may have an additional
comment, but sentence (37) may not have a second comment.

(42) (from (36)) 有的是可买的书贵。 There are plenty of books worth
buying which are expensive.

7.4.d. Transformation: Sentence (36) may be transformed into one form,
but sentence (37) may be transformed into two forms:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASIC SENTENCE</th>
<th>TRANSFORMED SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(36) 有的是可买的书</td>
<td>可买的书有的是</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(37) 有的是书可买</td>
<td>有的是可买的书</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>可买的书有的是</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. i.e. Negation: Sentence (36) cannot be negated, though it does have a negative counterpart, while sentence (37) can be readily negated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASIC SENTENCE</th>
<th>NEGATED SENTENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(44) 有的是可买的书</td>
<td>没有可买的书</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(45) 有的是书可买</td>
<td>没有书可买</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. i.e. Usage: Sentence (45) is used more frequently than sentence (44).
5.1 The Usage of youxie

I. Forms:
   A. youxie NP
   B. youxie SVP
   C. youxie PVP

II. Examples:
   A. 他有些积蓄。  He has some savings.
   B.1. 他有些强壮了。  He is a bit stronger now.
   B.2. 他有些粗鲁。  He is somewhat too civilized.
   C. 这件事有些叫人为难。  This matter is rather too difficult for me.

III. Notes:
   A.1. The dictionary meaning of the term youxie (有些) is often simply
given as "some" before a NP and "somewhat" before a VP.
   A.2. Youxie is a complex expression and may be replaced by yowde (有的
"some(one)," yowvidar (有一点) "some(quantity)," or yow Nu M
"small number of N."
   A.3. Youxie is one of the few occurrences of xie (些) as a quantitative
suffix. Others are:
         ADV-xie: haoxie 好些
(1) 好些人不懂。
         NU-xie: yixie 一些
(2) 给他一些钱。
(There are) a good deal of people
(who) do not understand it.
Give him some candy.
PAC-ti-xie  (某些)
(3) 对某些人有用。

themaxie  (这么些)
(4) 这么些人没工作。

naxie  (那么些)
(5) 那么些事情需要清理。

xu-xie  naxie  (哪些)
(6) 哪些书你买?

SPE-xie  shaxie  (这些)
(7) 这些书我买。

sai-xie  (那些)
(8) 那些书你拿走。

SV-xie  daxie  (大些)
(9) 这个大些。

V-xie  yangxie  (用些)
(10) 用些钱买书。

It's useful to certain people.
This many people are jobless.
That many cases are waiting to be worked on.
Which books do you want?
I want these books.
You take those books with you.
This is a bit bigger.
Use some money to buy books.

B.1. Form A is youxie followed by a NP. The NP may be a simple noun (11), a modified noun (12), a noun which may be quantified by a specific number (13), or a noun which may not be quantified by a specific number (14).

(11) 他有些钱。

(12) 他有些名贵的画。

(13) 他有些画画儿的笔。

(14) 他有些力量。

He has some money.
He has some famous paintings.
He has some painting brushes.
He has a little power.

B.2. One of the characteristics of xie is that though it is a quantitative word, it may be placed directly before a noun without a measure. Both (15)a and (15)b are acceptable.

(15) a

(15) b
(15)a 有些笔。  Some pens.  
(15)b 有些( )笔。  "  "  

Furthermore, youxie is derived from youyixie. The number yi may be omitted:
(16)a 有一些人。  Some people.  
(16)b 有( )人。  "  "  

While either the number yi or the measure or both may be omitted, they may not be used concurrently.

(17)a 有一些( )笔  
(17)b 有( )些笔  
(17)c 有( )些( )笔  

* 有一些些笔  NA

B.3. The underlying structure of youxie NP is as follows:

(11) 他有笔

他有一些笔  Quantification of Noun  
                   ← Verb Object  

(12) 他有些画画儿的笔  

他有些画画儿的笔  Quantification of (Modified N)  
                   ← Verb Object  

The syntactical relationship demonstrated here is: you is the main verb of the sentence, xie is abbreviated from yi xie, a quantifier of the noun-modified or simple. Thus, xie is part of the NP object.

B.4. There are no restrictions on the type of modifiers which may precede the Noun object. For instance:

313
(19) Why is the room white?

For unknown reasons, one gets something of a feeling of desolation as soon as one enters the room.

B.5. In this usage, *youxie* may be replaced by *you xi-M* for nouns which may be quantified by specific numbers, countable nouns; and *you yidiar* for nouns which may not be quantified by specific numbers, noncountable nouns.

(20) 有(一些)人 不懂

(There are some people (who) do not understand it.)

B.6.a. In this usage, *youxie* NP also occurs in the topic position and must be followed by a VP which is a comment of the FVP, SVP, EVP or LVP type.

(21) 有些工作是你的，有些是他的。

Some of the works here are yours, some are his.

(22) 有些工作容易，有些工作难。

Some works are easy and some are difficult.
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(23) 有些工作归你管。 Some work is in your charge.

In short, youxie is a topic phrase.

B.6.b. It is this usage of youxie NP which may be replaced by youde.

(24) 有些事情他作。 [Something he takes care of]

有的( )他作。 He takes care of something.

B.7. Related to this form is the following usage of youxie:

(25) 这儿的东西，有些是你的。 Among these things here, some are yours.

(26) 他的朋友，有些他喜欢。 Among his friends, some he likes.

Here youxie is preceded by a statement of a whole and youxie indicates a part of that whole. Thus, it is used to mean “some of the entire N.”

B.7.a. In this case, youxie is abbreviated from youxie N when the N is stated in the preceding phrase:

(25) 这儿的东西，有些(东西)是你的。

(26) 他的朋友，有些(朋友)他喜欢。

B.7.b. youxie is used as a topic pronoun phrase, either as a subject or as an object.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(25) 这儿的东西</td>
<td>有些是你的</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(26) 他的朋友</td>
<td>有些他喜欢</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.7.c. In this usage, youxie may occur in pairs:

315
(25) a 这儿的东西，有些是你的有些是他的。 [Of these things, some are yours, some are his]
    Some of these things are yours, and some are his.

(26) a 他的朋友，有些他喜欢有些他不喜欢。 Some of his friends he likes, some he does not.

8.7.4. The pronoun phrase youxie may be replaced by youde or you 肆.

(25)这儿的东西 [有的是你的。]
    这儿的东西 [有的是你的。]
    [有的是你的。]

(26)他的朋友 [有的他喜欢。]
    他的朋友 [有的他喜欢。]
    [有的他喜欢。]

C. In Form B, youxie is followed by SVP. The SVP may be affirmative
   or negative. However, youxie SVP has a connotation of excessiveness.
   For example:
   (27) 这个有些简单。 This is a bit too simple.
   (28) 这个有些复杂。 This is a bit too complicated.

   While youxie SVP has a connotation of excessiveness, youxie SVP
   followed by a change of status marker le (芽) does not and is a neutral
   statement:
   (29) 这个有些值钱了。 This is becoming somewhat valuable.
   (30) 他的身体有些复原了。 His health is somewhat better.

   Thus, youxie SVP is translated as 'a bit too SVP' while youxie SVP le
   is translated as 'to become somewhat SVP'.

C.1. The underlying structure of youxie SVP is that youxie is used as
an adverbial phrase modifying the SVP.

For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>Very inexpensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>Unusually inexpensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
<td>Not quite inexpensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compa-</td>
<td>Comparatively inexpensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rative</td>
<td>A bit too inexpensive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

youxie is used just as any other adverb which modifies a SV.

C.1.a. The SVP after youxie may be either affirmative or negative.

(31)a 有些简单

(32)b 有些不简单

C.1.b. youxie SVP may be used to modify a N.

(33) 有些复杂的事你不用管。

(34) 有些不清楚的句子请改一下。

C.1.c. Form B youxie may be replaced by youyidiao SV or shaoxian SV or bijiao SV le yidiar.
(28) 这个有些复杂

(28a) 这个有一点复杂

(28b) 这个稍微复杂

(28c) 这个比较复杂一点儿

youxie SVP may also be used following V de.

(35) 他总是写得非常复杂。

C.2. The underlying structure of youxie SVP le is the following:

```
 Verb Object
 Modification
 Change of status
```

Again, youxie is an adverbial modifier of the SVP. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>他大了</td>
<td>He has become big.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>书丢</td>
<td>Books are very expensive now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>书</td>
<td>Books are less expensive now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>书</td>
<td>Books are somewhat expensive now.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C.3. In this adverbial usage, the form youxie may be replaced by you(yi) di an as in:

(28) 这个有些复杂 → 这个有一点复杂

(29) 这个有些值钱了 → 这个有一点值钱了
D. In Form C, *youxie* is followed by a FVP. For instance:

(36) 他要这样作就有些不讲理了。  
If he behaves this way, it is somewhat unreasonable.

(37) 你说的有些叫人不解。  
What you said [makes people not understand] confuses people somewhat.

(38) 他的作风有些标奇立异。  
This approach of his is rather gimmicky.

The FVP in (36) is a simple FVP, in (37) a pivotal FVP, and in (38) a formula expression.

Form C, *youxie* FVP, expresses the speaker’s judgment and evaluation of the topic. The evaluation is always that the situation is not desirable.

For instance:

(39)a 他有些乱来/胡搞  
(act recklessly)

(39)b 他有些不讲理  
(do not follow reason)

(39)c 这个有些坏不来  
(not worth it)

(39)d 这件事有些看不惯  
(do not tolerate it)

(39)e 这件事有些叫人难以  
(put others in a dilemma)

(39)f 他有些让人怀疑  
(make people suspect him/it)

(39)g 他有些行为不端  
(act recklessly)

(39)h 他有些不知所措  
(does not know what to do)

etc.

D.2. *youxie* here may be replaced by you(yi)diar:

(391)a 他有些胡来——他有点胡来
E. In summary:

E.1. In terms of structure:

a. **youxie NP**
   - Quantification
   - Verb Object

b. **youxie SVP**
   - Verb Object
   - Modification

c. **youxie FVP**
   - Verb Object
   - Modification

E.2. In terms of function:

a. **youxie NP**: VERB you OBJECT ((yi)xie NP)

b. **youxie SVP**: ADVERBIAL PHRASE (youxie) SVP

c. **youxie FVP**: ADVERBIAL PHRASE (youxie) FVP

E.3. In terms of meaning:

a. **youxie NP**: There are some NP.

b. **youxie (NP)**: some - Pron

c. **youxie SVP**: (The topic) is a bit too SVP.

c. **youxie SVP lei**: (The topic) has become a bit SVP.

E.4. In terms of substitutes:

a. **youxie NP**: you(yidiar N, youji-M N

b. **youxie (NP)**: youde, youde N, youji-M N

b. **youxie SVP**: you(yidiar tai SVP, shaoxian SVP, bidiao SVP le yidiar

b. **youxie SVP le**: you(yidiar SVP le

c. **youxie FVP**: you(yidiar FVP
The Usage of Zaiye neg VP le

I. Form:

zaiye Neg VP le

II. Examples:

A. 再也不去了。
   She will never go there again.
B. 再也没听过这么好听的故事了。
   He never again heard such an interesting story.
C. 再也走不过去了。
   We will never be able to pass over.

III. Notes:

A. Briefly, this structure indicates that the VP will never be repeated again.

B.1. The Neg VP in this structure can be any of the following forms:

   不 VP:
   
   没 VP 过:

   Resultative:
   
   Imperative:

B.2. zaiye Neg VP le constitutes a comment which may occur with or without a topic. Its topic can be animate or inanimate. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>COMMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>你</td>
<td>再也不去了 I will never go there again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>他</td>
<td>再也不去了 He will never go there again.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(3) 这张画 再也卖不出去了。 This painting will never be sold again.

(4) 这种建议 再也不考虑了。 This kind of proposal will never again be considered.

(5) 这个学生 再也不能上王先生的课了。 This student will never be permitted to attend Mr. Wang's class again.

B.4. 负面谓语在 always implies an unyielding determination or unchanging course of action. It may be in the past, in the present, or in the future. For example:

Distant past:

(6) 一九四八年到美国以后， Ever since he arrived in the USA in 1948, he has never been back to China.

他再也没回过中国。

(7) 昨天他听了演讲后，就决定再也不抽烟了。 Yesterday, after he attended the lecture, he decided never to smoke again.

(8) 从此以后你再别生气了。 From now on, you should never again lose your temper.

(9) 从明天起再也不抽烟了。 Starting from tomorrow, I will never again smoke.

B.5. The particle le (了) indicates a change of status or the occurrence of a newly arrived situation. It is used in this pattern to emphasize the meaning 'never again.' (II-A and II-B)

When the verb suffix duò (过) is used, the particle le at the end of the structure is optional. For example:

(II-B) 再也没听过这么好听的故事了。
(6) 再也没去过中国。

B.6. The comparison of zaiye Neg VP le and bu zai VP le.

B.6.a. In zaiye Neg VP le, the Neg VP may be a resultative compound, but in bu zai VP le, the VP may not be RV.

(10) 再也不学不会 (correct) 再学得会 NA

B.6.b. bu zai VP le is structured in the following way:

\[
\text{Modification} \quad \text{Negation}
\]

It is the negation of zai VP 'to VP again' or 'to repeat VP' and so bu zai VP is 'not to VP again' or 'not to repeat VP.'

Zaiye Neg VP le is a structure derived from the following:

\[
\text{jiu shi zai} \text{ VP}^1 \text{ yu Neg} \text{ VP}^2 \text{ le}
\]

\[
(\quad \text{zai} \text{ VP}^1 \text{ yu Neg} \text{ VP}^2 \text{ le})
\]

\[
= \text{zai yu bu VP le}
\]

VP\(^1\) indicates the circumstances in which an act of VP\(^2\) may occur, such as:

- 有机会 there is an opportunity/
  when opportunity arrives
- 有某种环境 there is a certain environment/when the environment
  presents itself
- 有合适的条件 there are suitable conditions/
  when the proper conditions
  come along
or VP\(^i\) represents a certain quality, such as:

(11) 这个就是再好也不要了。

这个( )再( )也不要了。

这个再也不要了。

Since **jiushi** X ye Neg Y is the structure meaning 'even X, Neg Y,' **zaiye** Neg VP le is derived from 'even if the situation presents itself again, will not VP,' or 'even if the circumstance occurred again did not VP.'

Thus the juxtaposition of **zai** (再) and **ye** (也) is not a simple matter of an adverb modifying another adverb.
The Usage of X zeyi, y

I. Forms:
   A. .....X zeyi, ruo....Y (jiu)....Z
   B. .....X zeyi, yaoburan (jiu)....Z

II. Examples:
   A.1. 不说则已，若说就得说清楚。
   [If it is not said, then everything will be all right; if it is said, it must be said clearly.]
   You don't have to say it, but if you do it must be said clearly.

   A.2. 说清楚则已，若说不清楚就会出麻烦。
   [If it is said clearly, everything will be all right; if not, there will be trouble.]
   It had better be said clearly or else there will be trouble.

   B.1. 不说则已，要不然得说清楚。
   [If it is not said, then everything will be all right; otherwise, say it clearly.]
   You don't have to say it, but if you do, you must say it clearly.

   B.2. 说清楚则已，要不然就会出麻烦。
   [If it is said clearly, everything will be all right, otherwise, there will be trouble.]
   It had better be said clearly—otherwise there will be trouble.

III. Notes:
   A. The expression zeyi (则已) is a classical phrase adapted to modern usage: su (则) is equivalent to jiu (或), meaning 'then,' 'consequently,' 'therefore,' etc. yi (乙) is equivalent to wanel
meaning 'finished,' 'completed,' 'accomplished,' or 'beyond salvation.'

The meaning of *zeyi* in this combined usage is similar to modern expressions such as *bale* (罢了), *haole* (好了), *keyie* (可以了), *meiguwmile* (没关系了), *sanjie* (算了) or *bianhe* (便宜).

In turn, these modern expressions may be translated into different English phrases, depending on the contexts, such as "that will be fine," "everything will be all right," "it is satisfactory or acceptable," "the issue is dropped," "it is finished," "it needs no further discussion," "no further consideration need be given," and others.

Because of the wide range of possible translations, it is most important to understand the basic function of *zeyi* in this structure.

B.1. The complete sentence in which *zeyi* is used is a compound sentence. The part in which *zeyi* occurs always appears as the first component of such a compound sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td>rong (jia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td>yao (jia)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B.2. Component I is a complete Topic-Comment construction, though not a complete sentence, in which the word *zeyi* is the sole comment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>COMPONENT II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td><em>zeyi</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (1)         | If you promise, everything will be O.K.;
| (2)         | If he is not coming, everything will be all right;
If you promise to do it for me, everything will be all right;

If you come, everything will be O.K.;

If he is willing, everything will be all right;

If you do not buy it, everything will be all right;

If you do not consent to buy foreign goods, everything will be O.K.;

If she does not reject our demands, everything will be all right;

If they grant our request, everything will be all right;

If it is explained clearly, everything will be all right;

If it can be cleaned, everything will be all right;

If his books are inexpensive, everything will be all right;

From these illustrations, it is clear that the topic of the comment 要 you can be any of the following verb combinations:

Affirmative: (1), (3), (4), (5), (9), (10), (11), and (12)

Negative: (2), (6), (7), (8)

Simple Verb: (1), (2), (4), (5), and (6)

Complex Verb: (10) and (11)

Verb-Object: (3), (4), (8), and (9)

Participle Verb: (1) through (4) and (5) through (11)

SV: (12)

Aux V: (5)

Completion Aspect: (10)
B.3. In terms of structure, the relationship between the two components
is that of two parallel substructures in a compound. In terms of meaning,
Component II is the consequence of the non-realization of Component I.

B.4. Component I, in which zeyi is used as presented above, indicates
that the statement of action expressed by its topic is acceptable to
either the speaker or the subject of the sentence (Component I plus
Component II). The degree of acceptability ranges from the marginally
acceptable to most desirable depending on the content of Component II.
Furthermore, Component I requires that an alternative or the consequence
of an alternative is either explicitly stated in Component II or implicitly
understood. The following examples will illustrate these functions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPONENT I</th>
<th>(COMPONENT II)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x...zeyi</td>
<td>(....)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(13) 你去则已, (若不去，就在 
(若不去，就在 
家帮我忙) (if not, you can stay 
家帮我忙) (if not, you can stay 
home and help me.)

(14) 你去则已, (若不去没有人 
(若不去没有人 
代表我们) (if not, we will 
代表我们) (if not, we will 
be O.K.; (if not, no 
one will represent us.)

(15) 你去则已, (若不去我们取 
消你的会员资格) (if not, we will 
take away your membership.)

In the above illustrations, Component I remains unchanged, and zeyi indi-
cates that ni qu (你去) is an acceptable proposition. In (13) ni qu
is acceptable to wo (我), while in (14) it is not only "acceptable" but
also "necessary" to women (我们). Finally, in (15) it is highly
desirable to women.
In all three illustrations, Component II offers an alternative to "ni qu" (你去) and a statement to its consequence.

8.5. The structure of Component II may be either of the following:

**COMPONENT II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td>ruo...Y (jiu)...Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td>yaozuran (jiu)...Z</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, in Form (A), "ruo" (若) is interchangeable with adverbs of supposition, such as ruoshi (若是), ruoju (如果), jianshi (假使), etc.

The variable element Y represents the opposite of X in Component I.

**COMPONENT I | COMPONENT II**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(A)</th>
<th>X zayi.</th>
<th>ruo Y (jiu) Z</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td>X zayi.</td>
<td>yaozuran (jiu) Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16)</td>
<td>去则已,</td>
<td>若不去就要受罚。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17)</td>
<td>不去则已,</td>
<td>若去就要准备行李。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18)</td>
<td>便宜则已,</td>
<td>若贵, 就不要买。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19)</td>
<td>高兴则已,</td>
<td>若烦, 就别跟他提这件事。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(20)</td>
<td>这份工作你</td>
<td>若有困难, 我们再</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>有接则已</td>
<td>商量。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you go, everything will be all right; but if you don’t, you will be punished.

If you don’t go, there is nothing to be done; but if you do go, you must get your baggage ready.

If it is inexpensive, then go ahead as planned; otherwise, don’t buy it.

If she is cheerful, then do it; otherwise, do not mention it to her.

If you are willing to accept the job, we will be pleased, but if you have some difficulty, (let me know) we will discuss it more.
There are cases in which X and Y are not diametrically opposed, as in sentences (16) through (18). The opposition between gu (去) and bu gu (不去) or gui (贵) and pianyi (便宜) is clear and explicit. In sentence (2), for instance, the X is 'willingness to accept a job,' and Y is 'having difficulties doing so.'

In Form A, Z represents the consequence of Y, which is a specific alternative to X. In Form B, it indicates the consequence of failing to perform the action X.

8.6. In Chinese, a suppositional statement is often presented without any formal indicator (i.e., ruo (若), jianru (假如), etc. Thus, in the same way, indicators such as ruo (若), ruo (若), etc., may be omitted from Component II. For instance:

(21) 他肯来则已, (若)不肯来我就把他不客气了。 

(22) 你愿意则已, (如)不愿意我也没办法。 

(23) 你觉得应当则已, (假如)你愿意不应当为什么不向他道歉? 

(24) 便宜则已, (要使)不便宜谁买? 

(25) 他高兴则已, (如果)不高兴谁也受不了。 

B.7. The ruo Y part of the Component II may be replaced by yaoburan.
C.1. In structural terms the following sentences are derived from X

(A) \( yaoSHI \times ze \ z^1 \), \( yaoSHI \ neg \times ze \ z^2 \)

(B) \( yaoSHI \ neg \times ze \ z^1 \), \( yaoSHI \times ze \ z^2 \)

If you go, everything is O.K.; but if not, there will be trouble.

(C) if you did not accept it, that is O.K.; but if you did, you must make preparations.

C.2. The wide range of acceptability of Component I as determined by Component II allows this structure to be used in many situations, ranging from the statement of alternatives to the statement of strong imperatives.

For instance:

(28) If I make some money this time, everything will be all right; if not, I don't think I want to continue in this line of business.

(29) You had better make some money this time; otherwise do not count on borrowing money from me again.
(30) 这次赚钱别已，
若不赚钱看他跟你吵的!

You had better make some money this time; otherwise, you just wait and see how he is going to yell at you!

(31) 这次赚钱别已，
若不赚钱就要你命!

You had better make some money, or else I am going to kill you!

As for meaning, as it was stated based on the given illustrations, Component II expresses the consequence of non-realization of Component I. However, whether variable X in Component I is merely acceptable or highly desirable cannot be determined only by 虽然. The degree of desirability of the first component is determined by the "consequence of non-realization" as expressed in the second component.

D. Whether the variable X is a highly desirable alternative, Component I can also be expressed as follows:

suihao X, y jiu z

(32) 去则已，不去就不能吃饭。
→ 要去，不去就不能吃饭。

You had better go; otherwise, you won't be allowed to eat.

(33) 不去则已，去就别回来。
→ 要好不去，去就别回来。

You had better not go; otherwise, you don't have to come back.

The difference is, X 虽然 is much more emphatic than suihao. The former is imperative, while the latter is merely suggestive.

E. Exceptional cases: there are occasions where the "consequence of non-realization of X" is withheld. In this case, it is an abbreviated form, and the unstated "consequence" is most severe, and highly unpleasant.
(34) 我听不见则己！
我听不见便罢！

Don't let me hear it,
or else!
The Usage of V₁-zhe V₁-zhe

I. Form:

\[ V₁-zhe-V₁-zhe, \ VP/S \]

II. Examples:

A. 说着眼睛他把泪擦来擦眼泪。
   In the midst of talking, he wiped his tears on his shirttail.

B. 走着眼睛只见一片无边的枯叶。
   While walking, they saw a large patch of withered weeds.

C. 走着眼睛语法，讲起别的词又来了。
   In the midst of discussing grammar, (he) changed the subject and began to discuss semantics.

III. Notes:

A. This pattern indicates that as one performs an action, an unrelated action occurs simultaneously.

B.1. The repeated V-zhe is used as a MA and so may be used before a Topic-Comment construction, as in (1) or after the topic and before the comment, as in (1b) below.

(1a) 说着眼睛，他站起来走了。
   In the midst of a discussion, he stood up and left.

(1b) 他睡着眼睛站起来走了。

B.2. The V in V₁-zhe-V₁-zhe may either be a single syllabic or a multi-syllabic verb:

(2) 看着眼睛他睡了。
   In the midst of reading the paper, he fell asleep.
While taking a stroll, he suddenly remembered that he had forgotten to lock his door.

The V in V^{l}\text{-}she-V^{l}\text{-}she may be intransitive (4) or transitive (5) and (6). The object may be omitted (5) or stated (6). Note that the object, if stated, occurs only once and follows the pair of repeated V\text{-}she.

While sitting he felt a sudden cold breeze and felt extremely chilled.

The object may be omitted or stated (6). Note that the object, if stated, occurs only once and follows the pair of repeated V\text{-}she.

While waiting for them, he fell asleep.

The VI-the-VI-the structure itself must be affirmative.

While talking to him, he suddenly stopped responding to us.

Although this pattern does not imply suddenness by itself, adverbs such as huran (忽然), turan (突然), yixiazi (一下子), etc., may be added to express suddenness, such as in (3) and (4).

VI-the-VI-the may never be used as an independent sentence.

"卖着卖着" NA

"吃着吃着！" (See sections C.3 and C.5 below)

C. Compare V\text{-}she and V^{l}\text{-}she-V^{l}\text{-}she.
C.1. Both \textit{V-zhe} and \textit{V^1-zhe-V^1-zhe} may be followed by a VP.

(8) 他们走着说话。 They were walking and talking.

(9) 他们走着走着看见老刘了。 They met Lao Liu while walking on the street.

C.2. \textit{V-zhe} is generally used after the topic, but may precede the topic for special emphasis.

(10) 走着走着他要看书，在家里坐着书。 while walking on the street he wants to read. Yet while sitting in the house he will not even touch books.

On the other hand, \textit{V^1-zhe-V^1-zhe} may occur before the topic without special emphasis.

C.3. \textit{V-zhe} may be used by itself as an imperative; \textit{V^1-zhe-V^1-zhe} may not.

(11)a 拿着！拿着！ Please take it (please!).

(11)b 拿着！ Take it! (or else!)

C.4. Both \textit{V-zhe} and \textit{V^1-zhe-V^1-zhe} may be followed by an object.

(12)a 外面冷，你得穿着衣服出去。 It is cold outside and you must wear your coat when going out.

(12)b 他看着看着书，头痛起来了。 He got a headache when he was reading.

C.5. The imperative and independent usage of \textit{V-zhe}, as illustrated in C-3, may be repeated for emphasis to indicate the speaker's earnestness or sincerity, or the speaker's attempt to persuade someone to do something.

(13) 拿着拿着！ Please take it!
When the verb requires an explicit object, it will be in the form of $v^1$-she $v^1$-she $v^1$-she $o$.

(14) 拿着这个！拿着这个！

$V^1$-she $V^1$-she may not be used independently, must not be used with the object repeated, but in the form of $V$-she $V$-she $O$, and is never used to indicate sincerity, earnestness, etc., as $V$-she does.

C.6. $V$-she $VP$ may be used to refer to a future event; $V^1$-she-$V^1$-she usually refers to the past.

(15) 晚一会吃着饭谈话。

(16) 吃着吃着饭他走了。

However, $V^1$-she-$V^1$-she may refer to the future when used in a prediction or judgment of some kind, rather than the past, as illustrated below.

(17) 你看着吧！他看着书就会睡觉的。

C.7. Most importantly, $V$-she $VP$ indicates nothing other than the fact that both $V$ and $VP$ are happening simultaneously. On the other hand, in addition to the simultaneous occurrence of $V$ and $VP$, $V^1$-she-$V^1$-she indicates that the $VP$ is an event which happens independently of the $V$ and could not normally be anticipated. Compare the following:

(18) a) 他开着窗户上课。

He (always) gives his classes with windows open.

b) 他开着开着窗户上课了。

The bell rang while he was opening the window.

D. In summary, structurally $V^1$-she-$V^1$-she is not derived from $V$-she and these two forms do not share the same set of semantic interpretations.
The usage of $X$ 說 $Y$ 之餘 $Y$

I. Form:

$X$ 說 $Y$

II. Examples:

A. [Being extremely disappointed, he hung up his official helmet.]

B. 被極度失望，他掛了頭盔。 [Being extremely disillusioned, he resigned.]

B. 高興之餘，他請大家去看電影。 [Being extremely excited, he invited everybody to a movie.]

III. Notes:

A. This structure loosely indicates that an action (Y) takes place either under the strong influence of X or because of X, or as an ultimate manifestation of X, etc., and that Y is carried out as a demonstration of X or with X.

A.2. $X$ 說 $Y$ provides the setting, or the cause for the second component, which states the result or consequence, thereby indicating a cause and effect relationship between the components.

B.1. The part $X$ 說 $Y$ is the first component of a compound sentence $X$ 說 $Y$, and never occurs alone.

B.2. In $X$ 說 $Y$, the X can be any of the following:

a. Expressions of emotion:

- shiwang (失望) despair
- xingfen (兴奋) excitement
- fenju (愤怒) anger
b. Expressions of action:

- **jiuzu fanbao** (酒足饭饱) feasting
- **kuang yin** (狂欢) feasting

However, the expressions of emotion are by far the most frequently used with **zhuyu**.

c. Verbs:
- **shiwang** (失望) lose hope
- **xingfen** (兴奋) enjoy
- **guoxing** (高兴) pleased

T-C **jiuzu fanbao** (酒足饭饱) [wine/liquor enough]
[food full] thoroughly enjoy the feast

8.3. If the X is a SV in **zhuyu**, the structure expresses 'being in the state of X to an extreme degree, so that....' or 'being in the state of X to the utmost extent, so that....', or 'being in the unbearable state of X, so that....' For example:

(II-A) **失意之余，桂冠而去。**
His resignation from his job is influenced by his disillusionment.

-or-
His disillusionment was so great, so unbearable, that he had to resign--a gesture which manifests his extreme disillusionment.

-or-
His disillusionment was so extreme, that he resigned.

(I) **得意之余大量来宾。**
He was so exulted, that he entertained everyone at a feast.
B.4. If X in X zhiyu is a FV, VP, or a T-C construction, X zhiyu expresses the fact that all the activities of X fail to bring satisfaction to the subject, or agent of action, and therefore certain other actions occur.

(2) 他们酒足饭饱之余，
    就想如何去寻乐了。

These people, having had a feast which satisfied their appetites, still were not content and thus began to look for other kinds of enjoyment.

(3) 这组学生在游行示众之余，
    又将曹汝霖的住宅捣毁
    才整队返校。

This group of students was still unsatisfied after having had a demonstration, so they went to destroy the residence of Cao. The act of destroying or ransacking Cao's house is the manifestation of their anger.

Therefore, zhiyu means 'having done X, furthermore...'.

C. X zhiyu and others compared.

C.1. X zhiyu and X zhuhou compared.

Both are used as Component I in a compound sentence. X zhiyu reveals primarily a causal relationship and secondarily a sequential relationship between Component I and II. X zhuhou reveals primarily a sequential relationship between X and Y.

(4) 酒足饭饱之后他大睡一觉。

After feasting, he fell into a deep sleep.
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V ge quantity statement
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gei VP
gei NP VP
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hao

hao VP
hao S
hao bu hao

haole

VP/S haole
Phrase haole, ....
S haole

haole
henduo
you henduo de NP
hui
zeme hui/keneng FVP ne
hun
hun N1 shi N2
ji
ji Neg VP1 you/ye Neg VP2
jibian
jibian/shi bu VP1 ye de VP1/2
jihuo
jihuo .... he, ....

jihuo .... dou ....

jian
sv-jian
ejih
jih bu VP1 ye de VP1
jiaru
jiar .... he, ....

jian
dian X jiu y
jian le/dao/shao NP/VP jiu VP
jian NP/VP gei/zi NP/VP
jian NP/VP jiu NP/VP
jianban
jianban
jian
jian/ran NP/VP

jia
dao/dengdao/zi VP1 de shihou, NP jiu VP2
jian le/dao/shao NP/VP jiu VP2
meizi jianban NP/VP jiu NP/VP
yi jian NP/VP jiu VP
yi VP jiu VP2
Aux VP jiu VP
vaocih .... jiu ....
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| M | lian SV1 dai SV2 | 33 |
| M | lian SV-N1 dai SV-N2 | 33 |
| M | lian x dai Y | 34 |

| M | NP ADV NU M (N) | 1 |
| M | ge M N | 15 |
| M | mei M N | 15 |
| M | Specifier M N | 15 |
| M | dai Pron V NU M NP | 17 |
| M | NU SV M N | 37 |
| M | NU M SV N | 37 |
| M | vi N1 M1 | 43 |
| M | mei M | 43 |
| M | vi M1 vi M1 | 43 |
| M | vi V NU M | 45 |
| M | vi NP1 jiu VP1 :NU M (N) | 45 |
| M | xiuizhi jiu V NU M (N) | 45 |

| MA | MA NP VP | 1 |

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| MA | bu shi ma? | 35 |
| MA | bu shi ve .... ma? | 35 |

| man | man N1 shi N2 | 36 |
| man | man N1 de n2 | 36 |

| mei | mei M N | 15 |
| mei | mei M | 43 |

| meici | meici jiandaod NP/VP jiu VP | 22 |
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| meiguanshil | meiguanshil | 53 |
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M N 15
Mai M N 15
Pron de N 15
Specifier M N 15
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hu N^1 shi N^2 36
man N^1 de N^2 36
quan N^1 shi N^2 36
yi N^1 shi N^2 36
NU SV M N 37
NU M SV N 37
yi N v 44
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vishi v^1 shi v NU M (N) 45
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wu v P yong/shi de N 46
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ne .... lei shuo/ken ba .... 3
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nape .... dou .... 14
ne 8
cai Aux VP ne 8
cai EVP ne 9
cai FVP ne 9
cai Neg FVP ne 9
cai SVP ne 8
zenghe hai/keneng FVP ne 9
VP ne 30
gie VP ne 38
hai VP ne 38
VP ne 38

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gie

dé .... 

gie VP ne

gie VP

qu

lai/qu VP lei/qu

v-lai/qu/you

tu-le qu le

v-shang qian lei/shang qian qu

v-dao N de qianbie lei/qu

v-dao PW lei/qu

v-ruolei/qu

quanz

quanz N1 shi N2

QW

QW Phrase1 jiu QW Phrase2

QW-xie

rang

jieo/rang NP gai VP

renping

renping .... jiuwei ....

ruugo

ruugo .... ba, ....

ruo

vp/s1 zhei, ruo VP/s2 jiu VP3

ruoshi

ruoshi .... ba, ...
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Topic

Topic dou Comment?
Topic dou(shi) Question?
Topic dou(you) Question?
Topic dou Comment le

V

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V ge negative expression 16
V ge quantity statement 16
V yi ge NP [—VP] 16
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VP

ai vp1 bu vp1 2
ai vp1 bu vp1 de 2
Aux vp1 bu vp1 2
Aux vp1 keshi bu vp1 2
vp1 bu vp1 suibian 2
wulan vp1 bu vp1 2
VP1 jiu VP1 de shi
VP leishen
VP le
VP ne
VP she
buden VP/S1 ergie/ve VP2
you VP1 you VP2
nie VP ne
hai VP ne
nie VP
VP ne
VP1 ve hai VP1
songshen VP1 ve hai VP1
ADV Phrase CO-VP Main VP
yi VP1 jiu VP1 nu N (N)
VP yong/shi de N
wei VP yong/shi de N
you Aux VP/FVP le
yongde VP/D
youjie VP
zai VP neg VP (le)
bu zai VP le
jishen zai VP1 ve neg VP2 le
VP/S zeyi, ruo VP/S jiu VP3
VP/S zeyi, fowze jiu VP/S2
VP/S zeyi, yaoburan jiu VP/S2

wei
wei VP yong/shi de N
weideshi
weideshi ..., cai ....
wen
wo wen Pron Q?

wo
ni gui wo VP!
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wulun

wulun VP1 bu VP1 2

wusuowel

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jian X jiu Y 16
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xie

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NU-xie 51
'Pron-xie 51
GM-xie 51
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V-xie 51
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youxie SVP 51
youxie VP 51

xing

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y

X ba, Y
jian x jiu Y
x jiu Y
jian x de Y
x zai Y
x shi Y

yaoburan

VP/s zai, yaoburan jiu VP/s

yaokan

yaokan .... le

yaoshi

yaoshi .... ba, ....
yaoshi .... jiu ....
yaoshi .... ze ....
ye

bu VP1 ye de VP1
bu aux VP1 ye de VP1
buquen VP1 bu VP1 ye de VP1/2
jibian/shi bu VP1 ye de VP1/2
jishu bu VP1 ye de VP1
songshi bu VP1 ye de VP1
ji Neg VP yu ye Neg VP
NP1 ye bu NP1, NP2 ye bu NP2
budan VP/s ergie/ye VP
bu shi ye .... ma?
VP1 ye bei VP1
songshi VP1 ye bei VP1
zai ye Neg VP (le)
jiushi zai VP1 ye Neg VP2 le

yi

yi .... le shuo/kai ba, ....
V yi ye NP-turn VP
yi jian NP/VP jiu VP
yi VP jiu VP
yi n' shi n'2

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