TRANSLATIONS OF WORKS ON CHINESE GRAMMAR

The Phonemes of the Peiping Dialect
Adjectivals and Adverbials
Ba Sentences and Bei Sentences

W. S-Y. Wang
Division of Linguistics
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GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF THE PROJECT ON LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

The central objective of this group is to uncover and formalize some of the underlying properties of natural language. While our attention is primarily focused on Mandarin Chinese and American English, the results we achieve from studying these two languages will be of value toward the construction of a general theory of language. These results will mostly take the form of assertions regarding the structure of the object language under study (rules in the grammar) and statements regarding the structure of the metalanguage used to make these assertions (rules in the theory of language). Clearly these two types of results are mutually dependent. An example of a set of grammar rules is the paper on Mandarin syntax. An example of a set of metalinguistic statements is Fillmore's paper on "traffic rules" in a grammar. Both of these papers are in POLA No. 3.

A complete grammar of a language will contain a set of rules which will generate all and only the sentences of the language with their corresponding structural descriptions. This is an ideal toward which we strive in our analysis of Mandarin and English. In the process of grammar construction, we aim to formulate rules that are precise enough to be programable onto a computer. Such precision is necessary for making explicit the metalinguistic assumptions which underlie the grammar and for the latter to be evaluable for overall economy and consistency. When properly formulated, these rules should correctly describe such notions as grammatical ambiguity and relationship among sentences.

For the construction of a comprehensive theory of language that can explicate the ability to use language, i.e., to analyze, produce, understand and paraphrase sentences, extensive knowledge in the area of semantic analysis is needed to support the grammatical knowledge. In order to effectively understand our ability to translate between languages, further transfer rules would need to be developed in terms of which relations can be established among the grammatic-semantic structures of different languages. We feel that any successful
simulation of linguistic processes, such as sentence recognition and translation, will ultimately need to be based on such a comprehensive theory of language.

The kind of research that we have been pursuing will provide a grammatical basis toward the construction of such a theory. Although we have not yet actively extended our work into semantic analysis and transfer rules, our present research will lead into it in a natural way at the appropriate stage in its development. At that time, the close association that has been maintained between the development of the two grammars will prove to be especially valuable in discovering the transfer rules.

A part of our overall effort has been directed to the improvement of communication and cooperation between ourselves and other groups working on related problems. There exists a healthy situation in the case of people working on English grammar and linguistic theory from a rigorous point of view, and interchange of information is free and effective.

The picture is very different with work in Chinese grammar. While there is massive and vigorous activity on Chinese grammar and linguistic theory in the Communist countries, especially in China, a disproportionately small amount of this work is available in this country. In addition to the political barriers which cause delays and mis-carriages in the mail, among other inconveniences, there is an equally serious obstacle even with the available materials. This is the problem of understanding each other's work through the maze of different linguistic frameworks and terminologies. Here the mutual intelligibility of the various dialects of Linguistics is very low. Nevertheless, we feel that we can learn much from the activities abroad which, at least in the area of Chinese grammar, exist on a much grander scale than in this country.

To create better channels of technical communication, we have compiled a bibliography with glossary, POLA No. 5. Some of the translations we have made from Chinese and Japanese into English appear in POLA No. 4. POLA No. 6 contains tables and algorithms for converting among the various systems of Mandarin transcription.
We are also issuing a book in Chinese, entitled Biànhuànlǜ Yǔfā Lìlùn, which contains the theoretical framework of our research. This book is in large part based on Chomsky's well-known Syntactic Structures.

On the next page is a list of technical reports which have been or will be sent out shortly. The purpose of distributing these reports is twofold. One is that it gives us a quick method of making known our results to a restricted audience without the necessary delay which goes with journal publication. These reports also permit the distribution of materials which are not suitable for inclusion in a journal article, such as large amounts of data. The other purpose is that we will be enabled to receive comments and criticisms on our work, and perhaps incorporate these therein, before submitting some of the results for publication in open literature.

W. S-Y. Wang
March 22, 1963
POLA No. 1: C. J. Fillmore, Indirect object constructions in English and the ordering of transformations; 49pp, February 1962.


POLA No. 4: Translations of works on Chinese grammar: The phonemes of the Peiping dialect; Adjectival and adverbials; Ba sentences and bei sentences; 104pp, May 1963.

POLA No. 5: W. S-Y. Wang and L. Liu, Bibliography and glossary for Chinese grammar.

POLA No. 6: W. S-Y. Wang, Mandarin phonology; R. Brotzman, Vowel formant values; K. P. Li, Tone perception experiment with appended test materials; Inventory of Mandarin syllables; Syllable inventory according to the Pinyin alphabet; Conversion table for different transcriptions; Conversion algorithms among different transcriptions.

POLA No. 7: E. Ching, Four syllable phrases in Chinese; S. Annear and L. Liu, A fragment of Mandarin grammar: Ba and bei; A. T. Tsai, Resultative verb in Mandarin; C. J. Fillmore, Complement structures in English.

*to appear in the journal *Word.*

**to appear in the *Proceedings of the Ninth International Congress of Linguists.*

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It was felt that students of Chinese Linguistics would be interested in the objectives of the Xīnzhīshì series since it is the largest collective effort of a group of leading linguists in the People's Republic of China. To give an indication of their scope of activity we have translated the Preface which appears at the beginning of each of the twenty odd volumes. The translations of two of these volumes appear in this report.

Preface to *Lectures on the Chinese Language*

In order to complement the high school text *Hanyu* we have edited a collection of books, entitled *Lectures on the Chinese Language*. This collection includes the following six sets: (1) Introduction, (2) Phonology, (3) Orthography, (4) Lexicon, (5) Grammar, and (6) Diction. It is intended to serve as a reference to high school teachers of Chinese and as reading materials for students of language and literature. We hope that it can perform a supplementary function in the teaching and learning of Chinese language and literature. This set on Grammar is edited by Mr. Xīn, Fū. We want to express our thanks to Mr. Xīn and the Chinese Language Editor's Office of the People's Educational Publishing House for discussing and selecting the problems and inviting the various grammarians to author and edit these works. It is due to the kind help of the authors, the proof-readers and the various grammarians, that these volumes on Grammar were able to smoothly go through the press.

The set on Grammar is divided into three sections, to correspond respectively to volumes 3, 4, and 5 of *Hanyu*. The titles are as listed below:
第一章

詞類
名詞、動詞、形容詞
處所、時間和方位
能願動詞、趋向動詞、判断詞
數詞和量詞
代詞
副詞、介詞、連詞
助詞和增詞

第二章

句子
主語和謂語
賓語和補語
定語和狀語
複雜謂語
把字句和被字句
述語和虛詠
簡略句、無主句、獨語句

第三章

聯合詞組和聯合複句
偏正複句
緊縮句
長句分析
陳述句、問問句、祈使句、感嘆句
語法上的一般規律和特殊習慣
陳默符號
The tentative grammatical framework on which the Hanyu text books are based has already received the support of a large number of workers in the field of grammar. But there probably are differences between individual scholars with respect to particular problems. Therefore, we wish to make clear the following two points: (1) The author of each volume strived to conform with the framework of the Hanyu textbooks. Therefore, the content within each volume may not completely represent the point of view of its author. In making reference to an individual author, generally he should be represented by his other works. (2) The author may have preserved his own viewpoint to a certain degree with respect to particular problems. If such discrepancies are encountered during teaching, the approach taken in the textbook and the reference book should be used.
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THE PHONEMES OF THE PEIPING DIALECT

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1.0 Phonemics and its terminology

1.1 What are phonemes?

The study which accurately describes the speech sounds that can be actually spoken, after they are investigated in detail, is called phonetics. On the other hand, the study which systematizes the phonetic observations and which explains what are the minimal phonetic elements that may serve to distinguish meanings of words in the language is called phonemics. The elements of speech sounds extracted in this manner are called phonemes and they are distinguished from phones. They are differentiated by the use of different brackets, e.g., \(/t/\) is used to represent the phoneme 't' and \([t]\) is used to indicate the phone 't'.

The phonemes of the Peiping dialect are:

Vowels  
/\(a\)/, /\(a\)/, /\(l\)/

Semivowels  
/\(j\)/, /\(w\)/, /\(r\)/

Consonants  
/\(b\)/, /\(p\)/, /\(f\)/, /\(m\)/ ...... labial sounds
/\(d\)/, /\(t\)/, /\(l\)/, /\(n\)/ ...... apical sounds
/\(z\)/, /\(c\)/, /\(s\)/ ...... dental sounds
/\(z\)/, /\(cx\)/, /\(sr\)/ ...... retroflex sounds
/\(z\)/, /\(cz\)/, /\(sz\)/ ...... palatal sounds
/\(g\)/, /\(k\)/, /\(h\)/ ...... velar sounds
/\ ...... glottal sound

In addition, /\(zr\)/ (phonetic letter '\(\L\)'), /\(zj\)/ (phonetic letter '\(\lj\)') etc., are compound phonemes.

Phonemics investigates the system of the speech sounds of a language and clarifies the intricate parts of its system; it is therefore a prerequisite to the task of establishing phonetic letters. In choosing the letters, since one should consider customary usage as well as practical and pedagogical convenience, it is not advisable to take phonetic symbols directly and allow them to serve as the romanized spelling. Next, since phonemics clarifies the sound system of a language as a whole and the minimal phonetic distinctions needed for carrying out the function of communication, it is also a powerful aid in the learning of a foreign language. One of the reasons that the learning of a foreign language is difficult is that one is not familiar with the sound system of a language that has a different sound system from that of one's own. It may be, therefore, extremely profitable to understand the sound system of the Peiping
Dialect and to master the important phonetic distinctions before proceeding with the study of the language itself.

1.2 Initials and finals

In order to describe the Peiping Dialect in terms of phonemics, one must first arrange its speech sounds and then interpret them. Here we will attempt to show the basic method of arranging the speech sounds. If we listen to a series of Mandarin sounds such as "搭", "拉", "\ldots", we notice that only the initial parts of individual sounds are different from one another, and the final parts are the same. The same can be said regarding "\ldots", etc. (disregarding tone). If we arrange such a series, the following chart may be made.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
A & B & C & D \\
搭 & 哈 & 嘻 & (the rest is omitted) \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

If this chart is read horizontally, we notice that the final parts are the same and the initial parts are different; if we read it vertically, the initial parts are the same and the final parts are different. In any case, the speech sounds in each column can be divided into the initial and the final elements. The former is called the "initial" and the latter the "final", and the combination of the two is called a "syllable." In other words, syllable = initial + final.

1.3 Parallel series

The "\ldots" of row A in the above chart must be distinguished from "\ldots", no matter who pronounces it; otherwise, it will bring about a confusion in the speech sounds. Then, in what respects is the initial of "\ldots" distinguished from those of "\ldots"?

A. It cannot be pronounced with the lips or the back of the tongue.
B. It is pronounced with the tip of the tongue, but it is a plosive, not an affricate like [ts].
C. It is not a lateral like "\ldots", nor is it a nasal like "r".
D. Finally, it is not aspirated like "t"; it is unaspirated.

The initial of "\ldots" of row B is also differentiated from those of "\ldots" by the same four features of ABCD. The same can be said for row C.
Furthermore, the ways in which "他，他，他，..." and "她，她，她，...", are distinguished from each of the other columns are the same. In such a case, we call a series such as ABC a parallel series. The way to discover the phonemes of a language is to organize the speech sounds of the language and arrange them in such a way as to form parallel series. A book of phonology of the old days was nothing more than a display of parallel series.

2.0 The initials in the Peiping Dialect

2.1 Aspirated sounds and unaspirated sounds

In the parallel series described above, we may consider the initials of "他，他，他，..." to be the same. That is because the ways in which these are distinguished from those of other columns are exactly the same. Suppose we symbolize them as \( t' \). And since the initials of "她，她，她，..." are also the same, we will symbolize them as \( t' \). If we express the initials by using the symbols by which "他，她，他，..." can be easily distinguished from one another, and if we classify them according to the place and manner of articulation, the following chart may be constructed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>unaspirated</th>
<th>aspirated</th>
<th>laterals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labials</td>
<td>( p' )</td>
<td>( p' )</td>
<td>( f' )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( t' )</td>
<td>( t' )</td>
<td>( l' )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguals</td>
<td>( c' )</td>
<td>( c' )</td>
<td>( s' )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( k' )</td>
<td>( k' )</td>
<td>( h' )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What we call "linguals" and "dentals" here are traditional Chinese terms; the former are generally called "apical plosives" and the latter "apical plosives or fricatives".

Now that we have the basic symbols, we will attempt to interpret them. First,

\[
\begin{align*}
\{ p\} (巴) & : \{ p'\} (仁) \\
\{ t\} (他) & : \{ t'\} (他) \\
\{ c\} (来) & : \{ c'\} (来) \\
\{ k\} (来) & : \{ k'\} (来)
\end{align*}
\]

in the above group, each pair consists of an unaspirated and an aspirated sound. The place of articulation is the same for both, but there are the following differences:
<Aspirated sounds> There is a strong closure at the point of articulation, but the glottis is open, and when the closure is released, the breath flows out.

<Unaspirated sounds> There is a relatively weak closure at the point of articulation, but the glottis is tense and closed. When the closure is released, the voice flows out from the glottis.

In other words, the aspirated sound breaks the closure with the breath, and the unaspirated sound breaks the closure with the voice. Those that break the closure with the voice are the voiced sounds like b, d, g, and those that break the closure without being accompanied by the voice are the so-called unvoiced sounds like p, t, k. Furthermore, the voiced sounds usually have a weak or lenis closure, and the unvoiced sounds usually have a strong or fortis closure.

In order to symbolize distinctly in the simplest way the differences between the unaspirated and the aspirated sounds of the Peiping Dialect, it is convenient to represent them in the following way:

<Unaspirated sounds> /b/ /d/ /z/ /g/ ?
<Aspirated sounds> /p/ /t/ /c/ /k/ /h/

2.2 /h/ and //. 

One of the important characteristics of the unaspirated sounds of the Peiping Dialect is that the glottis is tense and closed in the beginning; as soon as the closure of the oral cavity is released, the glottis also opens and produces voice. That is, it may be considered as being accompanied by a slight glottal plosion. The initial /h/ of "p, t, k/ is included in the series of aspirated sounds. /h/ may be regarded as having the same quality as that of the breath portion which accompanies the aspirated sounds like /p, t, k/. Then could the sound which has the same quality as that of the glottal plosion which accompanies the unaspirated sounds like /b, d, g/ occur as an initial?

The sound that is representative of the glottal plosive sound is the plosive sound that is produced at the throat when hacking, but in the beginning of the syllable of "p, t, k/ of the Peiping Dialect, a light glottal plosion similar to that described above can be heard. And also "p, t, k/ "p, t, k/ "p, t, k/ etc., may be divided as in /da, an/, /ke, aj/, /sj, ew/, because the glottal closure occur between them. If we represent this sound with /./,
the syllables that are generally believed to begin with vowels may be interpreted
as having /./ as their initials. Thus the foregoing chart will become as follows:

<Unaspirated sounds> /b/ /d/ /g/ /

<Aspirated sounds> /p/ /t/ /c/ /k/ /

2.3 The retroflex sound and the palatal sound

However, the initials of the Peiping Dialect are not limited to the ones
illustrated above. Let us examine the following parallel series.

| A | 札又沙口 | 素恰 disability
| B | 占職山然 | 面麻先烟
| C | 范植松仍 | 杭音興荣
| D | 張昌丙讓 | 江賜香失 |

Of these, we will assume that the initials of "札, 札, 札" are the same and
symbolize them as ['z'], and that the initials of "家, 'j', 'L" are the same
and these we will symbolize as ['z']. And if we represent each of these in turn
with a simple symbol, the following initials may be extracted. The first group
consists of the retroflex sounds produced by placing the apex of the tongue at
the back of the upper front teeth, and the other group consists of the palatal
sounds produced by flattening the tongue surface and placing it against the roof
of the mouth.

<Retroflex sounds> ['z'] ['j'] ['s'] ['r']

<Palatal sounds> ['z'] ['j'] ['s'] ['r']

2.4 The interpretation of the retroflex sounds

Now let us compare the retroflex sounds with the dental initials, /z, c, s/

<Initial sounds> /z/ /c/ /s/

<Retroflex sounds> ['z'] ['j'] ['s'] ['r']

Both are apical sounds and affricate or fricative sounds, and they are pronounced
alike, except that the latter have a characteristic feature called "retroflexion"
which the former lack. Then, if we represent the feature of retroflexion with
a symbol, namely, /r/, we will have /z/+ /r/ -> ['z'], /c/+ /r/ -> ['j'], /s/+ /r/ -> ['s'].
And since the initial of "札" may be considered as /r/ before which the retro-
flex fricative /r/ is added, it will be represented as /rr/.

<Retroflex sounds> /zr/, /cr/, /sr/, /rr/
2.5 The interpretation of the palatal sounds

If we look at the following chart, we notice that the palatal group occurs only with finals which are distinct from those occurring with the velar group and the dental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>l</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>g</th>
<th>k</th>
<th>h</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>j</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>an</td>
<td>蕨難</td>
<td>平</td>
<td>早</td>
<td>留</td>
<td>三</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>jan</td>
<td>桃年</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In other words, /l/ and /n/ occur with both A and B as in /ian/:/ljan/, /nan/:/njan/, but the /z/ group occurs only with /-an/ and /-ar/ (the plain finals); thus there is no such syllable as "zjan". And /g/ group occurs only with /-an/ and /-ar/; hence, there is no "gjan". One can hear a fairly clear "j" sound in "j" of the Peiping Dialect; it is quite different in quality from the Japanese "otōchan". Thus in the Peiping Dialect the /z/ group appears only with those finals like /-jan/ and /-jan/ (the palatal finals) which contain /j/.

Thus, when the /g/ and /z/ groups appear only with plain finals, and the /g/ group only with palatal finals, and when their distributional patterns are different from one another, we may say that the /g/ and /z/ groups are in complementary distribution with the /g/ group. Where there is complementary distribution, we may interpret the two groups as the variants of the same sound element. The variation in this case may be interpreted as the result of the addition of /j/.

Hence, the following explanation may be given to this phenomenon.

(1) /g/+/j/ → /z/ /k/+/j/ → /c/ /h/+/j/ → /s/ (2) /z/+/j/ → /z/ /c/+/j/ → /s/ /s/+/j/ → /s/

In short, the following two kinds of symbolizations are possible for the palatal sounds.

(1) /g/ /k/ /h/ /j/ (2) /z/ /c/ /s/ /j/

In order to determine which of the above two interpretations is more suitable, let us survey the entire system of the Peiping Dialect. For instance, if we extract the initials of the following syllables,

A 自 一 次 - 私
B 走 - 答 - 朝
we have the following:
A /z-c-s/
B /ɔr-cr-ɔr-r̩r/
C /ɔj-cj-sj-j/ or /gj-kj-hj-j/

When we examine this chart, we notice that we can form an organized system of these sounds by interpreting the case where the /z/ group combined with retroflexion as /ɔr/ and the case where the /z/ group combined with the palatal element as /ɔj/. These three groups are all fricatives; there are common characteristics among them; thus, it is fitting that we interpret the three as one class. On the other hand, if we interpret the palatal sound as the /gj/ type, we may not find any relationship among the three. Thus, the following interpretation of the retroflex and palatal sounds seems most appropriate.

<Dental sounds> /z, c, s/
<Retroflex sounds> /ɔr, cr, ɔr, r̩r/
<Palatal sounds> /ɔj, cj, sj, j/

2.6 The interpretation of the labial sounds

We notice in the following chart that in the lingual, dental, retroflex, and velar sounds, there are some cases where they join with rounded finals, and other cases where they join with unrounded finals. Since lip-rounding may be regarded as the same as the initial of "f" or "w", it will be symbolized as /w/. However, since the labial sounds have only one group, the distinction between rounded and unrounded does not apply.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/d l z s ɔr ɔr g.../</th>
<th>/b p f m/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-an</td>
<td>瞅蘭籍三皇山...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-wan</td>
<td>端ionario然株椫...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-a</td>
<td>德勒則色蓮蝂説鍋...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-we</td>
<td>多羅作某喲說鍋...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We can see from the above chart that in the case of /dan/ (單), /dwan/ (端), the presence or absence of /w/ serves to distinguish the words, but with the labial sounds, either /ban/ or /bwan/ will do. In other words, /w/ is a non-dinctive element in this case. By the same token, "f" can be either /man/ or /mwan/, and "w" can be either /faw/ or /fwaw/.

There is a clear lip-
rounding in such words as "渡,彼,彼", but this is only because they must be distinguished from such words as "狄,倍,背", therefore, it does not matter whether the phonemic representation is /be/ or /bwe/. The labial sounds of the Peiping Dialect are often accompanied by some lip-rounding as long as they are not restricted by the following finals, but this is nothing more than a phonetic fact.

2.7 The interpretation of the syllabic "r".

Syllables having as their initials the retroflex sound /rr/ may be interpreted as "/r/", "/rran/", "/rrag/", but "/r/", which has a narrow final, may be interpreted as /rr/. For the final, see below. But in the Peiping Dialect, there is in addition to "/rr/", a syllabic retroflex sound (syllabic r) as in "/rrin/, /rra/ (in /rra/). Since it sounds as though it is accompanied by a neutral vowel "ə", it is generally interpreted as /ər/. However, since the apex curls back sharply and thus the closure allows an opening, it is thought of as producing a vocalic sound; thus both the initial and the final can be interpreted as /r/, so that it can be considered as /rr/, a syllable which has absorbed a vowel nucleus ə. If we observe this syllable, we notice that the degree of retroflexion remains the same from beginning to end. The final /-r/ is treated below.

2.8 Semivowels and medials

In words such as "渡,彼", during the transition from the initial /d/ or /s/ to the final there is a sound which is produced by flattening the surface of the tongue. This sound is very close to the vowel /i/, but since its quality is the same as that of the initial of "彼", we symbolize it as /j/. In the case of "彼" and "彼", it is not so clear as the above, but a linking /j/ can also be recognized there. In the case of /zjan/ and /sjan/, the initial is already palatalized; therefore, an additional tongue movement for the flattening of the tongue does not occur, but as was described in 2.5, there is a linking /j/ between the initial and the final.

Next, in the case of "渡,彼", there occurs clearly a lip-rounding sound during the transition between the initial of /d/ or /s/ and the final /-ə/. This sound resembles the vowel [u], but since it can be considered as having the same quality as that of the initial of "彼", we symbolize it as /w/. In the case of "渡,彼", it is not very clear, but a linking /w/ can be
noticed.

In the linking sound produced during the transition from the initial to the final there are various differences of degree, but we may group them together and call them "medials". The medials are /j/ and /w/. The element /r/ in words such as 北/zhuan/ and 生/sher/ is today nothing more than a retroflex component, but in older Chinese it was one of the medials. The three sounds, /j/, /w/, /r/ are the semivowels in the Peiping Dialect, and they can become "syllable finals" when placed at the end of the finals. Since the narrowing of the syllable finals /-j/ and /-w/ is not great, these are often heard as the vowels [-i] and [-u].

Examples:

**<Medials>**

| /j/  | /djan/ |
| /w/  | /dwan/ |
| /r/  | /ker/  |

**<Syllable finals>**

| /d/  | /daj/ |
| /a/  | /daw/ |
| /n/  | /kor/ |

On further analysis we find that finals may be divided into three parts: "medial"+"peak(vowel nucleus or main vowel)"+"syllable final". /dwan/ thus consists of an initial /d/, a medial /w/, a peak /a/, and a syllable final /n/.

2.9 Syllable

Following a suggestion of Saussure's, we may represent abstractly the degree of closure at the point of articulation by the numbers 0 - 7 and construct the following chart. 0 indicates a complete closure, 7 a wide opening.

| 0   | /d, t, g, k, p, z, c, ʈr, ʈʃ, ʂj, ɕj/ | plosives and affricates |
| 1   | /s, ʂr, ʂj, h, f/                  | fricatives            |
| 2   | /n, m, ɳ/                         | nasals                |
| 3   | /l/                               | lateral               |
| 4   | /j, w, r/                         | semivowels            |
| 5   | /i, (u), etc.,/                   | narrow vowels         |
| 6   | /e, (o), etc.,/                   | medium vowels         |
| 7   | /a/                               | wide vowel            |

/j, w, r/ which are assigned a sonority grade of 4 fall in between the consonant group which are of grades 3 or under and the vowel group which are
of grades 5 or above. Now let us represent the Peiping word "\(\text{凉快}\)" [refreshing or cool] using these numbers.

```
   3 4
  1 \(j\) a \(j\)
```

When there are two such shapes we say there are two syllables and when there is one, we say there is one syllable.

A syllable, then, is a group of phonemes forming one such shape and having a vowel nucleus as its peak. A phoneme which comes between the initial and the peak is simply a semivowel which is wider than the initial consonant (below 3 degrees) and narrower than the peak vowel (above 5 degrees). In this way, some semivowels are medials.

2.10 Comparison of the chart of initials and medials with the First Revised Scheme of Romanization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>&lt;phonemic symbols&gt;</th>
<th>&lt;First Revised Scheme of Romanization&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/b p f m w /</td>
<td>b p f m w</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/d t l n /</td>
<td>d t l n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z c s /</td>
<td>z c s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/(\text{zh}) (\text{ch}) (\text{sh}) (\text{r}) /</td>
<td>(\text{zh}) (\text{ch}) (\text{sh}) (\text{r})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/(\text{gi}) (\text{ki}) (\text{hi}) (j) /</td>
<td>(\text{gi}) (\text{ki}) (\text{hi}) (j)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g k h /</td>
<td>g k h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.0 The finals in the Peiping Dialect

3.1 Preliminary arrangement

When we arranged the syllables of the Peiping Dialect in such a way as to construct a parallel series, the result was a chart similar to that in Section 1.2 above. Since we can extract a common final from each of the rows A, B, C, etc., in the chart, we may tentatively symbolize these as \{\(-\text{a}\)\}, \{\(-\text{an}\)\}, \{\(-\text{en}\)\}, etc. In such a manner, approximately 41 types of finals may be extracted. If we divide them into three large classes based on their vowel quality (wide-narrow), the following chart may be formed.
3.2 The interpretation of the wide finals

The [æ] of [aŋ], [aŋ], [e] ([aŋ]), etc., is backed; the [a] of [jaŋ], [jaŋ], [e] ([jaŋ]), etc., is fronted; there is a slight difference between the two, but in the Peiping Dialect, there do not exist such words as [laŋ], [laŋ], that have to be distinguished from the words [læ], [læ], etc., in meaning. By the same token, there are no words like [kæ], [kæ], etc., which differ in meaning from [kæ], [kæ], etc. Consequently, from the phonemic standpoint there is no need to distinguish between [æ] and [æ]; therefore, we symbolize them both as /a/. The syllable final in [ai] may be interpreted as /{-}/. When /-m/ occurs as the syllable final, the peak /a/ is somewhat fronted and thus is heard as [a]. This is nothing more than a phonetic phenomenon.

And there are no such words as [jan], and [yan] which are different in meaning from [jæ] and [jæ]. Therefore, from the phonemic standpoint, there is no need to recognize a phoneme /ɛ/; thus, these words may be phonemically interpreted as /jan/ and /yan/. It is possible to interpret the narrowing of the final in /jan/ as the influence of the medial /j/. Furthermore, the [y] that occurs as the medial of [jæ], [jæ], etc., can be regarded as the combination of the palatalization feature of /j/ and the lip-rounding of /w/ and can therefore be symbolized as /jw/. Thus, /jæ/, /jæ/, /jan/, /jæ/, /wan/, /jæ/, /jan/.

In the case of the syllable finals of [æ] and [æ], there occurs an [-u] which falls between [u] and [o], as in [aU] and [jaU], but since its distinctive feature is labialization, these can be interpreted as /aw/ and /jaw/. Thus, all the finals that contain a wide vowel may be classified as /a/.

3.3 The interpretation of the medium finals

In [æ], [æ], [æ], etc., there is a final [-] similar to the vowel in the English [go]; in [æ], [æ], etc., there is a final [œ]. If we arrange these in a chart, we notice that there is complementary distribution between the two.
Accordingly, we may group them together and write /ə/. The qualitative difference in the finals is no more than a phonetic phenomenon influenced by the initial. Similarly, we may interpret /je/, /ye/, etc., as /ja/, /jwa/, etc.

Since there is labialization in /kuo/, /tuo/, /quo/, etc., they contain the medial /w/. Furthermore, since in the Peiping Dialect there are no such words as /kwe/ and /kwe/ in addition to /kwo/, we may symbolize the finals of these words most economically as /-wa/. It is because of the medial /w/ that the vowel nucleus sounds like [o], and it may well be compared with /ja/ which sounds as if it contains the vowel nucleus [e] because of the medial /j/. Thus, we may transcribe the words as follows:

/kə/ : /ko/
/da/ : /dwa/
/era/ : /srwa/
/la/ : /lwa/ : /lja/
/le/ : /lwe/

The finals of /kei/ and /kwe/ may be written as /-ej/ and /-wej/. The vowel in this case is somewhat fronted because of the syllable final /-j/, and it is heard as [e]. Similarly the final in /kwaj/, /twa/, etc., is a special variant occurring in the presence of particular initials and tones, and it may be interpreted as /-waj/.

The final /ow/ of /wu/, /w/, etc., may be interpreted as /aw/. In this instance, the vowel is rounded (labialized) because of the syllable final /-w/ and thus its auditory value is close to that of [o]. The final of /w/, /w/, /w/, etc., takes the shape of /jaw/ in various initial and tonal environments, but it may be interpreted that its vowel nucleus is the medium vowel /a/. Hence, its final may be symbolized as /jaw/.

The final of /xen/, /en/, etc., may be analyzed as /an/. /kun/ and /sun/ generally have the vowel nucleus [u], but some people observe that it is accompanied by a short [a] as in /kuan/ and /guan/; therefore, in phonemics, there is nothing to prevent us from interpreting this as /-wan/,
imitating the National Phonetic Letters.* We interpret the finals of 陰 [jin] and 陽 [yin] and oun [tsyn] as /-jen/ and /-jwan/ respectively, again in imitation of the National Phonetic Letters. When the final is heard as [i] or [y] this may be explained as follows: the medial /j/ and syllable final /-n/ have a tendency to palatalize and thus influence the /a/ which occurs between the two. Hence, the finals of these words may be symbolized as follows: 雲 /jen/ · 隱 /jwan/.

The final [-o l of 漢, 乃, 等, etc., will be represented as /ə/. The final of 聖, 逢, 聚, etc., is generally [i], but we will interpret it as /jə/, agreeing with the interpretation of the National Phonetic Letters. Finally, the final [u] of 來, 今, 完, etc., contains the vowel [u] which is midway between [o] and [u]; it is closer to the medium vowel than to the narrow vowel. If we interpret it as /wa/, following the examples of "有, 久", etc., then we will have 來 /dwa/ , 今 /gwa/, etc.

This agrees with the interpretation of the National Phonetic Letters, and /ə/ (low vowel) and /wa/ (high vowel) become clearly contrasted as illustrated in the above chart.

Lastly, the final of 楊, 陽, 順, etc., is different from that of 靈, 供, and [a]; the former is [u], the latter is [yn]. Since this vowel nucleus [u] may be interpreted as /wa/ as stated above, we may write 聚 as /jwa/, 完 as /cjwa/ and 順 as /ajwa/. This too coincides with the interpretation of the National Phonetic Letters.

Thus, all the finals which contain a medium vowel may be uniformly classified into the /a/ group.

 Translator's Note: National Phonetic Letters [zhuyin zimu] is a system of characters for what are here called initials and finals introduced by the Chinese Ministry of Education in 1919, for the purpose of indicating a standard pronunciation. See "Comparative Table of Pinyin, Yale, Wade-Giles, Zhuyin zimu and Guoyeu Romaziyh Systems" in POLA #6.
3.4 The interpretation of the narrow finals

The words [i], [t∫], [ei], etc., all have different finals. [-t] is called a retroflex vowel; it is pronounced like the initial /rr/ of "a", except the friction is eliminated by a slight widening of the stricture. [-l] is called an apical vowel; it is pronounced like [z] except that the friction is lost through a slight widening of the apical stricture. All three of the vowels [i], [u], and [t∫] have a narrower opening at the roof of the mouth than the medium vowels [e], [o], etc.; therefore, they are classified as narrow vowels. Furthermore, the occurrence of these three vowels shows that they are in complementary distribution, as will be seen from the following examples:

[i] appears with the apical sounds /z s/, etc.,
[u] appears with the retroflex sounds /rr cr srr/, etc.,
[i] appears with the palatal sounds /s j s/, etc.;

therefore, we may put them together and symbolize them as /I/. The occurrence of these three variants may be regarded as the result of the influence of the phonetic quality of the initial or the medial. Thus, they are interpreted as follows:

\[ /zI/ , /cI/ , /sI/ \]
\[ /zrI/ , /crI/ , /srI/ , /rrI/ \]
\[ /zjI/ , /cjI/ , /sjI/ , /jI/ \]

Lastly, the final of [u], [u], etc., is [u], but it is a narrow vowel, and furthermore, it is accompanied by a strong lip rounding; therefore, it may be interpreted as /wI/. The final is heard as [u] because of the influence of the medial /w/. The final [y] of [y], [y], etc., is also a narrow vowel, and moreover, combines the characteristics of palatalization and labialization; hence, it may be regarded as /jwI/. Thus, there are the four different finals containing /I/ as in /sI/, /wI/, /njI/, and /wI/.

3.5 Comparison of the chart of the finals with the Scheme of Romanization

Summarizing the above, the main vowels of the Peiping Dialect may be reduced to three classes: /a/ (wide), /o/ (medium), /I/ (narrow). The medials are /j/, /w/, and /jw/; we call those which have no medial "/n/" (open), those which have the medial /j/ "/a/" (spread), those with an accompanying /w/ "/a/" (rounded), and those with /jw/ "/u/" (front rounded). There are five different types of syllable finals: /-zero/, /-j/, /-w/, /-n/, /-y/.
It is clear that this phonemic analysis, which gives importance to the function of the medials, while reducing the vowel nuclei to the three types /a/, /e/, and /I/, yields an extremely simple system. As a result, however, since it includes such practices as representing [u] as /wI/, which are not found in the National Romanization, there will probably be some problems with respect to orthography. The Latinzua** system recognizes the six vowels: i, y, u, o, e, a.

3.6 The "r-suffixed" vowels

The r-suffixed vowels constitute a rather complex problem from the phonetic point of view, and accordingly their phonemic symbolization is also difficult. I propose, however, the following solution.

A. r-suffix after syllable final -zero

Examples: α/ha/ → /har/  
oglobular/ → /ser/ -zero → -r  
/zi/ → /zIr/  

**Translator's Note: Latinzua is a system of romanization devised by A. Dragunov for teaching the Chinese in Russia to read.
B. r-suffix after syllable final -j
Examples: 0/haj/ —> /har/  -j —> -r
          0/hej/ —> /her/

C. r-suffix after syllable final -n
Examples: 0/gan/ —> /gar/
          0/ger/  -n —> -r

D. r-suffix after syllable final -w
Examples: 0/haw/ —> /hawr/
          0/dew/ —> /dewr/  -w —> -wr

E. r-suffix after syllable final -η

These rules are based on the following justification: in the Peiping Dialect /-n/ and /-j/ have the characteristic of causing the tongue surface to become flat and to approach the front of the mouth while /-r/ causes the tip of the tongue to be retroflexed and the surface of the tongue to become concave. These two are not compatible. Hence, when /-j/ and /-n/ have the r-suffix attached, the original endings disappear. But since /-η/ and /-w/ do not have properties incompatible with /-r/, they may be combined with /-r/ to form /-jr/ and /-wr/. For example, since in the change from 0½ [tag] to 0½ [tar], there remains a nasal element, and in the change from 0½ [xaU] to 0½ [xaw], a lip rounding remains, it is possible to interpret these words phonemically as 0½ r /dajr/ and 0½ r /hawr/.

Thus, if we symbolize phonemically the r-suffixed forms with reference to the above master chart of the finals, the following chart may be constructed:

```
  /α/  /αι/  /αϊ/  /α/  
|    |    |    |    |
|/ar|/war|/jawr|/|
|/aj|/aw|/awr|/|
|/an|/al|/jewr|/|
|/a|/awr|/jawr|/
```

4.0 Tones

The above has been an explanation of the separate sounds which make up syllables, but the Peking Dialect also has tones, which overlie and characterize syllables as a whole. For example, in /maw/ (tone 2) and /maw/ (tone 4), the constituents of the syllables are the same, but the differences in tone allow them to be used as separate words. It is for this reason that tone must be dealt with in phonemics.

The tones which are usually abstracted from observations of the Peking Dialect are the following four types:

- Tone 1: high, level
- Tone 2: high, rising
- Tone 3: low, slightly rising
- Tone 4: high, falling

In traditional terminology these are called 1 阴平, 2 阳平, 3 上声, 4 下声. If we were to interpret these four tones in phonemic terms, we see that since tone 2 (rising) and tone 4 (falling) are in contrast, and since tone 1 (high, level) is opposed to tone 3, the distinctive characteristic of tone 3 is "low, level"; the usual slight rise of the end may be thought of as a phonetic phenomenon involving a return to the average height. The phenomena of sandhi are not treated in phonemics.

In addition to the four tones there is also a neutral tone. For example, while the /zi/ of 詩 (the name of the book, the name of the man) has tone 3, the /zi/ of 詩 ("old man") is neutral, its level being near that of the average level of the speaking voice. The neutral tone appears frequently in syllables representing affixes and conjunctions, etc., and in the rhythm of speech it constitutes 1 mora, that is one of the units corresponding to one syllable. It also serves to mark endings and junctures between a syllable and preceding and following syllables. This is true, for example, of the /da/ of 他的.
ADJECTIVALS AND ADVERBIALS

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 The distinction between adjectivals and adverbials.

Adjectivals and adverbials are both modificational structures. They combine with head words to form subordinate constructions. The distinction between adjectivals and adverbials can be seen either from the modified head words or from the adjectivals and adverbials themselves. Seen from the head words, we ask: "What structures are modified by the adjectivals? What structures are modified by the adverbials?" Seen from the adjectivals and adverbials themselves, we ask "What word classes can function as adjectivals? What classes can function as adverbials?"

In the high school text Hanyu, it is stated that "Adjectivals are accompanying structures which occur before nouns" (cf. 5.132); "nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals and measures are adjectivals if they can occur before nouns in answer to such questions as sheide, shenme yang de and duoshao" (cf. 5.16). The two statements tell us: (1) Head words modified by adjectivals are nouns, (2) Nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, measures, etc., can function as adjectivals. The same book also stated that "Adverbials are accompanying structures which occur before verbs or adjectives in a sentence" (cf. 5.136). "Adjectives, adverbs or place words or time words are adverbials if they occur before verbs or adjectives in answer to such questions as zenme and duome." (cf. 5.17). This is to say: (1) Adverbials modify verbs or adjectives, (2) Adjectives, adverbs, time words and place words can function as adverbials.

In certain subordinate constructions, we can determine whether a particular structure is an adjectival or adverbial on the basis of the part of speech of the head word. For example, in zhenshi, the head word shi is a noun, in zhenhao, the head word is an adjective. Therefore, the former zhen is an adjectival, the latter zhen is an adverbial. Sometimes it is not possible to determine the syntactic category of the modificational structure by just examining the head word. For example, in wode xiao bian jianjian shaole (ju 15), although xiao is a verb, we cannot say wode is an adverbial. Of course, we can say the verb xiao has been nominalized and has taken on the properties of a noun, and therefore the preceding modificational structure is not an adverbial but an adjectival. Actually, this type of explanation misrepresents the cause and effect relationship. The reason we are able to determine that xiao has been nominalized is precisely because the preceding modificational structure...
is an adjectival and not an adverbial. From this it can be seen that in certain subordinate constructions it is possible to determine whether a modificational structure is an adjectival or an adverbial by examining the structure itself. For example, a possessive modificational structure composed of a noun or a pronoun must be an adjectival; a modificational structure composed of an adverb must be an adverbial.

In the text, the explanations on adjectivals and adverbials are rather brief and do not cover all situations. Actually, adjectivals modify not only nouns, adverbials modify not only verbs and adjectives, and more word classes can function as adjectivals and adverbials than are indicated in the text.

In subordinate constructions, sometimes the modificational structure occurs directly before the head word, sometimes it has to precede “地” or “地” and “地” are both pronounced [do], their phonetic values being the same. In orthography, we make the following distinction: after adjectivals we write “地”, after adverbials we write “地”. But in general use, this practice is not always followed. After adjectivals everyone writes “地”, after adverbials some people write “地”, some people write “地”. In this book these two characters are kept strictly distinct. But in the example sentences, we reproduce the characters as they appeared in the source.

1.2 The nomenclature of adjectivals and adverbials.

In his Li Jin Xi called modificational structures "additives". Additives are divided into "adjective additives" and "adverb additives". The former corresponds to adjectivals. The latter corresponds to adverbials. Furthermore, Mr. Li established the term "position" for the nouns and pronouns in the sentence (the two classes are called "substantives" in 新著國語文法). When nouns or pronouns function as adjective additives, they are said to be "in major position" [在顯位]. When they function as adverb additives, they are "in minor position" [在顯位]. In other words, modificational structures composed of nouns or pronouns have two sets of parallel terminology. They can be called additives (adjective or adverb). They also can be called "in X position", where X is either major or minor.

In Shu Xiang adopted the "three rank analysis" [三品說] of the Danish linguist Jespersen. He divided all words in the
sentence into primary, secondary and tertiary ranks according to the position they occupy in the sentence. Words which occupy an adjectival position are of secondary rank. Words which occupy an adverbial position are of tertiary rank. In his book, adjectivals are called additives (如詞), adverbials are called tertiary rank additives (高級附加詞). The "3 rank analysis" was also used in Wang Li's 《中國現代語法》. His so-called "首品"、"次品" and "末品" correspond respectively to primary rank, secondary rank and tertiary rank in 《中國文法要略》. Wang Li called adjectivals "additives" (如詞), but did not give a special term to adverbials.

In the "Talks on Grammar" (語法講話) of the Grammar Group of the Institute of Linguistic Research, Academia Sinica, modificational structures are called "modifiers" (修飾語). These are divided into: (1) modifiers of nouns, (2) modifiers of verbs, and (3) modifiers of adjectives. (1) corresponds to adjectivals, (2) and (3) combined correspond to adverbials.

In the text Hanyu (漢語), modificational structures are divided into adjectivals and adverbials. Its treatment is quite similar to that in 新著國語文法 and 語法講話. But the terminologies used in the latter two books are defective. The term "adverb additive" in 新著國語文法 suggests "additive which modifies adverb" but actually denotes "adverb-like additive". In the original book, "形容的附加語" is used parallelly with "副詞的附加語". "形容" may be used to denote "形容詞". But from the appearance of the term, it seems to be parallel with "possessive additives" (所有格附加語) and "same-gender additive" (同一性附加語). This can be easily misinterpreted to refer to subdivisions within the adjectival. The terminology in 語法講話 is, first of all, not precise. For example, "名詞的修飾語" can be interpreted to mean "the modifier preceding the noun" (名詞前邊的修飾語), or "the modifier composed of nouns" (由名詞充任的修飾語). More importantly, "名詞的修飾語", "動詞的修飾語" and "形容詞的修飾語" are syntactic categories determined on the basis of the part of speech of the head word. But the head word may be of a part of speech other than noun, verb or adjective. Consequently, this approach cannot account for all the modificational structures. Furthermore, the parallelism between adjectival (名詞的修飾語)
and adverbial is not apparent from their terminology.

The two terms, adjectival and adverbial, are free from the defects just mentioned. They have the great advantage of being simple and short. Also, they seem to be compatible with the terms for the other categories, subject, predicate, object, and complement.

2.0 Adjectivals

2.1 What do adjectivals modify?

Most commonly, adjectivals modify nouns, e.g., "白马, 漂亮衣服, 木头房子, 今天的报纸, 我哥哥, -首诗, 吃的東西, 美麗的北京". Numerals and measures also can be modified by adjectivals, e.g., "兩個十 (十十), 那兩本, 最大的一個." Verbs and adjectives are modified by adverbials. But if they are nominalized, they take on the properties of nouns. Then the preceding modificational structure is no longer an adverbial, but an adjectival. (cf. 1.0 "The distinction between adjectivals and adverbials")

我的笑容渐渐少了 (朱15)
我的心随湖水的绿而摇荡 (朱140)
街上冷冷静静使她的声音显得特别的清亮 (骆176)
Pronouns are an unusual class of words. According to grammatical function, they can be divided into two large groups. The function of one group is similar to that of nouns, e.g., personal pronouns "我, 你, 他, 我們, 你們, 他們, 自己, 人家, 大家", interrogative pronouns "誰, 什麼", etc. The other kind functions similarly as verbs and adjectives, e.g., "這麼 (樣), 那麼 (樣), 怎麼 (樣)". The latter group can only be modified by adverbials, not by adjectivals. Pronouns of the former group generally do not become modified. But in the written style, occasionally they are modified by adjectivals, e.g.:

擺脫掉紛擾，還原了一個平平常常的我 (朱 30)
所有的一切都會忘記了 (朱 30)

Such adjectivals generally are followed by the auxiliary [助詞] 的.

The situation with "甚麼" is rather unusual. It frequently takes adjectivals (primarily numerals and measures), and is not followed by "的", e.g.:

他說了些什麼?
你樂個什麼!
他把我什麼都拿走了。

Aside from single words, the following types of constructions can also take adjectivals.

2.1.1 When a "的" construction functions as a noun, it can take an adjectival, e.g.:

一個拉車的苦的是粒粒流出來的血. (路 107)
你大概是個唱花旦的. (曹 233)
我叫幾個藏教相信的您的難難. (曹 277)
2.12 Constructions that are formed by conjoining nouns can take adjectivals, e.g.: 

Constructions that are formed by conjoining nominalized verbs or adjectives behave like conjoined noun constructions. They also take adjectivals, e.g.: 

2.2 Nouns as adjectivals. 

Where nouns function as adjectivals, they may or may not use the auxiliary, "的", e.g.:
Generally speaking, when no "的" is used, the adjectival and the head word are more closely connected; they form a stable entity somewhat like a single word. When "的" is used, the connection between the adjectival and the head word is temporary. The meanings of the two units maintain a greater degree of independence.

The above is stated to cover the general situation. Actually, the "的" in some forms cannot be deleted, e.g., "水的密度", "書的內容", "半的速度", "人的壽命".

In some forms, the presence or absence of "的" makes for a meaning difference,

A

誰是蘇聯的朋友？
孩子的脾氣不好。
孤狸的尾巴很大
咖啡的味道沒有茶好

B

我有幾個蘇聯朋友。
他連同人有點孩子脾氣。
敵人的孤狸尾巴露出來了。
這茶裡有股子咖啡味兒。

In the A forms, the adjectival expresses a possessive relation. It answers to questions of "誰的～?" or "什麼東西的～?"). In the B forms, the adjectival expresses certain qualities. It answers "什麼～?" or "什麼樣的～?".

Regarding the B forms, we should note the difference between their occurrence as independent sentences and their occurrence as a part of a larger sentence. For example, when "孩子的脾氣" occurs independently, it can only express quality, not possessive relation. But when it occurs within a sentence, it can also express possessive relation, e.g., "(孩子的脾氣: 孩子的脾氣)

2.3 Adjectives as adjectivals.

Generally, a monosyllabic adjective can directly modify nouns, e.g., "新的, 藍的織子, 短頭髮, 假古董, 酸蘋果." If it is desired to emphasize the quality expressed by the adjectival, the auxiliary "的" can also be used, e.g., "新的書, 藍的織子", etc.

"的" is generally used when disyllabic adjectives modify nouns, e.g.,
Only those disyllabic adjectives which are frequently used in speech can directly modify nouns, e.g., "乾淨的衣服、老實人、安靜事, 漂亮衣服", etc.

When the adjectival is composed of reduplicated adjectives or adjectives with auxiliary elements, it must take "的", e.g.: 

你容我說吧, 這本小小的書籍已使我充實了。(朱314)

彎彎的眉毛大大眼, 紅紅的嘴唇象櫻桃。(民歌)

他中又有襲人, 也真是個妥妥當當的孩子。(紅254)

那漢奸的腦袋打爛了, 白花花的腦漿漂在水面。(表31)

李六子小小子先佔了一間暖呼呼的房。(表31)

If the head word is preceded by a numeral or a measure, "的" can be deleted, e.g.: 

小小一所房屋。(紅29)

一面脫下衣裳初開, 露出黑不溜一圈疙癩肉。(表111)

2.4 Verbs as adjectivals.

When monosyllabic verbs are used as adjectivals, it must take "的", e.g.: "吃的東西、讀的書, 說的話, 看的人." If the "的" is deleted, the entire form is changed from a subordinate construction to a
verb-object construction. But sometimes disyllabic verbs can be used as adjectivals without taking the auxiliary "的", e.g.:

This phenomenon cannot be explained by the number of syllables in the verb because it was stated above that adjectivals composed of disyllabic adjectives generally use "的". (cf. 2.3 "Adjectives as adjectivals"). We feel that in these forms, the verbs have already been nominalized. They function as adjectives from their noun status. Therefore, disyllabic verbs which generally do not nominalize do not function as direct adjectivals, e.g., "喜歡的東西, 有好吃的水果." Before "法兒" no adjectival takes "的" whether it is composed of monosyllabic or disyllabic verbs, e.g. "(怎麼做) 單法兒; (怎麼做) 有用法兒".

2.5 Pronouns as adjectivals.

If the head word is a kinship term or if it refers to a social group or structure, personal pronoun adjectivals need not take "的", e.g. "我哥哥, 你叔叔, 你們; 他, 咱們家, 我們學校; 你們三班的; 你們; 他們的; 咱們的; 他們的".

However, when they are contained in sentences, these forms can also exist (cf. 2.2 "Nouns as adjectivals"), e.g.:

If the head word is preceded by a demonstrative pronoun, then it is more common to use the form without "的", e.g., "我這衣服, 他那幾本書".
2.6 Numerals and measures as adjectivals.

When numerals and measures are used as adjectivals, "的" is not used. However, after measures which express length, capacity, and weight, and after measures composed of nouns, "的" may be used, e.g., "二十斤的大米, 两箱子的書, 一手的泥".

The pronouns "這, 那" combine with measures to form direct adjectivals. But to express possessive relationship, "的" is needed, c.f.

這本書破了, 這本的皮兜破了.
哪個孩子? 哪個的 孩子?

"一樣" and "一般" are two rather unusual numeral-measures. Both of these words can be adjectivals. When "一樣" functions as an adjectival, the presence or absence of "的" makes for a difference in meaning, e.g.:

這和祖國是一樣的天, 一樣的地. (楊 39)

吃飯的素菜, /Edit/ 一樣涼涼的酸酸的東西. (紅 60)

When "的" is present, it means "same"; the numeral is limited to "一".
When "的" is absent, it means "a kind of" or "a sort of"; the numeral is not limited to "一". 12

When "一般" is used as an adjectival, its meaning is "general" or "most" of. It may or may not take "的", e.g.:

文學家, 藝術家以及一般 文藝工作者. (毛 876)

政治家不等於 藝術, 一般的文藝 見解也並不 等於 藝術 創作和 藝術 批評的方法. (毛 891)

Sometimes, the "一樣, 一般" adjectivals are preceded by nouns serving as adverbials, e.g.:

這是我一般的事實, 誰也否定不了的. (毛 670)
有时名词前被“像，跟，和”等，例如“你清水一样的酒，跟我一样的人”

2.7 Adjectivals with accompanying structures.

The adjectival constructions discussed in the preceding sections are all single words. Actually, the words which function as adjectivals are frequently preceded or followed by various accompanying structures. If the adjectival is composed of a noun, then it can be preceded by an adjectival. If it is composed of a verb, then it can be preceded by an adverbial and followed by an object or a complement. If it is composed of an adjective, it can be preceded by an adverbial and followed by a complement.

In the examples below, the noun which functions as an adjectival is accompanied by an adjectival: (The adjectival is marked by subscript wavy lines; its accompanying adjectival is marked by subscript dots).

我看见他戴着黑布小帽。 (朱自清)

长大了是我的同事的女儿。 (冰心)

我这时心中只有憧憬着来日渔乡的生涯。 (冰心)

Generally speaking, if the adjectival does not express possessive relationship, then it may or may not take "的", e.g. "黑布小帽" or "黑布的小帽". Adjectivals which express possessive relationship frequently take "的", e.g., "我的同事的女儿".

In the following examples, the noun functioning as adjectival is preceded by numerical-measure:
The first sentence expresses possessive relationship; it commonly takes "的".

The second sentence expresses not possessive relationship but certain qualities or special properties of the head word. Forms of this type must take "的".

It has been stated above that monosyllabic adjectives and certain disyllabic adjectives can be used as direct adjectivals (c.f. 2.3 "Adjectives as adjectivals"). But if the adjective itself has an accompanying adverbial, it is generally necessary to use "的", e.g.:

他必定自己打上一輛車,頂漂亮的車.

春末夏始,是北京最好的日子. (未193)

那麼寬的肩膀. (路11)

Verbs cannot be directly used as adjectivals (cf. 2.4 "Verbs as adjectivals"). Even when accompanied by an adverbial, it still must take "的", e.g.:

新選的婦會主任秀女之又能幹,又積極. (宣45)

我們這兩個民族是一條藤上結的瓜,苦都苦,甜都甜. (楊61)

Adjectivals composed of verbs or adjectives with accompanying complement also must take "的", e.g.:

到處都有燒塌了的廬. (表107)

想不到砒霜是燒得细细溜溜的面條. (表115)

這樣他們就帶上跑得很用力的樣子. (路17)

就把他們紅得很好看的圓筒先放在她枕頭邊. (表87)
When an adjectival is composed of a verb with accompanying object, except for a few habitual sayings such as "下雨天，洗臉水，退燒藥", it usually takes "的", e.g.:

你得學做人，懂得做人的道理。(朱15)
葉子和花彷佛在牛乳中浸泡一樣，又像籠著輕妙的夢。(朱183)

In "蒸汽包飯", we say that the adjectival is composed of the noun "布" and "飯" is "布"'s accompanying structure (adjectival). But in "黃頭髮的孩子", the adjectival is composed of the entire word group (subordinate construction) "黃頭髮", not of the noun "頭髮". This is because we cannot say "頭髮的孩子". The following is a set of examples of adjectivals composed of word groups:

2.8 "...似的" as adjectivals.

The auxiliary "似的" is pronounced "shide". Therefore, some people write it as "是的". The auxiliary construction which results from attaching "似的" to the end of a noun can function as an adjectival, e.g.:

那是個黑瘦的不起眼的男子。(答153)
祥平又是那塊死掉頭似的玻塊東西。(駱159)
魚鱉似的小屋，螺髻似的小白練似的江，明鏡似的湖。(朱31)

"Translator's note: "似的" is pronounced "side" according to Hanyu Pinyin Chinu, but we have kept it as "shide" to conform with the author of this text."
2.9 Conjoined constructions and subject-predicate constructions as adjectivals.

When a conjoined construction is used as an adjectival, it must take "的". Sometimes the "的" occurs after the entire conjoined construction, e.g.:

他不能離開這個熱鬧可愛的地方. (駱 134)

忽然聽到老老這兩句話, 他不好意思再爭論了. (駱 28)

將中國拖回到痛苦重重的不獨立不自由, 不民主, 不統一, 不富強的老狀態裡去. (毛 1075)

Sometimes "的" is placed after each group in the conjoined construction, e.g.:

我於是曾好幾次爬到那山的頂上去望那高興的光華, 看那低低的小小的, 綠綠的田野. (朱 187)

白鬍鬚的, 花鬍鬚的, 小白臉的, 肥而流著汗水的, 肥而不流油汗的官員們. (魯 341)

For adjectivals composed of subject-predicate constructions, "的" is required, e.g.:

聖陶談到他作小說的態度. 常寄語說: 我只是如實地寫. (朱 349)

現在曉得他講道理的時候, 不但唇邊還抹著人油, 而且心裡還滿裝著吃人的心思. (魯 10)

2.10 Compounded adjectivals.

In some subordinate constructions, the adjectival is composed of two or more words. The relationship between these words is neither one of head word and accompanying structure, nor one of conjoined construction. Rather, the
words are individually added before the head word to modify it, e.g., in "小红花儿", the head word "花儿" is first preceded by "小" to indicate the color of the flower; it then adds on "红" to indicate its size. "小红" has neither a subordinate relationship nor a conjoined relationship. This kind of adjectival is called compounded adjectival.

In "小红花儿", the adjectivals "小" and "红" are two single words. Sometimes, the word functioning as adjectival has accompanying structures. For example, in "学校门口新修的马路", the first adjectival "门口" has an accompanying adjectival "学校". The second adjectival "新" has an adverbial "修". The following examples all have compounded adjectivals:

摘出（一盒）（大英辞典）（烟卷）（表4）
（一张）（小小的）（圆）（脸）（朱165）
欠過身去摺在（先臉貼上）（最高的）（一張）（格子上）（魯137）
他喋喋不休地問他（不知多少）（難以回答的）（有趣的）（傻話）（曹367）
穿（新）農村的孩子過年過節才穿的（新）（衣裳）（曹356）

2.11 The order of adjectivals.

When an adjectival is composed of a conjoined construction, the order with which each group appears in the construction, generally speaking, is free, e.g.:

正中立着烟斗，围着它横着站着摆着方的，圆的，立体的，
圆锥的，小凳和沙发，（曹170）
"方的，圆的，立体的，圆锥的" can be changed to "圆锥的，立体的，方的，圆的", or some other order. The change in order affects only the diction, but not the basic meaning or grammatical structure of the entire form. For compounded adjectivals, frequently one cannot change the order. For example, for "小红花儿" one cannot say "红花小", for "一本新書" one cannot say "新一書".
Therefore, in a subordinate construction composed of compounded adjectivals, one must note the order of the adjectivals.

Many types of structures can function as adjectivals. Also, the number of adjectivals that can be compounded to precede a head word, theoretically speaking, has no limit. Consequently, the order of adjectivals is a confusing and complicated problem. We will discuss this problem in the following three subsections.

2.11.1 If the adjectivals do not take "", the usual order is (1) possessive noun or pronoun, (2) numeral-measures, (3) adjectives, (4) nouns which express qualities. We give first some examples which contain only (2), (3), and (4):

一把（2）小號（3）茶（4）壺
兩個（2）玻璃（3）水（4）瓶
一件（2）新（3）大衣（4）

The position of (2) is fixed, i.e., it must precede (3) and (4). If (4) is a monosyllabic noun, its position is also fixed, i.e., it must follow (3). If (4) is polysyllabic (polysyllabic noun or monosyllabic noun with accompanying structures) sometimes it can precede (3). For example, for "小瓷茶壺", we cannot say "瓷小茶壺". But for "小洋瓷茶壺", we can say "洋瓷小茶壺".

Possessive nouns and pronouns generally occur before (2), e.g., "我那把小瓷茶壺". Nouns sometimes can also occur after (2), e.g.:

一個蘇聯（1）老媽媽送給中國女先南南的紀念品.（人民日報）

But after the order is changed, the noun expresses not possessiveness but quality. (cf."蘇聯一個老媽媽").

2.11.2 In adjectivals which take "", possessive nouns and pronouns are still in the front most position. The order of the other adjectives is usually
(1) subject-predicate construction, (2) verb, (3) adjective, e.g.:

"骆驼祥子" 是老舍寫的 (1) [一部] 創作一個洋車夫的
一生的 (2) 小說.

這些都是古代人民留給我們的 (1) 珍貴的 (3) 遺產.

(3) sometimes can occur before (2), e.g.:

這是一種最狠毒的 (3) 殺人的 (2) 方法.

2.11.3 Adjectivals with "的" always precede adjectivals without "的", e.g. (* marks ill-formedness).

"的" is always placed before adjectivals: e.g. 小的茶壺・小花的茶壺 (cf. 小茶壺, 小的茶壺).

绣花的绸衬衫 "绸绣花的衬衫" (cf. 靜的绣花衬衫).

"自行车上的小螺絲 钉丸 " can be changed to "小自行车
上的螺絲钉丸". But after the change, both the meaning and the
construction are altered. In the former sentence, "螺絲钉丸" is pre-
ceded by a compounded adjectival composed by "小" and "自行车上的 ".
In the second sentence, the adjectival "小" modifies "自行车", not "螺
絲钉丸".

There are two exceptions.

2.11.3.1 Numerical-measures and demonstrative pronoun -measures can occur
either initially or finally, e.g.:

最大的一間屋子. 一間最大的屋子.

穿紅衣服的那個孩子. 那個穿紅衣服的孩子.

2.11.3.2 Possessive pronouns can occur only initially, e.g.:

他最大的孩子已經十歲了.
Nouns sometimes can occur finally, e.g., "蘇聯最有名望的作家" and "最有名望的蘇聯作家". But when the noun occurs finally, "蘇聯" expresses not possessiveness but quality.

2.12 The meaning of adjectivals.

According to the meaning relationship between the adjectival and its head word, the adjectivals may be divided into two groups: restrictive adjectivals and descriptive adjectivals.

Restrictive adjectivals are used to specify a quality or special property. This is used as a basis for the classification of the object denoted by the head word. For example, in "白紙", we use the quality "白" to classify paper. When we say "白紙", we specify that we are speaking of the class of "白紙", not any other class, such as "黃紙, 紅紙", etc. Similarly, in "我的書", "我" is restrictive on "書". When we say "我的書", we specify "我的書" as against other people's books. In effect, we have given books a classification.

All adjectivals composed of nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs are restrictive, e.g.:

Nouns: 上海人, 木頭房子, 今天的報.
Pronouns: 我哥哥, 他的眼鏡, 大家的意見.
Adjectives: 白紙, 老朋友, 假古董, 乾淨手娟.
Verbs: 游的魚, 吃的東西, 上演的劇本, 調查的對象.

Adjectivals composed of numeral-measures are a special kind of restrictive adjectival. This kind of adjectival does not classify the object denoted by the head word, but only imposes a quantitative restriction upon it, e.g., "五本書, 三塊錢".

Descriptive adjectivals are different from restrictive adjectivals in that they do not provide basis for classification but are used to describe the state or situation of the object denoted by the head word. For example, in "紅紅的臉", "紅紅的" does not classify faces, it merely describes the state of the face. Descriptive adjectivals are primarily composed of the following:

Reduplicated adjectivals: 紅紅的臉, 胖胖的孩子, 平平常常的事情, 和和氣氣的人.
Adjectives with auxiliary structures:

Descriptive adjectivals are often accompanied by specific emotional connotations. For example, adjectivals composed of reduplicated monosyllabic adjectives frequently have the flavor of affection and warmth:

他是个小胖子，短短的腿，走起路来，蹒跚可笑。(朱201)

弯弯的眉毛大大的眼，红红的嘴唇赛樱桃。(民歌)

Reduplicated adjectives with infixation, when used as adjectivals, are accompanied by connotations of detest and disrespect:

古怪古怪的脾性和，

蛮横蛮横的样，

囉囉囉囉的废话

3.0 Adverbials

3.1 What do adverbials modify?

Adverbials modify the following classes of single words: verbs, adjectives, numerals, numeral-measures, and a number of pronouns. Here are some examples where adverbials modify verbs:18
In the following, adverbials modify adjectives:

- 你真瘦!(會21)
- 街上有非常清靜。(駱76)
- 這些房子都破舊了。(朱130)
- 他聽見敵人在與有機槍槍響, 叫得怪討厭的。(祁8)

In the following, adverbials modify numerals and numeral-measures:

- 因為前年他自己說, 她才三十一, 而今年忽然她三十一 KEY (會215)
- 不多不少, 剛好五塊錢。
- 已經十多個年頭了。

Pronouns which can function as verbs or adjectives can be modified by adverbials, e.g.:

- 爷, 你怎麼說來著? 市面上不怎樣, 經濟又怎麼樣, 就應該怎麼樣? (會218)
- 這本書寫得不怎樣。
Constructions conjoined from verb groups or adjective groups can be modified by adverbials, e.g.:

他時常照鏡子，理頭髮。（曹 230）

在曾晉入了中學的前二年，一般孩子還在幸福地拋籃球，打雪仗，鬧得頭破血流的時候，便挑選了一個黄道吉日要為他們封卻終身大事。（曹 367）

二十來的歲，他已經很大很高。（馬 4）

那裏流的柔波是這樣地恬靜，委婉。（末 129）

Sometimes an adverbial can be separated from the head word it modifies and placed in front of the subject, e.g.:

忽然一個老媽媽抱着個盤突進來。（表 95）

dab的他影子是順著大路走呢；方向，地點，都有些茫然。（駱 20）

明天克大夫還來。（曹 130）

以後我們永遠在一塊兒了。（末 149）

極快的他想出個道理來：炮聲是由南邊來的。（駱 17）

可是在過去的這些日子，無緣無故的他受盡了委屈與困苦。（馬 25）

Adverbials of this sort can also be explained as modifying the entire subject-predicate construction following it.

3.2 Adverbs as adverbials.

Monosyllabic adverbs, when functioning as adverbials, do not take "地", e.g.:

說孩子不乖巧，又說我太寵他了。（末 23）

我在床上哭了半夜，只恨自己命苦。（末 21）

去年我就勸你多少次了。（曹 364）
Disyllabic adverbs may or may not take "地". In the following examples, no meaning change is effected when "地" is deleted.

1. Disyllabic adverbs such as "已, 得, 代, 千年, 迥, 因, 助, 然而" cannot take "地".

There is another difference between disyllabic and monosyllabic adverbs: monosyllabic adverbs must directly precede the head word, whereas some disyllabic adverbs can be separated from the head word and placed in front of the subject, e.g.:

- 他從飯廳的門出去了. (書 149)
- 忽然, 一切東西都非常. (馬 24)

3.3 Adjectives as adverbials.

There are two groups of adjectives which can function as adverbials:

1. 高, 突, 烏, 横, 紅, 燒.
2. 多, 休, 員, 促, 早, 來, 來.

Adjectives of group (1) are very restricted in terms of the number of words they can modify, e.g., "高" can only modify "喊", "聲", "粗" can only modify "言", "感" can only modify "思", "想", etc. Among these forms, some are wenwen usage, e.g., "思, 想, 聲, 感", some are very tightly connected much as a single word, e.g., "紅, 燒, 聲, 感". Adjectives of group (2) can indeed freely function as adverbials. But the number of words in this group is small. Of the frequently used ones, there are only "多, 少, 早, 晚, 晚, 多, 早, 晚, 晚", etc.

Words such as "白, 光, 青, 石, 水, 深", when functioning as adverbials, undergo a conspicuous meaning change, cf.: 

\[ \text{\ldots} \]
We feel that these are two different groups of words: in the adjectival position they are adjectives, in the adverbial position they are adverbs.

Disyllabic adjectives which can function as adverbials are generally new terms in the written style, e.g., "經常, 特別, 一般, 正式, 一致, 普遍, 積極, 公開, 直接, 完全", etc. In speech, these are few. The commonly used ones are "乾脆, 仔細, 細心, 堅強", etc.

Most adjectives cannot function as adverbials except when they are reduplicated. For example, we cannot say "輕寫, 慢看, 模糊念了一遍". But we can say "輕輕地寫, 慢慢地看, 模糊模樣地念了一遍". In the following, we give similar examples:

又嚼著茶葉好好照應我. (朱 161)
蹒跚地走到鐵道邊, 慢慢探身下去. (朱 161)
花也不很多, 圓圓的排成一個圈. (魯 26)
那你為甚麼不正正當當地講出來? (魯 143)
路上有人說話, 可以清清楚楚地聽見. (木 299)

Adjectives with accompanying structures behave as reduplicated adjectives and commonly function as adverbials, e.g.:

一擁進去, 黑壓壓的擠了半屋子. (袁 11)
The above examples are in spoken style. In the written style, disyllabic adjectives followed by "地" can function as adverbials, e.g.:

他驚異地笑着說. (魯275)
幾個老百姓熱烈地喊着. (表192)
一片淡淡的夕陽透過窗子微弱地曬在桌子上的菊花瓣上. (魯461)

The following constructions can sometimes be placed in front of the subject: reduplicated adjectives and subordinate constructions composed of adverbs of degree and adjectives, e.g.:

迷迷糊糊的他拉了幾個買賣. (魯52)
極快的他想出個道理來. 炮聲是由南邊來的. (鱔)

3.4 Nouns as adverbials.

Nouns which denote time or place and place constructions can function as adverbials, e.g.:

我們現在就走. (魯143)
我今天走了. 過了一兩個月, 我就來接她. (魯145)
枝上歇着一對黑色的八哥. (朱138)
門前有一條小石橋. (朱143)
因為思想上有許多問題, 我們有許多同志也就不太能真正區別革命根據地和國民黨統治區. (毛毛97)

Adverbials of this type do not take "地".

Some nouns, such as "機械, 科學" can function as predicates, and can be modified by adverbs ("你太機械了", "這種說法不科學"). We can see that they are also adjectives. These words, in their
capacity as adjectives, frequently can serve as adverbials, e.g.:

商品這東西, 千百萬人, 天天看它, 用它, 但是熟視無睹, 只有马克思, 著地, 研究了它. (毛 39)
我們明知那些歌聲, 只是些因襲的言詞, 狂生誰的歌喉裡, 擦拭地發出來的. (朱 130)
這種形式主義地看問題的方法, 就影響了後來這個運動的發展. (毛 58)

The adverbials generally take "地".

Adverbials composed of time nouns, place nouns, or place constructions sometimes occur before the subject, e.g.:

明天我不出去.
事實上誰也不相信.

3.5 Pronouns as adverbials.

The following types of pronouns can function as adverbials: 20
(1) Those which express place: 這把他, 那把他, 哪把他.
(2) Those which express time: 這會兒, 那會兒, 多會兒, 每時.
(3) Those which express quality, state, or manner:
    這麼, 那麼, 怎麼,
    這樣, 那樣, 怎樣,
    這麼樣, 那麼樣, 怎麼樣.

(4) Those which express degree:
    這麼, 那麼, 些,
    這樣, 那樣, 多麼,
    這麼樣, 那麼樣,
The function of (1) and (2) corresponds to that of place nouns, time nouns, or place constructions. They can directly function as adverbials, e.g.:

1. 那是哪里来的？ (駱 25)
   雖然那裡沒有父母親戚，沒有任何財產，可是那到底是他的家。 (駱 24)
   那會追究打我，這會追究可不打你。 (袁 232)
2. 不知他是幾時養的？ (紅 42.447)

(3) and (4), when functioning as adverbials, correspond to adverbs or adjectives. They can modify verbs, adjectives or numeral-measure, e.g.:

3. 塊力氣掙錢，那是不容易，人人盼望發點財。 (駱 37)
   秉難那麼大，趕上我高了。 (楊 69)
   祥子說，說說你怎麼發的財。 (駱 38)
   姚志蘭嘴裡這樣講，心裡這樣想... (楊 66)
   人在世，可是為人嗎？怎麼不能做點事？ (楊 19)
   我的朋友永遠是那麼幾個。 (朱 272)
4. 忽然有這麼一天，天還沒亮，遠遠地就看見那邊有一座廟。 (評善“勞山道士” 3)

Among these, "多" and "多麼" can only modify adjectives and certain verbs which express psychological activity. Their function corresponds to that of adverbs of degree, e.g.:

5. 先學個歌多好。 (楊 75)
   你看看多美，多好看！ (曹 172)
   你瞧他多麼喜歡你啊！
3.6 Numeral-measures as adverbials.

Numeral-measures which express the amount of an action can function as adverbials, e.g.:

白露一口灌下，有也不错，就将酒杯交給張喬治。（曹795）
大亂一把抱住他說...（楊102）
一下子把汽船都拆開了。（袁81）
抽抽噎噎的哭了—陣，就一頭栽下井去。（袁74）
三天看完一本書。

Numeral-measures which express the amount of objects can function as adverbials after reduplication, e.g.:

我四多的人，成天輪著幹，跟這幫王八蛋，甚至於像胡四
這個樣東西混，成一個一個地都要奉承，拉攏。（曹240）
怎麼走？我告訴你一層一層地爬上去。（曹250）

The numeral-measures "一樣一般" when functioning singly as adverbials have the meaning of "同樣"，e.g.:

黑漆的黃漆的都一樣的油汪汪發光。（駱47）
學校有，年紀不同，長像不同，可是都—樣的討厭。（駱49）
他們倆一般（樣）高。

In these forms，"一般" emphasizes that the amounts are equal. Therefore，it can only modify adjectives which imply unequal amounts. For example，we can say "一般多，一般高，一般長，"，but usually not "一般酸，一般發光，一般討厭 "。"一樣" is not restricted in this way. Furthermore，"一樣" as adverbial may or may not take "地"。"一般" frequently does not take "地"。22
Sometimes, "一樣" and " 一般", when functioning as adverbials, are accompanied by adverbials. These types of adverbials are as follows:

3.6.1 Nouns, verbs, subject-predicate constructions, e.g.:

我像一個風子, 週身火一般熱著. (朱82)
窗外的寒冰湖，鏡海一般的閃耀. (冰105)
只在街上時時看見他坐在三名轎夫的快轎裡飛一般
揮過 (魯329)
殺猪一樣地叫了起來.
針扎一樣地難受.

3.6.2 Word groups composed of constructions made up of "一様, 一般, 像" with nouns, verbs or subject-predicate constructions, e.g.:

台州一般的人真是太和自然一様樸實. (朱188)
牛肉乾也凍了，跟老牛皮一樣硬. (楊108)
一根指頭卻像繡花針一樣靈巧. (楊15)
雲是有料子，她媽會把被捲的像天一般大呢. (楊12)
李琳卻威到了，像針孔一樣威到了. (楊24)

In the two types of forms discussed above, "一様, 一般" may or may not take "#也".

3.7 Prepositional constructions as adverbials.

Prepositional constructions as adverbials frequently modify verbs, e.g.:

兩手提著兩把白鐵盔，正望廚房裡走. (朱164)
韋家的李媽在她前，顧着，不知在和她說什麼話. (朱11)
Adverbials with accompanying structures.

Words which function as adverbials may have accompanying structures.

3.8.1 Nouns which express time or place may be preceded by adjectivals, e.g.
(adverbials are marked by subscript wavy lines, the accompanying structures are marked by subscript dots):

你今天晚上上哪儿去了？ (曹133)

俘虏裡邊有個美國軍官。 (楊40)
3.8.2 Adjectives are preceded by adverbials: these adverbials are generally adverbs of degree, e.g.:

他狼狽的嘆了一口氣。（魯133）

我的淚很快地流下來了。（朱）

見的還是黑暗，可是很清楚的聽見一聲難鳴。（路22）

3.8.3 Numeral-measures "一様，一般" are preceded by adverbials. These forms were discussed in section 3.6, and will not be illustrated here.

Generally, nouns and verbs cannot function as adverbials.23 However, if the noun is preceded by numeral-measure, or if the verb is preceded by adverbials or followed by objects or complements, then such word groups can function as adverbials, e.g.:

了一口氣吃了五個。

兩個月進一次城。

低著頭不停的走。

趙玉林揹著槍，順著頭，大踏步的走出學校門。（暴84）

又見湘雲穿得整齊齊的走來。（紅36.383）

洗得乾乾淨淨地吹著。

The adverbials in these forms are all word groups. For example, in "一口氣吃了五個 ", the adverbial is not composed of the noun "氣 ", but of the subordinate construction "一口氣 ". This is because without the numeral-measure "一口 ", " 氣 " cannot function as an adverbial.
3.9 "...似地" as adverbial.
When the auxiliary "似地" is attached to the end of a noun or verb (including word groups whose head word is a noun or a verb), the resulting auxiliary construction can function as an adverb, e.g.:

他就不肯積著一陳,水似的化了. (魯 132)
像子似的他自己笑了. (駱 5)
但他却只是无动于衷. 藤萝似的動也不動. (魯 167)
我便趕緊買得,像他似的說完. (末 251)
第六個妃子忽然像桂似的哭嚷起來. (魯 255)

"像... 似地" frequently functions as an adverbial, e.g.:

微微輕響的旋輪,像陣利風的小風似的吹着他跑. (駱 11)
他一出門就放開腳步,像木匠看的鑽子似的,肩膊一扇扇地走. (魯 159)

3.10 Subject-predicate constructions as adverbials.
There are two types of subject-predicate constructions which can function as adverbials. One type consists of idioms and wen yen forms, e.g., "喜氣洋洋,人不知,心神不定,聲色俱靡,魂不守舍", etc. (cf. Hanyu 5.157) The other type consists of forms in which the subject and the predicate are the same, e.g.:

虎姑嫂站住了,面向面的對他說... (駱 77)
向個人手牽着手出去了.
脊背對脊背的圍着銀鞘,生成個大圓圓. (評書"王者"5)
虎抓子天天覈窮,一聲接一聲的嘆氣. (秦 26)

3.11 Conjoined constructions as adverbials.
There are two types of conjoined constructions. One type is the regular conjoined construction which was introduced in *Hanyu* 5.146. The other type is the comparative conjoining construction, such as the following:

```
簡吞醋的.    說說笑笑.
說呀啦的.    你一句,我一句.
拚死拼活.    束張張,兩望望.
能寫會算.    擡不下,放不下.
拉拉扯扯.    一把眼淚,一把離洋.
```

The major differences between the comparative conjoined constructions and the regular conjoined constructions are as follows:

3.11.1 From the point of view of meaning, in the regular conjoined constructions, each group has a specific and independent referent. The meaning of the entire construction is the sum of the meanings of the groups. For example, "我,你,他" conjoined is "我和你和他"; "乾淨,整齊" conjoined is "又乾淨又整齊". In comparative conjoined constructions, the meaning of each group is not specificatory but comparative. Neither is the meaning of the entire construction the sum of the meanings of the groups. For example, "我一句,你一句" only means "這句說一句,那一句說一句"; it does not specifically refer to "你" and "我". "束張張,兩望望" only means "到處看"; it does not specifically refer to "束邊" and "兩邊".

3.11.2 The regular conjoined construction is composed of two or more groups. Comparative conjoined constructions are composed of exactly two groups.

3.11.3 The regular conjoined construction is free with respect to its member groups. Comparative conjoined constructions sometimes are free, e.g.:

```
跑啊跳的.
老張老王(他亂嚷)
你一句,我一句.
```
There are two types of conjoined constructions. One type is the regular conjoined construction which was introduced in Hanyu 5.146. The other type is the comparative conjoining construction, such as the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>鬆呀嘛的.</th>
<th>說說笑笑.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>說呀嘸的.</td>
<td>你一句, 我一句.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拼死拼活.</td>
<td>果張張, 西望望.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>能寫會算.</td>
<td>攔不下, 放不下.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>拉拉扯扯.</td>
<td>一把眼淚, 一把鼻涕.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The major differences between the comparative conjoined constructions and the regular conjoined constructions are as follows:

3.11.1 From the point of view of meaning, in the regular conjoined constructions, each group has a specific independent referent. The meaning of the entire construction is the sum of the meanings of the groups. For example, "我, 你, 他" conjoined is "我和你和他"; "乾淨 整齊" conjoined is "又乾淨 又整齊". In comparative conjoined constructions, the meaning of each group is not specificatory but comparative. Neither is the meaning of the entire construction the sum of the meanings of the groups. For example, "我一句, 你一句" only means "這個說一句, 那個說一句"; it does not specifically refer to "你" and "我". "東張張, 西望望" only means "到處看"; it does not specifically refer to "東邊" and "西邊".

3.11.2 The regular conjoined construction is composed of two or more groups. Comparative conjoined constructions are composed of exactly two groups.

3.11.3 The regular conjoined construction is free with respect to its member groups. Comparative conjoined constructions sometimes are free, e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>飛呀跳的.</th>
<th>老張老王 (地亂裏)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>老張老王 (地亂裏)</td>
<td>你一句, 我一句.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sometimes they are fixed (idioms), e.g.:

天南地北，
非驴非马，
三长两短，
狼吞虎咽，
束一骸，两一爪，
前不着村，后不着店。

3.11.4 The grammatical function of the regular conjoined constructions is the same as that of its member groups (cf. Hanyu 5.146). The grammatical function of the comparative conjoined construction is not necessarily the same as that of its member groups. For example, although "你呀我的" is constructed from "你" and "我", its grammatical function is quite different from "你我". "你" cannot be predicates or adverbials. "你呀我的" can be both, e.g.:

你再别你呀我的了。
跟我你呀我的说话也可以（见314）

Both the regular conjoined construction and the comparative conjoined construction can function as adverbials, but under very different circumstances. It has been mentioned above that the grammatical function of the regular conjoined construction is the same as that of its member groups. Therefore, the only conjoined constructions which can function as adverbials are those which are composed of words or word groups which can themselves function as adverbials, e.g., adjectives, time nouns, place nouns, prepositional constructions, etc., e.g.:

顰顰顰，瘦瘦瘦，挺挺地高高地耸着的，想是腐败的尾巴了。
This is not the case with comparative conjoined constructions. For example, generally, verbs, nouns, personal pronouns, subject-predicate constructions cannot function as adverbials. But comparative conjoined constructions composed of such words frequently can function as adverbials, e.g.:

李石清細軟的頭地正要走出顧八奶奶推著胡四由中門上。(曹230)

在我眼前就敢信啊許啊地給你遮起來。(曹448)

老是孩子們你來他去地在廚房與飯間加理查音。(朱448)

人不知,鬼不覺的跑出來了。

寶玉又添一添的說些鬼話,黛玉不理。(紅19,196)

When a regular conjoined construction functions as an adverbial, "地" is sometimes placed after the entire construction, sometimes after each member group. A comparative conjoined construction, if it takes "地", can only take it after the entire construction.

3.12 The compounding of adverbials.

Sometimes the words which function as adverbials do not have the relationship of head word and accompanying structure, and are not a conjoined construction. Rather, they are individually compounded in a certain order in front of a head word to modify it. Some adverbials are called compounded adverbials, e.g.:

魯貴(偷偷地)(由中門)走進來。(曹55)

她那細長的手,時常(在她輕輕咳嗽的時候)接著
鞭瘦弱的胸。(曹21)

而我(偷偷)(地)(從家門的交叉處)(偷偷)窺看戒門。(朱132)

3.13 The order of adverbials.

The order of adverbials is freer than that of adjectivals. The general order is as follows: (1) time nouns or prepositional constructions, (2) place
nouns or prepositional constructions, (3) adverbs, (4) adjectives or verbs, e.g.:

The order mentioned above is not fixed. For instance, adverbs sometimes can occur before (2), or even (1), e.g.:  

Adverbs of degree are different in that they must directly precede the head word, e.g., "(今天)心裡 (很)高興". If the sentence contains other types of adverbs, these occur before the adverbs of degree, as in "(今天)心裡 (也) (很)高興". Sometimes an adverb of degree occurs before adjectives or other adverbs. In these cases, it is not a member of a compounded adverbial, but rather an accompanying structure (adverbial) of an adjective, e.g.:
Adjectives (4) can be moved to the front if they are disyllabic or reduplicated or if they are accompanied by auxiliary structures, e.g.:  

汗痛快地(4)地(2)流。（鲁199）

一面慢慢地(4)地(3)睡着了。（冰03）

小東西狠狠地(4)向福升上(2)投了一眼，又低下頭，一語不發。（鲁210）

Of the monosyllabic adjectives, only a few words like "多,少,早,全" etc., can be moved to the front.

3.14 The meaning of adverbials.

Adverbials have many and diverse meanings. The major ones are listed below.

3.14.1 Time, place -- to express these meanings, time nouns, place nouns, time adverbs and prepositional constructions are frequently used, e.g.:  

我曾經有過一個小兄弟, 是三歲上死掉的。（鲁123）[名詞]

有用一張閱讀燈, 灯旁有一張圖案小兒。（鲁170）[名詞]

我就回來, 常聽見沒有?（鲁13）[副詞]

他的母親已經醒來了。（鲁245）[副詞]

祥子始終一語不發。（路85）[副詞]

母親在牌桌上打見一位太太, 她有個女兒。（朱302）[名詞結構]

3.14.2 State, manner -- to express these meanings, adjectives, pronouns, numeral-measures, the prepositional construction "...之..." and the comparative conjoined constructions are frequently used, e.g.:
3.14.3 Degree, scope -- adverbs or pronouns are used, e.g.:

是太聰明？太平傻？我想不用我說。（米365）[副詞]

陳大婶病得很厲害（表113）[副詞]

塾子是那麼白，喇叭是那麼響。（駱11）[代詞]

大家幾個都怒目地往外看，誰這麼不守人心。（駱36）[代詞]

幾天裡吃飯，睡覺，做文章，都在這轎子裡（米307）[副詞]

除了孩子，你心裡只有我（米77）[副詞]

3.14.4 Affirmation, negation -- adverbs are used, e.g.:

跑去一問，他果然知道。（魯328）

從此他每一道城，必定來訪我。（魯345）
3.14.5 Speaker attitude — adverbs are used, e.g.:

但是你最對不起的人，你反而輕輕地忘了（曾53）

放棄福不享，偏要跑。（曾193）

你們讓我歇歇吧。可累死我了。（曾815）

我重翻這詩稿，溫帶着舊夢，心上倒像有幾分秋意似的。（朱193）

他們都說老毛病居然改掉了。（朱17）
Footnotes

1. 1956, 24th printing. In the table of contents they are called "形容詞 附 加語" and " 副詞 的 附 加語". In the text in Chapter III, they are called " 形容語 的 附 加語" and " 副詞 的 附 加語".

2. Words which occupy secondary rank positions are not limited to adjectivals; words which occupy tertiary rank positions are not limited to adverbials.

3. In the revised edition of 1956, the "three rank analysis" and the notion "rank" were abandoned. " 形容語 " was changed to " 形容語 " and was extended to denote all modificational structures. No special terms were proposed for adjectivals and adverbials.


5. In the example sentences of this chapter, subscript dots mark adjectivals and subscript circles mark head words.

6. " 種類 " and " 強調 " both have two uses. They can take adjectivals (新買的那樣), and also adverbials (就這樣吧).

7. If " 什麼 " occurs as the object, the numeral " 一 " is frequently deleted.

8. Constructions such as " 我 他 " cannot occur independently; they must be part of a sentence. See (2.2) "Nouns as adjectives" and (2.5) "Pronouns as adjectivals".

9. "～" represents head word.

10. " 一箇 炒 雞子 " 中的 " 炒 " is not a subordinate construction. Rather it is a generalized (物) verb object construction because we can say " 一箇 腸紅椒炒 雞子 ".

11. In this type of form, if the noun refers to humans, then there may be two different meanings, e.g. in "你 這個 先生 ",  " 先生 " and " 你 " sometimes refer to two different persons (= " 你 " and " 這個 先生 "), sometimes refer to the same person ( " 你 " and " 這個 先生 "). In the former interpretation, " 你 " modifies " 先生 "; the entire construction is a subordinate construction expressing possessive relationship. In the latter interpretation, " 這個 先生 " and " 你 " form a complex demonstrative structure.

12. But one cannot say " 種類 ", only " 兩種 ". " 兩種 " used as adjectival also has two meanings. With " 的 ", it means "not the same as"; without " 的 ", it means "two kinds of" or "two sorts of".

13. For " 一個 旅館的 經理 " we can also say " 一個 旅館 經理 " But the meanings are not entirely the same. The former expresses possessive relationship. The latter expresses quality.

14. A form such as " 三個 孩子 的 母親 " sometimes can also express possessive relationship, e.g. " 三個 孩子 的 母親 看見了 ".
There are also some which cannot be moved. For example, in "中國，日本，印度及其他亞洲國家", the order of the first three groups is free; but "其他亞洲國家" can occur only finally.

In some subordinate constructions, the adjectival and the head word refer to the same object. This includes mainly two types of forms: (1) "希望之戰的故事"; (2) "紅樓夢的作者曹雪芹". We group (1) with the restrictive adjectivals, following the system in Hanyu. (2) is a complex form and is not a subordinate construction. Therefore, it is not grouped with the (同一性定語) here.

任何，一切別的，所有，其他", when used as adjectivals, indicate the scope of the objects denoted by the head word. Thus, they are similar to numeral-measures in this respect and are also restrictive adjectivals.

In this chapter, adverbials are marked by subscript dots; head words are marked by subscript circles.

The "怪" in "怪好的" is an adverb; see below.

cf. Hanyu 5.70.

The pronoun "多" and the adjective "多" are two different words. The former is read "dwo"; the latter is read "dwo". The "多" in "多麼" is pronounced in the same way as the pronoun "多".

In the written style, "一般" sometimes has the meaning of "普通，大量", e.g. "一般地說，一般看來". In these contexts, it may or may not take "地".

In the written style, one occasionally finds exceptions, e.g.:

金貴的假牙時常在呵呵大笑的時刻閃耀地閃耀著。(普96)
這些達成一致的是流動而深邃的海，閃耀地泛著光，正沖撲著他的眼光。(普101)
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# BA SENTENCES AND BEI SENTENCES

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1.0 Ba sentences.

1.1 Various approaches.

In contemporary Chinese, sentences which have subject, predicate, and object usually have these structures in the following order: subject - predicate - object. But if a sentence contains ba, the order is changed to subject - ba - object - predicate. What is the reason for the addition of ba and changing the order of the structures in the sentence? When must we do this and when may we not do this? When is the use of ba optional? Specifically, for those sentences which may or may not take ba, is the option in all contexts or is it rather that ba must be used in some contexts and must not be used in other contexts? In order to clarify these questions, we shall first give a simplified exposition of the various approaches taken by grammarians. As for "4", other than that it does not occur as much in spoken language as ba, there is actually no difference. Consequently, we will not give it additional discussion.

Mr. Wang Li calls ba sentences "disposal forms" 處置式. He states: "Disposal forms express how humans are treated, how they are manipulated, how they are dealt with; or how objects are disposed of, or how activities are carried out. Since it is specifically used for disposing, if the action is not of a disposal nature, then the disposal form cannot be used". Mr. Wang also pointed out that the verb in the predicate of ba sentences cannot be preceded by a negative. He also presented five contexts in which ba cannot be used:

1. Descriptive words [表述述, that is the verb in the predicate-author) expressing emotional activity, e.g., "我愛他" cannot become "我把他愛".

2. Descriptive words expressing perceptual phenomenon, e.g., "我看得見他們" cannot become "我把他們看得見".

3. Descriptive words expressing activities which cannot change the state of the object [表述述] (that is the object-author), e.g., "我把樓上" cannot become "我把樓上".

4. Descriptive words expressing an activity which is an unexpected happening, e.g., "我把一塊手帕拾起" cannot become "我把一塊手帕拾起的".

5. Descriptive words which are words such as "有" [表述述, e.g., "我有錢" cannot become "我把金錢"; "他到家 " cannot become "他把家在 ".]
After this, Mr. Wang discussed the disposal form from the viewpoint of both meaning and form. He feels that the disposal form is more emphatic: "In form, the restrictions in the disposal form are more severe than those in the normal subject-verb sentences. Ba cannot be added to a simple descriptive word and its object to change them into the disposal form." He says that the disposal form as found in common speech must satisfy one of the five following conditions:

1. There is a tertiary-rank complement following the descriptive word of the disposal form (the tertiary-rank complement approximately corresponds to the complement verb or directional verb expressing change in the verb as these are discussed in the high school text Hanyu (作者), or an adjective to express the result of the disposal form, e.g.:

(A) 紫藤又把蘑菇連同手轻轻地摘下. (四,八,三回)
(B) 把酒爆得滾熱的拿來. (又,三,八回)

2. The descriptive word in the disposal form is preceded or followed by tertiary rank predicates (this approximately corresponds to prepositional constructions functioning as adverbials or complements as these are discussed in Hanyu (作者)), e.g.:

(C) 晴雯伸手把寶玉的領角自己拿住. (四,七,四回)
(D) 拍你妹妹替安置在碧柳閣裡. (又,三,四回)

3. The descriptive word is followed by a relational position (This approximately corresponds to the near object in Hanyu (作者)), e.g.:

(E) 把那條還我吧. (又,四,六回)

4. The descriptive word is followed by tertiary-rank numerals (this approximately corresponds to numeral-measures functioning as complements in Hanyu (作者)), e.g.:

(F) 我把他打了一頓.
(G) 我把那門敲了三天.

5. The disposal form contains an aspectual expression, (tense expressed by tense auxiliaries, or reduplicated verb with "--" to express the brevity of the activity, etc. - author), e.g.:

(H) 由着奴僞們一次向王子都得罪了. (四,七,四回)
(I) 他把書卷拿著.
(J) 把頭也 télé一根. (四,四,四回)

From these, Mr. Wang came to the conclusion that "the disposal form is not suitable for expressing thought which are too simple..."
In addition, Mr. Wang presented a type of "continuative form" sentence which he considers to be related to the disposal form. He stated: "The continuative form does not express disposal; rather it expresses that this event is the result of the influence of another event. In form, it is identical with the disposal form", e.g.:

(A) 誰知接連連許多事情就把它忘了。 (又, 二六回)
(B) 把牙磕了, 那時候才不滯呢! (又, 二六回)
(C) 併何為我把自己失了? (又, 二九回)
(D) 小紅聽了, 不覺把臉一紅。 (又, 二六回)
(E) 偏又把頭病了。 (又, 七八回)
(F) 怎麼忽然把個晴雯姐姐也沒有了? (又, 七九回)

He feels that in addition to the fact that one type of sentences expresses disposal while the other type does not, there are these two major differences:

(1) Emotional activities (example A), phenomena of sensation (example D), unexpected happenings (examples B, C), while not expressible by the disposal form, are expressible by the continuative form.

(2) The descriptive word in the disposal form must be a transitive verb (及物動詞) (that is 他動詞 - author), whereas in the continuative form intransitive verbs (that is 自動詞 - author) can be used as well, as in examples E, F. In 中國現代語法, Mr. Wang called the continuative form "the free use of the disposal form", and pointed out that this form usually refers to events which are unfortunate or not self-determined.

Now let us discuss the point of view of Mr. Lü Shu Ziang. Mr. Lü thinks that ba sentences can be studied from three approaches: the meaning of the verb, the nature of the object, and the form of the entire sentence. Mr. Lü feels that the approach taken by Mr. Wang is primarily that of the meaning of the verb. Of the five situations presented by Mr. Wang as not permitting ba, he pointed out that situations (1), (3), (4) are not valid. Mr. Lü has presented contra-examples to these three situations.

The examples for emotional activities are:

(A) 這麼一來, 他可要把你恨透了。
(B) 盼來盼去, 總算把這一天盼到了。
(C) 你把這句話再想想看。

The examples for situations where the state of the object cannot be changed are:

(D) 把三百級台階一口氣走完。
(E) 你把這個留着自己用吧。
Mr. III pointed out that the reason why we cannot say "我把楼上" is that the relationship between "楼上" and "楼上" is not the same as that which commonly exists between verb and object because these objects are somewhat similar to place complements. The examples for unexpected happenings are:

(G) 把日子誤了

(H) 把機會錯過了

(I) 把姑娘的東西丟了

(J) 先把太太得罪了

Mr. II feels that the reason we cannot say "我把一塊手帕摸了" is due to the fact that the object is indeterminate and not because it expresses a type of unexpected happening. As for the two other situations and for the rule that ba cannot be followed by negatives, Mr. II expressed agreement. He does not favor the two terms disposal form and continuative form. He feels that since they are formally identical, if one is not called disposal form, there is no need to set up a term, continuative form, for the other.

Mr. II's conclusion is that from examining the meaning of the verb, we can only learn of the contexts where ba must not or should not be used. But we cannot learn of the contexts where ba must be or should be used.

Then Mr. II discussed ba sentences from the point of view of the nature of the object. He thinks that the object must be determinate, and points out that the determinancy of a noun may be marked not only with "这" and "那些" but also with preceding "把" or "把 ... " Mr. II's conclusion is: "From studying the nature of the object, we can only learn that if the object is indeterminate, ba cannot be used. But when the object is determinate, we cannot learn when ba should be used and when it should not be used."

Lastly, Mr. II examines ba sentences from the form of the entire sentence. He feels that the major criterion for using ba is the presence of certain structures before or after the verb. He says: "The disposal meaning of the verb, the determinate nature of the object are both indirect criteria. Only this third criterion - the structures surrounding the verb - is a direct one that is the moving force behind the ba sentences in contemporary Mandarin."

Then Mr. II presented 13 ba sentence types, pointing out which ones must have ba and which ones may or may not use ba. Here, we have rearranged the 13 types into 15 types, combined into two large groups (those which must and those which may). For each type, we reproduce one or two of the original examples.
Group A: Those which must use ba.

(1) The object following the verb is preserved - the relation between the object and verb is very close, forming an idiom:

(A) Objects commonly preserved:
跑了大門上了大門. (老殘遊記, 三四回)
他便把那話變了個相兒, 倒問著人家說... (光武英雄傳, 一八回).

(B) Objects preserved are result objects:
把這情書細細寫了一個業帖. (儒林外史, 五四回)
雨又把雨衣包了個小小包袱, 背在肩頭. (三俠五義, 三四回).

(C) The object following the verb belongs to a preceding object.
一把青絨了兩手. (水滸, 四八回)
有比他強的呢, 就把他免了職. (老舍, 黑白李).

(D) The object following ba has the flavor of a place complement.
你把火盆裏添點炭. (老殘遊記, 一六四回)
把炭爐生了火, 要旺旺的. (冰心, 第一次飯會).

(2) There is a passive complement after the verb, and the object is determinate:

(A) Those which do not use "給":
你把那小包袱仍交還他母女. (光武英雄傳, 一一四回).

(B) Those which use "給":
你若子使了我五千銀子, 把你宅子賣, 給我的. (紅, 八九回).

(3) There is a place complement after the verb, and the object is determinate.

你把心暫且用在這幾本書上. (紅, 七五回)
將碟子撤在跟前. (又, 七五回).

(4) There is a polysyllabic result complement after the verb which is not preceded by "得":
等我把原故說明白. (光武英雄傳, 一六四回).

(5) There is a result complement after the verb which is preceded by "得":
把話說得越堅決越好. (老舍, 黑白李).

(6) The verb is preceded by "都", if the noun or pronoun which is related in meaning to these two words is the object:
There are other preposed structures before the verb:

(A) A few adverbs similar in meaning to "quickly":
   把細磁碗裏和銀釘的杯盤逐件看了一遍. (儒林外史. 三回)
   把箱子一齊打開. (紅, 七四回)

(B) Place complements introduced by "往":
   就把手裡的花兌往先靠著肩上聞. (兒女英雄傳, 三八回)

(C) Comparative adverbs (such as "as...", "as...", etc:
   不如錢做錢看, 不如人做人看. (雪月勝語)
   把你似農土堆般著待, 泥土般推拉. (元曲選, 天鏡台. 三折)

Group B: Those which may use ba.

(1) The verb is followed by a [偏補] object:
   小厮把銀子盤下七錢五分. (金瓶梅. 二三回)
   把衣服脱了一件. (儒林外史. 五回)

(2) The verb is followed by a degree object:
   把那張袋貨兜一兜. (兒女英雄傳. 七七回)
   把方才的話說了一遍. (紅, 七一回)

(3) The verb is followed by a passive complement and the object is indeterminate (the following examples do not use ba - author):
   你既不願意, 我教你個法兒. (紅, 四六回)
   再賣給我們兩個柿子. (冰心. 東方姑娘)

(4) The verb is followed by directional or time complements (in Nan Yu, these are called directional verbs or time auxiliaries which express change in the verb - author):
   倫僕索性回明了老太太, 把二姑娘接了來. (紅, 八一回)
   寶蟾把臉紅着, 并不答言. (又, 九回)

(5) The verb is followed by a monosyllabic result complement:
   把生死關頭看破. (兒女英雄傳. 一六回)
   還不快換雙鞋去呢, 把她拖都弄髒了. (冰心. 第八次宴會)

(6) The verb is followed by special types of result complements.

(A) The verb is originally intransitive. Here it has a "causative" meaning and becomes transitive:
(B) The action of the verb cannot govern the object but can cause the object to reach the state expressed by the result complement:

When ba has a meaning similar to that of "讓" and is used for unfortunate happenings. The major verbs are mostly intransitive; there is no result complement:

(7) Mr. Li's final conclusion is: "When ba sentences were first used, this sentence type probably did not have a special function. The main reason for its great versatility in contemporary Chinese is that there are some situations in which the object must be shifted to precede the verb. Also, there are two important indirect restrictions. First, the object must be determinate. Secondly, the verb must express a type of action, a type of disposal. When these direct and indirect criteria conflict (such situations are rare), if there is no third sentence type that can be used, then ba sentences are favored over the normal subject-verb sentences."

Mr. Zhang Zhi Gong feels that there are two situations in which ba is used to move the object forward: one is due to the demand of meaning, the other is due to demands of structure. By demands of structure, he means that either the verb is comparatively complex or that the object is comparatively complex. Mr. Zhang's conclusion is: "When the verb is complex, ba must be used to shift the object forward. But when the object is complex, although the use of ba to shift the object forward is not mandatory, in so doing we obtain a more fluent sentence."

Messrs. Hu Fu and Wen Lian suggest the examination of ba sentences from a structural viewpoint. They reject the term "disposal form" as proposed by
Mr. Wang Li. Their reason is that even though some ba sentences express disposal, the fact that ba sentences can have "free use" makes the term "disposal form" unsuitable. From examining the structure, they concluded with 3 rules:

1. Verb-predicate sentences most frequently use the form "subject-verb-object". If there is no special reason, ba is generally not used to shift the object forward.

2. In the following situations, ba may or may not be used:
   (A) The verb takes "J,着,起来,下去" etc.
   (B) The verb is a verb-complement construction.
   (C) The verb has two objects.
   (D) The verb is preceded or followed by additive structures.

3. If the verb takes a rather complex complement as well as an object, ba is generally used. If the verb complement is an auxiliary verb (that is preposition-author), the verb-object phrase (that is word group-author) must use ba.

The above are the viewpoints of several grammarians on ba. The explanations are all based on either meaning or structure. Messrs. Hu and Wen are correct in saying: "The task of the grammarian resides in examining certain structural features in language, the meanings expressed by these features and the purpose of these features. Then, these should be given reasonable explanations. It is not correct to look at just form and not at meaning. But we should discover meaning from structure." However, Messrs. Hu and Wen do not indicate what kind of meaning ba sentences have after they have rejected the term "disposal form". They only say: "Perhaps the word ba specifically has this structural function". But is this not the separation of form and meaning without having discovered meaning from structure?

1.2 Several problems related to ba sentences.

Based on the inroads made by the various people mentioned above, let us discuss the several key questions of ba sentences to see whether we can further explicate this form.

1.2.1 The disposal nature of the verb.

Although Messrs. Li, Hu and Wen do not agree to calling ba sentences disposal forms, Mr. Li feels that the verb in ba sentences must express a type of
disposal or behavior, and Messrs. Hu and Wen also feel that a subset of the ba sentences do express disposal. Whether this subset is a major or minor portion of the set of ba sentences, such a percentage is difficult to assess. However, based just on the speaking experience of our daily life, it seems that the percentage is not small. Let us first not consider the matter of percentage, but examine this property which actually exists. For example, we have the following ways of stating the insertion of a batch of flowers into a vase:

1. 他把花瓶裡插了一把花。
2. 他把一把花插在花瓶裡。
3. 他把花瓶裡放了一把花。

We have no way of differentiating their nature if we were to explicate these sentences on the basis of form. Can we say that they are not different? Clearly, these three sentences express three different situations. The first sentence simply describes "his" action. The second and third sentences are very good evidence for Mr. Wang Li's disposal form. The second sentence describes how "一把花" is disposed of, and the third sentence describes how "花瓶" is disposed of. Also, we can exemplify two uses of ba by the following description of a man selling two pigs:

4. 他把两只猪卖了。
5. 他把猪卖了两只。

Again, the two forms express two different meanings: if he only has two pigs, we would probably use the first sentence; if he has more than two pigs, we would probably use the second sentence. Examples (2), (3), (4), (5) are all ba sentences. Individually examined, each sentence is structurally correct. But in a given situation, a structurally correct sentence may not be suitable for use. For instance, if a child asks his mother: "这把花怎么摆?" the mother can only say "把它插在花瓶裡吧" and not "把花瓶插上一把花吧!". When we speak, the things we say cannot be divorced from the situation (including the linguistic context which precedes or follows). Similarly, when we are examining a sentence, we must take into account the situation in which it occurs. The problem is only half solved when we tell someone that a given sentence is structurally correct but do not indicate the set of situations in which it should be used. For a non-Mandarin speaker, it is less than half-solved. Even though the term disposal form cannot cover all the uses of ba, if we tell students that ba expresses disposal and the noun expressing the
person or thing disposed of is the object of ba as well as the object in the meaning of the verb in the predicate, the students will at least be able to construct correctly a large number of sentences. If instead of the above, we only tell them the rules of "when the verb takes a comparatively complex complement", etc., they will not be able to understand the difference between examples (2) and (3), and (4) and (5).

The disposal property of ba can be seen from another point of view. The set of verbs that cannot be used with ba is much more diverse than the perceptual category pointed out by Mr. Wang Li, such as "看, 看見" and "有, 在" etc. The following verbs also cannot be used with ba no matter how complex the verb becomes: "躲, 到, 遇到, 得到, 習慣, 應付, 成為, 習成, 上(樓)下(山)". These verbs indeed give the impression that they "cannot change the state of the item expressed by the object", as Mr. Wang Li has put it. But what makes Mr. Wang's treatment worth considering? Because, of the verbs which can take ba, many are also incapable of changing the state of the item expressed by the object, e.g., "他把書看了兩次", "你把這個問題好好想想". The reason why the above-mentioned verbs cannot take ba can be seen in these two ways. One is that, as Mr. Wang has said, their major function is to describe the action of the actor (i.e., subject). Since this action does not have any direct influence on the object, it naturally cannot change its state. The other is that such verbs express a relation between the action and the item expressed by the object that is extremely simple. This relation is so simple that one may not use any preposed or postposed structures to explicate that the action has one kind of influence on the object and not some other kind of influence, e.g.:

(6) 我昨天遇到一個朋友.
(7) 他上星期五到了上海.
(8) 他們贊成你當小組長.

Although it has been said above, "no matter how complex these verbs become", actually, as pointed out by Messrs. Hu and Wen, it is very difficult for these verbs to become complex. We know about the preposed and postposed structures of the verb in the predicate of ba sentences. Either these structures describe the result achieved on the item expressed by the object through the action of the verb, such as "他把書關上了", or, they describe the manner with which the action has relation with the item, such as "他把書拿
The verbs mentioned above can neither express any direct influence upon the item expressed by the object to produce certain results, nor can they have unusual types of relations with the object. Naturally, they cannot occur in ba sentences.

As for the non-usage of ba sentences for what Mr. Wang calls "unexpected happenings", Mr. LU has already cited counter-examples. But let us consider again Mr. Wang's example: "把一块手帕拾了". The reason why this cannot be said, according to Mr. LU, is that "一块手帕" is indeterminate. But why can we say "我昨天骑车，把一个小孩给碰了"? Not considering for the moment whether "一块" and "一个" are determinate or not, at least they are similar in nature. As for the verb, "拾" and "拣" are both unexpected happenings. I feel that the key rests with "拾" or "拣" in the spoken language, which in this sentence belongs to the non-disposal type of verbs mentioned above. "拾" and "遇到" are the same. We can only say "我遇到一个朋友" and "我拣了一块手绢". But "拾" or "撿" has another meaning, that is, to pick up from the ground, that can be used in ba sentences. We can say "我把一块手绢拾起来放在桌上", or "幾個小孩把堆上的麥穗撿了". The "撿" with the first meaning cannot take complements other than "到着 (zháo)". Also, "撿到, 撿着" are not very different in meaning from "拾". But the "撿" with the second meaning can take many different complements, as in "撿走, 撿光, 撿得一乾一淨". Another case is the verb "带". From the different relations it has with the object we can determine whether or not it can be used in ba sentences. We can say:

(9) 你还是把钱带著吧.
We can say: (9) 你还是把钱带著吧.
(10) 我不想把这些東西带著太累了.
But the following two sentences cannot be changed to ba sentences:

(11) 他帶著滿臉的喜氣.
(12) 她身上帶著一股香味兒.
Or take the verb "要". In one meaning of wanting something, we can use a ba sentence, e.g.:

(13) 你去跟他把那本字典要来.
For the other meaning of receiving something, we cannot use ba, but can only say:

(14) 款的送来不方便，可是我只好了一本字典.
We can say that these several verbs belong to both the disposal and non-disposal classes. As for Mr. Wang's perceptual verbs "看见, 听见", the fact
that they cannot be used in ba sentences actually has nothing to do with perception. Rather, it is because they belong to the class of non-disposal verbs. "有," in "我有" and "(x)有," also belong to this class. If we carefully examine the relations between these verbs and objects, we would be able to sense the disposal nature of the verbs which can be used in ba sentences.

1.2.2 The determinate nature of the object.

Whether or not a sentence can take ba sometimes is much related to the nature of the object. But the point "determinate" or "indeterminate" is not exactly clear. If we say that "determinate" means having a specific referent and "indeterminate" means having a general referent, it would be difficult to explain why we can say the following sentences:

1) 他連人太浪費,總把錢不當錢花。
2) 他自窮一切,從來不把人放在眼裡。
3) 我想他一本俄文小譯成中文,你說譯那本好?

Here "錢", "人" and "小說" have no specific reference to a particular sum of money, person, or novel. We admit that in ba sentences, determinate objects are much more frequent than indeterminate objects. But it is very difficult to judge an object determinate or indeterminate from its form. In sentences of the type "subject-predicate-object", a lone noun used as object may be indeterminate, as in "他為什麼寫信?" But in ba sentences, a lone noun used as object frequently is determinate, as in "我把信燒了", in which the reference must be to a specific letter or batch of letters. The determinateness or indeterminateness of the object in ba sentences is also related to the verb in the predicate. We can discuss the following separately.

A. The verb takes "了". This is the minimum condition for ba sentences. It is also one of the criteria Mr. Li has on when ba may or may not be used. Is it true that the use of ba is optional with all sentences of this type? If the object is clearly determinate, then ba is optional, e.g.:

4) 我把那封信燒了。
   (我把那封信了)
5) 他把這些書看了。
   (他看了這些書)
6) 我們把要買的東西買了。
   (我們買了要買的東西)
But is the object determinate if the object is preceded only by numerals and measures? Is the use of ba optional then? This leads us to the relation between the object and the verb in the predicate. In the following sentences, the object is determinate and ba is optional.

(7) 我买了一本书.
(8) 他洗了三件衣服.
(9) 我們燒了幾張文件.

However, the following sentences cannot be changed into ba form:

(10) 我昨天买了一本书.
(11) 他哭了兩首詩.
(12) 上星期我做了三件小事.
(13) 我們聯合發表了一篇宣言.

If we examine them closely we can see that these sentences share the following property: The items expressed by the object all appear through the action expressed by the verb. In other words, these items did not "exist" before the action. Since these items did not exist, clearly they cannot be disposed of, hence ba cannot be used. In the following, we give some examples taken from literature:

(14) 我已經想了好幾個詞了. (紅, 三八回)
(15) 我換了一個小小的海菜淩石黃菜杯. (又, 三八回)
(16) 專親還沾了一點酒, 向熟肉店買了一點肉. (葉雲陶, 九月)
(17) 於是...寫了英文的英文的兩張習字, 又寫了一封信. (葉雲陶, 一個練習生.)

In order to understand this point more clearly, we can examine the verbs "倒" and "換". "倒一杯茶" can have two meanings: (a) No tea is originally in the cup; tea is poured from the teapot into the cup; (b) There is tea in the cup; the tea is poured out. If we want to express the first meaning, ba cannot be used: "他倒了一杯熟茶 (溫)". If we want to express the second meaning, then we use ba: "他把一杯涼茶倒, 又倒了一杯熱的 ". In the sentence expressing the first meaning, even though the tea did "exist" before the action of pouring, from the point of view of "一杯茶" it can...
be said not to have existed. Similarly, "换", also has two meanings: (a) to change off an item which "exists" for some purpose; (b) to change off an item which does not "exist" for this purpose. For example, if we say "他换了一双皮鞋", doubtlessly this refers to a pair of shoes that was not on the feet before. If we say "他把一双旧鞋换", this clearly means that the pair of cloth shoes are taken off the feet and another pair of shoes is put on. Therefore, if one changes from cloth shoes into leather shoes, we can only say "他把一双布鞋换, 换了一双皮鞋", but not the other way around. If one changes from leather shoes to cloth shoes, then we must say it in reverse order.

If an item takes a "restrictive" adjectival, it may take ba even though it did not originally "exist", because the adjectival makes it specific:

(18) 我把一本非常急须的書買了。
(19) 他把兩首很难作的詩作了。

B. The verb takes a complement. If the verb takes a complement, almost always it can take ba even if it does not fulfill some of the conditions mentioned above.

(20) 昨天我把一本書買錯了。
(21) 他把兩首詩做得簡直不像詩。
(22) 我把一件小掛繩拋小了。

Since the emphasis is shifted to the result of the verb, the "existence" of the item is naturally no longer in question.

From the examples given above, it is seen that to say the object in the ba sentence is determinate is not enough, if by determinate is meant a specific reference. We can say that the object in ba sentences must fulfill one of the two following conditions:

(A) it must refer to specific person(s) or item(s).

(B) it must refer to person(s) or item(s) which "existed" before the action, whether the latter are specific or not.

The "existence" of persons or items is indeed very important. For example, if a person lost his job and has no money to send home, we cannot say "他失業了, 不能把錢寄回家去了 "; we can only say "他失業了, 不能把錢寄回家去了 ". But we can say "那個地方不通達了, 他不能把錢寄回家去了":
1.2.3 Sentences which may or may not take ba.

I do not think that anyone would disagree with the conditions under which ba must be used as pointed out by the several linguists. The situation there is relatively simple. But regarding sentences which may or may not take ba and under what conditions, the problem is not that simple. There are two types of situations in which the use of ba is optional. One type has been discussed above, i.e., judging from the construction of the sentence, ba can be used; but because the verb is not of the disposal category, ba cannot be used. This type of sentence actually should be considered as incapable of taking ba. The other type is really the type under which ba is optional. That is to say, when examined in isolation, the use of ba is optional. But there are contexts in which it is either not possible or not suitable to use ba. The example given above about "语音" would illustrate this point. Now we give some more examples taken from the written literature. These sentences do not have and cannot take ba. But if they are taken out of context, they all can take ba:

(1) 筆下只帶來了兩百元,一個是自己的奶奶王媽媽,一個是十歲的小丫頭,名為雲雁。(紅,三回)
(2) 我雖比他尊貴,但細細細細細,他不過填了我這兩株拜拜,洋氣又美酒,也不過去,我這裏當然當然當然,可到了七回)
(3) 乙已剛用指甲條了我磨在骨頭上寫字... (魯迅,孔乙已)
(4) 船上,我同他一樣,笑着對他說: "孔乙已,你又偷了東西了!"
(5) 你要是認得紅眼睛阿義,是去盤盤底細的,決不和他攀談。(魯

I feel the reason that these sentences cannot take ba is that there is no need to emphasize the disposal of the items in these contexts.

Generally speaking, whether ba is used or not depends on whether the disposal is emphasized or not, with no appreciable difference in the meaning. However, there are some sentences which on the surface seem to be only differentiated by ba. But they are actually differently constructed sentences with consequent differences in meaning, e.g.:

(6) a. 他取書來了. (He wants to take the book away)
    b. 他把書取來了. (He has brought the book here from elsewhere)

(7) a. 你拿牛奶去吧. (It may mean either "[you] go somewhere to..."
Sentence 6b is not derived from 6a by the addition of ba. If ba is taken away, it would be "(你) 带牛奶去)". If 7a has the meaning of "[you] take the milk elsewhere", it can take ba and be changed to 7b. But if it means "[you] go somewhere to get the milk", then it cannot take ba. These two pairs of sentences seem to further illustrate the disposal nature of ba: when ba is not used, the object can be followed by verbs which are controlled by the subject, as the "来" in 6a or the "去" in 7a. But after ba is used, the "来" and "去" in "取来" and "拿去" following the object can only describe the result of disposing of the object.

In any case, although we do not deny that in many situations it makes little difference whether we use ba or not, still there are sentences which seem to be able to take ba structurally, which cannot take ba because of the nature of the verb or object. There are also sentences which have different meanings depending on whether or not ba is used; furthermore, there are situations under which ba cannot be used in such sentences. Consequently, ba must have its function and is not merely a problem in form or structure.

1.2.4 The conjunctive use of ba.

The conjunctive use of ba is what Mr. Wang Li has called the continuative form and what Mr. Li has divided into classes (6) and (7) in our earlier discussion. It is not an important issue whether such sentences should have a special label. What is important is explaining their special properties. These sentences can be divided into two groups. Structurally, the first group is not different from the common ba sentences, except that they refer to actions which are so-called emotional, e.g.:

1. 他把我恨死了
2. 她把她的小花猫说得那么极的！

The following examples are from 红楼梦.

3. 若闻个方呢，真把人魂碎了。(五回)
4. 你太把人看糊塗了。(五五回)
5. 你暂且把我们忘了，使不得吗？(七回)
6. 你把我的心都哭乱了。(九九回)
This type of sentences either describes how a person or an item is dealt with or states the influence upon a particular person or item. Their special features are (a) the verb usually takes a complement; (b) the complement usually describes something intense. If we do not maintain a very narrow understanding of "disposal", this type of sentences are identical with common ba sentences both in structure and in meaning.

The second type of conjunctive use of ba is very different from the common ba sentence. In this type, the ba can be deleted without affecting the order of the predicate and object. The following examples are from 紅樓夢:

10) 不知說了一句話,半句話,名兒姓兒知道了沒有,就把他也駕頭的這個樣子。 (二七回)

11) 常又把鳳丫頭痛了。 (七六回)

12) 怎麼把個晴雯妹妹也沒了。 (七九回)

13) 這下叫了劉老老也嚇慌了。 (一九回)

14) 這兩個丫鬟急得臉脣通紅。 (二零回)

We can add a few more:

15) 把西門慶吃得著奶打醉了。 (金瓶梅, 一回)

16) 把周先生差的臉上紅一块,白一块。 (儒林外史, 二回)

17) 把我孩子凍成什麼樣子。 (高玉寶, 四章)

18) 把我冷得直哆嗦。

19) 把馬累得站都站不住了。

In (12), (13), (14), and (19), if ba is deleted, the measures "個" and "匹" must of course also be deleted. But in the original sentence, these measures are not essential either. 20  Strictly speaking, these sentences are not completely the same. The predicates in some sentences are intransitive verbs, such as the "駕頭" in (10), the "病" in (11) and the "沒" in (12). Some predicates are not verbs but adjectives, as the "冷" in (18). Generally, intransitive verbs and adjectives cannot function as predicates of ba sentences. Some of the verbs in the predicates can take objects, such as the "駕頭" in (13), which could have been expressed as "駕頭了劉老老". But after the deletion of ba (and the measure "個"), the remaining portion is still a complete sentence (the object of ba becomes the subject; the following portion
comments on the state of the subject). We might as well consider these a separate class. This type of sentences usually explains the state or change of a certain animate entity that results from the happening of a certain event. It is very much as though they have acquired this change or state through the manipulation or influence of this event. If these sentences did not take ba, they only indicate that a certain animate entity has acquired this state. If ba is used, then the connection is made to the preceding event and it becomes clear that the state of the entity is a result of the event. In this way, it is quite close to the meaning expressed by common ba sentences. The properties of this type of sentence are (a) the great majority of the objects of ba are human, occasionally animals, but never inanimate; (b) the following verb or adjective with complement is descriptive rather than narrative, frequently describing emotion or perception; (c) the emotion or perception frequently reaches a very intense level. Sentences (11) and (12) are the most difficult to explain. They do not seem to conform with the conditions mentioned above. Also, the event which caused 's sickness or 's death is not given in the context. These special sentences need further study.

In any case, whether or not ba sentences are called "disposal forms" is not just a structural question. The ba emphatically expresses the direct action or attitude that a certain person or item assumes toward another person or item. Sometimes, it goes a step further to emphasize the result on the latter person or item of this action or attitude.

1.2.5 The affirmativeness of the action.

Just as Mr. Wang Li has said, ba is used in active disposal. Therefore, the verb in the predicate cannot be negated (it cannot be preceded by a negative). If it is a negative sentence, the negative must be shifted to precede ba, as in "he没把课文了解透澈". But the affirmativeness of the action is not necessarily determined on formal grounds. In the following sentences from 红楼梦, the verbs in the predicates are all negated.

(1) 把宝玉恨急死了. (九回)
(2) 怎么把头里的帝巴都没了呢? (九回)
(3) 你为什么把从前的楼机呢都没有了? (九回)
(4) 把我那要强的心一分也没有了. (一回)
(5) 把從前那些邪魔永不沾染。(一一八四)
(6) 禾人見 [ 黃玉 ] 便ografia理，恐障兄不好意的。(三五回)
Sentence (1) is a common form, having the meaning of "黃玉弟一點兒沒察化", i.e., 黃玉 is extremely worried. (Similarly we can say "把我沒凍死! ").
The "没" and "没有" in (2) and (3) mean "lost". The "一分也没有了" in (4) means "completely eliminated". The "永不沾染 " and "不理 " in (5) and (6) are idioms. These negative forms actually all have the meaning of affirmativeness. Therefore, they can use ba. However, there are after all very few verbs which have affirmative meaning and yet take negative forms or idioms which take negatives. Therefore, these do not contradict the generality of the rule that ba cannot be followed by negative words.

1.2.6 Ba and "拿(拿)" "yong(用)"

As has been pointed out by many linguists, ba and "將" were originally verbs. In some dialects, "拿" is used instead of ba. In earlier forms of baihwa, ba and "将" could be used in the same way as "拿" and "用"; e.g.:

(1) 把花錦挑了酒葫蘆。(水浒，一一回)
(2) 林中把手床上摸時... (又，一二回)
(3) 把我的驢駝在後園槽上，卸了鞍子，將些草垛的飽飽的... (儒林外史，二回)
(4) 把扇子打瞎了人的眼睛... (又，三九回)
(5) 翁去正把眼睛看那 "驚履春蛙圖"... (紅，一一回)
(6) 把話先來慢慢兒的說了好些時... (又，一二九回)

In contemporary Chinese, "拿" and "用" are used in such sentences instead of ba. However, these are instances of the free interchange between "拿用" and ba in earlier baihwa, the practice of which still exists now, e.g.:

(7) 怪不得他們拿姐姐比楊妃，原也不為些... (紅，三〇回)
(8) 後來我們拿這個作被，作帳子... (又，四〇回)
(9) 不拿草做給事預先，抹在底子上揩過... (又，四二回)
(10) 我要不把姐姐當親姐姐待... (又，三七回)
(11) 人家把你當個正經人... (又，四厶)
(12) 人身有為難的事，拿著你們當 "做正經人"... (又，四六回)

The "拿" in (7) can be replaced by ba; the "拿" in (8), (9) can also be replaced by either ba or "用"; the ba in (10) can be replaced by "拿". The meanings of (11) and (12) are exactly the same. Although one uses ba and the
other uses "拿着", these words can be interchanged. There are also some sentences in which use "拿" and "用" that definitely cannot be replaced by ba:

(13) 他命人拿籃子裝了十個極大的. (三九回)
(14) 養母又命拿些錢給他. (三九回)
(15) 薛玉英包用小茶盤捧了一蓋石記茶來. (四八回)
(16) 拿上等燕窩一兩, 水糖五錢, 用銀吊子熬出粥來... (四五)

In any case, whereas "拿" and "用" prevail in many sentences in contemporary Chinese, there are sentences which use ba in their place. The latter type of sentences occurs less in 红楼梦 than in 儒林外史, and less in 儒林外史 than in 水浒. From the point of view of language change, the separation in usage between ba and "拿,用" becomes increasingly apparent. The following sentences all show the effect of earlier baihua:

(17) 把錫鑄造橋的工人, 當這時候, 還在河岸作工. (芽鑄錫, 新著國語文法, 46頁例.)
(18) 禮部把馬列主義的理論武裝自己. (x, 208頁, 例)
(19) 他忽然把老哥來稱呼他. (同上)
(20) 我們不能把困難的工作教他去做. (語法講話.《中國語文》1955年3月號, 29頁, 例)
(21) 差不多把性命和日本飛機打對著. (葉聖陶, 我們的驕傲)

Sometimes ba actually has the meaning of "使", e.g.:

(22) 把個人和局部的眼前利益服從人民的, 公共的, 長久的利益. (胡附, 文譯, 現代漢語語法探索, 131頁, 例)
(23) 把自己處在困難地位. (同上)

These ba sentences actually conflict with the rules governing ba sentences as these rules relate to "the putonghua which uses the Peking dialect as its basis". A speaker of the Peking dialect can easily decide whether a particular sentence should take ba, or "拿" or "用", or whether these can be interchanged. Therefore, it is not difficult to find rules to distinguish the usages of these words. From the viewpoint of language change, ba has indeed developed into a preposition whose sole function is to move the object forward. It is used quite differently from "拿,用" and "使". If we tell someone who has not completely mastered Chinese that ba, "拿,用" and "使" can be freely interchanged, it will definitely create confusion. Since the question of regularizing Chinese is now very much before us, we should conform with the
developmental trend and restrict the use of ba within a definite boundary. Thus, we will be able not only to avoid obscuring the richness of our language but also to portray more accurately its subtleties.

This is all we will say about ba sentences. The study has not been sufficiently deep and some problems are left not completely resolved. Those cases which must use ba have been very clearly analyzed by the various grammarians. There is no need to repeat them here. There are some other rules regarding ba which will be presented below in conjunction with the discussion of bei sentences.

2.0 Bei Sentences

2.1 Various approaches.

Among the sentence types which differ from the normal sentence type, other than ba sentences, we also have bei sentences. In bei sentences, the subject is not the actor but the recipient of the action. It is moved to precede the verb by the preposition bei. Among all the prepositions, ba and bei are relatively unusual because the prepositional constructions that they form with their objects do not clearly have the usual kind of modifying relation with the verb. These two types of sentences have a great deal in common, but bei sentences do not occur as frequently as ba sentences. The majority of bei sentences concern humans; there are relatively few which concern things in general. It is difficult to make a similar kind of assessment for ba sentences. Let us first look at the approaches that various grammarians have taken on bei sentences.

Mr. Wang Li calls bei sentences the passive form. He points out that in our ordinary descriptive statements, the active form is used more frequently
than the passive form. He feels that not all active forms can be changed into passive forms. The use of passive forms is much more limited. The event stated by a passive form is frequently unfortunate from the point of view of the subject. The nature of the described event is approximately the same for passive forms and disposal forms because seen from the viewpoint of the actor it is a disposal kind of action, and seen from the viewpoint of the recipient of the action, it is unfortunate. Therefore, most passive forms can be changed to disposal forms. When the passive form is changed to active form, it is also suitable for changing into disposal form. The disposal form and the passive form also can be used simultaneously by embedding the disposal form into the passive form.

Mr. Wang pointed out two points of similarity between passive forms and disposal forms:

1. As is the case with ba sentences, bei cannot be followed by a negative.
2. In the same way that the disposal form is used only for disposal type of events, the passive form is used only for unfortunate events. (But Mr. Wang also points out that under the impact of foreign language, the passive form is no longer limited to unfortunate events).

Mr. Wang feels that if the actor is not mentioned, bei is frequently not used. One seldom comes across bei sentences where bei is directly followed by a verb, except when bei and the verb are used in an adjectival, e.g., "被侮辱的人".

In addition to passive sentences with bei, Mr. Wang feels there is another type of passive sentences without bei. These sentences are formally identical with subject-verb sentences. But meaning-wise, they are passive. Such passive sentences are used in the following two types of contexts:

1. When the actor need not or cannot be identified, e.g.:
   雲板連接四下.

2. When the subject is inanimate; consequently, whether the incident is unfortunate is irrelevant, e.g.:
   五光暈得哭哭泣啼啼．(紅, 六八回)

As for sentences with verbs such as "挨, 受", Mr. Wang considers these to be subject-verb sentences which are similar to passives.

Mr. Zhang Zhi Gong also feels that sentences with "挨, 受, 遭" are "intransitive passive sentences". He further points out that the difference between such sentences and the usual kind of intransitive forms lies precisely in
the fact that the former cannot be changed into passive form by means of bei since their actual meaning is already passive.23

Mr. Zhang calls these passives without bei "natural passive sentences." There are three types of these:

A. The item expressed by the subject is inanimate or abstract, e.g.:
   (1) 他去比也能得十分高。（鲁迅，酒楼上）
   (2) 路上浮塵早已凈很。（鲁迅，一件小事）
   (3) 現在，藝術的價值已經提高。（老舍）

B. The relation between the subject and verb is passive because the subject, although animate, cannot perform this action in certain contexts, e.g.:
   (4) 我們在海邊散步的人，終日吹着海風。（魯迅，故鄉）
   (5) 吃奶的孩子也抱着來了。（丁玲）

C. The action need not be mentioned but the recipient of the action is stressed. The latter is placed in the position of the subject, e.g.:
   (6) 這事到了現在，還是時時記起。（魯迅，一件小事）
   (7) 那事情是萬料不到，也防不了一。 （魯迅）

Mr. Zhang feels that if the transitive verb is preceded by "可以", "能够", or "得", or followed by "得", the sentence is also passive — a kind of passive, descriptive sentence, e.g.:
   (8) 而且那村口的矮屋閣，現在已經望得見。（魯迅，離婚）
   (9) 她覺得他可以同情的。（丁玲，太陽照在桑乾河上）

Mr. Zhang feels that bei is the most frequently used word for expressing passivity. Its main use is to introduce the action. Sometimes, bei does not introduce the actor. Rather it accurately expresses the relationship of the passive. This is when bei is placed directly before the verb, e.g.:
   (10) 他被選為農會主席。（丁玲，太陽照在桑乾河上）
   (11) 竄農會主席老楊同志被分配到第六區來檢查督促 "秋收工作"。（趙樹理，李有才板話）

Mr. Zhang feels that in the spoken language "由（數）", "為", or "由" are frequently used in place of bei. "給" can also replace bei. Or, even "被...給..." or "由（數）...給..." may be used, e.g.:
   (12) 那句話卻不計較，就叫奎旺他會聽見。（趙樹理，小二黑結婚）
   (13) 命是自己的，可是託別人管家；放些什麼頂混帳的東西管家。（老舍，駱駝祥子）
   (14) 鮮花，向來進的女藝人自動捐獻！（老舍，方珍珠）
In the Grammar Group of the Institute of Linguistic Research of the Academia Sinica pointed out that from the structural point of view, there are two differences between ba sentences and bei sentences:

(1) Ba must take an object, whereas bei may occur without an object, directly followed by a verb.

(2) The verb of ba sentences always takes some other structures, either preceding or after it, whereas, unless the verb is monosyllabic, this is not so with bei sentences.

also states that bei sentences were originally used only for unfortunate or unhappy incidents, and that the usage has been extended to other situations due to the influence of Western languages.

There are no major differences in the way the above mentioned grammarians treat bei sentences. Only Mr. Hong Xin Heng has expressed some noteworthy comments on what the grammarians call passive sentences without bei. Mr. Hong feels that these sentences are not passives. He divides them into the following six types.

(1) The verb in the predicate is followed by a negative.

(2) The actor is already in the additive structures (i.e., locative constructions formed from place word groups – author).

(3) The verb used in the subject is the same as the main verb which follows.

(4) Sentences which use "着" to indicate progressive aspect.

Sentences with "着" to indicate completive aspect are basically incapable of becoming passives, even when it is possible for the subject and verb to have
2.2 Several problems with bei sentences.

Now let us discuss the several problems of bei sentences on the basis of the above-mentioned views on them.

2.2.1 Prepositions and auxiliaries which express passivity.

As has been pointed out by the various grammarians, "叶 (散)" and "礬" can replace bei. In the spoken language, "叶 (散)" and "礬" are more often used to express passivity than bei in the Peking dialect. Their use is also frequently seen in literature, e.g.:

(1) 什么事讓她知道了，還不跟在旗杆院樓上廣播一樣！(趙樹理, 石里河)
(2) 可惜他不在村裡了，叫人家廣發把她養跑了。(趙樹理, 李有德, 板話)
(3) 放在棚上，不該耗子拉去呢？(李舍, 誠玲)

But we know that bei can occur directly before a verb without introducing an actor, whereas "叶" and "礬" generally do not occur directly before the verb. If the actor need not be mentioned, "人" or "人家" are used for general reference, as in:

(4) 他叫人打得動不了。
(5) 東西都讓人家搬走。
In addition, we should notice that when "叫 (kǎo)" or "讓 (ràng)" occurs before the noun or pronoun, it is again followed by a verb. Sometimes, the form is telescopic, not passive. (Classified as one of the complex predicates in Hanyu - author), as in:

(6) 這是他讓人活下去的。
(7) 即刻叫我女婿弄了人叫姑娘親筆寫個字兒。(紅,一九四)

Obviously, these two types of sentences are difficult to distinguish. If the subject is inanimate, it would be easier since it cannot actively "叫 (kǎo)" or "讓 (ràng)" someone to do something. If the following verb takes an object that is unrelated to the subject as the "人" and "字兒" in (7), or if the verb is intransitive as the "話" in (6), then clearly we have the telescopic form. But if the subject is animate, the object of "讓" or "叫" is also animate, and the subject and verb have a verb-object meaning, then it is very difficult to formally distinguish passive forms from telescopic forms.

(8) 你怎麼讓人打了?(被動式)
(9) 那只狗叫人摸弄慣了。(被動式)

As for "由 (yóu)", I do not agree with Mr. Zhang's view. Although in some sentences, "由 " seems to correspond to bei, this does not mean that the meaning and use of these two words are the same. Furthermore, there are instances where "由 " and "被 " are not mutually substitutable. They are different in many ways:

A. "由 " frequently has the meaning of assigning a certain task to someone or of indicating that the task is the responsibility of a certain individual. Consequently, it can be used in imperative sentences or sentences which express suggestions. In these cases, bei cannot be used, e.g.:

(10) 遼那些工作由你來完成吧！
(11) 我建議這裡一切由我來負責。

B. The object of "由 " is largely a human noun, occasionally a non-human animate noun. But it cannot be inanimate. But bei can take an inanimate object, e.g.:

(12) 棉花都被雨淋壞了。
(13) 他的腿被炮彈打斷了。

C. The subject before "由 " can be deleted; before bei it cannot.
"by" and bei frequently give very different feelings to the listener. The two sentences below make this difference quite conspicuous:

(16) 人民的代表應該由人民選舉。
(17) 他被人民選為代表了。

As pointed out by Mr. Wang Li in 中國現代語法, we have inherited the passive word "所" from early forms of Chinese. In the contemporary written language, there still are people who add a "所" in front of the verb in bei sentences. This word has no meaning of its own; it merely indicates that the following verb is passive. Generally speaking, the verb in bei sentences cannot occur independently, especially if it is monosyllabic. But with the use of "所", a monosyllabic verb can occur, the sentence takes on the flavor of early forms of Chinese, as illustrated by Mr. Wang's example:

(18) 父母已亡,或被故友兄弟所養。

In the spoken language, as Mr. Xiao Fu has pointed out, "給" can be inserted between the verb and "所 (数)" or "得", e.g.:

(19) 你下車就教給其他人,怪難呢?(老會,騾駝毛子)
(20) 拿不了這,倒叫你給拿了,這麼大的笑話!(老會,上任)
(21) 我沒有來得及喝碗麪湯,就讓我們二大爺給捉溜來了。(李健吾,風箏)

"給" here is an auxiliary verb. The verb that follows it, whether monosyllabic or disyllabic, cannot occur independently nor can it occur with preposed structures alone; rather, it must have "所", "得" or other postposed structures.

2.2 Bei sentences as compared with ba sentences.

Although bei sentences and ba sentences have different sentence types (the object of ba is the actee of the verb whereas the object of bei is the actor of the verb), there are many similarities between them:

A. Neither bei nor ba can be followed by negatives. The negatives have to be placed before these words. The situation with ba has been discussed. The situation with bei is similar, e.g.:

(1) 他沒有被大家選做勞動模範。
The exception to this rule for ba is similarly an exception for bei. If it is an idiom, then it can follow bei, as in:

(2) 便怕白閉一場,反被貴人瞧不起。(紅,九一八)
B. The verb must have preposed or postposed structures. The verb in ba sentences cannot occur alone. It is either preceded by an adverbial, or followed by an object, complement, or auxiliary, e.g.:

(4) 我要不把姐姐常親姐姐待... (紅, 三七回)
(5) 便將世上所有東西換了無數 (又, 二回)
(6) 讓我把病情的病症說一說 (又, 一o回)
(7) 送人把送別話悄悄說了 (又, 三四回)

Only very few disyllabic verbs, which themselves contain the meaning of the result of disposal, can independently occur after ba, e.g.:

(8) 我們必須把這個問題解決.
(9) 他們以為這樣做就可以把我們消滅.

This rule is generally applicable to bei sentences. However, unlike ba sentences where the disyllabic verbs are restricted to a very small number, most disyllabic verbs can occur independently (when not preceded by the auxiliary "給"), e.g.:

(10) 坐在, 從來沒有這樣被人懲罰. (紅, 三六回)
(11) 你必須把話說清楚, 否則就很容易被他們誤解.
(12) 你這樣作, 總免不了要被大家批評.
(13) 能普遍的被大家接受, 欣賞它, 還不算得上是大家愛戴;

But monosyllabic verbs definitely require preposed or postposed structures.

(14) 不上一年, 便被上司告了... (紅, 二回)
(15) 正欲下拜, 被好事母抱住... (又, 三四回)
(16) 姊知才進房, 便被眾女推出來了... (又, 二一回)
(17) 只有旗桿院這兩個院子... 沒有他們門過, (趙樹理, 三里徑)
(18) 今天就被人家活活吊住殺了... (趙樹理, 李家莊的
變遷)
(19) 小二黑掙扎了一會, 無奈沒有他們人多, 終於被他們七手
八腳打了一頓, 打起來了... (趙樹理, 小二黑結婚)
(20) 我被他這麼突然一問, 當時也怔住了
(21) 我被這些人三番五次地罵, 忍不住要發火.

As is the case with ba, verbs which take postposed structures are more numerous than those which take preposed structures. Furthermore, in both ba and bei
sentences, if the verb has preposed structure but no postposed structure, then it usually occurs in a dependent clause, as in (20) and (21). Although there are a few disyllabic verbs which can occur independently in ba sentences and many which can occur in bei sentences, the postposed structure is more common in both. Sometimes it must occur; otherwise the sentence seems unfinished, e.g.:

(22) 他被大家批評了三次。
(23) 他的建議被我們接受了。

All preposed and postposed structures in ba sentences can serve the corresponding functions in bei sentences. Previously, when we were discussing the various approaches to ba sentences, we have presented Mr. Wu Shu Xiang's detailed analysis of the preposed and postposed structures of the verb. A rather unusual feature there is that the verb can be followed by another object. In ba sentences, the object of ba is generally the semantic object of the following verb. Therefore, the verb is usually not followed by another object. The subject in bei sentences is usually the semantic object of the following verb. Therefore, the verb is also not usually followed by another object. But both types of sentences can have another object. According to the analysis of Mr. Wu, there are 4 situations, (see pp. 65-6 of this book) in which the verb would take another object and all four are applicable to bei sentences.

(a) The verb and the object form an idiom:

(24) 他當時被一個士兵打了兩個耳光子。 (陳登科, 活人. 堅)
(25) 他好像又彈了他們打了折扣。(葉聖陶, 多收三五步)

(b) The object is a result object.

(26) 他的經歷被人寫成了一本小説。

(c) The person or thing expressed by the object is possessed by the person or thing expressed by the subject. (In ba sentences, it would be ba's object.)

(27) 你給地主老死, 我給地主老死。(劉白羽, 無敵三勇士)
(28) 活到我這個歲數, 還教人給打斷腿? (師院, 大馬戲團)

(d) The subject (in ba sentences it would be ba's object) has the meaning of a place complement.

(29) 下半截（板門）給走過的學堂裡的孩子們用白粉書了一些不像人文不似畫的東西。（葉聖陶, 外國子真）

The sentences in (c) and (d) can also assume the following forms:

(30) 你的爹給地主老死, 我的娘給地主老死。
(31) 在下半截（板門）上, 孩子們用白粉書了些……東西。
But if we compare the pairs of forms, we can see the difference in meaning:

(27) refers to "你" and "我" who underwent the unfortunate events, whereas (30) refers to unfortunate events borne by "你的爹" and "我的娘"). (29) refers to the experience of the "下半截" whereas (31) refers to the action of "孩子們". Therefore, the subject in bei sentences expresses the recipient of the action stated by the speaker. In this respect, ba sentences behave similarly: The person or thing expressed by ba's object is the target of the disposal, e.g., "把一文钱给了雙手" describes how "一文錢" is disposed of, whereas "把一文钱的雙手給了" describes how "雙手" is disposed of.

C. The verb can be preceded by the auxiliary "給". "給" can be added in front of the verb in both ba and bei sentences purely for emphasis; it has no other meaning, e.g.:

(32) 你把孩子的前程給耽誤了. (馬基, 王國普)
(33) 官僚資本可把我們給剝削苦了. (馬基, 王國普)

Mr. Wang Li said that if the verb in the predicate of ba sentences expresses harm, it is preceded by "給". In the short novel by Luo Bing Ji, 王國普的自傳, there are altogether 20 ba sentences. Among them, there are four sentences whose verb is preceded by "給". In addition to (33) above, the other 3 sentences are:

(34) 十年被剝削的生活, 把我的性子給變了.
(35) 把他的腿給折下來.
(36) 把他給忘了.

The "給" of (34) of course does not necessarily mean change for the worse. But here the reference is to a worker who in appearance has become more sly but in whose heart there is a hidden pain. Consequently, the verbs in all four of these sentences all express harm. In the remaining 16 sentences without bei, there are two whose verbs express harm:

(37) 父親把我留在當中
(38) 我們那天非把他的汽車砸壞不解決.

It would seem that the above sentences are adequate to indicate that the verb in the predicate of ba sentences can indicate harm or unfortunate happenings without "給" as well. But with "給", the reference is definitely to harm. As for bei sentences, they themselves usually express a certain type of unfortunate happening. We will come back to this later.
D. The verb is intransitive in ba sentences and bei sentences. We have already mentioned that the verb in ba sentences is sometimes intransitive. This type of sentences exemplify the introductory use of ba sentences. The situation is similar with bei sentences. In these sentences, the subject is not the direct recipient of the action; it is only influenced by the action, e.g.:

(39) 王夫人被蘇秦誘騙；這言語說得極有理，心想……（杜二零四）
(40) 蘇成功被他一說就控制住了。 （陳登科，活人塘）

The "說" in (40) is not "講成功"; rather it is that when "蘇成功" heard these words, he did not know what to do. Sometimes it may even be that there is no following verb.

E. The determinate nature of the subject in bei sentences. We have discussed the determinate nature of the object of ba in ba sentences. Like the object of ba sentences, there are many more subjects which have specific reference in bei sentences than those with general reference. Here are some examples with general reference.

(41) 原來剝削農民的地主和官僚正在被改革自食其力的新人 （劉少奇，政治報告）
(42) 以前工人被資本家剝削得無法生活下去。 

Although there are cases like the above, if the subject of bei sentences does not take any adjectivals it is usually determinate, as is the case with the object of ba sentences, e.g.:

(43) 喜呀人家拿走了。
(44) 房子被人家霸佔了。 

It is even less likely that the subject of a bei sentence expresses something that does not exist. There is another feature which it shares with the object of ba. If the subject of a bei sentence is preceded only by a numerical-measure, then it has a specific reference rather than a general one.

(45) 剛才啪的一聲，是一個琉璃杯被我砸了。
(46) 在這次戰爭中，兩個同志犧牲了，三個同志被打傷了。

F. There are many transitive verbs which cannot be used in bei sentences. Just as there are many non-disposal types of transitive verbs which cannot be used in ba sentences, some transitive verbs also cannot be used in bei sentences. Many verbs cannot be used in either type of sentences, such as "有，在，當（教員），得（病），起（作用），属，屬，接近，離開，依靠" etc.

Some verbs can be used in bei sentences but not in ba sentences such as "知道，
There do not seem to be any verbs which can occur in ba sentences but cannot occur in bei sentences. Since not all verbs can occur in ba sentences, not all sentences of the form subject-verb can be changed into ba sentences. Similarly, not all such sentences can be changed into bei sentences.

Besides the six points of similarity between ba and bei sentences, there are two points of dissimilarity.

A. Bei can occur directly before the verb, whereas ba cannot, e.g.:
   (1) 著名被盜，不知去向。 (紅，一一三回)
   (2) 閻家山，就被稱為“模範村”。 (趙樹理，李有才三個故事)
   (3) 近百年來，戰在中國人民頭上的外國帝國主義勢力已經被
       趕走。 (劉少奇，政治報告)

   Bei plus a verb can serve as an adjectival to modify nouns. It can also combine with "的" to form "的" constructions, e.g.:
   (4) 老爺，你這被罰的丫頭是誰？ (紅，四回)
   (5) 這個被打死的方是一個小鄉官之子。 (紅，四回)

   When bei occurs directly before the verb, it can no longer be considered as a preposition. It may be considered as an auxiliary to show that the following verb is passive.

B. Ba sentences can be used as imperatives whereas bei sentences cannot. Imperative sentences (or sentences which express suggestions) are very strongly active and are not compatible with passives. Bei is not the only one that cannot occur in imperatives. Other passive verbs such as "接，遞，受" which take the form of subject-verb are also very rarely used in imperative sentences. The word "於" can be used in imperatives, and it is formally and semantically similar to bei, e.g.:
   (6) 你這樣，我怎麼吃得消？且吃我一刀！ (水浒，十回)

   This word has a passive flavor even in contemporary Chinese, e.g.:
   (7) 糊塗塗，又吃不住禁。 (趙樹理，三里灣)

2.3 Sentences which use both ba and bei.

Although ba sentences and bei sentences have opposite properties, they do occur jointly in some sentences. Such sentences are invariably passive, with bei occurring before ba in the sentence. In general, the item expressed by the object of ba is possessed by the subject of the sentence, e.g.:
Sometimes, ba's object can be considered to have a double reference. The person or thing that it expresses is the same as that expressed by the subject;

(5) 可憐他不在村裡了，叫人家掃地把他趕跑了！（趙樹理，《李有才板話》）

Such sentences do not need to take ba. If ba as well as its object were removed, neither the meaning nor the construction of the sentence would be much affected.

2.4 Bei sentences expressing unhappy or unfortunate events.

Before the May 4 movement, most bei sentences were indeed used to express unhappy or unfortunate events. The unhappiness or unfortunateness is directed at the subject, e.g.:

(1) 晚來的隻有劉三元，也被拴在後院裡。（吳從和，恨海，8頁）
(2) 鳥黃被他逼問不過只得真說了。（又，10頁）

It can also be directed at the speaker or some other related person:

(3) 我看他這對女孩子實在好，恐怕被人家先說了去。（又，1頁）
(4) [字帖兒]貼不上幾天，便被人家的招帖蓋住了，有何用處？（又，6頁）

The "被人說去" to be a daughter-in-law in (3) is not something unhappy with respect to "這對女孩子". From the point of view of the speaker, however, it is an unhappy thing to be unable to get the daughter-in-law. The " 被人家的招帖蓋住 " in (4) cannot be interpreted as being happy or unhappy with respect to the inanimate "字帖兒". But to the person who is putting up posters to look for someone, this is surely unhappy. Among the thirty some bei sentences in the novel恨海 by far the majority express unhappiness toward the subject. A minority express unhappiness toward the speaker or related person. Only one sentence relates a happy incident:

(5) 便覺得身體忽然輕如敗葉，被風吹起，飄飄飄蕩蕩的，好不快活。（53頁）

But sometimes the expressed feeling is not unhappiness. Rather it is that
the actee (subject), due to the influence of a certain incident, is not able to proceed with some plan, e.g.:

(1) When 玉 was embraced by 雨 母, this could not be said to be something unhappy. But 玉 had originally intended to kneel down and was now prevented from it. In (2) when 李's wife heard what 李 had to say, she actually felt slightly better (more pleasant) than before. But now as a result she could not say anything. In (3), Mrs. Wang felt better after what 胡 had said, and now she was no longer as worried as before.

One exception found in 红楼梦 is as follows:

(4) 我常说还要叫这个梦再不能的,不料今日被我找着了. (二六回)

This is what 玉 said when he dreamed of being in the ultra-void a second time. There is no happiness or unhappiness as far as the subject "dream" is concerned. On the other hand, it is a very happy thing for 玉.

We can additionally show that some things which are neutral with respect to happiness become definitely unhappy after bei is introduced, e.g.:

(5) 連 母子又悄悄的貴興了薛家,被我們知道了. (红, 四回)

(6) 那知刚才所說的話,被跟夷夫人的舅父聽見了. (二一回)

In (5), as far as the kidnapper is concerned, to have people know about this is precisely what he does not wish to happen. In (6), clearly 夷夫人 does not wish her conversation regarding betrothing 姑父 to be overheard by others.

In our daily lives, whatever is found out, overheard, or "over-seen" is usually something we do not want others to know, hear, or see.

Since the unhappy result that bei sentences express can be directed toward either the subject or the speaker, there will necessarily arise situations of contradiction. In other words, whatever is unhappy for the subject may be happy for the speaker, or, vice versa. For instance, in the following sentence, "被...侵害" is unhappy for the Chinese people but happy for the enemy, while "被驅走" is happy for us but unhappy for the enemy:
Since the unhappiness expressed by the bei sentences can be directed toward the subject as well as toward the speaker, it is not concerned with the standpoint of the speaker.

Under the impact of other languages, bei sentences which do not express unhappy events are becoming more numerous.

But gradually there are also more and more situations in which the usage of bei sentence is corrupted. For example, we have come across in newspapers instances where "我們被告訴..." substitute for "我們聽到...". This is contrary to the habits of the language. Although the scope of bei's usage has been expanded, let us not haphazardly use bei sentences unless we wish to emphasize passiveness. It is much more appropriate to say "落選" or "得獎" rather than "被選" or "被獎".

2.5 Passive sentences which do not use bei.

In Chinese, there are many more sentences with the subject as the actee which do not use bei than those which do use bei. As Mr. Hong Xing Heng correctly pointed out, some of these sentences are not passives. But there are some which can be considered as passives. I feel that whether or not these sentences are passives should be decided on the basis of whether the predicate is stative or descriptive. And whether or not a predicate is stative can be determined by the construction of the sentence. The following types of verbal constructions can be considered as stative:

A. Single verbs or verb with auxiliary:

1. 我們的仗打不打了 (劉白羽, 火燒在前)
2. 工人階級...它的隊伍擴大了 (劉少奇, 政治報告)
3. 賴人任務...已經在一九四九年實現了 (又)
4. 電器窩, 鳥窩...如今也都一起到處堆放着 (周巍, 鐵水奔流)

B. The verb is followed by a simple complement without "得" or by a prepositional construction:
C. The verb has another object:

(12) 眼看未作成熟飯就無可奈何了。（又）

(13) 社裡的分配辦法搞出頭绪來了（又）

D. Meaningwise, the subject is the distant object or near object of the verb:

(14) 他的房子甚麼時候借給幹部住過。（又）

(15) 打勝了，弟兄們每人賞一兩土！（矛盾，小巫）

These can all be considered passives. They are not different from the passives with bei. Some of them can even occur with bei, such as (6), (7), (9). The reason for them not to take bei, as pointed out by Mr. Zhang Zhi Gong, is that the passive meaning is very obvious and these sentences do not need bei to express it. But if the predicate is descriptive, then the sentence cannot be considered passive. The following examples are considered descriptive:

A. The verb is preceded by an additional verb.

(16) 菜可以開，但親朋工作一定還得作。（趙樹理，三里灣）

(17) 那裡的門也用不著了。（趙樹理，李家莊的變遷）

B. There is a "得" or "不" between the predicate and the complement.

(18) 街上的哪裡聽的見。（又）

(19) 老百姓的話都聽不懂。（劉向羽，火光在前）

(20) 課又上不成了。（趙樹理，三里灣）

(21) 玉梅把課本封面上的名字寫得歪歪斜斜的。（又）

(22) 讓大家都看哪兒你得整齊不整齊。（又）

(23) 不過他的話說得很圓滑。（又）

(24) 給兄弟說叫人痛快。（又）

(25) 恐怕是事情已經開得放不下了。（又）

C. The verb is preceded by adjectives such as "好", "難".

(26) 這件事真難辦。
These sentences are strongly descriptive, and consequently are only weakly passive - to the extent that sometimes the verb can be deleted without affecting the meaning of the sentence too much. For example, (22) can be changed to "...活先整齊整齊...", and (23) can be changed to "不過他的話很圓滑". Some of the passive verbs which can take additional verbs have already become fixed adjectives, e.g., "可憐, 可愛, 可恨". Passive verbs preceded by words like "好好", "難" also behave like a single word, e.g., "好看, 好聽, 好吃". Of course, there are probably some sentences for which it is difficult to decide whether they are stative or descriptive. For these, we need to make a deeper study.

There is another kind of passive sentence which does not use bei that merits attention. These sentences have the form "是...的". Whenever we wish to emphasize how, when, or where a thing is done, etc., we do not use bei, but use "是...的", e.g.:

(30)「况且這話是告訴得令奶奶的嗎?」(紅,十七而)
(31)「那個攻擊的骨頭是罵死的?」(趙樹理, 三里鎮)
(32)「這本書是去年寫的.」
If we wish to express who performed the action, then the verb is active, but the construction is the same:

(33)「這些人都是我殺的.」(趙樹理, 积家莊的變遷)
These sentences have an explanatory flavor. Even if the verb is passive, the sentence is only weakly passive.

2.6 The comparison of bei with "ai(挨)" "zao(遭)" "shou(受)"

In an earlier stage of the language, bei could occasionally function as a verb, e.g.:

(1)元帝廟裡被了盗, 便叫土地去查訪, (紅, 一一七而)
But in the contemporary language, it is used only as a preposition or auxiliary. This is not so with "挨, 遭" and "受". They are verbs. These three verbs all use the active verb form to express passive meaning. Generally speaking, bei usually introduces the actor, whereas these three words usually express the incident rather than the actor. These three terms are not completely similar grammatically. Here we discuss them separately.
A. "愛". The object of "愛" can be a noun, adjective, or verb. In the following, the object is a noun.

(1) 他受了一輩子的罪．(趙樹理，李有才板話)
(2) 再也不受冤枉氣．(趙樹理，李有才板話)

The object is a verb.

(3) 大家看自己惹不起的厲害人受了砸，(又)
(4) 我是受不得這樣折磨的．(紅，一一図)
(5) 她是不受人禮讓的．

The object is an adjective.

(6) 受了一輩子苦．(趙樹理，李有才板話)
(7) 叫我受了累．(趙樹理，三里灣)
(8) 受了一切的苦．(劉白羽，火在前)

The actor sometimes can occur as an adjectival.

(9) 有誰受了靈芝一頓砸．(趙樹理，三里灣)
(10) 他受了胡騷鬼的折磨．(劉白羽，火在前)
(11) 好得受孫家那混賤子的氣．(紅，八一図)

In addition to expressing unhappy events, "愛" can also be used to express happy events, e.g.:

(12) 纔要愛得富貴，耐得貧賤才好呢．(紅，一八図)
(13) 咱們兩個人都是不受青年人歡迎的人物．(趙樹理，三里灣)

B. "換". Its object can be a noun, verb or adjective. In the following, the objects are nouns.

(14) 只會縮着脖子挨打．(趙樹理，李家莊的幾罹)
(15) …換這麼粗的鞭子．(又)
(16) 有異或七這話好像換了一顆炸彈．(趙樹理，三里灣)
(17) 他嘴上換過一粒子彈打破千床．(劉白羽，火在前)

The noun-object of "換" seems to be different from the noun-object of "愛". Generally, "愛"'s objects are abstract, whereas "換"'s noun-objects are generally concrete and, strictly speaking, they are actors. The action performed is either implicit or is expressed with the telescopic form, as in (17). In the following, the objects are verbs.

(18) 换了一切的磨難．(劉白羽，火在前)
(19) 不知換了多少打．(陳登科，活人塘)
(20) 换在溝邊換臨河．(又)

There are not many which have adjectives as objects, such as "換亂"，"換冷".
etc.

C. "遭". It is used less frequently than "致" and "受". The object is usually a relatively serious, unfortunate thing, such as "遭殃", "遭劫", "遭水灾". "遭" can also be combined with "受" to form "遭受". It is also used on unhappy things.

Generally speaking, these three words each has its own objects which are not mutually substitutable. But there are some words which are not restricted in this way such as "受害者" and "遭罪", "挨個" and "受害我". As to why certain words can serve as the object of only one but not another word, and whether this is due to habit or some other reason, these are problems which need further study.
Footnotes

3. Ibid p. 166.
5. Ibid.
9. Ibid p. 130.
10. Ibid p. 131.
11. Ibid pp. 132 - 143.
15. Ibid p. 129.
17. Ibid p. 129.
18. Messrs. Hu and Wen feel that the reason why we cannot say "我把樓上" is because "it is very difficult to add complements or additive structures to this monosyllabic verb", ibid, p. 131.
19. As in example (10), with respect to "我", "一本書" can only exist through the action of "買". Therefore "一本書" originally is non-existent with respect to "我". The term "存在" as used below should be understood in this broad sense.
20. If the ba is deleted in (10), (11), and (14), the position of the adverb will be changed but this will not affect the order of the predicate and object.
21. In 腦現實重評石孟記, this sentence is "人家才會你當個正經人".
22. The approach of Mr. Wang Li as it is introduced here may be seen from his 中國現代語法, v. 1, pp. 172 - 181, 中華書局, 1954.
The approach of Mr. Zhang Zhi Gong as it is introduced here may be seen from his *漢語語法常識*, pp. 87 - 93, 新知識出版社, 1956.

In the Peking dialect, " " cannot replace bei (it immediately precedes the verb for emphasis). But in literature, it can be used this way, as in (15).

See 中國語文 pp. 29 - 30, March 1953.

Hong Zin Heng, "漢語語法問題研究" pp. 24 - 27, 新知識出版社, 1956.


Li, 中國現代語法 v. 1 p. 165.