

Mandarin Chinese notes

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 History and classification

Being historically accurate or not, we can at least say that Middle Chinese, as described in the rhyme books and rhyme tables, is a well-defined proto-language in terms of Neogrammarian historical linguistics, because the phonology modern Sinitic languages can be derived by regularly applying sound change laws to it.

1.2 Methodology

1.2.1 Theoretical framework

The underlying theoretical framework of this grammar is Distributed Morphology (Siddiqi 2009) and Cartography (Cinque 1999). This is to say, we assume that

- (a) a grammatical construction is made of a *root* surrounded by a hierarchy of *functional heads* (corresponding to grammatical features and categories in traditional grammar) and their specifiers (in the generative syntactic sense), and
- (b) the functional heads often follow a relatively cross-linguistically stable hierarchy, which strongly influences the linear order of auxiliaries, adverbs (which are in specifier positions), etc. and their scopes (e.g. Fig. 2.3), and
- (c) post-syntactic morphological and phonological operations can bring roots and functional heads together, which is subject to *phase theory* (or similar cyclic constraints of syntactic derivation), which then are subject to phonological realization, and
- (d) the whole process is guided by the lexicon, in which the list of roots, idiomized (i.e. *lexicalized*) meanings of constructions, and details of phonological realization (which, by the way, gives us subcategorization: a root that can only be phonologically realized with the TRANSITIVE functional head which introduces the direct object is a transitive verb; see Siddiqi 2009), and the last two lists in theory can be independent to each other.

Grammar, in this framework, is about how roots are “dressed up” by grammatical constructions, and grammatical constructions can be fully described in terms of hierarchical organization of grammatical categories based on constituency relations, and their phonological realization. The framework adopted here therefore has a clear lexical/functional distinction, which can be tested by checking whether a formative is within a fixed hierarchy (e.g. *have been being observed* and the similar ordering of tense, aspect and modality adverbs in English:

TENSE > PERFECT > PROGRESSIVE > PASSIVE; in Mandarin see e.g. § 2.2.3.1). Certain gradience however is allowed because multiple analyses may appear at the same time in the mental grammar of a speaker of the language.

1.2.2 Relation with descriptive grammars

The framework above may seem strange for descriptive linguists. Here we “explain” concepts in descriptive grammars in terms of concepts in the framework of Distributed Morphology plus Cartography.

- (a) Definition of head. *Heads* in our framework are all *functional* heads, i.e. (markers of) grammatical categories. Under the more traditional definition of *head*, we have *noun* phrases and *verb* phrases, and we have constructions without heads, like coordination constructions. In our framework, this traditional definition of *head* also makes sense: it corresponds to the core i.e. the center root of a construction, which, of course, cannot always be non-ambiguously defined in constructions like coordination.

This traditional usage of the term *head* appears in the generative literature as well: Paul (2014, p. 120), for instance, talks about the *head noun* of something he calls a DP. The two definitions of *head* overlap in grammaticalization: a so-called prepositional phrase can be a complement-taking adverb phrase in which the *head preposition* is a head in the traditional sense, or an analytic case phrase, where the *head preposition* is actually a case particle and a functional head. The former can be reanalyzed as the latter. On the other hand, some functional heads, like sentence final particles (see e.g. Fig. 2.1), are never recognized as heads in traditional grammars: they are instead called *markers*.

- (b) Constituency and dependency relations. In mainstream generative syntax, constituency (or more abstractly, c-command relations) is the only primitive for structure building. Moreover, because of phase theory (or alternative theories aiming to explain the relevant phenomena), constituency is *cyclic* or “layered”: thus in a clause, the vP is finished first, followed by TP and CP. This provides an alternative way to define constituents, in which the main verb (on the notion of what is a verb or more generally what is a word, see below), and the tense, aspect and modality markers, but *not* arguments, are put into one unit, often called the verb phrase (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 39). Still the hierarchical relations between the functional heads (e.g. TENSE > PERFECT > PROGRESSIVE) exist and need to be accounted for, so we see discussions on them in Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 79,121). The flat-tree analysis in (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 39) makes sense in our framework too. We can see this in Fig. 2.3 as well.

Another issue is the relation between constituency and dependency. The two are basically two notations for the same thing (Boston, Hale, and Kuhlmann 2009). Here hierarchical relations can be represented by assigning “closeness” values to dependency arcs. Dependency analyses are particularly wieldy when movements are frequent. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 55), for instance, mentions *indirect complements*, which are originally a part of the core argument structure of an adjective in a noun phrase and has to appear post-nominally. Its relation with the adjective that licenses it therefore is ideally reflected by a dependency arc in a descriptive grammar, although a movement-based constituency analysis is of course possible.

- (c) Pre-defined grammatical constructions. In lexicalist schools of generative grammar, we have the X-bar theory, in which some heads are heads in the sense of (a). In lexicalist X-bar theory, the distinction between adjuncts, specifiers and complements are used to explain their differences in their syntactic behaviors. This distinction is absent in

Cartography, as almost all things are specifiers, and the distinction is to be reinterpreted as the distinction between different types of specifiers. So the X-bar scheme can be seen as a pre-defined schema of grammatical constructions.

We can further derive more grammatical structures (like subject-predicate structures, verb-object structures, coordination structures, and so on) by incorporating the vP-TP-CP and the nP-NumP-DP hierarchies into the X-bar scheme, which is exactly what is done in Deng (2010), which results in a descriptive formalism quite similar to that in Huddleston and Pullum (2002): we replace TopP by a *form* label *topic-comment construction*, and we replace SpecTopP by a *function* label *topic*, and nodes in the tree diagram are labeled like “sentence: topic-comment constructions” or “topic: noun phrase”; on the other hand, phonological realization of functional heads do not have the form:function labels: we only label them according to the grammatical categories they mark, like “evaluative particle [DIMINUTIVE]” (Fig. 2.1). We should be cautious that in hierarchies described by Cinque (1999), there can be too many form labels, and sometimes we have to conflate them into things like *extended verb phrase* (Fig. 2.3).

It can be verified that our framework does not strongly deviate from the so-called Basic Linguistic Theory (Dixon 2009), i.e. the grammatical framework used in most descriptive grammars. Our framework is also largely consistent with the framework in Huddleston and Pullum (2002), except the fact that Huddleston and Pullum (2002) do not make an explicit lexical/functional distinction: for instance, they first analyze all prepositions as if they are a content word class in chap. 7, and then go on to discuss grammaticalized prepositions from p. 647. On the other hand, Dixon (2009), despite its fierce attack on generative syntax (§ 1.2.6), advocates for analyses that are perfectly consistent with the descriptive framework in this section, where functional and content items are strictly separated (Dixon 2009, p. 49).

1.2.3 Wordhood

Words do not have a primitive status in our descriptive framework. We may want to define wordhood syntactically, but if it’s defined as a small constituency in the sense of generative syntax, then inflectional endings, and even voice markers, are *not* in the same word with the root (or otherwise the whole verb-object phrase is to be recognized as a word), and if it’s defined as a flat-tree constituent, then how shouldn’t *has been working* is a word? We can only define *morphological words* and *phonological words*. Formatives brought together by post-syntactic operations form one morphological word: hence a verb word in English is a complex containing the verb root plus possible derivation affixes and also the tense suffix. It is also possible that first a bunch of formatives are gathered together, and later some other formatives join them: this is known as cliticization. Phonological words are to be defined according to prosody or domains of phonological rules.

It is less wieldy to use constituency trees to represent the scopes of grammatical categories represented by formatives in a morphological word. In (§ 2.2.4, 13), for instance, the verbal complement 完 has its scope over 做作业, and the aspectual suffix 了 has its scope over 做完作业. We can TODO: refer to diagram

1.2.4 Lexicalization

We understand lexicalization in two aspects: realizational and semantic. (Note that subcategorization can be seen as a consequence of realizational lexicalization: saying a verb is transitive is equivalent to say it can only be phonologically realized in the presence of a TRANSITIVITY feature; Siddiqi 2009.) An arbitrarily large grammatical unit, which is phonologically realized

in a combinatorial way, can have an idiomized meaning: consider *kick the bucket*. A grammatical word *without* an idiomized meaning can be phonologically realized as a whole: thus *feet* is just $\sqrt{\text{foot-NOMINAL-PLURAL}}$, but it has an irregular form. The two are theoretically independent to each other, although idiomization often leads to *syntactic* reanalysis, often towards a simpler direction (and thus can be called syntactic fossilization). Note that being semantically idiomized has syntactic consequences, like reduced acceptability of certain movement operations.

1.2.5 Derivation, inflection, parts of speech

All other concepts, like the derivation/inflection distinction or the argument/adjunct distinction, are in theory secondary, and in this grammar we do not attempt to do demarcations of this point, and merely focus on the relevant grammatical phenomena related to these distinctions.

The two types of lexicalization often converges on morphological words, or to be more precise, their *lexemes*. Consider the structure $[\dots \text{DO} [\dots \text{TRANSITIVE } \sqrt{\text{hit}}]_{\text{TransP}}]_{\text{VP}}$. This treelet has an established meaning ‘to hit sth.’, and post-syntactic morphological operations gather the three formatives, DO, TRANSITIVE and $\sqrt{\text{hit}}$, together into one morphological word, and it gets realized as *hit* because of a corresponding lexical entry. The tense and aspect markers are phonologically implemented in a regular way. So we say that there is a transitive verb *lexeme* *hit* stored in the lexicon, and markers tense, person, etc. are given as a *paradigm* of it.¹

The concept of lexeme however implies that we have a clear derivation/inflection distinction. Our opinion is that such a distinction is generally not possible to make cross-linguistically. For instance, we may want to draw a line between derivation and inflection structurally according to the two definitions of syntactic wordhood above (§ 1.2.3), but this definition excludes any valency alternation from derivation.

A *part of speech* refers to a class of lexicalized items in the lexicon with shared features. Thus $\sqrt{\text{hit-TRANSITIVE-DO}}$ and $\sqrt{\text{rise-BECOME}}$ are both assigned the part of speech tag *verb*, because they prototypically appear at the center of clauses and can both receive endings -s and -ed and -ing. Whether we have a TRANSITIVE feature or not in the phonologically lexicalized entry dictates whether the clause is transitive, which gives rise to *subcategorization*. Functional formatives, in principle, do not need part of speech tags: in practice we often given them a tag so writing a dictionary becomes easier. The lexicon of different languages are organized in different ways, and therefore part of speech division expected has strong cross-linguistic variances.

Some languages, like Chinese, do not have rich morphology, and it leaves beginners an impression that these languages have no parts of speech in their lexicons. This, despite being theoretically possible, is highly implausible, as this implies that the meanings of root-affix tuples are also not deterministic: $\sqrt{\text{eat-NOMINAL}}$, for instance, would be understood as the action of eating or something to eat if this were true, depending on the context. Mandarin definitely *has* part of speech divisions as this is not the case in Mandarin.

1.2.5.1 Arguments and adjuncts

The standard of being an argument can be defined according to criteria listed in § 2.2.3.3. This distinction is also impossible to define in pure structural terms, and shows strong cross-linguistic variances.

¹Note that here we assume a layered morphology of inflection, while template morphology which does not transparently show the hierarchy of functional heads is also possible, which however is not beyond the descriptive capacity of our framework (Bye 2020).

1.2.6 Relation with previous works

The purpose of theoretical linguistics is to see the complexity class of human languages, while the purpose of descriptive linguistics is easier descriptions – at the expense of having more “primitive” concepts which actually do not allow more possible languages being described. This grammar aims to strike a balance between readability and theoretical cross-linguistic comparisons.

We choose this framework for several reasons. First, Mandarin has a relatively mature structuralist description tradition, which is quite similar to that in Huddleston and Pullum (2002), and that it can be seamlessly incorporated into modern generative syntax has long been noticed (e.g. Deng 2010). Second, many descriptive linguists align themselves with the functionalist approaches to grammar, but this is more because of problematic *practices* in generative schools, like relying on often unstable acceptability judgments or overly focusing on complicated clauses. The actual *theory* they use however often depart from contemporary functionalist theories. The term *construction*, for instance, appears frequently in the descriptive and typological literature (it will frequently appear in this grammar, too), but it is much less frequently used in the sense of various schools of Construction Grammar: in typical language description works, a construction is often still analyzed in a decompositional and combinatorial way. Therefore, it makes sense to see how far structuralist analyses can go being informed by modern generative syntax.

Chapter 2

Grammatical overview

2.1 Morphological typology

Mandarin lacks prototypical inflectional morphology but has rich derivational morphology. Compounding is the most frequent morphological device, and partly due to influences of European languages, partly due to grammaticalization, affixation is also frequently seen. Plus, reduplication plays an important role in Mandarin verbal and adjectival derivation.

One caveat about talking about derivational morphology is that it assumes the existence of a well-defined wordhood. It's often claimed that Mandarin lacks the word/phrase distinction. In this note, we will show that wordhood can indeed be clearly defined by syntactic, morphological and phonological standards. What makes Mandarin unique is that the three definitions of wordhood do not always overlap.

Box 2.1: Different standards of wordhood

Define

Because of this, Chinese lexicography is usually based on *morphemes*,

2.2 Clauses

2.2.1 Clauses are made of nucleus clauses and high-level categories

A clause (Box 2.2) can be divided into several clauses linked by **clause linking** constructions, including **coordination** and **subordination**. (Note that coordination can also happen inside the nucleus clause; § 2.2.2.3.) Mandarin has ample information marking phenomena, and thus a clause can be divided into one or more **topics**, if any, and a **comment**, the latter being the **nucleus clause** plus possible **sentence final particles**.

Box 2.2: Terminology: *clause*, *sentence*, and the like

Huddleston and Pullum (2002) uses the term *sentence* to refer to a natural unit in dialogue, which I refer to as a *utterance*. The term *sentence* here refers to a clause that qualifies as an utterance.

Some people, like Deng (2010, p. 140) as well as Dixon (2009), use the term *clause* for subject-predicate constructions with no speech force marking. (Deng (2010) uses 句

子 as the Mandarin counterpart of *sentence* and 小句 as the counterpart of *clause*.) In this way, sentence-final particles strictly shouldn't be regarded as a part of the clause, and they may be discussed together with other higher level constructions like clause linking. This notion of clause correctly highlights the hierarchy in clausal structures. The problem with this terminology however is that in traditional grammars, the term *clause* does refer to units that have SFPs.

This note therefore refers to all units larger than the subject-predicate construction as clauses, which may or may not be sentence. The subject-predicate construction is instead named the *nucleus* clause. The internal complexity of a clause is still relevant for example in clause combining.

These devices can coexist: in (1), diagrammed in Fig. 2.1 topicalization and a sentence final particle appear together. Note that here we assume that the scope of topic is over the scope of the evaluative particle. The relative scopes have subtle semantic effects and Pan (2015) notes that in Mandarin, no preference is made among these subtle semantic differences, meaning that it is also possible that the scope of the sentence final particle being larger than that of the topic.

- (1) [张三]_{topic, i}, [[他]_{subject, i} 就 是 [个 王八蛋]_{copular complement}]_{nucleus clause}
 NAME 3 just be CLS turtle-egg
 罢了!
 SFP
 'Zhang San is a son of a bitch!'

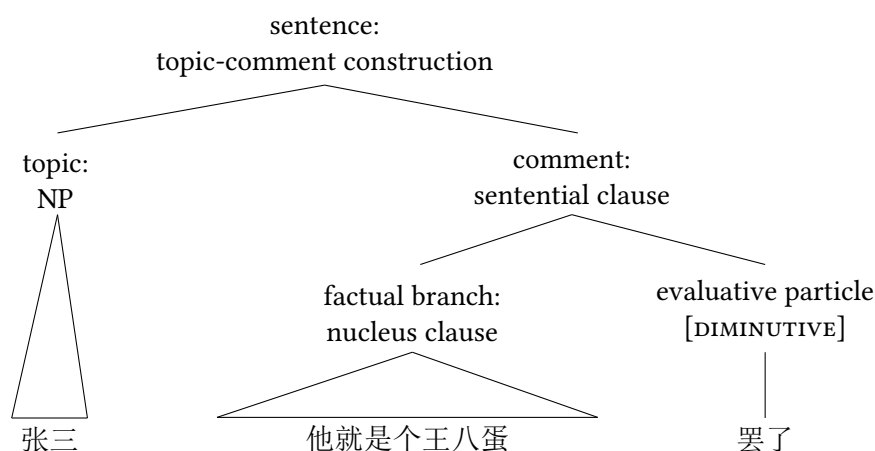


Figure 2.1: Tree diagram of (1)

Similarly, topicalization and clause linking can happen successively as well (2), diagrammed in Fig. 2.2, shows an example of topicalization after subordination. It is also possible to link two topic-comment clauses.

- (2) [我]_{topic, i} [幸亏 一_i 昨天 没 来]_{nucleus clause}, [否则 一_i 就
 2 fortunately yesterday NEG come or.otherwise then
 被 困 住了]_{nucleus clause}
 BEI trap V2 ASP
 'Fortunately, I didn't come yesterday, or otherwise I would have been trapped.'

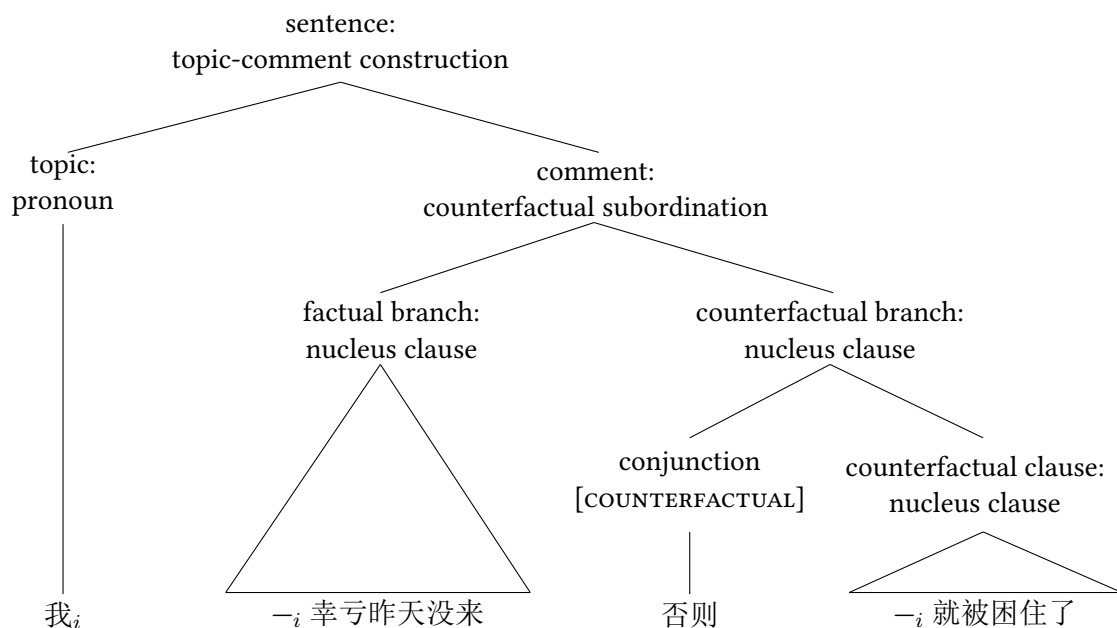


Figure 2.2: Tree diagram of (2)

2.2.2 Subject and predicate

The nucleus clause contains a subject (if any) and what is often known as a predicate,¹ which usually is a (extended) verb phrase but may also be a nominal. In the Mandarin simple nucleus clause, the definition of the subject, as opposed to the topic, is not trivially clear. Here we note that the nucleus clause has a neutral structure (§ 2.2.2.1), in which a subject appearing at the initial is both the argument structure pivot (§ 2.2.2.2) and the clause-level pivot.

2.2.2.1 The neutral order

The notion that in Mandarin, subject is the same as topic is prevalent. Taking one step further, one may argue that Mandarin has no argument structure at all and the word order in a clause is shaped by only information structure (LaPolla 2009). This grammar rejects this analysis.

First, we note that a information structure neutral order can be defined for most, if not all, clauses. An example is provided in (3). The two arguments, 饭 and 吃, can be reordered in a seemingly free way depending on their topicality, violating the common generalization that Mandarin has a SVO order. We however note that (3d) is completely unacceptable with the intended meaning. Playing with more possible orders, and we will find that the arguments seem to be only permitted to move *leftwards* (and thus 3d is not possible), consistent with the assumption that a neutral ordered nucleus clause is formed first, followed by topicalization. By analyzing subtle pragmatics differences, we find (3a) seems to be the “neutral” order (although it imposes weak topicality to 你 ‘you’, and 吃饭 ‘eat (lit. eat meal)’ is focalized).

¹Dixon (2009) argues against the definition of *predicate* as the main verb (or adjective) plus somehow “internal” arguments. He uses the term *predicate* to refer to the verbal complex instead. However, since I will need to compare the topic-comment construction with the inner structure of the nucleus clause, the term *predicate* will still be used in the way Dixon (2009) dislikes, because it’s the counterpart of the comment role in the topic-comment construction.

- (3) a. 你 吃 饭 了 吗
2 eat meal SFP SFP
'Have you eaten?'
- b. 饭 你 吃 了 吗
meal 2 eat SFP SFP
'Have you eaten?'
- c. 你 饭 吃 了 吗
2 meal eat SFP SFP
'Have you eaten?'
- d. *饭 吃 你 了 吗
meal eat 2 SFP SFP
'Intended meaning: have you eaten? (Actual meaning: has meal eaten you?)'

We also note that there is no dangling topic in Mandarin (§ 3.2). This means *all* topics originate from somewhere within the nucleus clause. On the other hand, the subject, if well-defined by the usual pivot tests, is a part of the nucleus clause, and therefore in Mandarin, topic and subject are different.

2.2.2.2 Subject as pivot of argument structure

Being the initial constituent² in clauses like (3a) has a clear relation to being the most prominent or the most *external* argument – the agent or causer or the patient in passive constructions. Examples like (4) can be explained by valency alternation.

- (4) 茶泡好了

2.2.2.3 Subject as pivot of clause

Certain “clause linking” constructions are actually verb phrase linking constructions. At the first glance, (5) looks just like (2), but further grammatical tests show that the two are structurally different. It is not possible for the conjunction 既 to appear before the subject; further, it is not possible for the two branches to have different subjects (6). Therefore, the 既…右… coordination construction (and many more) is for connecting two verb phrases, and we note that the element shared by the two branches is always the subject defined in § 2.2.2.2: hence we find that in Mandarin, we have both well-defined argument structure and clausal pivots, which are identical. This justifies using the term *subject* in describing Mandarin, and confirms that Mandarin is a nominative-accusative language.

- (5) [我]_{subject} 既 [不 想 用 这 个 方 案]_{VP}, 又 [不 想 用 那 个
1 CONJ NEG want use this CLS plan CONJ NEG want use that CLS
方 案]_{VP}
plan
'I don't want to use this plan, and nor do I want to use that plan.'

- (6) a. *既我不想用这个方案, 又不想用那个方案

²Note that it is possible that certain constituents, like temporal constituents, naturally appear before the subject.

It can be seen that when we have verbal prediction, the full, extended VP following the subject can be divided into an extension region and the core VP (§ 2.2.4). The extension region contains TAME auxiliaries and adverbs not realized in the verbal complex (§ 2.2.3.1), and peripheral arguments like temporal and spatial locations (§ 2.2.3.3). Sometimes the object may be fronted and it's also possible that a prepositional complement is fronted to this region.

It should be noted that in the disposal and passive constructions, the manner phrase may appear *after* the auxiliary (8), and in this case the boundary of the core VP can't be clearly defined at the surface level, which shouldn't be surprising as we do not expect to always see a clear-cut argument/adjunct distinction.

- (8) 我明天 可能 能 在我的 办公室跟 你 [把]_{auxiliary}
 1 tomorrow AUX:possible AUX:ability at my POSS office with 2 BA
 这 个 问题 [好好]_{manner} 讨论 一下
 this CLS problem good discuss a.little.bit
 'Tomorrow possibility I can have a good discussion of this problem with you in my office.'

2.2.3.1 Tense, aspect and modality marking

In (7), it can be clearly seen that Mandarin has modal auxiliaries: the order (and also the scope) of 可能 and 能 is strictly 可能 > 能 and never the inverse, suggesting that these modality markers are grammaticalized items. More analytic markers of TAME categories can be found: it seems 据说 is a periphrastic marker of evidentiality, for instance: in (9), the order of the TAME markers is always 据说 > 可能, and not the inverse, suggesting that 据说 is a part of the TAME grammatical hierarchy.³

- (9) [这 辆 车]_{subject:NP} [据说]_{evidentiality} [可能]_{modality} 不 太 靠谱
 this CLS car is.said AUX NEG very reliable
 'It is said that this car may not be very reliable.'

Whether Mandarin has something comparable to tense in more prototypical tensed languages is not clear. An observation is that Mandarin speakers often do not fully sub-consciously acquire the tense category when learning tensed languages like English. This, however, does not fully exclude the possibility of an impoverished tense system. TODO: ref

Mandarin has ample devices to mark point-of-view aspect. This is primarily done by the verbal complex (e.g. 13), via the (semi-)inflectional marking of aspect by 了, 着 and 过 in the verbal complex (§ 2.2.4). but analytic devices exist. In (10), we find that the aspect marker 正 is separated from the core VP by a manner phrase, proving that 正 is not a part of the verbal complex. The sentence is diagrammed in

- (10) 他在很认真地写作业

³Note that English adverbs like *allegedly* follow the same generalization: we have e.g. *he allegedly possibly did this* but never *he possibly allegedly did this*. See Cinque (1999).

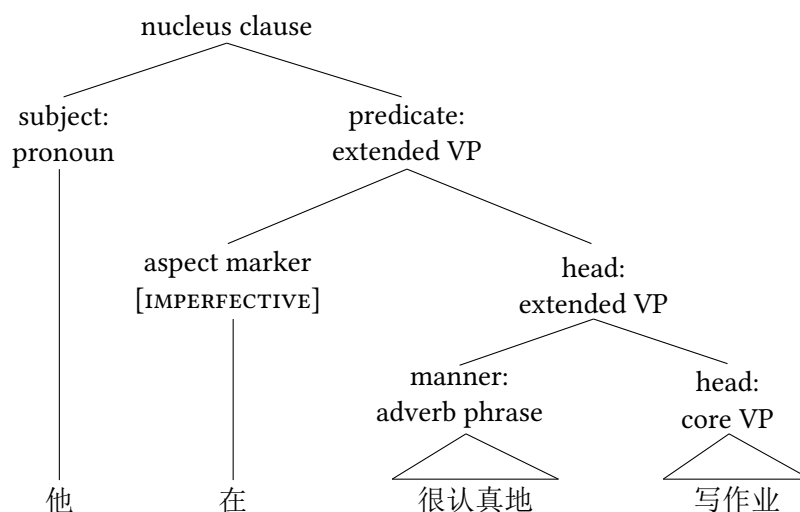


Figure 2.4: Tree diagram of (10)

2.2.3.2 Negation

The negator can appear at any position in the auxiliary chain described in § 2.2.3.1. Its linear order is consistent with its scope, which in turn introduces subtle semantic differences (11).

- (11) a. [他]_{subject} 不 [可能 能 出 国]_{negated}
 3 NEG AUX AUX go.outside.of country
 ‘It’s not possible that he has the ability to go abroad.’
 b. [他]_{subject} 可能 不 [能 出 国]_{negated}
 3 AUX NEG AUX go.outside.of country
 ‘It’s possible that he doesn’t have the ability to go abroad.’
 c. [他]_{subject} 可能 能 不 [出 国]_{negated}
 3 AUX AUX NEG go.outside.of country
 ‘It’s possible that he has the ability to not go abroad.’

(11) shows a negation device that is more flexible in its scope than the English negation. (11b) can be word-to-word translated to English as *he possibly cannot go abroad*, but (11a) and (11c) can only be faithfully translated using complement clause constructions.

2.2.3.3 Peripheral arguments

The term *peripheral argument* is from Dixon (2009). We intentionally use the term here instead of the more frequent *adjunct*, because there are both TAME adjuncts and circumstantial adjuncts, the latter known as peripheral arguments in Dixon (2009).

A clear distinction between core and peripheral arguments, more often known as the argument/adjunct distinction, is not always possible. Some criteria used for the distinction are about structural closeness of the argument to the main verb, or in other words scope: the manner expression usually has a scope wider than the core verb phrase, and thus the former is classified as a peripheral argument. Other criteria are based on licensing: intransitive use of a transitive verb is prohibited by the lexicon,

or, in more technical terms, the verb root appearing in a verbal environment but without transitivity is not allowed by the lexicon (Siddiqi 2009). Thus *well* in *he treats us well* seems to be an argument, although it's a manner expression. Yet other criteria are based on argument indexation and flagging: an argument with oblique case marking does not leave agreement markers on the main verb, while an argument with structural case (nominative, accusative) does if the language has agreement marking, and the latter is recognized as a core argument. Following this standard, many so-called oblique arguments, like *this* in *I think [of this]*, would be classified as peripheral, although they are clearly licensed by the lexical entry of the verb. These criteria correlate with each other but in a non-deterministic way.

Because Mandarin has no verb agreement, only the first two criteria can be used, and the problems listed above all occur. The status of comitative 跟你 in (7) is not so clear, for instance: it is fairly low in Fig. 2.3, but it is not obligatory. We also note that reordering of peripheral arguments is possible, but mixing them with TAME markers sounds problematic to say the least (12). Note that fronting of the comitative to a higher position is possible (§ 3.1).

- (12) a. 我明天可能能在我的办公室跟你讨论一下 (=7)
 b. 我明天可能能跟你在我的办公室讨论一下
 c. ??我明天可能跟你能在我的办公室讨论一下

2.2.4 The structure of the core verb phrase

In the surface form, the core VP contains the core arguments and the **verbal complex** (§ 2.2.4.1). The bracketed constituent in (13) is a typical core verb phrase.

- (13) 我 [[做完 了]_{verbal complex} 作业]_{core VP}
 1 do finish ASP homework
 'I have finished the homework.'

Mandarin has two types of constructions in which the main verb appears at the final: the DISPOSAL construction, and the so-called PASSIVE construction, also known as the *ba*-construction and the *bei*-construction.

- (14) 我把作业做完了

2.2.4.1 The verbal complex

The verbal complex contains three slots: the verb stem, the so-called **verbal complement**, known as 补语 in Chinese linguistic community,⁴ and the aspectual marker. In (13), 完 is the verbal complement, and 了 is the aspectual marker. There the verbal complex contains all the possible components it can have. It's possible for only one of the two or even none of it to appear.

We note that the aspect marker 了 actually has a scope *over* the core verb phrase. Following Fig. 2.4, we can represent the structure of (13) in Fig. 2.5. But further, we

⁴The term 补语 literally means 'complementation speech', and is therefore often translated as *complement*. In this note I use the term *complement* to refer to grammatical constituents that are somehow more closely related to the lexical head, and I choose the (somehow tedious but explicit) term *non-argument complement*.

note that it is likely that 完 here is a lexical aspect marker, and likely has scope over the whole 做完作业 argument structure, so we need to add one more node between the aspect marker node and the predictor node in Fig. 2.5.

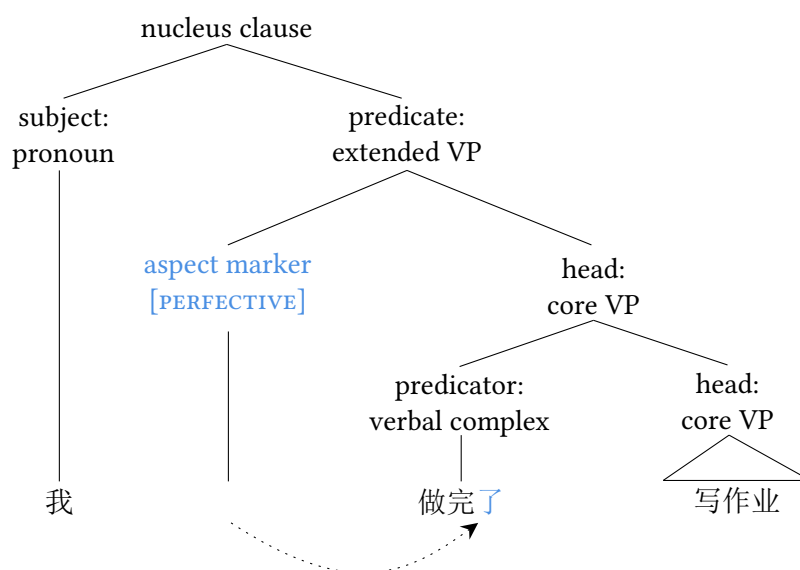


Figure 2.5: One tree diagram of (13)

The category of verbal complements is rather heterogeneous, its boundary (expectedly) being somewhat unclear; it includes verbal complements or in other words complex predicates, complement clauses, and oblique arguments.

The verbal complex is sometimes *separable*, meaning that other constituents within the verb phrase can be incorporated into it. In (15), for instance, the object is incorporated into the verbal complex. The incorporated constituent is not limited to the direct object.

- (15) a. 这件事你关什么心啊
b. 这件事你关心什么啊

2.2.4.2 Transitivity

Verb frames in Mandarin can be divided into the DO class (about actions), the BECOME class (about changes of states), the CAUSE-BECOME class (about something causing a state to change), and the purely stative BE class.

Just like the case in English, DO verb frames often allow S/A-ambivalence, where the P argument of a transitive verb frame (i.e. the more internal, patient-like argument) can be removed, leaving only the subject (16).

- (16) a. 他喜欢玩
b. 他喜欢玩玩具

On the other hand, we observe regular alternations between BECOME and CAUSE-BECOME verbs, and hence S/P-ambivalence (17). It should be noted that not all BECOME verbs can receive a CAUSE-BECOME verb frame (18). A rather interesting phenomenon in Mandarin is the EXPERIENCE-BECOME construction, in which the subject *experiences* the effect of a change-of-state situation (19).

- (17) a. 茶泡好了
b. 我泡好茶了
- (18) a. 这只猫死了
b. *坏人死了这只猫
- (19) a. 王冕死了父亲

The verb frames naturally have correlations with the lexical aspect of the clause: change-of-state clauses are naturally telic and often cannot be in the progressive aspect (20). But counterexamples exist (21).

- (20) *这只猫正在死
- (21) 我正在泡茶

The A and P arguments discussed above are not the only types of arguments in Mandarin clauses.

First, the duration of a Mandarin DO clause can be measured by a so-called **semi-object** (22). This is related to the so-called pseudo-attributive construction (23; § 2.2.4.4).

- (22) 我工作了一年
- (23) 干了一个月的活

Second, some verb frames have what we may call **internal objects**, usually licensed by a verbal complement. These arguments are immune to any further syntactic operations. The simplest case is the preposition complement construction (24). The CAUSE-BECOME-internal object structure is also possible, although due to various constraints, sometimes it can only be realized as a DISPOSAL construction in the surface form (25).

- (24) 我住在上海
- (25) a. 卡车装满了稻草
b. 他把卡车装满了稻草

Finally, there seems to be a DO-AFFECT-PATIENT construction (26). This construction is tentatively classified as a subtype of DO verb frames, mainly because we have no semantic evidence for a CAUSE-to-LOSE analysis, especially in (27), where it's hard to argue that 他 and 耳光 form a mini verb frame meaning that the person in question loses something (Huang 2007). This however raises the question whether some semi-objects are to be analyzed in the same way, and not as a wide-scope quantity or frequency phrase: cf. 打了他一下.

- (26) 阿飞抢了我一顶帽子
- (27) 打了他一个耳光

2.2.4.3 Verb-particle constructions

Just like English, Mandarin has directional and resultative particles in the argument structure.

2.2.4.4 Pseudo-attributive constructions

In the pseudo-attributive construction, a constituent usually appearing as a determiner of a noun phrase, like a numeral (28) or a possessive (29), is inserted into a verb phrase. This constituent is often known as a pseudo-attributive. We notice that a pseudo-attributive can be incorporated into the verbal complex even when the verbal complex has no analyzable internal structure (30), or when its structure clearly is not subject to nominal attributive modification (31). The explanation

(28) 我们干了一年的活

(29) 你当你的老师

(30) 幽了他一默

(31) 你保你的守

2.2.4.5 Verb copying construction

(32) 做工做了一星期

2.3 Noun phrase

2.3.1 The determiner region

(33) 这二十张桌子

2.3.2 Adjectives

(34) 大白褂子

Subcategorization exists within these so-called compounds. Thus

- (35) a. 研究生招生工作
b. 中小学校招生工作
c. 本市中小学校招生工作
d. *中小学校本市招生工作

2.4 Structure of the lexicon

After a survey of the grammatical system of Mandarin Chinese, we examine what the lexicon has to feed into the grammar.

Box 2.3: Word or phrases

粘合式, 组合式

念佛堂 etc.: compounds, or nominal attributives, or whatever?

2.4.1 Roots

Chapter 3

Information structure

3.1 Subject being topicalized

- (1) 我明天跟你可能能在我的办公室讨论一下

3.2 (Absence of) dangling topics

Some people, like Zhu (2009, § 7.1), equate *subject* with *topic* in Mandarin grammar. Some (especially those from the functional-typological tradition) go further and assert that “the notion of the subject (as the position of the most agentive argument) isn’t grammaticalized in Mandarin Chinese”, and therefore the topic-comment construction is construed as simply the syntactic coding of aboutness, and this base-generated and syntactically unconstrained topic is called a “dangling topic”. This view is rejected in this note, because such accounts usually end up in severe overgeneration. Here I briefly summarize Shi (2000)’s argumentation.

3.2.1 Type 1: Idiomatic phrasal predicate looking like a comment

In the first type of “dangling topic”, it’s impossible for any NP in the comment to be syntactically related to the topic (2, 3). Such cases however should be analyzed as instances of the subject-predicate construction, where the predicate is a dephrasalized clause.

We notice that in such examples, the “comment” often has already undergone various degrees of fossilization. Changing the comment usually makes the sentences much less felicitous (4), at best highly marked. This is strange if the attested examples are topic-comment constructions, but makes sense if dephrasalization is needed to put the clause 大鱼吃小鱼 etc. to the “comment” position.

Thus, in (2) and (3), the so-called topic is an ordinary subject, and the so-called comment is a predicate. The meaning of the result of dephrasalization may be compared with the English colloquial *I was like, ...* construction.

- (2) 他们[大鱼吃小鱼]（，厮杀成一片）
(3) 他们[你看看我我看看你]
(4) a. *他们小鱼咬大鱼
 b. *他们虾米啃泥底

3.2.2 Type 2: Quantificational adverbial looking like the inner subject

The second type of “dangling topic” is like (5). A topic-comment analysis of (5)

- (5) 他们谁 都 不 怕
3pl who even NEG fear
‘They don’t fear anyone.’

3.2.3 Type 3: Ellipsis leaving a subject and one predicate

Some people accept (6). Here the NP 那所房子 definitely doesn’t come from the words following it, and is therefore recognized as a topic by some (TODO: ref). Note, however, that 幸亏 serves as a clause linker outside (6): (7) is a demonstration of the 幸亏……不然…… linking construction, and we also have its topicalized version (8). (TODO: whether this is parenthesis) We also know in a clause linking construction, often one clause can be omitted in the utterance because it’s content can be easily inferred (TODO: ref). So now the origin of (6) is clear: We can get it by omitting the second clause in the comment part of (8). Indeed, if we replace 幸亏 by anything that is adverbial but not a clause linker, the resulting sentence – which now contains a real dangling topic – is not grammatical.

- (6) % 那 所 房子 幸亏 没 下雪
that CL house fortunate NEG snow
‘For that house, fortunately it didn’t snow (or otherwise something bad would happen).’
- (7) [幸亏] 去年 没 下雪 , [不然] 那 所 房子 早就 塌 了
fortunate last.year NEG snow otherwise that CL house already collapse SFP
‘Fortunately it didn’t snow last year, or otherwise that house has already collapsed.’
- (8) [那 所 房子]_{topic} [幸亏 去年 没 下雪 , 不然 早就
that CL house fortunate last.year NEG snow otherwise already
塌 了]_{comment}
collapse SFP

3.2.4 Type 4: Extraction from prepositional adverbials

(??) in § ?? is sometimes regarded as an instance of the dangling topic construction. However, as is shown in § ??, it may just be from topicalization of an NP in an adverbial, with the preposition (and/or the locative particle) removed.

3.2.5 Type 5: Nominal predicate

- (9) 这种青菜一斤三十块钱

3.2.6 Type 6: Locational adverbial mistaken for the subject

- (10) % 物价 纽约 最 贵
price New.York most expensive
'The price in New York is the most expensive.'

3.2.7 Tentative conclusion

The conclusion is all topics in Chinese are closely linked to a position in the comment, be it a core argument position or a peripheral one. So the notion of dangling topics is to be rejected in Mandarin grammar, and we can always recover the “canonical” i.e. non-topic-comment clause from a topic-comment construction. After this, if the canonical clause can be divided into an NP or a complement clause and a verbal constituent following it, we can uncontroversially say the first is the subject while the second is the predicate. (TODO: predicate def) So equating the subject with the topic is also wrong.

It's possible to find the semantic role of the subject isn't agentive; in this case I assert there is a valency changing mechanism here.

Box 3.1: What to expect when people talk about the subject or the topic

Unfortunately, despite the syntactic tests presented above, there are still many people – even many native speakers – promoting the idea that the Mandarin topic has nothing different with the subject. Here is a list of TODO: ref