

國立交通大學  
外國文學與語言學研究所  
碩士論文

台語 *Khi1* 和 *Khi2* 的研究

**A Case Study of Taiwanese *Khi1* and *Khi2***

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中華民國九十七年七月

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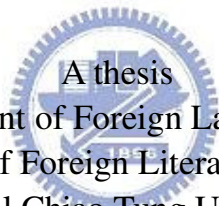
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## 台語 *Khi1* 和 *Khi2* 的研究

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### 摘 要

此篇論文主要探討台語的 *khi1* 和 *khi2* 在句法與語意上的表現。前人的文獻主要是探討中文的去(位於謂語前的去和位於謂語後去)和台語的 *khi2* (位於謂語後去)(請參閱 柯淑君(1991), 張寧(2001), 陳怡君(2006))。但是, 他們的分析和解釋沒有辦法說明所有台語 *khi1* 和 *khi2* 的用法。因此, 本論文著重於 *khi1* 和 *khi2* 在不同句型中的句法分佈和語義解釋來作深入研究。

首先, 我們介紹兩種 *khi1* 的用法, 並加以討論。第一種視為意圖標記(*purpose marker*), 表示主詞做某事的意願或意圖, 在句法上的位置如同根情態(*root modal*)。另一種則為受害者表達標記(*affectee voice head*)引出一個外加的受害者論元(*extra affect argument*), 也就是結構上的主詞, 為事件的受害關係人。

接著, 本論文提出 *khi2* 為完整式標記(*lexical perfective marker*), 表達某人或某事經過狀態改變之後, 呈現其結果狀態(*resultant state*)。當 *khi2* 和活動動詞(*activity verbs*)以及靜態動詞(*stative verbs*)一起出現時, 可得到此意。這些動詞和 *khi2* 的結合形成瞬成動詞(*achievements*)。 *Khi2* 在這種特殊結構的用法如同中文的了接在靜態謂語(*stative predicates*)後面的用法, 表示「完整狀態」(*perfective states*)的完整(*perfectivity*)和表始(*inchoativity*)之意義。

最後, 我們得知 *khi1* 和 *khi2* 逐漸語法化, 原本當成動詞, 語義解釋如英文的 *go*, 後來變成其他虛詞種類(*functional categories*), 推衍出不同語義。因此, 台語 *khi1* 和 *khi2* 在句法上和語義上的用法擴大了。

## A Case Study of Taiwanese *Khi1* and *Khi2*

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### Abstract

This thesis deals with the semantic and syntactic representation of Taiwanese *khi1* and *khi2*. Previous studies have focused on the uses of Chinese pre-predicate *qu*, post-predicate *qu*, and Taiwanese *khi2*, known as the post-predicate *khi* (cf. Ke (1991), Zhang (2001), Chen (2006)). However, these analyses and interpretations do not fully explain the spectrum of uses of Taiwanese *khi1* and *khi2*. Therefore, this study aims to discuss the syntactic distributions and the semantic interpretations of *khi1* and *khi2* in various sentential constructions.

First, two types of *khi1* are introduced and discussed. One variant acts as a purpose marker to denote the subject's will or intention of performing an action, and is placed in the position of a root modal. The other is an affectee voice head that introduces an extra affectee argument (the structural subject), as an affectee participant of an event.

Second, this study introduces *khi2* as a lexical perfective marker that denotes the resultant state of something after a change of state, when it combines with activity verbs and stative verbs. The verbs and *khi2* combination become an achievement. *Khi2* in this particular construction is much like the Chinese *le*, which follows stative predicates. It invokes the perfective and inchoative sense of "perfective states".

Finally, we conclude that *khi1* and *khi2* are becoming grammaticalized. They were originally only used as lexical verbs, such as 'go,' but now we find that they exist in other functional categories. They present a plethora of diverse meanings. Therefore, the syntactic and semantic uses of Taiwanese *khi1* and *khi2* are extended.

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在完成論文的過程有點曲折，多次轉換題目的方向，不過因為老師們的協助，以及同學、學長們的關心，終於使論文誕生了。首先感謝我的指導教授林若望老師，對於理論的修改應用及其掌握能力不佳的我，多次開導，給予建議，找出適合題目的分析，同時也慢慢學習如何組織架構一篇論文。此外，在與林若望老師討論的過程中，林老師細心講解語意邏輯式的寫法和語意解釋，對於駑鈍的我，反覆說明講解，幫助我釐清混沌的思緒，整理出統整的脈絡。接著，感謝劉辰生老師，當我遇到句法上無法解決的問題時，提供我參考的書目及方向，指出我思考的迷點，並且告知思慮不全之處，協助我如何深入思考、解決問題，回到思索的正軌，不再迷迷糊糊，而摸不著頭緒。然後，感謝蔡維天老師，願意在緊迫的時間內，花下心思看我的論文，並在口試中給予寶貴的建議，教導我如何修改論文呈現方式，以及理論和觀察現象如何做更詳盡的說明與歸納。非常感謝諸位老師的指教、批評，使我的論文可以更加完善，減少錯誤和思考不周的地方。

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## Chapter 1

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### Introduction

According to Liu (1980), Lu (1988), and Ke (1991), Chinese pre-VP *qu* (*qu1*) can be used to express its verb meaning, ‘go,’ when it is followed by a locational phrase, shown in (1a), or if *qu1* and the VP refer to the same agent’s direction, shown in (1b). Chinese post-VP *qu* (*qu2*) can express its meaning, ‘go,’ if *qu2* and the VP refer to the same agent’s direction, shown in (1d), or *qu2* is a directional clitic, which denotes the agent’s directional tendency represented in (1c), or *qu2* is a phase marker denoting the object’s directional tendency represented in (1e). *Qu1* and *qu2* are allowed to occur simultaneously only when *qu1* and *qu2* have the verb meaning ‘go’ and the VP refer to the same agent’s direction represented in (1f) but not in (1g), in which *qu2* might imply the object’s direction.

(1) a. Ta qu tai bei le. (verb meaning: go)

he went Taipei Sentence Final le

‘He went to Taipei.’

b. Ta qu kan dian ying le. (verb meaning: go)

he went see movies Sentence Final le

‘He went to see the movies.’

c. Ta kan dian ying qu le.

he see movies went Sentence Final le

‘He went to see the movies.’

(directional clitic: the agent’s directional tendency)

d. Ta na yi xie shui guo qu le. (verb meaning: go)

he take some fruit go Sentence Final le

‘He took some fruit and went to somewhere.’

e. Ta na qu yi xie shui guo le.

he take go some fruit Sentence Final le

‘He took away some fruit.’



(phase marker: the object’s directional tendency)

f. Ta qu kan dian ying qu le. (verb meaning: go)

he went see movies went Sentence Final le

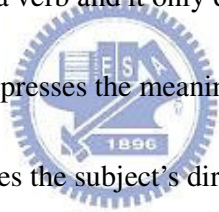
‘He went to see the movies.’

g. \*Ta qu dai yi xie shui guo qu le.

he went bring some fruit went Sentence Final le

‘He went to bring some fruit and went somewhere.’

However, not all characteristics of Chinese *qu1* and *qu2* can be applied to the pre-VP *khi* (*khi1*) and the post-VP *khi* (*khi2*) in Taiwanese. *Khi1* or *khi2* in (2a-e) only presents the subject's directional tendency. In (2a), (2b) and (2d), a locational NP can be followed by *khi1* or *khi2*, so *khi1* and *khi2* are lexical verbs with the meaning 'go.' The lexical category of *khi2* in (2c) is uncertain, but what is assured is that *khi2* clearly shows the subject's directionality but not the object's. The ungrammaticality of (2e) shows the impossibility of specifying the object's directionality by *khi2*. The co-occurrences of *khi1* and *khi2* are unacceptable in (2f-g). The reason is unknown, but we know that *khi2* cannot be a verb and it only denotes the subject's directionality. Briefly, *khi1* can be a verb and expresses the meaning 'go.' *Khi2* can function like *khi1*, but sometimes it only denotes the subject's directionality.



(2) a. I khi tai bak a. 他去台北阿 (verb meaning: go)

he went Taipei

'He went to Taipei.'

b. I khi khuann tian ia a. 他去看電影阿 (verb meaning: go)

he went see movies

'He went to see the movies.'

c. I khuann tian ia khi a. 他看電影去阿

he see movies went

‘He went to see the movies.’

d. I theh tsit kua tsui koh khi a. 他拿一些水果去阿 (verb meaning: go)

he took some fruit went

‘He took some fruit and went to somewhere.’

e. \*I theh qu tsit kua tsui koh a. \*他拿去一些水果阿

he took went some fruit

‘He took away some fruit.’

f. \*I khi khuann tian ia khi a. \*他去看電影去阿

he went see movies went

‘He went to see the movies.’

g. \*I khi tuat tsit kua tsui koh khi a. \*他去帶一些水果去阿

he went bring some fruit went

‘He went to bring some fruit and went somewhere.’

As mentioned above, the usages of *khi1* and *khi2* in Taiwanese appear to be limited.

However, there still exist other usages of *khi1* and *khi2* in Taiwanese, as shown in

(3)-(5). They provide unique syntactic and semantic properties. In these examples,

*khi1* and *khi2* are no longer considered lexical verbs or just present the subject's directionality. Instead, they derive meanings different from those in (2).

(3) a. I khi lon tshia 他去撞車

he khi hit car

'He hit a car'

b. I khi hoo A-Ming phah 他去 hoo 阿明打

he khi let A-Ming hit

'He let A-Ming hit him'

(4) a. I khi lon tloh tshia 他去撞到車

he khi hit car

'He (the affectee) hit a car'

b. I khi hoo A-Ming tsao khi a 他去 hoo 阿明跑去阿

he khi hoo A-Ming run away a

'He (the affectee) had A-Ming running away on him'

c. I khi hoo tshia lon tloh 他去 hoo 車撞到

he khi hoo car hit

'He (the affectee) got hit by a car'



(5) a. A-Ming tsao khi a 阿明跑去阿

A-Ming run away

‘A-Ming ran away unexpectedly’

b. san tam khi a 衫溼去阿

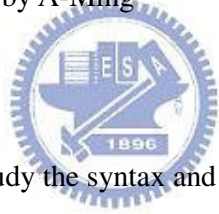
clothes wet khi

‘The clothes became wet unexpectedly’

c. tshéh hoo A-Ming theh khi a 書 hoo 阿明拿去阿

book hoo A-Ming take khi

‘The book was taken away by A-Ming’



The purpose of this paper is to study the syntax and semantics of sentences like (3-5), and especially how *khi1* and *khi2* work syntactically and semantically in many various constructions. We propose that *khi1* has two forms: one is a purpose marker to denote the subject’s will of performing an action, as shown in (3). The other form is an affectee voice head, which introduces the structural subjects as extra affectee arguments in relation to the events, as shown in (4). The syntactic positions of the two types of *khi1* are higher than those of the verbs: the first is a root modal, and the other is a voice head. On the other hand, *khi2* in (5) is a perfect marker to bring about the resultant state after a change of state. *Khi2* also derives an additional semantic

interpretation about the event's outcome beyond the speaker's or the subject's expectation.

The organization of this paper is as follows: In section 2, we shall discuss the syntactic and semantic characteristics of *khi1* and *khi2* and how they function in various constructions. This discourse shall serve as a preliminary for section 3, where several previous studies are reviewed. Section 3 will determine whether any analysis on the syntactic and semantics functions of *qu1* and *qu2* in Chinese can be applied to the cases of *khi1* and *khi2* in Taiwanese. In section 4.1, we will introduce the preliminaries and the analysis of the uses of *khi1*. Likewise, in section 4.2, the preliminaries and analysis of the use of *khi2* will be discussed. Section 5 is the conclusion.



## Chapter 2

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### Characteristics of *khi1* and *khi2*

#### 2.1 The semantic and syntactic interpretations of *khi1*

##### 2.1.1 Two types of *khi1*

There are two types of *khi1*. One denotes the subject's will or intention of performing an action. The examples (6-9) demonstrate the verb types that can follow this *khi1* and which types cannot follow it. The alternative *khi1* represents the subject as an affectee of an event. The examples (10-12) show verb types acceptable to follow the second *khi1*. A common property shared between the two *khi1s* is that neither is viewed as a lexical verb to express the meaning 'go,' because a locational NP cannot follow either of them. The two *khi1s* are placed syntactically higher than lexical verbs, because their appearance does not influence the syntactic structure. They still have different semantic interpretations and become functional categories.

We discuss the examples about the first type of *khi1*. By examining the examples in (6), we see that activity verbs can follow *khi1* to represent the subject's intention or will to cause events.



(6) a. I khi be phua san 他去買破衣

he khi buy ragged clothes

'He bought ragged clothes'

b. I khi tsiah phainn khi a mih 他去吃壞掉的食物

he khi eat stinky food

'He ate stinky food'

c. I khi lon tshia 他去撞車

he khi hit car

'He hit a car'

d. I khi khuann kui a pa 他去看鬼魅

he khi see ghost

'He saw ghosts'



Examples (7a-e) show that activity verbs and resultant complements can follow *khi1*, meaning that the outcomes of the events are all derived from the subject's will. The affectees are the objects.

(7) a. I (tiau kong) khi ka khong khue tsoh liau 他(故意)去 ka 工作做完

he (intentionally) khi ka job finish

‘He finished the job’

b. I (tiau kong) khi ka mih puann liau liau 他(故意)去ka東西搬光光

he (intentionally) khi ka thing move all

‘He moved away all the things’

c. I (tiau kong) khi long si jong 他(故意)去撞死人

he (intentionally) khi hit dead someone

‘He hit someone and the guy died’

d. I (tiau kong) khi ka tng tian suan 他(故意)去剪斷電線

he (intentionally) khi sever electric wire

‘He severed the electric wire’

e. I (tiau kong) khi tsha to te 他(故意)去翻倒茶

he (intentionally) khi upset tea

‘He upset tea’

However, if activity verbs and *tioh*/到, ‘the verb-ending complement,’ co-occur with

*khi1*, as in (8a-d), event outcomes cannot be controlled by the subject<sup>1</sup>. Thus, *khi1* in

(8a-d) is not a marker to denote the subject’s will.

---

<sup>1</sup> Few think that (8a-d) are acceptable, but pragmatic restrictions exist.

(8) a. \*I tiau kong khi long tloh tshia \*他故意去撞到車

he intentionally khi hit car

'He intentionally hit the car'

b. \*I tiau kong khi tsiah tloh phainn khi a mih

he intentionally khi eat stinky food

'He intentionally ate stinky food'

\*他故意去吃到吃壞掉的食物

c. \*I tiau kong khi be tloh phua san \*他故意去買到破衣

he intentionally khi buy ragged clothes

'He intentionally bought ragged clothes'

d. \*I tiau kong khi siam tloh io \*他故意去閃到腰

he intentionally khi twist waist

'He intentionally twisted his waist'

The rule that stative verbs and achievements cannot follow *khi*, nor express the subject's will or intention is presented in examples (9a-b).

(9) a. \*I khi u tsheh \*他去有書 (stative verbs)

he khi have book

‘He had a book’

b. \* I khi gau (tat) suann tiann \*他去到(達)山頂 (achievements)

he khi arrive mountain top

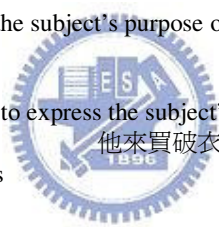
‘He arrived at the top of the mountain’

Presently, we know that the first type of *khi1* denotes the subject’s will of performing an action and the acceptable verb types following *khi1* are activity verbs, the combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements (excluding *tioh/到*)<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>2</sup> *Lai/來* in Taiwanese can also denote the subject’s purpose of performing an action, but the syntactic restrictions exist.

*Lai* can be followed by activity verbs to express the subject’s purpose or will of doing an action.

(1) I lai be phua san 他來買破衣  
he lai buy ragged clothes  
‘He bought ragged clothes’



*Lai* can be followed by activity verbs and resultant complements, but the acceptable resultant complements are restricted. If the event outcomes denoted by resultant complements are negative for the subject like (2b-d), *lai* is unacceptable in these sentences. (The subject, the possessor of the rice, is dropped.) Unlike the first type of *khi1*, *lai* shows that the subject cannot control the unfavorable or negative outcomes for himself.

- (2) a. I lai ka khong khue tsoh liau 他來 ka 工作做完  
he lai ka job finish  
‘He finished the job’
- b. \*I lai long si jong \*他來撞死人  
he lai hit dead someone  
‘He hit someone and the guy died’
- c. \*I lai tsha to te \*他來翻倒茶  
he lai upset tea  
‘He upset tea’
- d. ben lai hoo A-Ming jia liau liau \*飯來 hoo 阿明吃光光  
rice lai hoo A-Ming eat all  
‘All the rice was eaten by A-Ming’

*Lai* cannot followed by activity verbs and the resultant complement, *tioh/到* because the negative event outcomes denoted by *tioh/到* are uncontrollable by the subjects.

(3) a. I lai long tioh tshia \*他來撞到車  
he lai hit car  
‘He hit the car’

Then, we discuss the examples about the second type of *khi1*. Verb types that can follow the second *khi1* are presented in (10-12). The verbs that follow *khi1*, to mark subjects as affectees, are achievements, and the combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements, which always imply results after events. When event results are uncontrollable and unfavorable for the subjects, the subjects are considered affectees of the events<sup>3</sup>.

(10) I khi puat to a 他(\*故意)/(不小心)去跌倒阿

he khi fall down

‘He (the affectee) fell down’



(11) a. I (\*tiau kong)/(bo se li) khi long tloh tshia

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi hit car

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) hit the car’

他(\*故意)/(不小心)去撞到車

---

b. I lai hoo tshia lon tloh \*他來 hoo 車撞到  
 he lai hoo car hit  
 ‘He was hit by a car’

Thus, if *lai* presents the subject’s purpose or will, the only verb types can follow *lai* are activity verbs, and the combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements, which do not present negative event outcomes for the subjects.

<sup>3</sup> As mentioned above, we know that the verb types occur with the second type of *khi1* imply the event outcomes are unfavorable and uncontrollable for the subjects. Thus, the second type of *khi1* denotes the subjects as affectees of the events. However, *lai* cannot denote the subjects as affectees of events. According to the examples shown in Note 2, it is known that *lai* cannot be followed by activity verbs and resultant complements, which present negative event outcomes for the subjects. This, it is tenable to say why *lai* cannot mark the subjects as affectees.

b. I (\*tiau kong) /(bo se li) khi tsiah tloh phainn khi a mih

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi eat stinky food

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) ate stinky food’

他(\*故意)/(不小心)去吃到壞去 a 食物

c. I (\*tiau kong) /(bo se li) khi be tloh phua san

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi buy ragged clothes

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) bought ragged clothes’

他(\*故意)/(不小心)去買到破衣

d. I (\*tiau kong) /(bo se li) khi siam tloh io

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi twist waist

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) twisted his waist’

他(\*故意)/(不小心)去閃到腰

e. I khi siu tloh siong hai 他去受到傷害

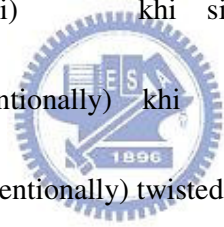
he khi suffer hurt

‘He was hurt’

f. I khi liang tloh bat to 他去冷到肚子

he khi cold belly

‘He had a cold because his belly was exposed’



(12) a. I    sih tshiu                    khi   phah si    A-Ming 他失手去打死阿明

he   unintentionally   khi   beat   dead A-Ming

‘He unintentionally beat A-Ming dead’

b. I   (bo se li)                    khi   long   si        jong    他(不小心)去撞死人

he   unintentionally   khi   hit   dead   someone

‘He unintentionally hit someone dead’

c. I   (bo se li)                    khi   ka tng    tian    suan 他(不小心)去剪斷電線

he   unintentionally   khi   sever    electric wire

‘He unintentionally severed the electric wire’

d. I   (bo se li)                    khi    tsha to    te    他(不小心)去翻倒茶

he   unintentionally   khi   upset   tea

‘He unintentionally upset tea’

### 2.1.2 *KhiI* in the *hoo* constructions

We also know that *khiI* can occur with *hoo*, as shown in (13-14). According to Huang

(1999), *hoo* in (13) has the weak causative meaning, ‘let.’ The subject can

simultaneously be the patient, so *hoo* here can be causative *hoo* or get-passive *hoo*.

The subject marked by the first *khiI* in (13a) exhibits his willingness to be hit by

A-Ming. The subject in (13b) presents his willingness to let A-Ming run away but

meantime he is affected.

(13) a. I (tiau kong) khi hoo A-Ming phah 他(故意)去 hoo 阿明打  
he intentionally khi hoo A-Ming hit  
'He intentionally got hit by A-Ming'

b. I (tiau kong) khi hoo A-Ming tsao a 他(故意)去 hoo 阿明跑阿  
he intentionally khi hoo A-Ming run away  
'He intentionally had A-Ming running away on him'

c. i (tiau kong) khi hoo A-Ming khoan tloh i e pibit  
he intentionally khi hoo A-Ming see his secret  
'He intentionally had A-Ming discovering his secret'

他(故意)去 hoo 阿明看到他 a 秘密

d. I (tiau kong) khi hoo tshia lon tloh 他(故意)去 hoo 車撞到  
he intentionally khi hoo car hit  
'He intentionally got hit by a car'

Huang (1999) also mentions that (14a) is an exclusive (or subject excluded) indirect passive, (14b) is an inclusive (or subject included) indirect passive, and (15c) is a direct passive. The subjects in (14a-c) are indirect patients (affectees), indirect



affectees, and patients, respectively. The *hoos* in (14a-c) are passive. The subjects in (14) are all viewed as the affectees of the events denoted by *khi1* because the event outcomes are unfavorable for the subjects. The affectee, likely the possessor of the rice, in (14d) is dropped in the subject position.

(14) a. I (bo se li) khi hoo A-Ming tsao khi a

he unintentionally khi hoo A-Ming run away a

‘He (the affectee) had A-Ming running away on him’

他(不小心)去 hoo 阿明跑去阿

b. i (bo se li) khi hoo A-Ming khoan tloh i e pibit

he unintentionally khi hoo A-Ming see his secret

‘He (the affectee) had A-Ming discovering his secret’

他(不小心)去 hoo 阿明看到他 a 秘密

c. I (bo se li) khi hoo tshia lon tloh 他(不小心)去 hoo 車撞到

he unintentionally khi hoo car hit

‘He (the affectee) got hit by a car’

d. Ben khi hoo A-Ming jia liau liau a 飯去 hoo 阿明吃光光阿

rice khi hoo A-Ming eat all

‘All the rice was eaten by A-Ming’

The occurrence of *khi1* in (13) and (14) does not influence the syntactic structure, so the position of *khi1* is syntactically higher than that of a verb. The two types of *khi1* are shown in (13) and (14), with their various semantic interpretations.

### 2.1.3 Summary

In brief, (6-7) and (13) present the subject's will, which is always denoted by the first *khi1*. The verbs are restricted to activity verbs, or combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements (except the resultant complement, *tioh/到*), or causative or get-passive *hoo*. On the other hand, subjects as affectees, denoted by the second type of *khi1* are negatively affected by the events in examples (10-12) and (14). Verbs that are able to occur after the second *khi1* have resultant complements following activity verbs, or are passive *hoo*, meaning that event outcomes are unfavorable for the subjects.

Table 1: two types of *khi1*

<i>khi1</i>	function	acceptable verb types after <i>khi1</i>
Type 1	denote the subject's will of performing an action	(1) activity verbs (2) activity verbs + resultant complements (excluding <i>tioh/到</i> ) (3) causative <i>hoo</i> / get-passive <i>hoo</i>
Type 2	denote the subject as an affectee of an event	(1) achievements (2) activity verbs + resultant complements (3) passive <i>hoo</i>

## 2.2 The semantic and syntactic interpretation of *khi2*

### 2.2.1 *Khi2* in the NP+V+*Khi2* constructions

First, we consider *khi2* in the NP+V+*Khi2* constructions. After the addition of *khi2*, the activity verbs in (15d-e) show the resultant state of disappearance turning from its original state of existence. When those activity verbs occur with *khi2*, the change of state and the resultant state of disappearance becomes more important than the lexical meanings of the activity verbs. The activity verbs merely present the method of disappearance, such as flying or running. In (15k), the verb *theh/拿* ‘take’ is also considered an activity verb, which can be related to the disappearance of something.

Example (15k) is ungrammatical because it violates the restriction that (15) and (16) are agent-less sentences, where NPs make the events happen autonomously.



(15) a. \*A-Ming khau khi a \*阿明哭去阿

A-Ming cry khi

‘\*A-Ming cried away unexpectedly’

b. \*A-Ming tsho khi a \*阿明唱去阿

A-Ming sing away

‘\*A-Ming sang away unexpectedly’

c. \*A-Ming thiau khi a \*阿明跳去阿

A-Ming jump khi

‘\*A-Ming jumped away unexpectedly’

d. A-Ming tsau khi a 阿明跑去阿

A-Ming run khi

‘A-Ming ran away unexpectedly’

e. tsiau a pue khi a 鳥阿飛去阿

bird fly khi

‘The bird flew away unexpectedly’

f. \*phainn lan thai khi a \*歹人殺去阿

bad guy kill khi

‘\*The bad guy killed away unexpectedly’

g. \*A-Hua phah khi a \*阿華打去阿

A-Hua hit khi

‘\*A-Hua hit away unexpectedly’

h. \*ing ku oh khi a \*英文學去阿

English study khi

‘\*English studied away unexpectedly’



i. \*kiu that khi a \*球踢去阿

ball kick khi

‘\*The ball kicked away unexpectedly’

j. \*tshh theh khi a \*書拿去阿

book take khi

‘\*The book took away unexpectedly’

k. \*tian iann khann khi a \*電影看去阿

movie see khi

‘\*The movie saw away unexpectedly’

l. \*im kah thiann khi a \*音樂聽去阿

music listen khi

‘\*The music listened away unexpectedly’



Besides, the verb types in (16) are all acceptable. They all imply a state, and are therefore known as stative verbs. When stative verbs occur with *khi2*, the verb+*khi2* combination expresses the resultant state after a change of state. Accordingly, (16a) shows the dog’s death after the process of dying; (16b) presents the resultant state of the sunken ship; (16h) indicates the open state of the door; (16j) points out A-Ming’s loss of consciousness, the resultant state of falling asleep.

(16) a. kau a si khi a 狗阿死去阿

dog die khi

‘The dog died unexpectedly’

b. tsun tim khi a 船沉去阿

ship sink khi

‘The ship sunk unexpectedly’

c. san la sap khi a 衫la髒去阿

clothes dirty khi

‘The clothes became dirty unexpectedly’

d. toh po tam khi a 抹布溼去阿

cloth wet khi



‘The cloth became wet unexpectedly’

e. i a phainn khi a 椅阿壞去阿

chair ruin khi

‘The chair broke unexpectedly’

f. san phua khi a 衫破去阿

clothes rag khi

‘The clothes become ragged unexpectedly’

g. soh a ton khi a 繩子斷去阿

rope become two pieces khi

‘The rope become two pieces unexpectedly’

h. moo a poo a mng khui khi a, hai i kiann tsit le

tomb’s door open khi make he scare

‘The door of the tomb opened unexpectedly, and he was scared’

墓阿埔的門開去阿，害他嚇一下

i. moo a poo a mng kuainn khi a, hai i shut bue khi

tomb’s door close khi make him out not go

‘The door of the tomb closed unexpectedly and he could not go outside’

墓阿埔的門關去阿，害他出不去

j. A-Ming khuan khi a 阿明暈去阿

A-Ming sleep khi

‘A-Ming fell asleep unexpectedly’

Therefore, whether *khi2* occurs with activity verbs to denote the disappearance of something, or with stative verbs to imply a change of state, it marks the resultant state after a change of state, and forms an achievement with its preceding verb.

To make an elaborate explanation for the semantics of *khi2*, we examine (15e) and (16j). If *khi2* did not appear in (15e), the sentence would be ordinary, without presupposition. However, because of the occurrence of *khi2*, the sentence is acceptable only when A-Ming's running away is beyond the speaker's expectation. Likewise, (16j), without *khi2*, would be an ordinary sentence without presupposition. With *khi2*, the sentence is acceptable only when A-Ming's falling asleep is not the speaker's expectation.

Therefore, we can derive the semantic denotation of *khi2*, as follows:

For any  $w$ ,  $[[khi2(\phi)]]^w = \lambda p \in D\langle s, t \rangle. \lambda x. [\text{for all worlds } w' \text{ incompatible with what } x \text{ expects in } w: p(w')=1]$ , where  $x$  is the speaker or the subject.



### **2.2.2 *Khi2* in the causative *hoo* constructions and in the passive *hoo* constructions**

*Khi2* can occur not only in the NP+V+*Khi2* constructions, but also in the causative and passive *hoo* constructions. These constructions determine if the function of *khi2* changes.

First, (17-19) present the sentences 'some causing event lets/causes something...' *Hoo* has the weak causative meaning, 'let/allow.' The verb types that allow *khi2* to follow



the verbs in the causative *hoo* constructions are restricted, they will be discussed below.

(17) \*i/\*tsi le si iam hoo A-Ming khuan khi a

he/this experiment hoo A-Ming sleep khi

‘\*He/\*This experiment made A-Ming fall asleep unexpectedly’

\*他/\*這個實驗 hoo 阿明睏去阿

(18) a. \*i/\*khai kuan phainn khi hoo moo a poo a mng khui khi a

he/ bottom malfunction hoo tomb's door open khi

‘\*He/\*The malfunctioning bottom made the door of the tomb become open

unexpectedly’ \*他/\*開關壞去 hoo 墓阿埔的門開去阿

(19) a. i / soh a sang khi hoo A-Ming tsau khi a 他/[繩子鬆去]hoo 阿明跑去阿

he/rope loose hoo A-Ming run khi

‘He/The looseness of the rope made A-Ming run away’

b. i/ tsiu lang a phua khi hoo tsiu a pue khi a 他/[鳥籠破去]hoo 鳥阿飛去阿

he/ bird cage broken hoo bird fly khi

‘He/The broken bird cage made the bird fly away’

c. i/ ioh a khong sio tse hoo kau a si khi a 他/藥放太多 hoo 狗阿死去阿

he/medicine put too much hoo dog die khi

‘He/Putting too much medicine made the dog dead’

d. i/i soh a kiu sio an hoo soh a ton khi a

he/rope lug too tight hoo rope become two pieces khi

‘He/His lugging the rope too tightly made the rope become two pieces’

他/他繩子拉太緊 hoo 繩子斷去阿

In terms of verb classification, we observe that some variations cannot co-occur with weak causative *hoo*. The verb *khuan*/困 ‘sleep’ is classified as an unergative verb in (17). The verbs, *khui*/開 ‘open’ and *khainn*/關 ‘close’ in (18) are ergative verbs. The verbs in (19a-c) are unaccusative verbs. The verb in (19d) is thought of an unaccusative because it can be placed after a light verb to modify the state of an action. Only unaccusative verbs in (19) are able to occur with *khi2*. The original function of *khi2* remains, and allows it to denote the resultant state of an event, though the event outcome may not match the speaker/subject’s expectation.

In the grammatically correct sentences of (20), the *hoo* is passive. The patients/themes in (20) are placed in the structural subject position, through NOP movement. The

agents cannot be omitted or eliminated. *Khi2* in these sentences brings about a change of state, as denoted by a verb that matches the limitation of passivization mentioned by Lisa Cheng, James Huang, Audrey Li, and Jane Tang (1996). Passivation is possible only with verbs which are accomplishments.

However, the ungrammaticality of (20a-f) in the passive *hoo* construction remains.

When the activity or stative verbs occur with *khi2*, the combination denotes the resultant state after a change of state. Thus, it is reasonable to infer that (20a-f) are ungrammatical because the verbs in (20a-c) cannot describe the resultant state of disappearance, and the resultant states in (20d-f) are unknown or uncertain. The examples in (20g-j) present the resultant state of the objects' disappearance by the transfer of possession or manner of verbs.



(20) a. \*phainn lan hoo A-Ming thai khi a \*歹人 hoo 阿明殺去阿

bad guy hoo A-Ming kill khi

‘\*The bad guy was killed away by A-Ming’

b. \*A-Hua hoo A-Ming phah khi a \*阿明 hoo 阿明打去阿

A-Hua hoo A-Ming hit khi

‘\*A-Hua was hit away by A-Ming’

c. \*A-Hua hoo A-Ming me khi a \*阿明 hoo 阿明罵去阿

A-Hua hoo A-Ming scold khi

‘\*A-Hua was scolded away by A-Ming’

d. \*tian iann hoo A-Ming khann khi a \*電影 hoo 阿明看去阿

movie hoo A-Ming see khi

‘\*The movie was seen away by A-Ming’

e. \*im kah hoo A-Ming thiann khi a \*音樂 hoo 阿明聽去阿

music hoo A-Ming listen khi

‘\*The music was listened away by A-Ming’

f. \*ing ku hoo A-Ming oh khi a \*英文 hoo 阿明學去阿

English hoo A-Ming study khi

‘\*English was studied away by A-Ming’

g. kiu hoo A-Ming that khi a 球 hoo 阿明踢去阿

ball hoo A-Ming kick khi

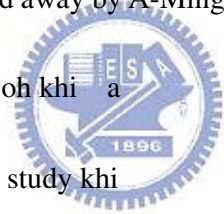
‘The ball was kicked away by A-Ming’

h. pong hoo A-Ming tsiah khi a 飯 hoo 阿明吃去阿

rice hoo A-Ming eat khi

‘The rice was all eaten by A-Ming’

i. lan kheh hoo A-Ming kiu khi a 客戶 hoo 阿明拉去阿



client hoo A-Ming take khi

‘The clients was all taken away by A-Ming’

j. tsheh hoo A-Ming theh khi a 書 hoo 阿明拿去阿

book hoo A-Ming take khi

‘The book was taken away by A-Ming’

In brief, no matter how the syntactic structure of the *hoo* sentences change, *khi2* always brings about an unexpected resultant state.



## Chapter 3

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### Previous analyses

The literature reviewed in this section is organized chronologically. We begin with Ke's (1991) analysis in section 3.1. Section 3.2 and section 3.3 present the analyses of Zhang (2001) and Chen (2006), respectively.

#### 3.1 Shu-Jun Ke (1991)

According to Ke (1991), two types of *qu1* and two types of *qu2* exist in Chinese. In (20) and (21), the b sentences define the discrepancies between different types of *qu1*: *qu1* in (20b) can be followed by a location or a goal noun phrase, while *qu1* in (21b) cannot. She further asserts that *qu1* in sentences like (20a) is a canonical verb, whereas *qu1* in sentences like (21a) is considered an auxiliary verb, without influencing the argument structure. *Qu1* in (20b) functions as an auxiliary verb that can be tested by several ways: (i) An auxiliary verb may occur as the A element in A-not-A questions, (ii) An auxiliary verb may be negated, (iii) An auxiliary verb is subcategorized as a verb phrase, just as a transitive verb taking a verb phrase as a complement, (iv) An auxiliary verb cannot take an object, (v) An auxiliary verb does not take aspect markers and (vi) An auxiliary verb can be omitted without affecting

either the grammaticality of the sentence or the integrity of the whole syntactic structure (for details, refer to Ke, p.31-27).

(20)a. Ta qu kan dian ying le.

he went see movies Sentence Final le

‘He went to see the movies.’

b. Ta qu tai bei kan dian ying le.

he went Taipei see movies Sentence Final le

‘He went to Taipei and saw the movies.’

(21) a. Wo cai bu qu xiang xin ha de hua.

I not go believe his words

‘I am not going to believe his words.’

b. \*Wo cai bu qu tai bei xiang xin ha de hua.

I not go Taipei believe his words

‘I am not going to Taipei to believe his words.’

Semantically, only a [+human] NP in sentences like (21a) can be the subject of the modal-like *qu1*. Also, *qu1* participates in semantic selectional restriction of the matrix subject, proven by the nonhuman subject in (22a), which cannot be followed by the

modal-like *qu1*. The inherent meaning of the two types of *qu1* is concerned with motion and direction. They denote the subject's purposes for their preceding VPs.

(22) a. \*Hong shui qu chong duan le qiao liang.

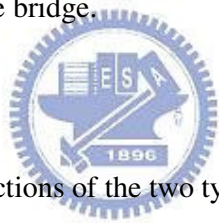
food go damage LE bridge

'The flood went to damage the bridge.'

b. Hong shui chong duan le qiao liang.

flood damage LE bridge

'The flood damaged the bridge.'



She also refers to the various functions of the two types of *qu2*. For instance, *qu2* in (23a-b) is different from that in (24a-b). In (23), *qu2* is only allowed to be placed after a noun phrase, while *qu2* in (28) can occur after a noun phrase, or after a verb phrase. Additionally, *qu2* in (23a) is a clitic marker, which is phonologically weakly stressed and unable to occur alone syntactically, marking the directional tendency of the structural subject's action. In (24a-b), the form of *qu2* has two subtypes. They are only followed by transmission verbs such as *jie* 'borrow,' *ji* 'mail,' *song* 'send' and *na* 'take,' as shown in (24a) and (24b). In (24a), *qu2* is analyzed as a verb to form a serial verb construction with the verb preceding *qu2*, because *qu2* can be followed by a



location or goal noun phrase, whereas *qu2* in (24b) is taken as a phase marker to construct a V-C compound. In terms of semantics, however, the two *qu2s* all display the direction of the object after an action.

(23) a. Ta kan dian ying qu le.

he see movies went Sentence Final le

‘He went to see the movies.’

b. \*Ta kan qu le dian ying.

he see went LE movie

‘He saw the movies.’



(24) a. Ta na le yi ben shu qu le.

he take LE a book went Sentence Final le

‘He took a book and leave/go to somewhere.’

b. Ta na qu le yi ben shu.

he take went LE a book

‘He took away a book.’

Although Ke (1991) points out that one *qu1* can be an auxiliary verb, and can be tested using various methods, the “A-not-A test” fails in Taiwanese. We cannot

determine whether a verb falls into the auxiliary category in Taiwanese, if one of the tests is not available. In Ke's (1991) analysis, *qu1* denotes the purpose for performing an action, because of the agent's intention to cause the event. However, *qu1* denoting the purpose still cannot interpret the usage of *khi1* in (10-12) and (14), where *khi1* does not denote the subject's intention or purpose.

In Ke's (1991) interpretation, *qu2* is also thought of as a phase marker, which forms a V-C compound with its preceding verb. The verbs which can follow *qu2* are semantically restricted to the category of transmission verbs. However, the interpretation does not explain why some transmission verbs cannot co-occur with *khi2*, as in (15j), nor does it interpret the grammaticalities of (16a-j). Therefore, Ke's (1991) analysis of *qu*s in Chinese does not include an analysis of Taiwanese *khi1* and *khi2*.

### 3.2 Niina Zhang (2001)

Zhang (2001) refers to *qu* in the Qu-Predicate Construction, as shown by (25), as the head of a functional phrase higher than AspP, but lower than NegP. First, Zhang compares (25a) and (25b) to point out that *qu* in (25a) is a directional motion verb, base-generated at V and can be followed by an aspect marker. However, *qu* in (25b),

unlike regular verbs, cannot have an aspect suffix, and is base-generated at that position for aspect markers, unavailable for an aspect suffix.

(25) a. Baoyu qu guo xiang gong.

Baoyu went experiential marker Hong Kong

‘Baoyu has ever been to Hong Kong.’

b. Baoyu qu (\*{le/zho/guo}) kan le dian ying.

Baoyu qu aspect marker see LE movie

/progressive marker

/experiential marker

‘Baoyu went to see movies.’



She further asserts that the removal of *lai* or *qu* does not bring any change in meaning, as shown by (26a), and that *lai* and *qu*, which are interchangeable, do not show strong semantic contrast.

(26) Ni men (lai/qu) yan jiu yan jiu kan ze me jie jue.

you (plural) come/go study how solve

‘You guys discuss and find out the solution.’

In (27), the negation marker occurs before *qu* and proves that the position of *qu* is lower than NegP. She assumes that *lai* and *qu* behave like English auxiliaries (Roberts 1998). English auxiliary verbs do not have an argument structure, and thus are not concerned with theta-role assignment, as in the Lai/Qu-Predicate construction.

(27) Baoyu mei qu zhao ni.

Baoyu not go find you

‘Baoyu didn’t go to find you.’



Zhang (2001) argues that post-predicate *qu* is placed in the higher structural position than the predicate, proven in comparison of (28) and (29). In (28), Answer 1 of the question is appropriate, because it contains the highest verb *xiang* ‘want.’ However, Answer 2 of the question is inappropriate, because it lacks the highest verb *xiang*. Thus, She assumes that the post-predicate *qu* in (29), which behaves like *xiang*, is the highest verbal element.

(28) Question: Da Bao xiang mai shu ma ?

Da Bao want buy book question marker

‘Does Da Bao want to buy books?’

Ans1: Dui, ha xiang mai.

yes he want buy

‘Yes, he want to buy books.’

Ans2: #Dui, ha mai (shu).

yes he buy book

‘Yes, he buys books.’

(29) Question: Da Bao kan dian ying qu le ma ?

Da Bao see movie go LE question marker

‘Did Da Bao go to see the movies?’

Ans1: Dui, ha qu le.

yes he went Sentential Particle le

‘Yes, he went to see the movies.’

Ans2: Dui, ha kan dian ying qu le.

yes he see movie go Sentential Particle le

‘Yes, he went to see the movies.’

Ans3: Dui, ha qu kan dian ying le.

yes he go see movie Sentential Particle le

‘Yes, he went to see the movies.’

Ans4: #Dui, ha kan dian ying le.



yes he see movie Sentential Particle le

‘Yes, he saw the movies.’

It is also proven in the comparison between (30) and (31) that to Zhang (2001), the structural position of the post-predicate *qu* is higher than the predicate. It c-commands the predicate, following Kanye’s (1994) analysis of an element asymmetrically c-commanding its complement.

(30) a. Lao Li xiang shui jiao, Lao Gao ye xiang pro<sub>i</sub>.

Lao Li want sleep Lao Gao also want

‘Lao Li wants to sleep, and Lao Gao does, too.’

b. \*Lao Li xiang shui jiao, Lao Gao ye e<sub>i</sub> shui jiao.

Lao Li want sleep Lao Gao also sleep

‘Lao Li wants to sleep, and Lao Gao does, too.’

(31) a. Lao Li [kan dian ying] qu le, Lao Gao ye qu le.

Lao Li see movie go LE Lao Gao also go LE

‘Lao Li went to see the movies, and Lao Gao did, too.’

b. \*Lao Li [kan dian ying] qu le, Lao Gao ye [kan dian ying] le.

Lao Li see movie go LE Lao Gao also see movie LE

‘Lao Li went to see the movies, and Lao Gao did, too.’

Moreover, Zhang asserts that *qu* in the Predicate-Qu Construction is raised and adjoins to the sentence-final particle *le* in the T position. She argues that the simultaneous occurrence of the pre-predicate *qu* and the post-predicate *qu* in the Predicate-Qu Construction implies the existence of a movement chain, that is, the two *qus* can be spelled out at PF. However, the pre-predicate *qu* is established as the tail copy of the chain, using the HMC rule that a head element moves across another lower head element. The pre-predicate *qu* is sometimes optional, even semantically interchangeable with *lai*.



Though Zhang (2001) points out the pre-predicate *qu* is like an English auxiliary verb structurally, she does not explain how the pre-predicate *qu* functions semantically.

*Khi1* in (7-8) and (14) denotes the subjects' purpose. It passes the syntactic tests

Zhang (2001) provides for the pre-predicate *qu* as an auxiliary verb, but without the

precise semantics of the pre-predicate *qu*, it is still questionable whether *khi1*

functions like the pre-predicate *qu* in every aspect. Additionally, the examples Zhang

(2001) offers do not apply to other cases of *khi1*, such as in (11-13) and (15).

In terms of the post-predicate *qu*, she mentions that the position of *qu* is higher than that of its predicate, and even adjoins to the left of sentential particle *le*. As for Taiwanese *khi2* in the *hoo* constructions, however, her analysis is irrelevant. We find that *khi2* in (32a) and (33a) cannot be parted from *theh/拿* ‘take’ or left stranded in the higher position. The solid combination of the verb and *khi2* cannot be separated, as shown by (32b)’s ungrammaticality.

(32) a. \*Tsheh [ hoo (jong) theh khi] a, pih ma hoo (jong)

book hoo someone take phase pen also hoo someone

\*書 [hoo (人) 拿] 去 阿, 筆麻 hoo (人)



khi a

khi

去阿

‘The book is taken away by someone, and the pen is, too.’

b. \* Tsheh [ hoo (jong) theh khi] a, pih ma hoo (jong)

book hoo someone take khi pen also hoo someone

\*書 [hoo (人) 拿] 去 阿, 筆麻 hoo (人)



theh a.

take

拿阿

‘The book is taken away by someone, and the pen is, too.’

(33) a. \*Tsheh khi hoo (jong) theh. 書去 hoo(人)拿

book khi hoo someone take

‘The book was affected by someone’s taking.’

b. Tsheh hoo (jong) theh khi a. 書 hoo(人)拿去阿

book hoo someone take khi

‘The book was taken away by someone.’

c. Tsheh khi hoo (jong) theh khi a. 書去 hoo(人)拿去阿

book khi hoo someone take khi

‘The book was affected by someone’s taking it away.’

Zhang (2001) also mentions that the pre-predicate *qu*, which can be omitted, is the tail copy of the chain. Little importance is given to the semantic interpretation of pre-predicate *qu*. However, her argument is proven wrong when we apply her analysis to the examples in (33). Her analysis only applies to *khi1* and *khi2* in (33c) and (33b). In her analysis, (33a) has to be grammatical, but it is not. Additionally, the HMC rule

is violated because the position of *khi2* is lower than that of *khi1* in (33c). Therefore, *khi1* cannot be the tail copy of *khi2*. We are unable to use her analysis to explain (33), and think that the two *khis* in Taiwanese have different syntactic and semantic functions.

### 3.3 I-Chun Chen (2006)

Chen (2006) discusses the function of *khi2* as a phase marker, and *khi2* expresses the speaker's viewpoint. Moreover, the Hoo+VP+Khi2 construction further conveys the speaker's negative attitude (the speaker is most likely an affectee) towards the event, because the speaker cannot control the event, or it is beyond the speaker's expectation. Chen (2006) also asserts that the meaning of *khi2* originates 'away from the speaker' and extends to 'subside/fade away' and 'to be unperceivable,' and to 'out of the speaker's control or expectation.'

She classifies the verb types which can occur with *khi2*: an activity motion verb, like intransitive verbs, such as *tsau/走* 'walk,' *hin/行* 'proceed,' *thiau/跳* 'jump,' *pue/飛* 'fly,' *pe/爬* 'crawl,' *lau/流* 'flow; transitive verbs, such as *theh/提* 'carry,' *pua/搬* 'move,' *kia/寄* 'send,' *oo/挖* 'dig,' *san/送* 'give as a gift,' or *liah/抓* 'catch.' When an activity motion verb occurs with *khi2*, it denotes the meaning 'X makes the object

Y move to the place Z.’ If the activity motion verb is an intransitive, X is equal to Y. If it is a transitive, X is not equal to Y.

The verb variation is stative (including an adjective), such as *bo/無* ‘disappear,’ *am/暗* ‘dark,’ *tsian/靜* ‘quiet,’ *siau/消* ‘flat,’ *suan/散* ‘scattered,’ *kuan/冷* ‘cold,’ *te/短* ‘short,’ *san/瘦* ‘thin,’ *si/死* ‘dead,’ *khuan/睏* ‘sleep,’ *huan/昏* ‘fainted’ (with the meaning ‘subside/fade away or static’) and *ta 乾/tam 澹* ‘dried/wet,’ *khui 開/kuainn 關* ‘open/closed,’ *tshau/臭* ‘stinky,’ *ng/黃* ‘ripe,’ *to/倒* ‘collapsed’ (with neutral lexical meanings or the speaker’s negative attitude). When a stative verb occurs with *khi2*, it denotes a change of state and its completion with the speaker’s negative attitude. The third verb variation has a resultant complement, like *sio phainn/燒壞* ‘heated and broken,’ *sio tiauw/燒掉* ‘fired.’ When the third verb variation occurs with *khi2*, it denotes the completion of a state and expresses the speaker’s subjective or negative attitude.

If Chen’s analysis is adopted, *khi2* will have two diverse meanings: one is a directional reading; the other denotes the completion of a change of state. However, a better way is to clarify the unified meaning of *khi2*, so we make small modifications, and argue that the combination of activity verbs and *khi2* can refer to the change of

state from existence to disappearance. This is because the combination does not emphasize the object's direction, but the object's final resultant state. For example, *A-Ming tsau khi a/阿明走去阿* 'A-Ming ran away' does not mean 'A-Ming went to some place Z,' or *\*A-Ming thiau khi a/\*阿明跳去阿* '\*A-Ming jumped to some place Z' would make sense if directionality were the focus. Additionally, in Chen's analysis, when the activity motion verbs occur with *khi2*, they derive the meaning 'X makes the object Y move to the place Z,' but the intransitive motion verbs, which occur with *khi2*, do not need an X to make Y move, such as *tsui lau khi a/水流去阿* 'The water flowed away' (X=Y ≠ agent). This demonstrates some anomalies of the meaning she provides. Examples with the transitive activity motion verbs include: *??phue hoo A-Ming kia khi a/??信 hoo 阿明寄去阿* '??The letter was sent by A-Ming.' This sentence does not define the final destination of the letter.

Therefore, after our modification, those verbs which can occur with *khi2* refer to a resultant state. The meaning of *khi2* 'the event outcomes are beyond the speaker's or the speaker's control or expectation' is derived.

Section 4.1 addresses theories that can be applied to *khi1* as preliminaries, as well as the analysis of the various usages of *khi1*. Section 4.2 concerns theories that can be applied to *khi2* as preliminaries and the analysis of *khi2* in the NP+V+Khi2 and *hoo* constructions.

### 4.1 The different uses of *khi1*

#### 4.1.1 Preliminaries for the first type of *khi1*



We are going to introduce Liang's (2007) interpretation about the process of becoming a purpose marker for Chinese *qu* and Barbier's (2005) explanation for modals and their syntactic orders. We discover that the first type of *khi1* functions like Chinese *qu* and becomes a purpose marker. Besides, the syntactic position of the first type of *khi1* is higher than verbs but lower than epistemic modals, and this *khi1* is semantically interpreted as similarly as root modals. It matches Barbier's statements, so we view the first type of *khi1* as root modals.

#### 4.1.1.1 The emergent process of the purpose marker *Lai* or *Qu*

Liang (2007: 163-208) mentions that the purpose marker *lai* or *qu* has already existed in the serial verb construction ‘*lai/qu* + EVENT.’ When *lai* or *qu* doesn’t express the agent’s movement from place A to place B, it functions as the purpose marker, and is followed by the VP, emphasizing the agent’s desire or hope.

In ancient Chinese, a serial verb construction ‘*lai/qu* + EVENT’ whose EVENT contained a verb phrase as the focus of the semantic interpretation, denoting the agent’s leaving for somewhere to do something, once existed. In (34), *lai/qu* is a canonical deictic verb, which is followed by an optional location noun phrase, the destination at which the speaker stands after the agent’s movement from somewhere and the place where the action is happening.

- (34) a. Liang fa, wei yu zei he, yi niu yu zei yi shi,  
rice lack pretend and thief cooperate use cow and thief change food  
zei lai qu niu, niu ze ben huan.  
thief purpose marker take cow cow then run back  
糧乏，偽與賊和，以牛與賊易食，賊來取牛，牛輒奔還  
‘We lack rice and pretend to cooperate with the thieves. We exchange food

with the thieves by cows. When the thieves come to take cows, cows will finally run back.’

b. Xiao xing zhe qu mai cai, zhi wu bu hui.

servant purpose marker buy vegetables until afternoon not back

小行者去買菜，至午不回

‘The servant went to buy vegetables. He will not be back until afternoon.’

However, in (35), *lai/qu* no longer expresses the agent’s movement. We cannot take *lai/qu* as a deictic verb when it is followed by an omitted location NP. The main function of *lai/qu* is to make the VP become the core of the action, stressing the agent’s subjective will. Thus, *lai/qu* can be a purpose marker.

(35) a. Xue zhe xu shi ba sheng ren zhi yan lai qiong jiu, jian de

Scholar need BA saint’s words purpose marker study see

shen xin yao ru ci, zuo shi yao ru ci.

body mind need so behaviors need so

學者須是把聖人之言來窮究，見得身心要如此，做事要如此

‘Scholars needs to study the saints’ words. And practice it physically and

psychologically, even in behaviors.’

b. Quan ran ba yi ji si yi qu kan sheng xian zhi shu

all BA self thoughts purpose marker read saint's book

, ru he kan de chu.

how figure out

'If we understand the words in the saints' books by our own twisted

explanations, how can we figure out the meanings?'

全然把一己私意去看聖賢之書，如何看得出！

*Lai/Qu* in Chinese is still different from *go* in English. *Lai/Qu* cannot be further grammaticalized as *go* can be in English, nor can it function as a grammatical marker of futurity. In addition to activity verbs like *visit* and *buy* in (36b) and (36c), respectively, stative verbs, such as *like* in (36d), can be followed by *go*, implicating the de-emphasis of the subject's will and purpose, to outstand the external speaker's subjective judgment.

(36) a. I *am going* home. (main verb)

b. I *am going to* visit Mrs. Pumphrey. (main verb)

c. I *am going to* buy a new carriage. (main verb/ grammatical markers of futurity)



d. You're going to like this book. (grammatical markers of futurity)

Nevertheless, *lai/qu* in Chinese maintains strong semantic features, [+volition] and [+control] that make *lai/qu* hold onto its lexical meaning. Therefore, (37) is ungrammatical if *qu* is used in a future sense.

(37) \*Ni hui qu xi huan zhe ben shu.<sup>4</sup>

you will purpose like this book

marker

'You are going to like this book.'



#### 4.1.1.2 Modals and their syntactic orders

Barbiers (2005) mentions a great deal of research on the distinction between epistemic and root interpretations of modals. Epistemic modals have a class of interpretations, involving a speaker-oriented, matrix-subject oriented qualification or modification of the truth of a proposition in embedded clauses. Root modal

---

<sup>4</sup> Ta hui qu xihua na zhong nu hai zi ma? 他會去喜歡那種女孩子嗎?  
He hui qu like that kind girl  
'Is it possible for him to love that kind of girl?'

*Hui/會* in this sentence does not present future sense. It functions like an epistemic modal and expresses the possibility of the truth of the proposition. The speaker of the sentence imposes his judgment on the subject's love that makes the subject become an affectee of the loving event. Actually, *qu* still denotes the subject's will to love the girl and is interpreted as a purpose marker.

interpretations involve the will, ability, permission or obligation to perform some action or bring about some state of affairs. However, the two readings are not easily distinguishable in sentences, such as the example given in (38):

(38) John must be home at six o'clock.

Epistemic: '(Given what I, the speaker, know), I conclude that John will be home at six o'clock.'

Root: 'John is obliged to be home at six o'clock.'



Although the two interpretations are semantically ambiguous, they are distinguishable in syntactic structures. Scholars have used many syntactic tests to differentiate epistemic modals from root modals. However, several scholars (McDowell (1987), Brennan (1993), Cinque (1999), Cormack and Smith (2002) and Butler (2003)) cannot clearly determine whether modals are auxiliaries or verbs. Their conclusion is that the syntactic positions of epistemic modals are higher than those of root modals. The syntactic positions of modals are higher than those of verbs. The exact syntactic position of modals remains mysterious.

#### 4.1.2 Analysis of the first type of *khi*: *khi* is a purpose marker

Referring back to section 2.1, the examples in (6-7), repeated in (39-40) show that *khi* followed by activity verbs or the combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements (excluding *tioh/到*) denotes the subjects' intention or will to do something.

(39) a. I khi be phua san 他去買破衣

he khi buy ragged clothes

'He bought ragged clothes'

b. I khi tsiah phainn khi a mih 他去吃壞掉的食物

he khi eat stinky food

'He ate stinky food'

c. I khi lon tshia 他去撞車

he khi hit car

'He hit a car'

d. I khi khuann kui a pa 他去看鬼魅

he khi see ghost

'He saw ghosts'



(40) a. I (tiau kong) khi ka khong khue tsoh liau 他(故意)去 ka 工作做完

he (intentionally) khi ka job finish

‘He finished the job’

b. I (tiau kong) khi ka mih puann liau liau 他(故意)去 ka 東西搬光光

he (intentionally) khi ka thing move all

‘He moved away all the things’

c. I (tiau kong) khi long si jong 他(故意)去撞死人

he (intentionally) khi hit dead someone

‘He hit someone and the guy died’

d. I (tiau kong) khi ka tng tian suan 他(故意)去剪斷電線

he (intentionally) khi sever electric wire

‘He severed the electric wire’

e. I (tiau kong) khi tsha to te 他(故意)去翻倒茶

he (intentionally) khi upset tea

‘He upset tea’

Examples (13a-d), repeated in (41a-d) present the subjects’ control or intention, but

the subjects are affected in some way. A location NP cannot be placed after *khiI*,

showing that *khiI* no longer denotes an agent’s movement from one place to another.

Instead, *khi1* exhibits the agents' purposes to cause the events, though the subjects are possibly affected in (41a-d), and the events are under the agents' control.

(41) a. I (tiau kong) khi hoo A-Ming phah 他(故意)去 hoo 阿明打

he intentionally khi hoo A-Ming hit

'He intentionally got hit by A-Ming'

b. I (tiau kong) khi hoo A-Ming tsao a 他(故意)去 hoo 阿明跑阿

he intentionally khi hoo A-Ming run away

'He intentionally had A-Ming running away on him'

c. i (tiau kong) khi hoo A-Ming khoan tloh i e pibit

he intentionally khi hoo A-Ming see his secret

'He intentionally had A-Ming discovering his secret'

他(故意)去 hoo 阿明看到他 a 秘密

d. I (tiau kong) khi hoo tshia lon tloh 他(故意)去 hoo 車撞到

he intentionally khi hoo car hit

'He intentionally got hit by a car'

According to Liang (2007), the original meaning of Chinese *qu* is further extended from expressing the agent's movement, to the agent's subjective will as a purpose

marker. This makes the VP following Chinese *qu* become the core of the action.

Chinese *qu* still maintains strong semantic features [+volition] and [+control]. *Khi1* in (39-41) expresses the agent's purpose to control one event, correspondent to the properties of Chinese *qu* that Liang (2007) observes.

Because *khi1* is placed higher than a lexical verb and allowed to be omitted, it is categorized as a functional category, and denotes the subject's control and volition.

The semantic interpretation of *khi1* is like that of a root modal (Barbiers 2005), involving 'will/volition.' Barbiers also mentions the difficulty of determining the exact syntactic position of a root modal as an auxiliary or a verb. Thus, we consider that the syntactic position of *khi1* is like that of a root modal, which is higher than a lexical verb. *Khi1* is not viewed as an auxiliary because Taiwanese, unlike English, does not have apparent inflectional systems. *Khi1* is still not used as a verb (see Huang's frame in *The Syntax of Chinese*: 226-227).

The relative syntactic position of *khi1* is like that of a root modal. It is lower than an epistemic modal but higher than a lexical verb, according to the fine-grained distinctions of modal positions, offered by Cormack and Smith (2002) and Cinque (1999). Also, the semantic interpretation of *khi1* is like that of a root modal, the 'will'

to perform some action or bring about some state of affairs.

#### **4.1.3 The preliminary for the second type of *khi1*: affectees and voice heads**


Then, we are going to introduce Hole's framework for affectee voice heads. We will apply his views to assume the second type of *khi1* as an affectee voice head, and this *khi1* introduces an extra affectee argument, the structural subject.

Hole (2006) adopts Dowty's (1991) proto-role approach and further argues that an affectee has a thematic relation, which combines proto-agent properties (sentience/consciousness) and proto-patient properties (causal affectedness) in eventualities involving causation. Hole (2006) follows Krazter's (1996) framework in account of extra argumentality, and mentions that the affectee arguments are introduced by an affectee voice head. Like agents, extra arguments are introduced by an agentive voice head. Affectee arguments are like agent arguments, and are therefore unexpected, if we consider the canonical argument structure of each verb and the thematic relations associated with eventualities encoded by the verbs. In other words, affectee arguments do not correspond to an argument position specified by the verb. Their thematic roles are introduced independently of the verb, but the extra arguments may fulfill syntactic functions that are assumed by more deeply embedded

arguments. Through event identification, an affectee argument, like an agent argument, is introduced in the specifier of the voice phrase as a participant in the event specified by the VP. Therefore, the denotation of the affectee voice head is as follows:

$$(42) [[Aff^0]] = \lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ is an affectee in } e$$

Event identification (Kratzer 1996:122)

f	g	==>	h
$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$	$\langle s, t \rangle$		$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$
(denotation and semantic type of the agentive voice head <sup>5</sup> <i>Voice</i> <sup>0</sup> )	(denotation  semantic type of VP)	(event identification)	(denotation and semantic type of voice')

Hole (2006) argues that extra arguments are subjects, direct objects or objects with subject-like properties. Consider (42) first, if extra arguments are subjects. The extra arguments *ta* 'he' denote the whole, and their referents of the embedded arguments constitute a part of the whole. The extra arguments have proto-agent properties and proto-patient properties simultaneously. They have a thematic relation to the events

<sup>5</sup> The agentive voice head here is replaced by *Aff*<sup>0</sup>.



where they occur:

(43) a. *ta* *diao-le* *hen duo* *toufa*

He fall-PRF very much hair

‘A lot of his hair fell out. / He fell very much hair’

b. *ta* *duan-le* *tui* *le*

he break-PRF leg PRT

‘He broke his leg’

Extra arguments may also be objects coming from passivization, but are not adjuncts or modifiers:



(44) *wo* *bei* *chi-le* *yi-ge* *dangao*

I PASS eat-PRF 1-CL cake

‘I suffered from someone eating a cake of mine’

Also, extra arguments can be objects with subject-like properties, such as nominative arguments in German:

(45) a. Ihm            juckt    die            Kopfhaut

him.DAT   itches    the.NOM    scalp

‘His scalp itches’

b. Ihr            druckt    der            Magen

her.DAT   presses    the.NOM    stomach

‘Her belly hurts’

The extra arguments in (43-45) can be both affectees and possessors of the more deeply embedded arguments in the absence of overt possessor DPs. Hole (2006) mentions that the extra arguments are encoded as possessors, because the presupposed relation of possession holds between the referent of the extra argument and the referent of the more deeply embedded argument. Extra arguments cannot encode the possessor role. Hole (2006) proposes that the relationship between the more deeply embedded argument and the extra argument should be modeled by means of voice, as mentioned above, and ‘binding.’ This means that the extra argument ‘binds’ the unsaturated variable of the c-commanded noun in the DP, that is the possessum or part of the referent, of the extra argument. Using the predicate abstraction rule and variable identification, the identity of the extra argument as both the possessor referent of the more deeply embedded argument and the affectee referent is ensured:

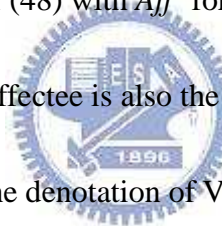
(46) Sie will [dem Jungen [<sub>vp</sub> den Kopf streicheln]]

She wants the.DAT boy the head stroke

‘She wants to stroke the boy’s head’

lit. ‘She wants to stroke <sup>dat</sup>the boy <sup>acc</sup>the head’

The VP denotation of (46) is given in (47). This example has one unsaturated argument position for the event argument. It provides the assignment function  $g$  mapping the index 5 to the boy after predicate abstraction, as shown in (48). Finally, we combine the VP denotation of (48) with  $Aff^{\theta}$  for variable identification and get the outcome in (49). Therefore, the affectee is also the possessor of the head, that is, the affectee referent plays a role in the denotation of VP.



(47) [[den Kopf streicheln]] =  $\lambda e$ . stroke  $g(5)$ 's head (e)

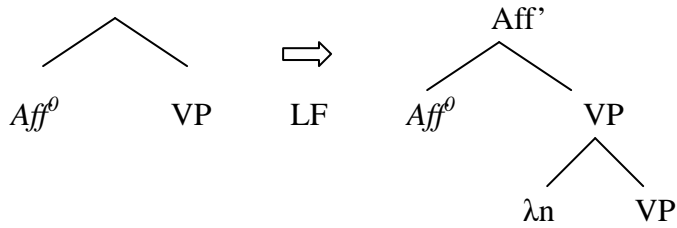
(48) [[den Kopf streicheln]]<sup>[5→x]</sup> =  $\lambda x \lambda e$ . stroke x's head (e)

(49) [[ $Aff^{\theta}$  den Kopf streicheln]]<sup>[5→x]</sup> =  $\lambda x \lambda e$ . stroke x's head (e) & affectee(x)(e)

(50) Function of  $Aff^{\theta}$ :


a. Denotation: [[ $Aff^{\theta}$ ]] =  $\lambda x \lambda e$ . x is an affectee in e

b. Predicate abstraction:



c. Variable identification:  $f(Aff^0)$      $g(VP) \implies h(Aff')$   
 $\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$      $\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$      $\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$

Variable identification (Hole 2005)

f	g	$\implies$	h
$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$	$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$		$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$
(denotation and semantic type of the affectee voice head $Aff^0$ )	(denotation and semantic type of VP after predicate abstraction)	(variable identification)	(denotation and semantic type of $Aff'$ )

**4.1.4 Analysis of the second type of *khi1*: *khi1* is an affectee voice head**

As previously mentioned in section 2.1, *khi1* in (10-12), repeated in (51-53) and (14), repeated in (54) denotes that the structural subjects are affectees in events.

(51) I khi puat to a 他(\*故意)/(不小心)去跌倒阿

he khi fall down

‘He (the affectee) fell down’

(52) a. I (\*tiau kong)/(bo se li) khi long tloh tshia

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi hit car

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) hit the car’

他(\*故意)/(不小心)去撞到車

b. I (\*tiau kong) /(bo se li) khi tsiah tloh phainn khi a mih

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi eat stinky food

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) ate stinky food’

他(\*故意) /(不小心)去吃到壞去 a 食物

c. I (\*tiau kong) /(bo se li) khi be tloh phua san

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi buy ragged clothes

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) bought ragged clothes’

他(\*故意) /(不小心)去買到破衣

d. I (\*tiau kong) /(bo se li) khi siam tloh io

he (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) khi twist waist

‘He (\*intentionlly)/(unintentionally) twisted his waist’

他(\*故意) /(不小心)去閃到腰

e. I khi siu tloh siong hai 他去受到傷害

he khi suffer hurt

‘He was hurt’

f. I khi liang tloh bat to 他去冷到肚子

he khi cold belly

‘He had a cold because his belly was exposed’

(53) a. I sih tshiu khi phah si A-Ming 他失手去打死阿明

he unintentionally khi beat dead A-Ming

‘He unintentionally beat A-Ming dead’

b. I (bo se li) khi long si jong 他(不小心)去撞死人

he unintentionally khi hit dead someone

‘He unintentionally hit someone dead’

c. I (bo se li) khi ka tng tian suan 他(不小心)去剪斷電線

he unintentionally khi sever electric wire

‘He unintentionally severed the electric wire’

d. I (bo se li) khi tsha to te 他(不小心)去翻倒茶

he unintentionally khi upset tea

‘He unintentionally upset tea’

(54) a. I (bo se li) khi hoo A-Ming tsao khi a

he unintentionally khi hoo A-Ming run away a

‘He (the affectee) had A-Ming running away on him’

他(不小心)去 hoo 阿明跑去阿

b. i (bo se li) khi hoo A-Ming khoan tloh i e pibit

he unintentionally khi hoo A-Ming see his secret

‘He (the affectee) had A-Ming discovering his secret’

他(不小心)去 hoo 阿明看到他 a 秘密

c. I (bo se li) khi hoo tshia lon tloh 他(不小心)去 hoo 車撞到

he unintentionally khi hoo car hit

‘He (the affectee) got hit by a car’

d. Ben khi hoo A-Ming jia liau liau a 飯去 hoo 阿明吃光光阿

rice khi hoo A-Ming eat all

‘All the rice was eaten by A-Ming’

Those characteristics of being affectee arguments, shown by the examples in (51-54)

match up with our discussion in section 4.1.1.3. Extra affectee arguments should have

proto-agent properties and proto-patient properties, and can be subjects, objects or

objects with subject-like properties (nominative arguments).

According to the classification of the syntactic presentation of extra arguments, we categorize extra arguments into three types, shown as follows:

(55) Type A: extra arguments are subjects

a. I khi puat to a 他(\*故意)/(不小心)去跌倒阿

he khi fall down

'He (the affectee) fell down'

b. I khi lon tloh tshia 他去撞到車

he khi hit car

'He (the affectee) hit a car'

c. I khi lon tloh kha 他去撞到腳

he khi hit leg

'He (the affectee) hit his leg'

d. I khi hoo A-Ming tsao khi a 他去 hoo 阿明跑去阿

he khi hoo A-Ming run away a

'He (the affectee) had A-Ming running away on him'

e. i khi hoo A-Ming khoan tloh i e pibit. 他去 hoo 阿明看到他 a 祕密

he khi hoo A-Ming see his secret

'He (the affectee) had A-Ming discovering his secret'



(56) Type B: extra arguments are direct objects via passivization

a. I khi hoo tshia lon tloh (kha) 他去 hoo 車撞到(腳)

he khi hoo car hit (leg)

‘He (the affectee)/his leg got hit by a car’

(57) Type C: extra arguments as objects with subject-like properties (nominative arguments)

a. I e kha khi lon tloh a 他的腳去撞到阿

his leg khi hit

‘His leg (he as the affectee) got hit’

b. I e io khi siam tloh a 他的腰去閃到阿

his waist khi twist

‘His waist (he as the affectee) got twisted’

The affectee arguments in (55a) and (55b) do not correspond to argument positions characterized by the verbs. Their thematic roles are not introduced by the verb, but they follow syntactic functions, assumed by the more deeply embedded arguments.

Following Hole’s adopting Kratzer’s (1996) framework of the agentive voice head by event identification, we can define the subject as the extra affectee argument,

introduced by an affectee voice head through event identification to express the relation between the extra argument (the affectee) and the event referring to a causal affectee. Therefore, we can take the denotation of  $[[khiI]]$  as that of  $[[Aff^0]]$ .

$[[khiI]] = [[Aff^0]] = \lambda x. \lambda e. x$  is an affectee in  $e$

Event identification (Kratzer 1996:122)

f	g	==>	h
$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$	$\langle s, t \rangle$		$\langle e, \langle s, t \rangle \rangle$
(denotation and semantic type of the agentive voice head <sup>6</sup> $Aff^0$ )	(denotation and semantic type of VP)	(event identification)	(denotation and semantic type of voice')



The denotation of (55a) is:

$[[I\ khi\ puat\ to\ (他去跌倒)]]$

$= [[khiI]] ([[puat\ to]]) ([[I]])$

$= [\lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ is an affectee in } e] (\lambda e. \text{fall down}(e)) (\text{he})$

$= [\lambda x. \lambda e. \text{fall down}(e) \ \& \ \text{affectee}(x)(e)] (\text{he})$

$= 1$  iff there is an event of falling down, and he was the affectee in the event

<sup>6</sup> The agentive voice head here is replaced by  $Aff^0$ .

The denotation of (55b) is:

[[I khi lon tloh tshia(他去撞車)]]

= [[*khi*]] ([[lon tloh tshia]]) ([[ I ]])

=  $[\lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ is an affectee in } e](\lambda e. \text{hit a car}(e))(\text{he})$

=  $[\lambda x. \lambda e. \text{hit a car}(e) \ \& \ \text{affectee}(x)(e)] (\text{he})$

= 1 iff there is an event of hitting a car, and he was the affectee in the event

In (55c-d), (56) and (57a-b), the assigned thematic relations of the extra arguments are

dependent upon the events of the sentences where they occur. That is, the extra

arguments (the subjects, direct objects via passivization or nominative arguments) are

the affectees in the events, but not the possessors, which have a presupposed

possession relation between the extra arguments and the referent of the more deeply

embedded argument. To ensure the affectee referent is identical to the possessor

referent of the more deeply embedded argument, we adopt Hole's (2005) framework

but not Krater's (1996) framework only for extra arguments. Predicate abstraction is

used to assign function  $g$  mapping the index 5 to the extra arguments. Then, through

the combination of the VP denotation after predicate abstraction and the affectee voice

head *khi*, the variable is identified, and the relationship between the extra argument,

the event and the more deeply embedded argument is characterized.

Variable identification (Hole 2005)

f	g	==>	h
<e,<s,t>>	<e,<s,t>>		<e,<s,t>>
(denotation and semantic type of the affectee voice head $Aff^{(0)}$ )	(denotation and semantic type of VP after predicate abstraction)	(variable identification)	(denotation and semantic type of Aff')

The denotation of (55c) is:

[[I khi lon tloh kha(他去撞脚)]]  
 = [[*khi*]]([[lon tloh g(5)'s kha]]([[I ]])  
 = [[*khi*]]([[lon tloh kha]<sup>[5→x]</sup>)]([[I ]])  
 = [ $\lambda x. \lambda e. x$  is an affectee in  $e$ ]( $\lambda e. \text{hit } x$ 's leg( $e$ ))(he)  
 = [ $\lambda x. \lambda e. \text{hit } x$ 's leg( $e$ ) & affectee( $x$ )( $e$ )] (he)  
 = 1 iff there is an event of hitting his leg and he was the affectee in the event

The denotation of (55d) is:

[[I khi hoo A-Ming tsao khi a (他去 hoo 阿明跑去阿)]]  
 = [[*khi*]]([[g(5) hoo A-Ming tsao khi a]]([[I ]])

=  $[[khiI]]([[hoo \text{ A-Ming tsao khi a}]^{[5 \rightarrow x]})([[I]]])$   
 =  $[\lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ is an affectee in } e](\lambda e. x \text{ had the thief running away on him}(e))(he)$   
 =  $[\lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ had A-Ming running away on him}(e) \ \& \ \text{affectee}(x)(e)] (he)$   
 = 1 iff there is an event that he had A-Ming running away on him and he was the  
 affectee in the event

The denotation of (56a) is:

$[[I \text{ khi hoo tshia lon tloh (kha)} (\text{他去 hoo 車撞到(腳)})]]$   
 =  $[[khiI]]([[hoo \text{ tshia lon tloh g(5) (kha)}])]( [[I]] )$   
 =  $[[khiI]]([[hoo \text{ tshia lon tloh (kha)}]^{[5 \rightarrow x]})( [[I]] )$   
 =  $[\lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ is an affectee in } e](\lambda e. x \text{ (x's leg) was hit by the car}(e))(he)$   
 =  $[\lambda x. \lambda e. x \text{ (x's leg) was hit by the car}(e) \ \& \ \text{affectee}(x)(e)] (he)$   
 = 1 iff there is an event that he (his leg) got hit by the car and he was the affectee in  
 the event

The denotation of (57a) is:

$[[I \text{ e kha khi lon tloh a} (\text{他 a 腳去撞到阿})]]$   
 =  $[[I \text{ khi lon tloh kha} (\text{他去撞到腳})]]$   
 = the denotation of (55b)

=1 iff there is an event of hitting his leg and he was the affectee in the event

## 4.2 The use of *khi2*

### 4.2.1 Preliminaries

We are going to introduce Liang's (2007) interpretations about the evolvements of Chinese post-verb *qu* and Lin's (2004) "perfective states" in Mandarin verbal system.

We will apply the two's views to analyze *khi2* in order to present the syntactic changes of sentences where *khi2* occurs and take *khi2* as a perfective marker to bring about a resultant state.



#### 4.2.1.1 The evolvement and generation of Chinese *Qu*

According to Liang (2007), the generation of the directional complement constructions started in mid-ancient times (from Six Dynasties to Tang Dynasty).

They evolved and grammaticalized from the directional serial verb constructions in ancient Chinese.

During the Chin and Han Dynasties, *qu* in the V + Qu + LP (locational phrase) construction like (58-b) was still treated as the main verb.

(58) a. Tao qu san zhong. 逃去山中

escape go mountains

‘escape and go to the mountains’

b. Chu qu qi she. 出去其舍

out leave the house

‘go out and leave the house’

The word *er* ‘then’ could be inserted between the verb preceding *qu* and *qu*, shown as

(59), so that the entire construction would be viewed as directional serial verb

constructions.



(59) a. Tao er qu san zhong. 逃而去山中

escape then go mountains

‘escape and go to the mountains’

b. Chu er qu qi she. 出而去其舍

out then leave the house

‘go out and leave the house’

In (58) or (59), *qu* denotes the final point of movement or the starting point of departure.

As time went on, the V + Qu + LP (locational phrase) construction became the V + LP + Qu construction during the Six Dynasties. The new construction could not be considered the directional complement construction, however, because the word *er* ‘then’ can be placed between the verb preceding *qu* and *qu*. The locational phrases in (60) refer to the final points of the movements, namely the agent’s destination. *Qu* was thought to be losing its structural independence, so it was combined with the verb and the locational phrase to represent a complete action. This made *qu* gradually evolve into a directional complement.



(60) a. Yi            ha chu            qu. 移他處去

Move   other place            to

‘move to other places’

b. Hai    jia            qu. 還家去

go    home    to

‘go home’



Moreover, Liang also mentions the evolvement of the directional complement constructions. During the Six Dynasties, if the object occurred as a patient, it was only placed between two verbs, but never after them, as in the NP1 + Vt (transitive verbs) + NP2 + Qu/Lai (verb) construction. However, in some contexts, the object can be placed before the agent as the topic, like the NP2 (topic) + NP1 + Vt + Qu/Lai construction in (61). When we observe the sentence excluding the topic, *qu/lai* can still represent the agent's movement and *zei tou chi qu/賊頭持去* 'the thief held and left' can be interpreted as *zei tou chi er qu/賊頭而持去* 'the thief held and then left'. However, when the entire sentence is taken into consideration, *she zhong cai wu/舍中財物* 'the properties in the house' in (61) is the main element we want to describe, and the rest of the sentence is the statement for the topic. The main function of *qu* converts from describing the agent's actions to denoting the directional movement of the topic, so *chi qu/持去* 'hold and leave' combines as a syntactic element. Thus, in these times, the directional complement constructions formed because *qu* was grammaticalized and did not denote the agent's action. *Qu* in (61) cannot share the same subject with the verb *chi/持* 'hold.'



(61) She zhong cai wu, zei tou chi qu. 舍中財物，賊頭持去  
house in properties thief hold away

‘The properties in the house were taken away by the thief.’

Liang (2007) discovered that the use of the T (topic) + S + Vt + Lai/Qu construction during the Han Dynasty was driven by pragmatics and linguistic analogy. The directional verbs in the primitive form are transitive directional verbs, such as *chu* ‘out’ in (62a), which form serial verb constructions with their preceding verbs. The underlying objects are moved to the topic position, and *zhi/之* ‘treated as pronouns’ fills the object position, as shown in (62a). The square brackets represent the subject position. The object is raised as the topic in the transitive serial verb construction.

This kind of construction is further analogized: intransitive verbs *lai/qu* can be used in the same way as (62b), and the verb preceding *qu* and *qu* mainly refers to the topic.

This form occurred frequently during the Tang Dynasty, so *lai/qu* became a typical directional complement.

(62) a. Pu ren ye [ ] zhu chu zhi. 普人也[ ] 逐出之

common people also expel out pronoun

‘Common people are also expelled out.’

b. E zhe [ ] ze chi qu. 惡者[ ] 輒斥去

evil people then repel away

‘Evil people are repelled away then.’

It was further advanced, and became a passive form with the subject denoted by the passive marker, *bei* ‘by’, represented in (63a-b), in which the verb preceding *qu* and *qu* form the directional complement construction in a kind of V-C compound.

(63) a. Pi dai bei                      zei      dao      qu.      皮袋被賊盜去

bag    passive marker    thief    steal    away

‘The bag was stolen away by the thief.’

b. Bubu    qu xiang    sheng deng    qian,    hu ran      ben

step    go to      holy    lantern front    suddenly    passive marker

步步趨向聖燈前，忽然被

hu      jie      qu.

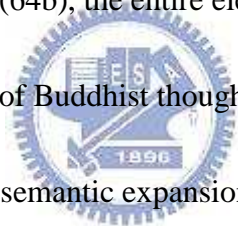
tiger    get    away

虎拽去

‘Go to the front of the holy lantern step by step, and suddenly the holy

lantern was taken away by the tiger.’

According to Liang (2007), *qu* finally represented a phase complement, behind the main verb, expressing that the acts or states are accomplished. At first, *qu* with its original meaning ‘leave,’ and its preceding verb formed serial verb constructions to denote actual or concrete movement from one place to another. Gradually, *qu* was semantically extended to express the meaning ‘after/and then’ in the V + Qu + VP construction. Then, the combination of V and Qu was advanced to denote the accomplishment of acts, as in (64a), where *lao qu* ‘get old’ and time adverbs are used to express the state of getting old year by year. Without the time adverbs to describe *fo fa* ‘the thoughts of Buddhism’ in (64b), the entire element of the noun phrase, has gone, representing the final state of Buddhist thoughts. However, the change of the construction is not caused by the semantic expansion of the verb, but by the syntactic shift of the object moving to the topic position. *Qu* was originally an intransitive verb. After *qu* combines with the main verb, they become the V + Qu construction, where the object cannot be followed by them. Therefore, it is uncommon to see the V + Qu + O (object) form.



- (64) a. Yi nian yi nian lao qu. 一年一年老去  
 one year one year old get  
 ‘getting old year by year’

b. Yi, fo fa yi hou dan bo qu ye!

Ah, the Buddhist thoughts later weaken get

‘Ah! The Buddhist thoughts will be gone later!’ 噫，佛法已後澹薄去也！

#### 4.2.1.2 Perfective states in Mandarin verbal system

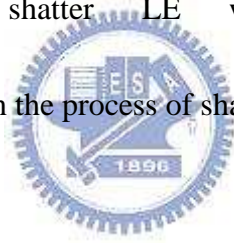
Lin (2004) mentions certain features of the Chinese verbal system, one of which is the presence or absence of the particle *le* that exhibits a state/change of state contrast, suggesting that inchoativity must be contributed by *le*. Like many Chinese linguists, he takes *le* (verbal *le*) as a perfective marker for ‘perfective states.’ At first, he argues over the organization of the Mandarin verbal system. He shows that Mandarin primitive verb types are activity and state verbs, and state verbs become achievement verbs with the addition of *le*. Further, he provides the progressive and the “stop” test to prove verbal *le* that coverts states into achievements. The two diagnostics are summarized below:

(65)	compatible with progressive?	complement of <i>stop</i>
state	no	no
activity	yes	ok
accomplishment	yes	ok
achievement	maybe ( <sup>ok</sup> is winning, *is noticing)	bad

When they are applied to Mandarin sentences, all change of state predicates in Chinese seem to be incompatible with the progressive and the complement of *stop*, shown as (66) and (67).

(66) a. \*Lisi      zheng zai      pang      le      liang      gong jing  
Lisi      in process of      fat      LE      two      kilograms  
intended: 'Lisi is in the process of gaining two kilograms.'

b. \*bo li      zheng zai      sui      le      man      di  
glass      in process of      shatter      LE      whole floor  
intended: 'The glass is in the process of shattering all over the floor.'



(67) a. \*Lisi      ting zhi      pang      le      liang      gong jing  
Lisi      stop      fat      LE      two      kilograms  
intended: 'Lisi stopped gaining two kilograms.'

b. \*bo li      ting zhi      sui      le      man      di  
glass      stop      shatter      LE      whole floor  
intended: 'The glass stopped shattering all over the floor.'

Therefore, he concludes that the events *Lisi pang le liang gong jing*/李四胖了兩公斤 and *bo li sui le man di*/玻璃碎了滿地 are achievements. Change of state predicates, stemming from underlying stative verbs in Chinese, denote achievements.

Although the evidence shows that a stative verb turns into an achievement with the addition of verbal *le*, a question still exists concerning the inchoative *le* and the perfective *le*, and whether they share a phonological matrix. Inchoativity is concerned with situational (lexical) aspect, whereas perfectivity is concerned with viewpoint aspect. He mentions that it has been noted by Chung and Timberlake (1985:217) and Comrie (1976:19) that, cross-linguistically, the same form used to mark the perfective aspect is often used to signal the inception of a new state with stative verbs. He shows examples in Russian and French (Lin, 2004:83-84) to indicate that it is no coincidence that the same form used to mark perfectivity is also used to signal inchoativity with stative verbs cross-linguistically. An ideal analysis should explain how the combination of the perfective aspect with a stative verb gives rise to a change of state reading cross-linguistically.

Therefore, Lin assumes Klein's (1994) model of aspect as logical relationships between the interval of time during which an event takes place (TSit, the situation time) and the time interval about which a sentence makes an assertion (TT, topic time).

The perfective can be defined as  $TSit \subset TT$ . Then, he adopts Dowty's definition of states:

(68) If  $\alpha$  is a stative predicate, then  $\alpha(x)$  is true at all moments within  $I$ . (Dowty, 1979:166)

Based on these assumptions, a perfective state is to be interpreted in the following diagram, demonstrating that situation time must be contained in topic time with the perfective aspect. In other words, an internal exists near the beginning of the TT and near the end of the TT, where the state does not hold:



(69)



However, not all languages behave in this manner, when we look at French examples:

(70) a. Hier, Anne fut triste  
 yesterday Anne be-PAST-PERF sad  
 'Anne became sad yesterday.'

b. Hier, Jeanne sut la reponse  
 yesterday Jeanne be-PAST-PERT the answer  
 'Jean came to know the answer yesterday.'



He mentions that French native speakers cannot get the meaning of Anne getting over the sad feeling sometime later in (70a). It is also impossible to interpret (70b).

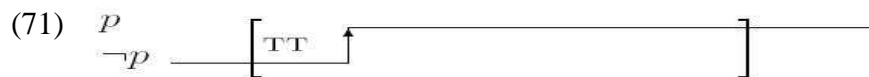
Because of the problems derived from the diagram in (69), Lin proposes that

“perfective states” center on the presence of a covert inchoative verbalizing head  $V_{\delta}$ ,

which gives rise to the change of state reading, shown in the following time-course

(TSit  $\subset$  TT)<sup>7</sup> diagram that captures the interpretation of a stative verb viewed

perfectively:



Once a state is converted into a change of state by  $V_{\delta}$ , the perfective marker *le* can apply to the resulting state when it combines with stative verbs. Whether the transition of a change of state is punctual or gradual is irrelevant if the transition is contained within the TT. Therefore, sentences such as (72) can be explained well.

(72) ta gao le san gung fen

he tall LE three centimeter

‘He grew three centimeters.’

<sup>7</sup> The situation time refers to the transition from  $\neg p$  to  $p$ .

#### 4.2.2 The use of *khi2* in the NP+V+Khi2 construction and in the *hoo*

##### constructions

According to Liang (2007), we know that the subject/topic in a construction with *qu* has been changed from an animate creature to an inanimate noun phrase. The construction with *qu* alters from active to passive, and the verbs placed with *qu* in the construction evolve from intransitive verbs to transitive verbs. Additionally, the function of Chinese *qu* develops from being a lexical verb with a lexical meaning to being a phase complement, expressing that the acts or states have been accomplished. Further, the passive marker is added and the object is raised to the subject position to form passive constructions, such as (63a), repeated in (73).



(73) Pi dai bei                      zei      dao      qu.      皮袋被賊盜去

bag    passive marker    thief    steal    away

‘The bag was stolen away by the thief.’

Because of the evolution of Chinese *qu*, it is reasonable to assert why NPs in the NP+V+Khi2 constructions, such as (15d-e) and (16), repeated in (74) and (75) respectively, cause events to happen autonomously. The obvious change in the type of NPs is the transition from animate NPs to inanimate NPs in the NP+V+Khi2

construction. V+Khi2 becomes a syntactic constituent, and *khi2* in the NP+V+Khi2

construction is used as an intransitive verb.

(74) a A-Ming tsau khi a 阿明跑去阿

A-Ming run khi

‘A-Ming ran away unexpectedly’

b. tsiau a pue khi a 鳥阿飛去阿

bird fly khi

‘The bird flew away unexpectedly’

(75) a. kau a si khi a 狗阿死去阿

dog die khi

‘The dog died unexpectedly’

b. tsun tim khi a 船沉去阿

ship sink khi

‘The ship sunk unexpectedly’

c. san la sap khi a 衫la髒去阿

clothes dirty khi

‘The clothes became dirty unexpectedly’



d. toh po tam khi a 抹布溼去阿

cloth wet khi

‘The cloth became wet unexpectedly’

e. i a phainn khi a 椅阿壞去阿

chair ruin khi

‘The chair broke unexpectedly’

f. san phua khi a 衫破去阿

clothes rag khi

‘The clothes become ragged unexpectedly’

g. soh a ton khi a 繩子斷去阿

rope become two pieces khi

‘The rope become two pieces unexpectedly’

h. moo a poo a mng khui khi a, hai i kiann tsit le

tomb’s door open khi make he scare

‘The door of the tomb opened unexpectedly, and he was scared’

墓阿埔的門開去阿，害他嚇一下

i. moo a poo a mng kuainn khi a, hai i shut bue khi

tomb’s door close khi make him out not go

‘The door of the tomb closed unexpectedly and he could not go outside’

墓阿埔的門關去阿，害他出不去

j. A-Ming khuan khi a 阿明暈去阿

A-Ming sleep khi

‘A-Ming fell asleep unexpectedly’

Sentences such as (20g-j), repeated in (76) are passive, and need an agent to do the action and a theme/patient to be done by an agent. The verbs are transitive verbs, showing the further/present change of the construction with *qu/khi2*, mentioned by Liang (2007).



(76) a.kiu hoo A-Ming that khi a 球 hoo 阿明踢去阿

ball hoo A-Ming kick khi

‘The ball was kicked away by A-Ming’

b. pong hoo A-Ming tsiah khi a 飯 hoo 阿明吃去阿

rice hoo A-Ming eat khi

‘The rice was all eaten by A-Ming’

c. lan kheh hoo A-Ming kiu khi a 客戶 hoo 阿明拉去阿

client hoo A-Ming take khi

‘The clients was all taken away by A-Ming’

d. tsheh hoo A-Ming theh khi a 書 hoo 阿明拿去阿

book hoo A-Ming take khi

‘The book was taken away by A-Ming’

Additionally, in unaccusative causatives, such as (19), repeated in (77), where *hoo* and *khi2* co-occur, only unaccusative compound verbs can appear and *khi2* remains its function to bring about a resultant state.

(77) a. i / soh a sang khi hoo A-Ming tsau khi a 他/[繩子鬆去]hoo 阿明跑去阿

he/rope loose hoo A-Ming run khi

‘He/The looseness of the rope made A-Ming run away’

b. i/ tsiu lang a phua khi hoo tsiu a pue khi a 他/[鳥籠破去]hoo 鳥阿飛去阿

he/ bird cage broken hoo bird fly khi

‘He/The broken bird cage made the bird fly away’

c. i/ ioh a khong sio tse hoo kau a si khi a 他/藥放太多 hoo 狗阿死去阿

he/medicine put too much hoo dog die khi

‘He/Putting too much medicine made the dog dead’

d. i/i soh a kiu sio an hoo soh a ton khi a

he/rope lug too tight hoo rope become two pieces khi

‘He/His lugging the rope too tightly made the rope become two pieces’

他/他繩子拉太緊 hoo 繩子斷去阿

Regardless of whether *khi2* occurs in sentences with *hoo*, *khi2* does not change its function. *Khi2* is a perfective marker and denotes the resultant state after a change of state. This matches up with Liang’s (2007) observation that the meaning of Chinese *qu* derives from its lexical meaning to a phase complement, expressing the acts or states, which have been accomplished. *Khi2* is like a perfective morpheme with clear lexical content.



We go back to the basic function of *khi2* when we derive the NP+V+*Khi2* construction. The types of the verbs, acceptable in the construction, can be classified into verbs denoting that a change of state occurs. Though some verbs are originally activity verbs, their lexical meanings have not become the focus, because they are placed before *khi2*. Instead, they become the verb+*khi2* constituents that denote the disappearance of something by way of running or flying, etc. Stative verbs, which occur with *khi2*, do not simply imply the state of something but denote a change of state. Furthermore, the combination of V+*Khi2* becomes an achievement verb. *Khi2* is like a Chinese stative predicate with *le* (Lin, 2004). The combination of V+*Khi2* does

not pass the progressive test, nor can it be the complement of *ting zhi/停止* ‘stop.’

(78) a. \* A-Ming ti tsau khi a \*阿明在跑去阿

A-Ming progressive marker run khi

‘A-Ming is doing the action ‘running away’

b. \* i a thing tsi phainn khi a \*椅阿停止壞去阿

chair stop broken

‘The chair stopped broken’



The phenomenon is like Chinese ‘perfective states,’ in which *le* not only exhibits perfectivity, but also inchoativity. The details can be observed in (79) and (80). The diagram in (69) can explain (79a) and (80a), but (79b) and (80b), in which *khi2* not only is a perfective marker but signals inchoativity, can be difficult to interpret. Lin (2004) refers to his own analysis and provides the diagram in (71). We can use this to explain (79b) and (80b). The transition of the change of state being punctual or gradual is not important, so long as the transition is contained within the topic time. *Khi2* as a lexical perfective marker functions like *le* when *le* occurs with stative predicates, signaling the inchoative sense of a change of state. We can then know that *khi2* refers to the resultant state of something, which would continue or stop after a



change of state, as shown in (79) and (80)<sup>8</sup>.

(79) a. A-Ming tah kua tsau khi a, na ko tshut hian a?

A-Ming just run khi why appear

‘A-Ming just ran away, how come he appeared?’

阿明剛剛跑去阿，怎又出現了？

b. A-Ming tah kua tsau khi a, bo ko ton lai kue

A-Ming just run khi no again come back

‘A-Ming just ran away, and never came back’

阿明剛剛跑去阿，沒再回來過

(80) a. i a tah kua phainn khi a, tsi ma sui li honn a

chair just ruin khi now fix good

‘The chair was finally broken then, but it is fixed now’

椅阿剛剛壞去阿，現在修理好了

b. i a tah kua phainn khi a, bo lan lai siu li

chair just ruin khi no one come fix

‘The chair was finally broken then, but no one fixed it’

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<sup>8</sup> We think activity verbs and stative verbs can occur with *khi2*. When activity verbs combine with *khi2*, they imply the resultant state of disappearance by a transfer of possession or by manner of verbs. When stative verbs combine with *khi2*, they imply a change of state and a resultant state arises. We unite the two diverse meanings and view *khi2* as a perfective marker to bring about a resultant state in sentences with activity verbs and stative verbs. Some suggest that *khi2* is not a typical perfective marker and that the use of the activity verb and *khi2* combination should be analyzed in different ways to emphasize the resultant state of disappearance. It needs further studying.

椅阿剛剛壞去阿，沒人來修理

Also, the additional semantic interpretation of *khi2* has already mentioned in section

2.2.1. We repeat the conclusion here:

The semantic denotation of *khi2*

For any  $w$ ,  $[[khi2(\phi)]]^w = \lambda p \in D \langle s, t \rangle. \lambda x. [\text{for all worlds } w' \text{ incompatible with what } x \text{ expects in } w: p(w')=1]$ , where  $x$  is the speaker or the subject.

### 4.3 Summary



*Khi1* has two syntactic and semantic functions. Though the two types of *khi1* can occur in the *hoo* sentences, *khi1* functions in the same way. One *khi1* is a purpose marker, placed in the position of a root modal. The verb phrases, which can follow this *khi1* are activity verbs, the combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements (excluding *tioh/到*) and causative or get-passive *hoo*. The other form of *khi1* is an affectee voice head denoting that the structural subject in the sentence is an extra affectee argument, which has a thematic relation with the event where it occurs. It is available in the sentences with achievement verb phrases, the verb phrase combinations of activity verbs and resultant complements or passive *hoo* constructions. It implies that the outcome of the event is unfavorable for the structural

subject, so the structural subject is an affectee participant in the event.

No matter the constructions that *khi2* occurs in, the function of *khi2* is not influenced with changes of constructions or syntactic structures. *Khi2* is a lexical perfective marker, meanwhile, signaling inchoativity and perfectivity to denote the resultant state after a change of state.



## Chapter 5

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### Conclusion

In this thesis, we have discussed the meaning and syntactic position of *khi1* and *khi2*, and how they function in different constructions. The semantic interpretation of *khi1* has changed from its lexical meaning in regular active sentences to having different semantic functions when it occurs in different constructions. Besides, its syntactic interpretation also alters from being a verb to the position higher than verbs. It becomes a root modal or an affectee voice head. On the other hand, the semantic interpretation of *khi2* has changed from its lexical meaning in regular active sentences to denoting a resultant state after a change of state no matter what constructions it occurs in, and its syntactic interpretation also alters from being a verb to being a perfective marker following a verb.



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