MEMBERS OF THE LSHK ARE HEREBY INVITED TO ATTEND THE AGM FOR THE YEAR 2003, TO BE HELD AT 12:00 NOON, 6 DECEMBER 2003 (SATURDAY) AT THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY N001 (DURING THE 2003 LSHK ANNUAL RESEARCH FORUM).

AGENDA

1. To confirm the minutes of the last AGM
2. To receive the President’s Report
3. To receive the Treasurer’s Report
4. To elect Executive Committee Members
5. To amend the constitution
6. A.O.B.

Sze-Wing Tang
President, LSHK

3 November 2003

EDITORIAL NOTE

The 2003 LSHK Annual Research Forum will be held at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, December 6-7, 2003. The preparation is well underway, and the program and other details of the ARF will be available at our website @ <http://www.lshk.org> and <http://www.cbs.polyu.edu.hk/tang/ARF2003.html>. Do remember to check it out.

The ARF has always been the most exciting event of the Society. This year’s ARF will feature a special workshop on “Romanization and Transcription” to mark the 10th anniversary of the LSHK Cantonese Romanization Scheme (aka Jyutping). Moreover, we are very much honored to have Prof. Douglas Pulleyblank of UBC as our keynote speaker. Hope all can come and join the excitement!

We include in this special year-end issue all the 54 abstracts for ARF, which are alphabetically ordered according to the surname of the (first) author.
Linguistic Society of Hong Kong
Annual Research Forum 2003

December 6-7, 2003
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

- Registration
- Opening Remarks and Presentation of Outstanding Thesis Awards
- Keynote Speech: “Shrinking Universal Grammar: The Emergence of Features and Constraints”, by Professor Douglas Pulleyblank, University of British Columbia
- Reports by Outstanding Thesis Awardees
- Papers for Parallel Sessions

- Please visit the LSHK Homepage at <http://www.lshk.org> for the Program.
- The Registration Counter is located at N001.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Au-Yeung, Ben</td>
<td>Ordinal-Cardinal View: From Natural Numbers to Classifiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Bauer, Robert S.</td>
<td>Robert Morrison's Cantonese Romanization of 1828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Bodomo, Adams &amp; Vincie Ho</td>
<td>Linguistic Tones and melodic tunes in Cantonese popular music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Bruche-Schulz, Gisela</td>
<td>In search of a methodology An attempt at a descriptive account of reader response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Caboara, Marco</td>
<td>Unmarked Passive in Ancient Chinese: a typological approach to patient-subject sentences in Mengzi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>Chan, Sheun-ti Roy</td>
<td>On Aspectuality and Cantonese gwai2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Chan, Tsz-Yan Stephanie, Carmen Sze-Chi Kan, Gu Yang</td>
<td>An Investigation into the Sentence Final Particle sai in Jingpo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>Chan, Yin Mui</td>
<td>Young ESL learners' control of Subject-verb Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Chen, Charles C., Jr. &amp; Ching-Pong Au</td>
<td>Tone Patterns in Hong Kong Cantonese Speakers’ Second Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>蔣群顯</td>
<td>粵拼的灰色地帶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Chin, Andy C.</td>
<td>Traces of the grammaticalization of the verb BEI 俾 in Cantonese – on the basis of some 19th century Cantonese materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Chiung, Wi-vun Taiffalo</td>
<td>How Efficient is Han Writing? A Comparative Study of Han Characters and Vietnamese Romanization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>周柏勝</td>
<td>香港地區方言語音教學問題</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Cun, Xi</td>
<td>The sound change mechanism of implosives to homorganic nasals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Fu Baoning</td>
<td>Aspiration and Affrication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Gao Hua</td>
<td>“NP+NE” Construction: a construction grammar approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Guest, John</td>
<td>INTEREST as a Motivational Factor for Exaggeration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>He, Yuanjian</td>
<td>Memory vs. Symbol-Processing: A Case of Synthetic Compounding in Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Hu, Jianhua &amp; Shi Dingxu</td>
<td>Deriving Passives in Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Huang, Yueyuan and Yang Suying</td>
<td>Telicity and the L2 ba-construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Jiang, Ping</td>
<td>Tonal Patterns in Three-Tone Systems across Chinese Dialects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Ilani, Noga</td>
<td>Stylistic Choice and Its Contribution to the Teaching of L1 and L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Lai, Tom</td>
<td>Extracting Dependencies from Phrase-Structure Annotations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Lam, S.-C. Olivia</td>
<td>Objects and Expressions of Frequency and Duration in Cantonese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Lau, Chun-fat</td>
<td>Multidimensional phonology of Hong Kong Cantonese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Lee, Hun-tak Thomas, Hua Dongfan</td>
<td>Advanced learners’ understanding of the English Count-mass distinction: the case of HK university students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 52</td>
<td>November 2003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Lee, Sherman</td>
<td>A conversation analytic approach to the examination of Hakka-Cantonese code-switching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Liu, Hong Yong</td>
<td>De in Chinese Relatives and Possessives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Liu, Huijuan</td>
<td>Focus Device and Interpretation Scope of “Cai” and “Jiu” in Mandarin Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Liu, Na &amp; Gu Gang</td>
<td>Null Locative Arguments, Null Expletive and Existential Sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>麗翠</td>
<td>智能粵拼輸入法系統簡介</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Matthews, Stephen, &amp; Huiling Xu</td>
<td>Overt unaccusativity in Chaozhou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Mok Pik Ki Peggy</td>
<td>Vowel-to-vowel Coarticulation in Cantonese and Mandarin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Mok Sui Sang &amp; Lam Foo Sum</td>
<td>The word-order change in Chinese degree modifiers and how Cantonese fits in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Nemtinova, Alena</td>
<td>Chinese Names in Taiwan: Cantonese, Guanhua and Wu Dialect Forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Pan, Haihua</td>
<td>Focus and Dou-quantification in Mandarin Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>潘銘基 葉鳳霞</td>
<td>「許」字的語義引申和語法意義：語言歷史的分析</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Sasaki, Daisuke</td>
<td>Comparing the Lexicon of Sign Languages in East Asia: A Preliminary Study Focusing on the Influence of Japanese Sign Language on Taiwan Sign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>石定栩 胡建華</td>
<td>“了2”的句法和語義地位</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>傅建國</td>
<td>歷史比較法與粵方言音變</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Shin, Mi Kyong</td>
<td>A Comparative Study of Cantonese ge3 and Korean –n geo(t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Sio, Ut Seong Joanna</td>
<td>Two types of possessive constructions in Cantonese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Tai, Chung-Pui</td>
<td>Romanization of the Zhuang Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Tang, Sze-Wing</td>
<td>Ergativization and ‘Passivization’ in Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Tsui, Wai Ming</td>
<td>A bilingual child is able to distinguish two systems of grammar from beginning: Evidence from acoustic study of word-final plosives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>童哲生</td>
<td>學習粵語拼音和語言意識</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Wong, Cathy</td>
<td>An examination of the acoustic correlates in English word stress by Cantonese-speaking ESL learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Wong, Cathy, &amp; Roxana Fung</td>
<td>Weakened Syllables and Stress in Cantonese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Wong, Colleen, &amp; Marian Wu</td>
<td>An examination of the use of verbs in the writing of Hong Kong secondary school students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>王晉光</td>
<td>港臺客家與閩南話相關諺俗語說略</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Wong, Nai-fai</td>
<td>On the modal interpretation of the final particle aa1 maa3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Wu, Jiun-Shiung Hunter &amp; Jenny Yi-chun Kuo</td>
<td>The Semantics of the Durative Marker Zhe and Its Dependency on Context An Segmented Discourse Representation Theory Account</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Zhang, Xiaoheng</td>
<td>AllBalanced: A Promoter of Tri-lingualism and Bi-literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Zhu, Xiaonong</td>
<td>A note on the dialectal boundary between Taizhou and Wuzhou Wu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ORDINAL-CARDINAL VIEW: FROM NATURAL NUMBERS TO CLASSIFIERS
Ben AU-YEUNG (歐陽偉豪)
http://benauyeung.hk.st
Hong Kong University of Science and Technology

This paper aims to use the ordinal-cardinal view of natural numbers to examine what happens to
the mapping of natural numbers to numerals in language, why Cantonese differs from Mandarin in the
use of Adjective-Classifier phrases as predicate, and why within Cantonese, Adjective-Classifier
phrases are ungrammatical when verbal classifiers are involved?

In the tradition of the concept of natural numbers, there are two views of numbers, namely the
ordinal theory and the cardinal theory. In the ordinal theory, natural numbers are viewed as ordinal
numbers, which are arranged as a relational progression. Such a relational view of numbers is
represented by two mathematicians - Richard Dedekind and Guiseppe Peano (Brainerd 1979:45-63).
However, natural numbers are viewed differently in the era of Gottlob Frege and Bertrand Russell.
They viewed natural numbers as a property of a class of elements, which is similar to another class in
that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the elements within each of these classes. In a word,
whenever numbers are used, elements have to be classified first. Hence natural numbers are viewed as
classificatory or cardinal (Brainerd 1979:64-75).

By means of this ordinal (relational) and cardinal (classificatory) views of natural numbers, the
rest of the paper is hoped to illuminate:
1. Why GREAT-adjectives of are used for natural numbers (1-3) but MANY-adjectives for numerals
   in language(4-6), as in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(1) Five is greater than 3.</th>
<th>(4) Five apples is more than three apples.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(2) 五比三大</td>
<td>(5) 五個蘋果比三個多</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 than 3 great ‘5 is greater than 3’</td>
<td>5 CL apples than 3 CL more ‘5 apples is more than 3 apples.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 五大過三</td>
<td>(6) 五個蘋果多過三個</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 greater than 3 ‘5 is greater than 3’</td>
<td>5 CL apples more than 3 CL ‘5 apples is more than 3 apples.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. As language can use BIG-adjectives and MANY-adjectives to compare quantity, why Cantonese
can use classifiers with BIG-adjectives in the comparison (7) but Mandarin cannot (8), as in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cantonese</th>
<th>Mandarin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(7) 呢堆糖好大堆</td>
<td>(8) 這堆糖好大堆</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this CL candy very big-CL</td>
<td>this CL candy very big-CL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘This heap of candies is very big.’</td>
<td>‘This heap of candies is very big.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Within Cantonese, why is there a contrast between nominal classifiers (9) and verbal classifiers (10) in terms of the Adjective-Classifier sequence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominal classifier</th>
<th>Verbal classifier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(9) 呢份試卷好大份</td>
<td>(10) *呢次考試好大次</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this NCL exam-paper very big-NCL</td>
<td>this VCL exam very big-VCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘This exam-paper is very big.’</td>
<td>‘This exam is very big.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Selected references:
歐陽偉豪 2003〈廣州話名量詞動量詞的不對稱句法表現〉《中國語文通訊》香港中文大學吳多泰中國語文研究中心 67:23-29。

**ROBERT MORRISON'S CANTONESE ROMANIZATION OF 1828**

Robert S. Bauer  
Department of Chinese and Bilingual Studies  
Hong Kong Polytechnic University

In 1828 the East India Company's Press published Robert Morrison's *Vocabulary of the Canton Dialect* in Macao; this appears to have been the first English-Cantonese, Cantonese-English dictionary ever published. Even more remarkably in light of the fact that Morrison was not a professional linguist, his dictionary employed a relatively consistent and accurate romanization system to represent the pronunciation of standard Cantonese of the early 19th century (some of his romanized forms can still be found in contemporary dictionaries transcribing the same Cantonese syllables!). Morrison's dictionary thus serves both as an invaluable record and resource for the study of how Cantonese romanization systems have developed over the past 175 years, as well as how Cantonese phonology has developed in this same period of time.

An analysis of Morrison's romanization system indicates that his choice of conventions for representing Cantonese syllables was heavily influenced by English spelling; for example, on the page entitled "Powers of the Letters" that precedes the dictionary proper, he has indicated his spelling conventions: Cantonese [i:] was romanized "as ee in Seen", [nj] "as ei in Height", [ɔːj] "as oy in Boy", etc. Morrison recognized most (but not all) of the phonemic distinctions that still exist today in the conservative form of standard Cantonese phonology. While he made some distinctions in pronunciation that do not occur in the modern language, he also failed to make phonemic contrasts that undoubtedly existed in his day. For instance, although he recognized that the initial stops and affricates were voiceless, he did not mark aspiration but used the same set of symbols "p-, t-, k-, ts-, ch-" to represent both the aspirated and unaspirated series of consonants. Even more curiously, he did not employ any symbols for indicating the different Cantonese tones; since he learned to speak the language fluently, he must have been able to produce and perceive the differences among Cantonese tones. Apparently, the question of how to symbolize the contrastive tone categories was one he was not able to answer. If he were hearing Cantonese through the filter of English, then he may have decided simply to ignore tone since nothing comparable can be found in English.

From an analysis of Morrison's romanization as well as other dictionary sources with Cantonese romanization, it is clear that the standard Cantonese diphthong [ɛː] did not occur in the language of the 19th century but must have developed later and sometime in the early 20th century.
LINGUISTIC TONES AND MELODIC TUNES IN CANTONESE POPULAR MUSIC

Adams BODOMO    Vincie HO
Department of Linguistics, University of Hong Kong

“The lyric sounds strange…” It is not uncommon to hear this judgement among Cantonese native speakers as a general reaction against lyrics bearing lexical tones which conflict with the melody in Cantonese popular songs.

Pitch is one of the common parameters shared by language and music to convey meaning as well as emotions (Houghton 1984, Robinson 1997). In the case of tone languages in particular, variations in pitch levels are used to bring about contrast in word meaning (Yip 2002). One may wonder if there is a close correspondence between linguistic tones and musical tunes, and if not, whether the comprehensibility of the text would be affected.

While there exists a great number of research publications on tone languages and the structure of tones, not much research has been done on whether and how tone and melody correlate in songs. Among the very few studies in this area, evidence is given in Dagaare and Mandarin songs against the assumption that linguistic tones and melody should correspond to preserve intelligibility of the text (Bodomo and Mora 2000, Chan 1987, Ho 1998). On the other hand, there are claims postulating that linguistic tones and musical melody do correlate in songs sung in some Asian languages such as Cantonese, Thai and the Beijing dialect (Yung 1989, Stock 1999, Chan 1987, Ho 1998, Chan and Wee 2000). However, few attempts have been made so far to offer an in-depth analysis on HOW Cantonese tones correlate with the melodic line.

This paper examines a sample of Cantonese songs for the ways in which linguistic tones comply with the melody. Evidence suggests that the mapping between tonal patterns and melodic contour is subjected to a set of constraints at the phonological, syntactic and semantic levels. An assessment is made on the extent to which such constraints hold, the effect on the intelligibility of lyrics when these constraints are violated, and whether the unintelligible sequences of Tone Bearing Units, if any, can be sensibly interpreted when being put in a context. Some Mandarin and Thai popular songs are also investigated to show whether the same findings are reflected in songs written in tonal languages other than Cantonese. This study aims at accounting for the structure of tones and the tone-melody interface which would have important implications for interdisciplinary research in linguistics and musicology.

References:
Bodomo, Adams and Mora, Manolete. 2000. Language and Music in the Dagaare and Twi Folktales of West Africa. CRCG Project notes, University of Hong Kong.
Chan, Lisa and Wee Lian-hee. 2000. When Tones are Sung – A Theory on the Correspondence between Mandarin Tones and Musical Melody. Proceedings of the National Conference for Asian
The main question of this paper is about establishing a method for capturing the process of meaning making by readers. The frame of thought used for the reasoning is the currently prevalent contextual paradigm in text analysis. According to this paradigm, all factors of context should be considered for determining the meaning of a stretch of discourse. (Although it seems to be highly problematic to assume a stable “meaning” for the term meaning, this paper follows current practice in assuming that the term has one and the same “meaning” for each and every student of discourse.)

While in studies on spoken discourse the contextual analysis has the process of joint construction of meaning in focus, in studies on written texts the joint construction which should include the reader as a central player (“constructer”) has not found an adequate equivalent up to today.

For a pilot study (Bruche-Schulz 2003), six informants were given a fund-raising text with an English and a Chinese version (408 words in English, 501 characters). They were asked, “For which words do you find a scenario in your mind?”, and “What comes to your mind?”. Their responses confirmed a differential reaction both towards the particular textual stages of this instance of promotional discourse and the two different languages. Responses were coded based on the categories of embodied meaning described in MacWhinney (1999).

The large question is now how legitimate the particular method of elicitation of data is in regard to the
requirements of the contextual paradigm that data be *genuine* and *natural* (*spontaneous*). This question will be discussed with reference to:

1) the method of spontaneous thought-listing used in marketing research (MacInnis & Price 1987, de Jong & Schellens 2000),
2) the method of carefully formatting speaker responses according to “ethnographic questions” (Spradley 1979).

Thought listing in marketing research meets the “significant challenge” that there is the “presence and [particular] content of imagery” (MacInnis & Price 484). The pilot study on which this paper is based (Bruche-Schulz 2003) confirms that there is imagery and suggests the categories of embodied meaning (MacWhinney 1999) for capturing its content. For the question of how to tap into the presence of reader response (with or without imagery), Spradley’s work is a starting point, but not (yet) promising an analytically satisfying outcome. (Input from colleagues is hoped for.)

**REFERENCES**


**UNMARKED PASSIVE IN ANCIENT CHINESE:**

**A TYPOLOGICAL APPROACH TO PATIENT-SUBJECT SENTENCES IN MENGZI**

Marco Caboara

City University of Hong Kong, CTL Department

This paper comes out of an exhaustive reading of *Mengzi* and is developed out of a term paper for a course in Chinese Syntax at CityU, under Professor Thomas Lee. It discusses 受事主语句 (patient-subject sentences) in Classical Chinese, with special reference to *Mengzi*, drawing comparisons with Mandarin Chinese and trying to put the whole issue of unmarked passive in a wider typological perspective, making use of the notions of event structure, transitivity and transitivity alternations; word order change and fronting; insertion, deletion and context-dependent readings.

My starting point is Derek Hertforth critical review of Pulleyblank’s *Outline of Classical Chinese*
While agreeing with his call for a more sophisticated and typologically inspired analysis of Classical Chinese Syntax (and more specifically of the issue of patients in subject position), I try to develop a less formal treatment which could help coping with the set of examples met in Mengzi’s text. With this aim, I make use mainly of the following references: An Junli 2002 and Yao Zhenwu 1999 on patient-subject sentences in Classical Chinese; Wei Peichuan 1991 on the evolution of passive and Peyraube 1997 on word order change; Teng Shou-hsin 1975 on transitivity relations and Shi Dingxu 1997 on passive in Chinese.

In analysing a sentence like the following: 

**谏行言听**  
Mengzi 8.3 (Admonitions are followed and words of counsel are heard)

we have three different options: 1) we may treat the NP in subject position as a preposed (demoted) object; 2) we may rely on the lexical properties of the verb, treating it not as a passive, but as the intransitive counterpart of the transitive verb, and attributing both the active and the passive meaning to the lexical features of the verb; 3) we may treat the verb as an unmarked passive, and the subject as the patient.

My aim is to show that the third approach, the unmarked passive one, is the more appropriate. To do this, I will first evaluate the other two approaches showing their inadequacies. As for 1), I’ll show that in the absence of explicit morphological markings, we do not have sufficient reasons to treat the preverbal NP as a preposed object; as for 2) I’ll show that such an approach is not able to explain the fact that patient-subject sentences are not limited to a limited set of verbs, but are a regular phenomenon applicable to any verb. Then, through the analysis of a set of examples out of **Mengzi**, I’ll refine my first definition of the unmarked passive reading in terms of context dependency and pragmatics.

References:

An Junli, Shoushi zhuyu zai guhanyu zhong de jieding, *Journal of Huaiyin Teachers College Social Science* 2002 (24.5)


ON ASPECTUALITY AND CANTONESE gwai2
Chan Sheun-ti Roy
Department of Modern Languages and Intercultural Studies, CUHK

In recent descriptive works on Cantonese grammar (e.g. Lee & Chin [1998]), it is believed that the word gwai2 (‘ghost’ or ‘devil’) has three different realizations, each serving a different function. In nominal phrases it can be the modifier or the head with its lexical meaning preserved. In verbal phrases, it intensifies adverbs, aspect markers and quantifier phrases (some say verbal particles, descriptions vary). Since it usually occurs in the middle of disyllabic verbal compounds, it has been called an infix. Depending on speakers' preference, gwai2 can also be substituted with a group of words infamously known as the foul words. In addition, it is claimed to be a negator in sentential level. This talk focuses on the syntax and semantics of gwai2 in verbal phrases. Concerning the productivity of gwai2 in verbal constructions, the existing descriptive works fall short in showing clues for some interesting questions. For example, why can some adverb, aspect markers and quantifier phrases be intensified? Why do these so-called infixes all belong to the noun class? What explains the restricted productivity of gwai2 after all? Previous works tend to cover every construction with gwai2 and the resulting analyses lack focus.

In this talk, I will clarify the many faces of gwai2, and try to focus on the syntax and semantics of just one function of gwai2, namely, its aspectual quality. I argue that previous works blur the characteristics of gwai2 by either selecting inappropriate terminologies or reaching dubious claims from unjustified gradient judgment data. I also argue that the strong correlation between gwai2 and telicity suggests that gwai2 is part of the aspectual system of Cantonese. Instead of claiming that gwai2 is on a par with the class of aspect markers in Cantonese, I will show how formal aspectual studies (e.g. Verkuyl [1993] and Smith [1991]) can help reaching interesting analysis that can explain, for example, why the so-called 'infixes' occurring in aspectual phrases must belong to the noun class. They argue that aspectuality is compositional and parametric, rather than purely lexical. In other words, aspectuality results from the combination of a verb and its nominal complements. Therefore, following their analyses, it is an immediate consequence for these 'infixes' to be nouns. Apart from the semantics of aspectuality, I will also mention the implication of such analysis to modern generative syntactic account.

On the methodological side, I strongly support that (un)grammaticality is gradient, and sensitive data crucial to an analysis must be collected through controlled experiment. Such awareness of research methodology, I believe, can help consolidating the scientific foundation of modern linguistics.

References
AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE SENTENCE FINAL PARTICLE SAI IN JINGPO
Stephanie CHAN Tsz-Yan, Carmen KAN Sze-Chi, GU Yang
Department of Modern Languages & Intercultural Studies
Chinese University of Hong Kong

In this paper we discuss the sentence final morpheme *sai* in one of the Burmese languages, Jingpo. We will begin with a brief introduction of distribution and various grammatical functions of sentence final morphemes in this language. Then we will focus on the aspectual properties of *sai* by comparing and contrasting it with its counterpart *ai*, as exemplified in (1) and (2), highlighting the aspectual demarcation of marking dynamicity and stativity in the language.

(1)  

Shi grai\(^1\) tso\(^0\) ai.  
\[\text{Shi33 grai31 tso231 ai33}\]  
He very tall 3SG(Subj)STA  
‘He is very tall.’

(2) a.  
Shi lai\(^1\)ka hti\(^2\) wa\(^1\) sai.  
\[\text{Shi33 lai31ka hti55 wa31 sai33}\]  
He books read AUX(inchoative) 3SG(Subj)DYN  
‘He started to read books.’

b. Hpongtin do\(^0\) mat\(^1\) sai.  
\[\text{phoN33ti31 mat31 sai33}\]  
Pen break AUX(internal causation) 3SG(Subj)DYN  
‘The pen broke.’

Our investigation shows that *sai* marks dynamicity in the canonical sense, i.e. it occurs in sentences involving various eventive predicates. But our data also show that *sai* occurs in sentences containing stative predicates:

(3)  

Shi Jing hpo\(^0\) chyum\(^2\) lai\(^1\)ka lu\(^1\) sai.  
\[\text{Shi33 Jing31 hpo231 chyum33 lai31ka lu31 sai33}\]  
He Jingpo dictionary have 3SG(Subj)DYN  
‘He has a Jingpo dictionary.’

(4)  

N\(^2\)de\(^2\) a\(^0\) ma\(^1\) gap\(^1\) n\(^2\) nga\(^1\) sai.  
\[\text{n55de55 a31 ma31 gap31 ngu55 nga55 sai33}\]  
This GEN cover NEG exist 3SG(Subj)DYN  
‘The cover of this thing isn’t (here).’

(5)  

Hpot\(^2\)ni\(^2\) go\(^1\) la’ban\(^3\) sha\(^1\)ni\(^2\) bai\(^2\) rai\(^2\) sai.  
\[\text{phot55ni55 go31 la’ban31 sha1ni55 bai55 rai55 sai33}\]  
Tomorrow TOP Sunday again be 3SG(Subj)DYN  
‘As for tomorrow, (it) is Sunday again.’

(6)  

Ndai lam hpe\(^2\) go\(^1\) ga’dai nung\(^1\) chye sai.  
\[\text{n33ta scaff31 lam31 hpe55 go31 ga’dai nung31 chye33 sai33}\]  
This matter AOM TOP who(-Q) also know how 3SG(Subj)DYN  
‘As for this matter, everyone knows (it).’

We argue by resorting to additional evidence how the notion of dynamicity can still be extended to such cases, thereby uncovering the dynamic nature of *sai*.

Issues related to the lexicalization of light verbs and adverbs, as well as the semantic and syntactic properties of ergative predicates of the language will also be addressed in the course of our discussion with a purpose of arriving at a better understanding of constituent structure building of the language.

* All the data are taken from Dai & Xu (1992) A Grammar of Kachin. The Central University for Nationalities Press, Beijing.
YOUNG ESL LEARNERS' CONTROL OF SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT - VERB TYPE, SENTENCE TYPE AND PROXIMITY

CHAN Yin Mui
sammiemal@yahoo.com.hk
City University of Hong Kong

The study aims to investigate the control of subject-verb agreement (SVA) among a group of 27 young ESL children acquiring English as a Second Language (ESL) whose mother tongue is Hong Kong Cantonese. The study examines the effect of verb type, sentence type and proximity on the children's control of SVA. With respect to verb type, factors that were controlled included the auxiliary vs main verb status of *be* and *have*, and the stativity of the verb. In exploring the effect of sentence type on SVA, affirmative, interrogative and negative sentences were included. In testing the factor of proximity, the head noun of the subject NP was separated from the predicate with the insertion of a frequency adverb or by a prepositional adjunct. In the 728 test items employed, the subject NP was predominantly a personal pronoun, and only present tense was used.

Based on statistical analysis, it was found that there was a fairly high positive correlation between the general English proficiency and the total scores in the test. In testing verb type, there was evidence to prove that the subjects could master a verb as an auxiliary better than a main verb if a verb possessed these two distinct functions. Strong evidence was found to verify that the subjects were weakest in producing a correct verb for the third person singular pronouns. The data indicated that they mastered suppletive agreement better than affixal agreement. There were no significant differences between the control of SVA in the stativity of verbs. With respect to sentence type, it was apparently found that the mastery of SVA in interrogative sentences was poorer than the affirmative and negative sentences. The result of proximity items was the poorest group among all the items. The insertion of adverbs was found to affect the subjects' performance negatively. The subjects performed worst in the control of SVA for complex noun phrases with prepositional adjuncts. The complexity of the subject NP definitely affected the control of verb.

In analyzing individual groups of subjects, the result revealed that the subjects with strongest and weakest control of SVA both performed worst in stative verbs in verb type; third person singular pronoun *it* in subject pronouns; interrogative sentences in sentence type; and the complex noun phrase with a singular head noun followed by a plural noun in proximity. In the case of the bilingual child, the result showed that he performed poorest in third person singular pronoun *she* in subject pronouns; affirmative sentences in sentence type; and the complex noun phrase with a plural head noun followed by a singular noun in proximity.

It is recommended that research on another area of verb type such as transitivity and the complexity of subject noun could be useful to explore more on the ESL learners' control of SVA. Furthermore, it will be worth exploring the young ESL learners' control of SVA in subject NP with third personal singular pronoun and plural NP ended with *-s*.
TONE PATTERNS IN HONG KONG CANTONESE SPEAKERS’ SECOND LANGUAGES

Charles C. Chen, Jr. & Ching-Pong Au

charles.chen@student.cityu.edu.hk, bong.au@student.cityu.edu.hk

Department of Chinese, Translation and Linguistics, City University of Hong Kong

Cantonese speakers tend to speak foreign languages with tones similar to their first language. In this study we observe the tone assignment patterns in Cantonese speakers’ second languages. Based on examination of data and review of past studies, we verify some tone assignment regularities found in Cantonese speakers’ second language pronunciations. We suggest that in the interlanguage phonological system of Cantonese speaker, the assignment of tones within a multi-syllabic word tends to follow patterns of /22-55/, /22-55-11/, /55-11/ or their variant forms, based on the position of syllable(s) with /55/ assigned. We started by observing English and Japanese spoken by Cantonese speakers, and these patterns are found consistent, as shown in figure 1. In Japanese there are only ‘high’(H)-‘low’(L) contrast, and Cantonese speakers who learn it as second language produce similar patterns.

Observations

In order to investigate whether these patterns could be found when Cantonese speakers learning non-tonal languages in general, we performed an imitation experiment examining three non-tonal languages, Japanese, Italian and Korean, pronounced by two Hong Kong Cantonese native speakers who have no experience in learning these languages. Data suggest that pitch difference detected between any two neighboring syllables tend to trigger the patterns mentioned above. The patterns can be generalized as in figure 2. The generalization is also applicable to larger syntactic units with constraints.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>lo’cation</td>
<td>’photograph</td>
<td>disser’tation</td>
<td>capital’ization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Japanese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pitch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 (From Chen & Au, submitted)

Results

Tone patterns produced by both subjects are identical in Italian and Japanese data. Subjects generally tend to impose the mentioned tone patterns on neighboring syllables: /22-55/ for ‘low-high’ or /55-11/ for ‘high-low’ assignment. However in the Korean data we found that subject 1 uses /55-55/ more frequently while subject 2 prefers /22-55/ for the same words. Analysis shows that F0 differences between syllables are less obvious in the Korean words we used in the test compare to
Italian and Japanese target words. The syllables they were trying to imitate with small pitch differences could still fall into the patterns we predicted. Many evidences in our data show clearly that this assignment is highly subjective regardless of the subtle pitch difference in the target language. This implies that tone assignment might not be relying solely on pitch height imitations, but also the subjective perception of the native speakers and possibly a preferred pattern in his/her language.

References:
Chen, C. C. & Au, C-P., Submitted. Tone Assignment in Second Language Prosodic Learning
*Phonology*, 9:289-328.

粵拼的灰色地帶（Grey areas of the LSHK Romanization Scheme）
張群顯
香港理工大學 中文及雙語學系

粵拼的灰色地帶：基本訊息相當清晰。然而，方案本身僅一頁內容，所能照顧的範圍有限；在實際使用上，難免觸及一些灰色地帶，端視用者對方案如何闡釋。簡單如 gwu-, kwu- 等拼法是否容許，早在 10 年前為粵拼制作第一個音節表的時候即有過爭論。其他的灰色地帶包括：韻腹與韻尾的組合限制，以及如何處理下列來自音節分析灰色地帶的問題：
- 清化音節
- 複合字調
- 弱讀音節
- 反聲母
- 雙音節壓縮成類單音節
TRACES OF THE GRAMMATICALIZATION OF THE VERB BEI 俾 IN CANTONESE
– ON THE BASIS OF SOME 19TH CENTURY CANTONESE MATERIALS
Andy C. Chin
University of Washington

One of the widely discussed syntactic constructions in Cantonese involving the verb “give” (i.e. bei 俾 in Cantonese) is the double-object or otherwise known dative construction. It is always pointed out that Cantonese has a different word order in terms of the relative positions of the two objects in the said construction when compared with Mandarin. This special phenomenon hence has attracted numerous serious studies under different approaches (e.g. M. Hashimoto, 1976; A. Peyraube, 1981; D. Liu, 2001; S. Tang, 1998, 2003; K. Takashima & A. Yue, 2000). On the other hand, it is noticed that the verb “give” has been undergoing grammaticalization, developing from a full verb to grammatical markers expressing grammatical functions, such as dative, beneficiary, instrumental and passive. This particular linguistic process has been observed cross-linguistically (O. Fagerli, 2001; C. Lord et al, 2002). Cantonese as well as Mandarin and Southern Min are also found to behave in a similar fashion (see J. Newman, 1993 on Mandarin; F. Yap & S. Iwasaki, 2003 on Cantonese; R. Cheng, 1974 and F. Tsao, 1988 on Taiwanese). Many of the above studies however were based mainly on synchronic data (i.e. data on modern dialects) and the traces of the grammaticalization have not been thoroughly carried out so that the development of the said morpheme from a main verb into grammatical morphemes is not clear and well substantiated.

This study therefore attempts to trace the path of the grammaticalization of bei 俾 in Cantonese by re-examining some of the 19th century Cantonese materials compiled mainly by missionaries for the purpose of annotating Chinese classics or teaching Cantonese. In this respect, this study differs from some of the previous studies which focused solely on the question of word order of the two objects. In the present study, I will concentrate more on the usage of the verb bei 俾 and its diachronic development.

It is found that in those 19th century Cantonese materials, the verb bei 俾 had not yet fully developed into a dative marker while in some cases, it could be used as a grammatical morpheme indicating instruments which is preferably rendered by the preposition (or co-verb) yong 用 in modern Cantonese. Furthermore, the passive marker in these old materials was exclusively written with bei 被 but not bei 俾. The use of the former though may not convincingly argue that it was in fact not the latter being intended for, especially in those materials that had no transcriptions at all, the use of two distinctive morphemes, which are now considered to have merged into one single morpheme in modern Cantonese, in the two different syntactic constructions, might not rule out the possibility that by the time of the 19th century, the morpheme bei 俾 had not yet developed into a passive marker.

HOW EFFICIENT IS HAN WRITING? A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF HAN CHARACTERS AND VIETNAMESE ROMANIZATION
Wi-vun Taiffalo Chiung
uibun@yahoo.com
National Cheng-Kung University, Taiwan

The purpose of this study is to compare the efficiency of learning to read and write in Hanji versus learning to read and write in Vietnamese Chu Quoc Ngu (CQN) and Mandarin Bopomo.

Three experiments were conducted in this study. The first experiment focused on a study of
reading comprehension; the second one focused on a study of accuracy of writing dictation; and the last was a study of oral reading. A total of 453 subjects from Taiwan and 350 subjects from Vietnam were involved in the experiments. Subjects consisted of elementary school and college students.

The reading comprehension tests were divided into groups Hanji, Bopomo, and CQN, in which subjects were examined with reading texts in Hanji, Bopomo, and CQN, respectively. The results of the reading comprehension tests reveal no statistically significant difference between Hanji and CQN groups. However, students from the second to fifth grades in the Bopomo group had significantly lower scores than students in the other groups.

In dictation tests, subjects were divided into groups Taiwanese and Vietnamese. Tests in each group were given in soft and hard articles. The statistical results of tests on soft article reveal that students in both Taiwanese and Vietnamese groups significantly increased their score each year until the fourth grade, by which time they had the same statistical score as college students. As for tests on hard article, Taiwanese students spent more years in the acquisition of Hanji, and even the sixth graders’ scores do not statistically reach the same level as college students. However, Vietnamese students had reached a college level at the fifth grade. Errors in the dictation tests were also analyzed, and twelve error types were found in the Taiwanese group. The major errors were made due to similarity in sound between correct and incorrect Han characters. The phonetic similarity errors account for 85.70% in the dictation test two.

In addition to dictation tests, CQN also showed superiority in oral reading tests. The results indicate that CQN beginners are able to produce about 90% accuracy in oral reading after three or four months of learning, and reach nearly 100% accuracy a year later.

In short, these results lead to the conclusion that Vietnamese CQN is more efficient than Chinese characters in learning to read and write.

香港地區方言語音教學問題
周柏勝

從來香港都是以方言------廣州話為教學語言。一直以來，問題不大，可是近年因語言和社會的變化而凸顯出許多問題，錯讀、誤教的情況愈趨嚴重，尤其推行普通話教學後，這種差誤更為明顯。

出現這種情況的原因頗為複雜，有教師本身的知識因素；有課本編書者能力的錯漏問題；有中國文學的承傳關係；有語言文字發展的結果等等因素，都影響到語音教學的問題。

至今為止，和普通話不同的是，粵方言還沒有一套共同公認的標音系統。因此，在教與學都造成許多障礙。原本在一般課本或讀物裡可以標上國際音標，可是香港的老師卻少有這方面的訓練。所以在一般的中小學課本裡，我們常看到在標音時的方法如：「又讀…」、「漢語拼音…」、「反切讀…」、「讀粵音的…」、「粵音的…去聲」，甚至有「與普通話的…同音」。當然也有用國際音標符號來注音，不過這種標音法卻非常少見。

依據上面的情況，我們發現兩個問題：一. 到底我們要用什麼標音的符號 二. 老師如何教
授粵方言讀音。

要解決這個問題，並不容易。要從老師的認知方面著手還是要統一一個公認的粵方言標音系統；或是放棄教粵音的讀法而向普通話靠攏呢。這都是值得我們思考的。

THE SOUND CHANGE MECHANISM OF IMPLOSIVES TO HOMORGANIC NASALS

Cun, Xi

humcunxi@ust.hk

Hong Kong University of Science and Technology

Joseph H. Greenberg (1990), in a typological approach, explored the synchronic variants as well as the diachronic processes in which glottalic consonants participate. He found out one of the developments of implosives is that they will change to homorganic nasals. As Li (1943, 1959) described that the dialect of Po-ai has m, n, and y as reflexes of the proto-Thai injective series, and certain Burmese Shan dialects have m and l as reflexes of ɓ and đ. And in Vietnamese m and n have as one source earlier ɓ and đ. This kind of sound change is quite popular in the Chinese dialects and Tai languages in Yunnan, Guangxi and Guangdong provinces in China, and the nearby Burmese, Siamese, and Vietnamese.

The purpose of this paper is to identify a sound change mechanism from implosives to homorganic nasals, in the experimental phonology approach. Greenberg (1990) said there is an avoidance of sequences that nasal followed by a homorganic injectives, and when there is a nasal before, the injectives will change to noninjectives. This would form the first kind of sound change: 1) ɓ > mb > m, đ > nd > n. Again, it is mentioned by Greenberg that in the Pocomchi dialect of Mayan, injective may have a nasal release producing a unitary complex sound in which the nasal is generally described as not forming a separate syllable. And this may be the initial state of sound change from implosives to nasals in the Southeast Asia. So the second sound change would be: 2) ɓ > ɓm > m, đ > đn > n. The above two possibilities of sound change are manifested by the diachronic methods of internal reconstruction, comparative study and direct historical evidence. But there is a third possibility of sound change that is the change directly from implosives to the homorganic nasals: 3) ɓ > m, đ > n. This change may be caused by the mistake of listeners who take the implosives as the homorganic nasals because of the similar acoustic feature of implosives and nasal ones. An acoustic experiment which would provide evidence for the third sound change would be discussed in this paper. Comparing to the first tow sound change route, the third one is more important, because it is more universal, and can repeat in the history of human language evolution.

Extension discussion about the language contact and sound change dealing with the popular implosives in Southeast Asia will be included, especially the phenomena in the Cantonese dialects in western Guangdong province and eastern Guangxi province.
ASPIRATION AND AFFRICATION
FU Baoning
Lingnan University

This paper investigates a phenomenon in Hong Kong English (HKE) which has so far been unreported, i.e., the confusion of aspiration with affrication in word-final /t/ and /d/. Previous studies do not agree on the exact realization of word-final /t/ and /d/ in HKE. Chang (1975) and Bolton & Kwok (1990) believe that final /t/ and /d/ in HKE are not distinguished from each other in that 1) they are both voiceless and there is no variation of length in the preceding vowel; 2) both can be replaced by glottal stop; 3) both are sometimes deleted. Hung (2000) argues final /t/ and /d/ are distinguished mainly by the non-release of /d/ and aspirated release of /t/. Peng & Setter (2000) demonstrate that final /ts/ and /dz/ are realized as [s] while final /sts/ is realized as [ss]. Chan & Li (2000) find that final /t/ is unreleased while /d/ is devoiced. In short, the following findings have been reported:

/d/ → Ø; /d/ → [ ]; /d/ → [d ]; /t/ → [t ]; /ts/ → [s]; /dz/ → [d ]

Missing from previous findings are the following types of realizations of /t/ and /d/, which will be the focus of the present study:

/t/ → [tʰ] or [ts]; /ts/ → [tʰs]; /dz/ → [d.s]

That is, for some HKE speakers, final /t/ is realized as an affricated stop which is perceptually barely distinguishable from the cluster /ts/. /ts/ is realized as a cluster of an aspirated stop plus a fricative, and /dz/ is realized as a fully released stop plus a fricative. These types of articulations demonstrate that for these HKE speakers, aspiration and affrication are not well distinguished.
References

“NP+NE” Construction: A Construction Grammar Approach
Gao Hua
zhgao@hkusua.hku.hk
Dept. of Linguistics, HKU

Previous research on the structure NP+NE in Mandarin Chinese, such as “qian ne” (“money”+ne), tends to treat it as a special usage of the particle NE, and the controversy is mainly on whether the particle in this structure should be counted as an interrogative particle or not (see e.g. Chao 1968, Zhu 1982, Lu 1984, Liu et al. 2001, Hu 1981, Shao 1989, Chu 1999, Cao 2000, Qi 2002). Different from previous studies which all seem to focus on the particle itself, a Construction Grammar (Goldberg, 1995) analysis to “NP+NE” is proposed in the present study, which argues that the combination of NP and NE has already formed a “NP+NE” construction which has a constructional meaning independent of the two units it contains. In other words, the credit should not go to the particle NE alone.

An examination of the “NP+NE” construction reveals that it has three grammatical meanings. The first is “where is NP” (which is context-free, such as in 1). The second is “how about NP” (which is context-dependent, such as in 2). The third is “as much as NP” (which expresses a subjective emphasis on the quantity/ intensity/ value of NP)” (which is context-free, such as in 3).

1. Ni de gangbi ne
   you DE pen NE
   “Where is your pen?”

2. (Zhe ben shu wubai kuai qian,) na ben zidian ne
   this CL book five hundred CL money that CL dictionary NE
   “(This book costs five hundred bucks,) how about that dictionary?”

3. Wubai kuai qian ne
On the basis of the three types of meanings, we continue to argue that there exist two different but related syntactic constructions in Mandarin, i.e., “NP (Definite)+NE” construction (with the first two meanings) versus “NP (Indefinite)+NE” construction (with the third meaning). Cognitive factors working behind the grammaticalization of these two NP+NE’s are explored, such as “cognitive effort”, “LOCATION as a cognitive primitive” and “POSITIVE values as unmarked in cognition”.

INTEREST AS A MOTIVATIONAL FACTOR FOR EXAGGERATION

John Guest
Department of Linguistics, The University of Hong Kong
jfguest@hkusua.hku.hk

People are inherently attracted to interesting entities, whether they are objects, information, people, stories, noises, thoughts, sights. INTEREST provides stimulus to the brain, increases the awareness of that entity, and generally causes positive feelings in the person. INTEREST causes a focus of attention (Hidi 2001) to that entity or activity and, as long as the INTEREST remains, the brain may continue to pay attention to it.

In conversational exchanges too, we listen and maintain our attention to information and topics that are interesting – we respond, we engage, we find it exciting, fun, pleasurable, tragic, horrible, morbidly fascinating. INTEREST seems to be a strong reason why we contribute to conversation. There seems to be a preference for conversational contributions that are more interesting (Leech 1983). Therefore, to start or continue a conversation, there is normally a need to be interesting.

From the speaker’s point of view, if they want to attract and maintain the attention of a hearer, they first have to arouse the hearer’s interest, and once they have it, they need to maintain it. Therefore, speakers are under constant pressure to ensure what is said is worthy of saying (and hearing) and that it has enough INTEREST to gain and maintain the attention of the hearer. With this kind of pressure, people choose the right subject or topic, structure the delivery, use gestures and expressive phonology, etc. They may also “spice up” stories and statements by using exaggeration and extreme language to attract and maintain the attention of the hearer. Exaggeration can increase the tellability (Sacks 1995) of what is being said, it intensifies the descriptions being made, and it ensures that INTEREST is both created and maintained within conversation, making it worthwhile to listen too.

In this paper I will investigate whether INTEREST is a motivational factor for using exaggeration or extreme language. I will examine how it is being used within conversation to either attract the attention of the speaker, or to maintain it. Initially, I will clarify some definitions of what is meant by the term INTEREST. Then I will look at the views from both inside linguistics, as well as from the psychological aspect. I will then discuss the various aspects of INTEREST and exaggeration by
referring to illustrative examples from collected data in English and Cantonese. With sufficient analysis and supportive data, I hope to obtain a clearer view of how non-literal extreme language and the somewhat neglected aspect of INTEREST are related within ordinary conversation.

MEMORY VS. SYMBOL-PROCESSING: A CASE OF SYNTHETIC COMPOUNDING IN CHINESE
Yuanjian He
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

A paradigm of VOS and OVS synthetic compounds in Chinese is investigated. In VOS compounds, the VO part is either a root word or a VP, depending on whether the V and O are mono- or disyllable stems. The OVS compounds are generated entirely by morphological rules. The findings fall in line with the principle of memory vs. symbol-processing proposed by Pinker (1999) for language processing and provides proof that the principle works more than in inflectional morphology and may indeed be universal.

DERIVING PASSIVES IN CHINESE
Hu Jianhua & Shi Dingxu
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

In this paper we argue that both the so-called long and short passives in Chinese are derived by the same syntactic operation which merges a base-generated subject with a passive predicate, and that both of them derive their passive interpretation from the passive particle beì. We first show that the null operator analysis of long passives, as proposed by Feng (1997), Huang (1999), Ting (1998), and Tang (2001), cannot be entertained since there are sentences which are immune to the null operator structure analysis of any kind, as shown in (1-4).

1. 恰巧孟祥英一不小心，被碾滚子碾坏了笤帚把。(吕叔湘 1999（1965）)
2. 这些国家都先后被美国建立了军事基地。(吕叔湘 1999（1965）)
3. 被他碰上了淑花。(李临定 1986)
4. 在粮食仓库里，被小如针孔的虫口毁掉了多少粮食啊！(张斌 2001)
5. 张三被土匪杀了[ei, 父亲]。
6. 张三说土匪杀了[ei, 父亲]。
7. 张三，土匪杀了[ei, 父亲]。

Another piece of evidence that shows that the operator analysis is unwarranted comes from the fact that the post-beì NP cannot be treated as a clausal subject, as shown by the sentences in (5-7). If the post-bei NP is a subject, the association between 张三 and the possessor position should be blocked in (5), just as is the case in (6-7) where a local subject blocks the dependency relationship between the
possessor and the possessed. However, if bei-NP is analyzed as an adjunct, the grammaticality of (5) and the following sentences can be accounted for.

8. 张三被我/你领回了自己的家。
9. 张三把我领回了自己的家。
10. 张三由我领回了自己的家。

In (8) the intervening first/second person pronoun does not induce the blocking effect, which cannot be accounted for if the bei-NP is a subject since first/second person subject pronouns are always strong blockers (Pan 1997; Hu 2002). In fact the bei-NP in (8) exhibits the same syntactic properties as the prepositional phrase ba-NP or you-NP with respect to reflexive binding, which can be the antecedent of the reflexive because the relevant NP is an agent related to an implicit argument of the passivized predicate, but does not induce the blocking effect because it is contained within an adjunct. Notice that (3) above is also problematic for a recent partitive case analysis of the retained object in passives proposed by Tang (2003), as the retained object is definite.

We then show that the A-movement analysis of short passives is also undesirable as there is no trace position for the subject when the agent is legitimately deleted in (1-4), and that the resumptive pronoun strategy cannot be used in support of the account that long and short passives have different structures since no significant difference in acceptability is recognized in (11-12).

11. ?张三被老王打了他一拳。
12. ?张三被从老王的背后打了他一拳。

Following Shi (1997) we argue that the Chinese passive marker bei is a passive VP particle. The basic idea is that Chinese has not only clause particles, but also VP ones like bei and zai. Following a line of analysis assumed in Pan (1998) we treat bei not as a verb passivizer but as a VP passivizer. Hence, under our analysis, the English passivization is performed by passivizing a V head with a passive suffix whereas the Chinese one is done by passivizing a VP predicate with a passive particle. We claim that the two seemingly different bei's in the so-called long and short passives are in fact the same bei. That is, both are passive particles. In long passives the agent NP is licensed by a zero preposition bei whereas in short passives only the passive particle is available. The preposition bei can be assumed either as being incorporated into the particle bei or as being deleted by a c-command regulated deletion mechanism like the For-For Filter (cf. Shi 1997). If this kind of analysis is on the right track, the structure of the long passive before the deletion or incorporation of the preposition bei can be represented as: [IP NP_j [VP bei [pp bei-NP_i] [VP x_i [V' V (XP) x_j ]]]] (where x_i is an implicit argument and x_j can be either a syntactic gap or a semantic variable interpreted with the pre-bei subject).

It should be pointed out that the VP particle analysis of bei is consistent with the linguistic facts of Chinese. While English uses grammatical morphemes (be it inflectional or derivational) to derive grammatical meanings such as tense, aspect, and passive, Chinese uses grammatical particles to do the same job.
TELICITY AND THE L2 ba-CONSTRUCTION
Huang Yue Yuan and Yang Suying
Hong Kong Baptist University

The ba-construction (NP ba-NP V XP) is a unique Chinese structure. It is a complicated structure because it is subject to two restrictions: the NP following ba must be definite/specific or generic; and the verb should be followed either by the perfective aspect marker le, or by a dynamically construable predicate XP which could be a resultative phrase, or a directional phrase, etc. to indicate the change of state or the change of position. In other words, V + XP should present a telic situation. The association between specificity of the ba NP and telicity of the predicate turns out not to be a Chinese-specific feature, but a very general association noticed by many researchers in the past decade in the discussion of event semantics and event structure (Tenny 1987, 1994, Dowty 1991, Ramchand, 1997, van Hout 2000, Filip 2000). Researchers have tried to define a theory of telicity at the interfaces of lexicon, syntax and semantics.

This paper will first briefly review telicity and the semantics of the direct object. Then we will report our study of the use of the ba-construction by three groups of non-Chinese speakers: English, German and French. We have analyzed two sets of data: production data (essay writing) and test data. Our findings show that the learners are aware of the telicity aspectual constraint on the ba structure, especially in the production data. Among the total of 261 ba sentences in our data, 91.57% contain XP. What we find interesting is: 50.6% of the XPs are directional PPs and only 11.9% are resultative phrases, contrary to our expectation that resultative phrases are the major delimiting complement in the ba-construction. The learners have also shown a clear awareness of the incompatibility of indefinite ba NP with the ba structure. Only 9 sentences (3.5%) inappropriately contain an indefinite ba NP.

The results of our study reflect a natural distinction of telicity-atelicity by learners. This seems to support Bickerton’s bioprogram hypothesis. If telicity-atelicity distinction is truly a part of our bioprogram, our learners have shown that they are helped by UG while acquiring the Chinese ba construction.

TONAL PATTERNS IN THREE-TONE SYSTEMS ACROSS CHINESE DIALECTS
Jiang Ping
Chinese University of Hong Kong

This paper investigates three-tone systems across Chinese dialects, focusing on tonal patterns and their cross-linguistic distributions. Our investigation is conducted through “An Online Bilingual Database of Chinese Dialects” which contains all data extracted from three major journals published in the Mainland China during 1979 to 2002 (Jiang 2001, 2002). There are 75 three-tone dialects in this database. In general, the number of contour tones outranks that of level tones, and the number of
falling contours is slightly higher than that of rising contours. In particular, a dialect may have contour tones, but not necessarily have level tones. In the 75 dialects surveyed, there are 10 dialects containing no level tones (i.e., 6 out of 10 have two falling tones and 4 out of 10 have two rising tones), but no dialect is found having no contour tones. Our findings also show that four types of distributional properties exist in terms of cross-linguistic frequency.

The first type is symmetrical distribution of tonal patterns. Majority of three-tone systems maximally contrasts tonal patterns in that three tones are distributed equally in level, falling and rising patterns. This is parallel to the symmetrical distribution of vowel systems reported in Greenberg (1976), and can be explained by the Principle of Maximal Perception.

The second type is asymmetric distribution of level tones. Among the 75 three-tone systems, 65 have level tones (61 of them have one level tone, and 4 of them have two level tones). Within the 65 dialects that contain level tones, 51 of them have high tone, and 10 of them have mid tone, and no dialect has only low tone. Within the 4 dialects that have two level tones, 3 of them have both high and mid levels, and 1 has high and low levels. No dialect has a combination of mid and low levels. This type of asymmetry can be attributed to the effect of Tonal Sonority Hierarchy proposed by Jiang-King (1996, 1998, 1999).

The third type is register asymmetry among contour tones. Falling contours have a tendency to fall from high to mid or from high to low rather than from mid to low. On the other hand, rising contours have a tendency to rise from low to mid or from mid to high rather than from low to high. This is due to the easy of articulation in that falling from high to mid or from high to low takes less effort, and the same is true for rising from low to mid or from mid to high.

The fourth type is complementary distribution between simple rising contour and complex contour. That is, if a dialect has a simple rising tone, it does not have a complex contour tone, and vice versa. This supports the phonetic observation that all tones have a slightly falling onset on the spectrogram.

**STYLISTIC CHOICE AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THE TEACHING OF L1 AND L2**

Noga Ilani
ilain@mail.biu.ac.il
Bar Ilan University, Israel

According to one definition, style is the consequence of a choice between alternative expressions available in a language, a choice between alternative utterances which convey (more or less) the same meaning. Freedom in making such choices is limited by the rules of the language.

Enkvist (1964) differentiates between two main types of selection: On the one hand, there is the non-stylistic selection, which results from the grammatical rules (morphological and syntactic) and the semantic and lexical rules of the language and its usage. On the other hand, there is stylistic selection, which means choosing freely and without any restrictions or boundaries of language rules or usage,
between alternative forms to express the same meaning. The second type, the stylistic selection, is the one most relevant to the present study.

The present essay provides a description of one parallel structure chosen from the field of syntax: the Inner Object (or Internal Object) as a parallel of Manner Adverbials in literary Modern Hebrew.

For non-specialists in the structure of Hebrew and the other Semitic languages, it should be pointed out that most of the forms (verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs) all derived from a three-letter root. Use of a noun and a verb from a common root (the object and the predicate, for example, in this article) in the same phrase is considered good style, adding focus and emphasis to the concept embodied in the two words, as well as echoing Biblical form and structure, always deemed a positive model. This doubling is occasionally found in English too, perhaps influenced by the familiar tropes of the King James Bible: “Sing unto the Lord a new song” (Isaiah 42:10; Psalms 96:1; 98:1; 149:1). More common parlance yields “Live the good life”. Shakespeare often employs the twists of meaning of stichomythia for special effect, but this is not normal English practice. The consummate stylistics who rendered the Hebrew Scriptures into English for the 1611 Authorizes Version sometimes retained the Hebrew repetetive form (“Nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful” of Psalm 1:1) but more often departed from their source and chose synonyms instead, in keeping with the English preference for variety. In Isaiah 8:10, for example, a literal translation would produce “Advise advice and it shall be breached; speak a speech and it shall not stand.” We find rather, “Take council together and it shall come to nought; speak the word and it shall not stand.”

The primary consideration in selecting the above structures is the high probability of finding that they serve as stylistic markers. For example, one may choose between two utterances that reflect different levels of formality: the Inner Object is perhaps on a higher level and more prestigious than Manner Adverbials, etc.

The aim of this study is to determine whether these structures are always parallel, the conditions under which they are parallel, and under which conditions they are not. In addition, we examined what factors affected the selection of one structure or its alternative in literary language.

This study of stylistic features of the language of modern writers can help the teacher in class to guide the students how to make stylistic choices in their own usage of language, especially written language.

Reference


We have been studying the use of syntactic dependencies in natural language processing. As a step in our efforts to build up the necessary supporting resources, we have made efforts to automatically and manually extract dependencies from the PennCTB Chinese treebank (Version 1). The Treebank consists of 325 files of Chinese (the Mainland) newspaper articles. Analysed manually and given LISP-like bracketing annotations, this corpus is publicly available to the research community. It is one of the most popular parsed Chinese corpora used in corpus-based computational linguistic research. Automatically extracting dependencies from this Treebank is computationally feasible. In most cases, an XP node in the treebank expands to a structure headed by a word of syntactic category X. A dependency structure can then be derived by making this headword governors of its siblings. There are however occasions where the head selection process is not deterministic. For example, the PennCTB annotators do not make any commitments regarding the functional relationship between the two nouns in noun-noun constructions. There are no effective hints that an automatic process can rely on to make a decision between a modifier-head reading and a conjunct-conjunct reading as in:

(1) (NP (NN 山丘) (NN 坡地))
    [File: chtb\_143]

Cases like these are often also difficult for a human doing the extraction manually. While the PennCTB annotators are definitely not to be blamed for problems like this, there are occasions where their convenient measures are the sources of our problems. For example:

(2) (NP (NN 財政) (NN 支支) (PU 、) (NN 預算) (NN 執行) (NN 情況))
    [File: chtb\_234]

When we extract the dependencies, automatically or manually, we must sort out the hierarchical relations between the words (and the punctuation mark), which is not always an easy thing to do.
Finally, in order to gain some experience transforming syntactic structures from one framework to a different one, we have also intentionally introduced some "drastic" structural changes. For example,

\[(3) \quad (VP \ (ADVP \ (AD \ 就)) \\
(VP \ (VV \ 要)) \\
(VP \ (VV \ 訪問)) \\
(NP-SBJ \ (NP \ (PN \ 你們))) \\
(CP \ (WHNP-1 \ (-NONE- \ *OP*)) \\
(CP \ (IP \ (NP-SBJ \ (-NONE- \ *T*-1)) \\
(VP \ (VA \ 美麗))) \\
(DEC \ 的))) \\
(NP \ (NN \ 國家))))]

Besides the obvious need to give the NP-SBJ (sic) an object role, we have to decide whether 要 is an auxiliary verb. If it is, motivated our intention to change the parse structure, we will make it a dependant, instead of a governor of the verb 訪問. We discuss these various kinds of linguistic issues in the process of dependency extraction.

**OBJECTS AND EXPRESSIONS OF FREQUENCY AND DURATION IN CANTONESE**

Olivia S.-C. Lam  
Department of Linguistics  
The University of Hong Kong  
olivial@hkusua.hku.hk

Many linguists have observed that the Object in Chinese, when co-occurring with ‘expressions of frequency or duration’, alternates in structural position with those expressions according to its own referentiality (Paul 2000). Referential Objects occur immediately after the verb and before the expression of frequency or duration, while non-referential objects occur after both the verb and the expression of frequency or duration:

\[(1) \quad a. \ ngo5 \ gin5gwo5 \ keoi5 \ saam1 \ ci5  \quad b. \ *ngo5 \ gin5gwo5 \ saam1 \ ci5 \ keoi5  \\
1.SG \ see.EXP \ 3.SG \ three \ times \quad 1.SG \ see.EXP \ three \ times \ 3.SG  \\
‘I have seen him/her three times.’

(2) \quad a. \ *ngo5 \ co5gwo5 \ fei1gei1 \ saam1 \ ci5  \quad b. \ ngo5 \ co5gwo5 \ saam1 \ ci5 \ fei1gei1  \\
1.SG \ sit.EXP \ airplane \ three \ times \quad 1.SG \ sit.EXP \ three \ times \ airplane  \\
‘I have taken airplanes three times.’

In (1a), the personal pronoun keoi5 is referential. It therefore must occur in between the verb and the expression of frequency saam1 ci5. Occurring after saam1 ci5 incurs ungrammaticality, as (1b) shows. The common noun, fei1gei1, on the other hand, is non-referential in (2) and thus can only appear after both the verb the expression of frequency.

The referentiality of Objects alone, however, seems to be inadequate in accounting for this type of constructions. The distribution facts of the Object and the expression of frequency in (3), for instance,
cannot be successfully accounted for:

\[(3)\quad \text{a. } ngo5 \text{ gin5gwo5 keoi5 zek5 gau2 loeng5 ci5} \quad \text{b. } ngo5 \text{ gin5gwo5 loeng5 ci5 keoi5 zek5 gau2}\]

1.SG see.EXP 3.SG CL. dog two times 1.SG see.EXP two times 3.SG CL. dog

‘I have seen his/her dog twice.’  ‘I have seen his/her dog twice.’

Referentiality alone would predict that the phrase \textit{keoi5 zek5 gau2}, being referential, appear immediately after the verb as in (3a) but not after both the verb and the expression of frequency as in (3b). This paper proposes that a more detailed approach to ‘referentiality’ be adopted. Insights from what has been termed ‘Differential Object Marking (DOM)’ (Bossong 1985; Aissen 2003) will be drawn to account for the relative position of the Object and the expression of frequency/duration. In particular, the concepts of animacy and definiteness of the Object seem relevant (Aissen 2003). An optimality-theoretic account to syntax (OT-LFG) will be adopted, and the interaction of constraints on animacy and constraints on definiteness, among others, forms the core of the analysis of the ordering of Objects and expressions of frequency/duration.

**MULTIDIMENSIONAL PHONOLOGY OF HONG KONG CANTONESE**

Lau Chun-fat

Dept of Chinese, Xiamen University

Despite previous efforts to analysis the phonology of Cantonese, up to now there are still problems about its phonology. For example, there are still disputes over the number of onset, vowel and tone phonemes, and the ordering of complementary pairs.

Like other Chinese dialects, Cantonese was divided into onsets, rimes, and tones according to the phonetic values. In this way, Cantonese is found to be consisting of at least 19 onsets, 53 rimes and six tones. This gives a theoretical figure of 6042 possible syllables, which is of course unrealistic. The actual spoken form consists of no more than 1800 syllables, which means that less than one third of the possible syllables are pronounced. As the phonotactics of Cantonese is not yet well analyzed, the concept of phonetic values and phonemes was always confused.

For example, [y] as a rime in Cantonese only combines with [ts, tsh, s, j]. It is found to occur in complementation with [oi] after the velar and glottal onsets, but the two also form minimal pair before [ts, tsh, s, j]. However, as the two historical sources of [oi] was not well discriminated, the complementary distribution of [y] and [oi] was blurred.

To date, the analysis of Cantonese is still superficial and stays mostly at the phonetic level. The present “phonemes” are concluded purely from a linear dimension. Therefore, the onsets [Ø] (zero) and [ŋ] were not regarded as complementary pairs of a phoneme despite their alternate distributions in the upper and lower tones.

In this paper, Cantonese will be analyzed in a multidimensional manner, so that the number of phonemes is reduced to a minimum. The concept of archiphonemes is used, so that:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{/U/} &= /i/, /v/-; /i/ = [i], [ei]; /v/- = [\text{v-}], [\text{v}]. \quad \text{e.g. 之家新進英} \\
\text{/U/} &= /u/, /v/-; /u/ = [u], [on]; /v/- = [\text{v-}], [\text{v}]. \quad \text{e.g. 姑母本春風} \\
\text{/Y/} &= /y/, /wv/-; /y/ = [y], [oi]; /wv/- = [\text{wv-}], [\text{v}]. \quad \text{e.g. 朱居均訊轟}
\end{align*}
\]
These three archiphonemes are the main sources of the “short” (centralized) vowels, which contrast with the three archiphonemes of /A/, /E/, /O/. In present day Cantonese, the eleven vowels form eight vowel phonemes which have different pronunciation according to the phonetic environment.

To analyze the phonology of Cantonese in a systematic manner, we should try to understand its historical development and the phonotactics leading to the reshuffling of phonemes. This may eventually help us to design a better Romanization scheme for Hong Kong Cantonese and also help Hong Kong people to learn Putonghua successfully.

ADVANCED LEARNERS’ UNDERSTANDING OF THE ENGLISH COUNT-MASS DISTINCTION:
THE CASE OF HK UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Thomas Hun-tak Lee
Hunan University
Hua Dongfan
Shanghai International Studies University

The English count-mass distinction poses a challenge for the second language learning because of its linguistic complexity. It is a distinction defined on the basis of formal distribution and cannot be predicted on the basis of ontological properties or conceptual distinctions such as concrete vs abstract (Quine 1960, McCawley 1975, Quirk 1978, Allan 1980, Mufwene 1984, Bunt 1985, Gordon 1986, 1988). The count-mass distinction is context-sensitive and can be neutralized in discursively non-salient or syntactically oblique contexts. There are additional formal requirements such as the singular count noun rule which are language-specific. Further, some nouns can have both count and mass uses with distinct interpretations. The centrality of the count-mass distinction and the complex ways in which it interfaces with syntax and linguistic context have made this a problem area even for advanced learners.

This study investigates university students’ understanding of the English count-mass distinction using a grammaticality judgment task, with special reference to (1) their sensitivity to two count-selective contexts (the numeral and the fuzzy quantifier ‘many’) and a mass-selective context (‘much’), and (2) their knowledge of the singular count noun rule. Three types of nouns were used, consisting of concrete, abstract and collective nouns. Learners had to judge count and mass nouns in both mass-selective and count-selective contexts. They also had to judge singular count nouns in referential and non-referential contexts for subject and object positions, as well as singular count nouns in prepositional object position.

Our results show that advanced learners of English had clear knowledge of the count-selective and mass-selective contexts. They had more difficulty determining the count/mass status of collective nouns than other mass nouns. Learners were more tolerant of abstract nouns occurring in deviant
contexts than concrete nouns in such contexts. As regards the singular count noun rules, learners were sensitive to the singular count noun rule when the NPs were used referentially, but ignored the rule when the NPs were used non-referentially, except for the case of concrete noun objects of linking verbs. Learners' grasp of the singular count noun rule was sensitive to the concrete/abstract distinction only in non-referential contexts: they were less certain about the rule when the nouns were abstract than when they were concrete. These findings will be discussed with respect to the parametric variation between English and Chinese on the expression of the count-mass distinction, and to general issues of second language learning.

A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC APPROACH TO THE EXAMINATION OF HAKKA-CANTONESE CODE-SWITCHING
Sherman LEE
censlee@cityu.edu.hk
City University of Hong Kong

This paper aims to explore pragmatic dimensions of Hakka-Cantonese code-switching (CS) using Conversation Analysis (CA), a framework which has been effectively applied to the examination of conversational CS in a number of bilingual communities involving different language pairs (e.g. Auer, 1984; Li, 1994; Alfonzetti, 1998; Bailey, 2000; Shin and Milroy, 2002). CA is a bottom-up, data-driven approach to analysing language behaviour, and represents an attempt to recognise the interactional nature of CS and to reconstruct participant’s procedures for interpreting CS in context. It facilitates a flexible and dynamic interpretation of data that is not constrained by a fixed range of categories and functions of CS, nor reliant on independently defined social or situational norms of language use. Rather, taking the local context as primary, CA describes CS behaviour in terms of speaker activity as participants structure ongoing conversation. It involves a detailed investigation of CS through a sequential, turn-by-turn analysis of language choice and language alternation.

The study presented here is a component of a larger sociolinguistics project examining the extent of language maintenance versus language shift to Cantonese among the diminishing Hakka population of Hong Kong. In this cosmopolitan city, where Hakka and most other minority language varieties do not receive any institutional support, only 1.3 percent of today’s population claim to use Hakka as their home language, a significant decline from the 15.1 percent at the time of the 1911 census [1]. These Hakka speakers, who were largely monolingual a few decades ago, are now primarily bilingual in Hakka and Cantonese. However, despite the prevalence of individual bilingualism within the Hakka population, it appears that Hakka-Cantonese CS in conversation is not a universal phenomenon among this group, but is speaker and context-specific. In this paper, we examine CS among an extended family based in Sha Tau Kok (northern New Territories), a border town with a relatively strong concentration of ethnic Hakka compared to other parts of Hong Kong. All but members of the
The youngest generation in the family in question are Hakka dominant; Hakka-Cantonese CS is a common occurrence in intergenerational conversations involving this generation.

The CS data to be examined is selected from the entire corpus of audio-recorded, naturally occurring conversational data collected during visits to this and other families for the larger study. This data is supplemented with information on non-verbal behaviour exhibited during the interactions, and background information on the speakers, obtained through participant observation and informal interviews. The conversational data is transcribed following CA conventions. Sequential analysis of the data suggests that bilingual speakers employ conversational CS as an additional resource to achieve particular communicative goals. These include communicating information about one's language preferences, such as in language negotiation and accommodation, as well as serving specific discourse functions, such as to organise conversational sequences, and to contextualise preference marking and turn-taking.

[1] This was the first year in which questions concerning language use were included in the government census.

DE IN CHINESE RELATIVES AND POSSESIVES
LIU Hongyong
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

The particle *de* (的) in Mandarin Chinese is very versatile. Any attempt to solve the internal syntax of Chinese DP cannot avoid this seemingly easy but most confusing word *de*. The significance of this particle can be best illustrated by its wide distribution in almost all kinds of nominal constructions in Chinese. It can occur with relative clauses, possessive constructions, pre-nominal adjective phrases, pre-nominal prepositional phrases, appositive constructions, etc.

In relative clauses, *de* has been treated as Complementizer by some linguists. However, adopting Richard Kayne’s Antisymmetry framework (the Linear Correspondence Axiom/LCA), Andrew Simpson (1997) argues that the only possible analysis for *de* would seem to be that *de* in fact is a determiner occupying D, with the IP-RC raised to Spec, DP, which is due to the fact that *de*, as a determiner, has the common property of highly selective enclitics.

Following Simpson’s argument, this paper concentrates on *de* in Chinese relatives and possessives and argues that in both of these constructions the particle *de* is an instantiation of the syntactic category Determiner. Three major issues are addressed in this paper to support the above argument. First, the function of determiners in possessive construction and relative clauses; second, the difference between Chinese relative clauses and appositive clauses, and third, the proper word order of Chinese DPs. These three issues are also shown to be intertwined with each other. A better understanding of these issues is expected to illuminate the puzzle still hanging on the study of Chinese nominal expressions.

The major conclusions are as follows: there are two types of functions of *de*. The first is its
semantic function, i.e. to help fully specify nominal referents. The second is its syntactic function, i.e. to help form the construction with no semantic reference. For possessives, the semantic function of *de* is realized by encoding definiteness; for relatives, the semantic function of *de* is realized by filling the missing theta-role, which turns the relative clause into a complete proposition. We show how these two conditions can be unified and argue that the function of *de* is to provide nominal expressions with meaning-related entity. The syntactic function of determiners can be best illustrated by those examples given by Longobardi (1994). With respect to the word order of Chinese nominal expressions, Huang (1982) proposed an X’-theoretic treatment of Chinese phrase structures and pointed out Chinese NP is head-final unlike all the other categories which are head-initial. This inconsistency is shown to be eliminated by the antisymmetry theory proposed by Richard Kayne (1994). Adopting the antisymmetry analysis, we can arrive at a clear picture that Chinese is uniformly Head-initial.

References


---

**FOCUS DEVICE AND INTERPRETATION SCOPE OF “CAI” AND “JIU” IN MANDARIN CHINESE**

Huijuan Liu

huijuanliu999@yahoo.com.cn

Department of English, Beijing Forestry University

The paper concentrates on the focus device and interpretation scope of the focus operators “cai” and “Jiu” in Mandarin Chinese.

The paper adopts the hypothesis that in Chinese, a focus operator always precedes the focus. As demonstrated in some papers (Chen 1994, Li 2000, Zhang 2000), “Cai” and “Jiu” seem to be a challenge to such claim. It is argued that “Cai” and “Jiu” can emphasize both the preceding and the following parts (Paris 1987, Chen 1994). If it is true, it means that Chinese allows the focus to precede
the operators. In the assumption of “in-situ” focus, there are two parameters of the position of focus operators, one preceding the focus and the other following it. This study maintains that in “Cai” and “Jiu” constructions, the focus operator always precedes the focus, and the interpretation scope is within its c-command domain.

The analysis of “Cai” and “Jiu” focalization is on a par with Li & Pan’s analysis of the negation “Bu” (Li & Pan 1999, Li&Pan 2001).

A. As stated in Li&Pan (2001), when there is no focus, “Bu” will negate its adjacent phrase, not just word, within its c-commanding domain, and such a phrase must be a [-NP]. As to “Cai” and “Jiu”, it is also the case that without a focus, “Cai” and “Jiu” will modify the following [-NP] phrase. But with the presence of focus, the domain of “Cai” and “Jiu” is expanded to the local m-command domain.

B. The focus constructions with “Cai” and “Jiu” have a tripartite structure composed of the focus operator, the background and the focus.

C. The third claim in Li&Pan (2001) that focused elements outside the local m-commanding domain of the focus operators are bound by the assertion operator or other operators available will explain the focus preceding “Cai” and “Jiu”. For example,

1) Ta 1950 nian Cai dao Beijing
   He came to Beijing in 1950

2) Ta shifenzhong Jiu ba zuoye xiewan le
   He finished the homework in ten minutes

Sentence (1) and (2) contain focus outside the domain of “Cai” and “Jiu”, and they are focalized by another type of focus operator, the assertion operator. The assertion operator connects with all focused elements outside the m-commanding domain of the focus operator if there is no other focus-sensitive operator available. (1) and (2) can be represented as follows:

1’) ASSERT₁ [[1950 nian]f₁ λ P₁[Ta P₁ Cai dao Beijing ]

2’) ASSERT₁ [[shifenzhong]f₁ λ P₁[Ta P₁ Jiu ba zuoye xiewan le]

In this interpretation, the focus is associated not with “Cai” and “Jiu”, but with the Assertion operator. It will be consistent with the in-situ focus device and the preceding focus operator scope of interpretation.

References
Chen, Xiao-he (陳小荷) (1994) 主觀量問題初探，世界漢語教學（4）.
Li, Bao-lun, Pan, Hai-hua (李寶倫，潘海華)（1999）“焦點與‘不’字句之語義解構”，現代外語（2）.
Li, Bao-lun, Pan, Hai-hua (李寶倫，潘海華)（2001）“焦點與漢語否定和量詞的相互作用”，焦點結構和意義的研究（徐烈炯，潘海華主編）.
Li, Yu-ming (李宇明)（2000）漢語語法的立體研究，商務印書館.
Paris, Marie-Claude (白梅麗)（1987）現代漢語中“就”和“才”的語義分析，中國語文（5）.
Shao, Jingmin (邵敬敏)（1997）從“才”看語義與句法的相互制約關係，漢語學習（3）.
Shao, Jingmin (邵敬敏)（2000）漢語語法的立體研究，商務印書館.
Zhang, Yi-sheng (張誼生)（1996）現代漢語副詞“才”的句式與搭配，漢語學習（3）.
Null Locative Arguments, Null Expletive and Existential Sentences

LIU Na   GU Gang
Foreign Languages College, Tianjin Normal University

We assume that unaccusative verbs may take two arguments: theme with a [Nom] feature and Location with a [Loc] feature. The locative argument could exist in a null form represented by μ. The derivation of an existential sentence (1a) is therefore shown in (1b):

(1)  a. There came two men (from Paris).
    b. [TP [DP [D therei] [T’[ T [vp t; [v’[v camej [VP two men [v’ tj from Paris/ μ ]]]]]]]]
        [D]    [D]   [Nom]  [Nom]     [Loc]
        [Loc]

If two men moves into Spec-TP via Spec-vp, (2a) is derived. If from Paris moves into Spec-TP via Spec-vp, (2b) is derived. When the locative argument is μ in (1b), we get (2c); When μ moves to Spec-TP as the overt locative argument does, we get (2d) which is ungrammatical because English is not a pro-drop language.

(2)   a. Two men came from Paris.
    b. From Paris came two men.
    c. There came two men μ.
    d. *μ came two men.

Then, we notice that in (3), the auxiliary verb in the tag question is inverted with there, instead of the locative PP in the garden which seemingly occupies the position of Spec-TP.

(3) In the garden is a beautiful statue, isn’t there? (Bresnan 1994)

We suggest that a null expletive there may stand in one of the specifiers of TP assuming that T projects multiple Specs. The null there functions to check the [-interpretable] D feature of T at LF. Therefore, (2b) is reanalyzed as shown in (4):

(4) [TP[DP [D null therei]] [from Paris_k][T’[ T [vp t; [v’[v camej [VP two men [v’ tj μ]]]]]]]]

We also propose an analysis to the puzzling contrast in (5)-(6):

(5) a. There came two men.
    b. There stood two men.
(6) a. Two men came.
    b. *Two men stood.
    c. Two men stood under the roof.

We assume that stood is different from came in that stood selects a small clause (SC) as its complement. The structures of (6b) and (6c) are shown in (7a) and (7b) respectively:

(7)  a. *[TP two meni [vp t; [v’[v stood [sc t; μ ]]]]]
    b. [TP two meni [vp t; [v’[v stood [sc t; under the roof ]]]]]
A Small Clause Criterion is proposed to account for the contrast between (7a) and (7b), which prohibits a small clause from containing no overt items. Besides, to account for the contrast between stood and are as shown in (8), we suggest that stood is semi-predicate in contrast to are which is not considered predicate (Pollock 1997).

(8)  
   a. There stood two men.  
   b.* There are two men.

OVERT UNACCUSATIVITY IN CHAOZHOU  
Stephen Matthews & Huiling Xu  
UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG & LA TROBE UNIVERSITY

An unusual feature of Min dialects of Chaozhou region (Li 1959, Yue-Hashimoto 1993, Shi 1996) is the use of apparently passive morphosyntax with intransitive verbs. In the Jieyang dialect, for example, the intransitive clause in (1) shares the marker k’eh i with the passive as in (2).

智能粵拼輸入法系統簡介

閣 Área
香港城市大學  
c tslun@cityu.edu.hk; http://www.langcomp.com.hk

香港城市大學合作機構語言科技有限公司是香港城市大學的合作機構，綜合語言學、語言資訊科技、翻譯、電腦工程、課程設計及開發等技術專長，致力開發互動多媒體語文教育產品和語文應用軟件，並提供相關的語文服務，希望藉此提高香港及各地華人的語文水平，從而配合教育界和商業社會在語文方面的需求。

公司研發的「智能粵語拼音語句輸入法」，是推廣粵語拼音方案上的一次重大突破，由於現時社會上的廣東話拼音輸入法，大多以『大雜燴』的形式，把各種流行的拼音方式收錄在內，容易導致一個拼音出現大量的同音字，令使用者選字時既費時，又費神。而「智能粵語拼音語句輸入法」則採用香港語言學學會公佈的《粵語拼音方案》，以語句作爲自然的中文輸入的設計基礎，利用語料語言學的理論，生成豐富的詞庫及統計數據，並加以優化的系統實現。使用者只需要連續輸入中文語句的粵語拼音，系統就會自動選出最可能與輸入的拼音相對應的中文字詞，省卻了不少同音字選擇的麻煩，讓使用者充分體會智能輸入中文語句的便利。使用者還可以自行加入個人常用的詞語，充分體現個人化的優點。

輸入法現在只處理標準漢語的文書工作，可以說是教育版。新的發展將會加入部分在 ISO 10646 字集中常用的香港粵語用字。由於內地和本地的語料的收集和處理需要與時並進，相信這個系統的開發將會是一個可持續的，有增長的項目。我們希望能夠得到社會大眾的支持，一起在實用漢字輸入方面為香港進行掃盲的工作，讓大家了解有關粵語的拼音教育是多麼的重要，也讓大眾了解語言學及語言科技的實用價值。

OVERT UNACCUSATIVITY IN CHAOZHOU  
Stephen Matthews & Huiling Xu  
UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG & LA TROBE UNIVERSITY

An unusual feature of Min dialects of Chaozhou region (Li 1959, Yue-Hashimoto 1993, Shi 1996) is the use of apparently passive morphosyntax with intransitive verbs. In the Jieyang dialect, for example, the intransitive clause in (1) shares the marker k’eh i with the passive as in (2).
We show that these intransitive constructions involve unaccusative predicates, which are derived by combining an intransitive verb (si ‘die’ in (1)), with a resultative complement (k’u in (1)) which renders the predicate perfective. We argue that the pronominal i in unaccusative structures such as (1) is an expletive ‘dummy agent’ rather than a referential pronominal, showing that it meets all three criteria for expletive status proposed by Postal and Pullum (1988).

Our analysis of unaccusativity in Chaozhou is based on Perlmutter (1978) and Levin & Rappaport (1995). The resemblance in form between passive and unaccusative constructions observed in the Jieyang dialect parallels that in languages such as Italian and German where the same auxiliary is selected in passive and unaccusative structures. The underlying parallel between passive and unaccusative structures, in each case, lies in the fact that both can be characterised as having the internal argument appearing as the subject, representing the semantic role of theme or patient. The use of passive morphosyntax as in (1) can thus be seen as overt marking of unaccusativity.

Vowel-to-vowel coarticulation refers to coarticulatory effects extending from one vowel to another across intervening consonant(s). All languages presumably exhibit vowel-to-vowel coarticulation, but there are differences in degree. Although the literature is not entirely consistent, one factor influencing degree of vowel-to-vowel coarticulation is thought to be the number of phonemic contrasts in a language: in order to maintain perceptual distinctiveness, more crowded vowel spaces (or sub-parts of the vowel quadrilateral) will exhibit or tolerate less vowel-to-vowel coarticulation. Cantonese and Mandarin contrast interestingly in this respect. Cantonese has more phonemic vowels than Mandarin, but fewer systematically-recognized phonetic vowels. Thus Cantonese may be expected to show less vowel-to-vowel coarticulation than Mandarin if number of phonemes is critical, but more if number of allophones is critical. An acoustic study was designed to investigate this situation. For each language
eight native speakers (aged between 24 to 40, 4 males and 4 females) read nonsense trisyllables of the form /pV1pV2pV3/, where the middle target vowels were either /a/, /i/, or /u/, and context vowels V1 = V3. For example, /papapa/, /pipapi/ and /pupapu/. The trisyllables were written in Chinese characters with high-level tones, embedded in short carrier phrases. Vowels surrounding the trisyllables in the carrier phrases were closest to schwa in each language. Speakers read the randomized trisyllables (8-10 repetitions) with equal stress, first carefully (slower), then casually (faster). F1 and F2 frequencies were measured at three temporal locations of V2: onset, midpoint and offset using 25-ms superimposed DFT and LPC spectra. Preliminary results show that the difference in their vowel spaces is not a determining factor of the degree of vowel-to-vowel coarticulation in Cantonese and Mandarin. Language differences in more subtle aspects are being investigated. Significant gender differences are congruent with our understanding of differences due to vocal tract shapes. V2 was about 18% longer in careful than in casual speech. However, speaking style (and rate) seems not to strongly influence degree of vowel-to-vowel coarticulation. Different vowels did exhibit differences in vowel-to-vowel coarticulation, with /a/ being the most susceptible. There are also coarticulatory differences in F1 and F2 dimensions. Unexpectedly, V2 appears to be more centralized in homogeneous contexts (/papapa/, /pipipi/, /pupupu/), than in different contexts (/pipapi/ etc.). These results suggest that factors other than or in addition to physiological constraints and the distribution of phonemic vowel space affect vowel-to-vowel coarticulation. Stress and the direction of coarticulation are being investigated further.

THE WORD-ORDER CHANGE IN CHINESE DEGREE MODIFIERS
AND HOW CANTONESE FITS IN

Mok Sui Sang & Lam Foo Sum
The Open University of Hong Kong / Aberdeen Technical School

This paper examines the historical development of the word order of Chinese degree modifiers as exemplified by 於, 極, 甚, 稀 in classical Chinese and 很, 非常, 比較, 最 in modern Chinese.

Zhang (2002), in her historical study of word-order change in Chinese prepositional phrases, concludes that the change spanned a period from the 2nd to the 10th century and resulted in the preverbal position, vis-à-vis the postverbal one, becoming typical for the phrases. She attributes this word-order change to the emergence, along the same period of time, of a series of new grammatical structures such as complements, compound words and auxiliaries. She also claims that during the evolution, the position of prepositional phrases was determined by the verb phrases they modified and by the meaning they conveyed – prepositional phrases signifying results or destinations occupied the postverbal position, while all others appeared preverbally.

Shi (2002) makes a similar claim in his description of the historical development of the general Chinese word-order – the final stage being that only prepositional phrases expressing a result could appear postverbally, and duration and frequency expressions interposed between the verb and its object.

Our preliminary research into the word-order change in Chinese degree modifiers suggests a parallel to the one in prepositional phrases as Zhang (2002) describes, and supports Shi’s (2002) claim as far as Mandarin is considered. However, we have found that postverbal degree modifiers are not uncommon in Cantonese and they signify not only results, but also goal-orientation as well as the
extent of an action or attribute. Furthermore, we propose that degree modifiers in Cantonese are obligatory and subcategorized adjuncts in the sense of Goldberg and Ackerman (2001).

References

CHINESE NAMES IN TAIWAN: CANTONESE, GUANHUA AND WU DIALECT FORMS
Alena Nemtinova
Institute of Far Eastern Studies
Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow

Guoyu luomazi (“national language romanization”) is the official alphabetic system for rendering Chinese words in Taiwan. In fact, however, Taiwanese proper names are known to be usually represented in the old English Wade-Giles transcription for Chinese words. Thus, an analysis by the present author of the “Who Is Who in ROC” list (The Republic of China Yearbook 1996) proved that 62.7% of the 1020 names it contains are transcribed in the Wade-Giles system; only 1.3% are given in guoyu luomazi; 0.7% seem to be written in the pinyin zimu system, which is the internationally recognized standard of transcribing Chinese words. All these systems were invented to and actually render Pekingese pronunciation of the analyzed words. 35.3% of the names in the list, however, are represented in other systems like Yale and Morrison or cannot be identified with any of them. Some of such nonstandard variants distinctly reflect dialect pronunciation in accordance with the place of birth of this or that person.

It is only natural that in the personal names of Taiwan’s natives one can find some features of dominating here Minnan and kejia dialects, for example, final consonant -m: Chua, Nam-hai (Cai Nanhai in the pinyin zimu form). Non-Pekingese forms are also characteristic of the names of those Taiwanese, who came from Cantonese-speaking areas with their independent written tradition, for example, final implosives: Chai, Chok-yung (Cai Zuo杨幂), Kan, Yue-wai (Jian, Yuewei).

What is more interesting is that dialect features can be also revealed in personal names of those immigrants from continental China, who were born in the Wu dialect area or even in those regions of the Chang Jiang basin where the guanhua dialects are spoken. Compare just for example, voiced consonants reflected in the name of Chao, Bei-tse (Zhao Peizhi), Chao, Tze-chi (Zhao Ziqi) (Wu dialect area) or merger of Pekingese -eng and -en, -ing and –in in the names of Chen, Chien-jen (Cheng Jianren) and ’Chien, Hansen (Jian Hansheng) (guanhua dialects area).
FOCUS AND *DOU* QUANTIFICATION IN MANDARIN CHINESE

Haihua Pan
City University of Hong Kong
Email: cthpan@cityu.edu.hk, Homepage: http://ctlhpan.cityu.edu.hk/haihuapan/

Many studies have been conducted on *dou* sentences in Mandarin Chinese (Lee 1986, Liu 1990, Chiu 1993, Cheng 1995, Li 1997, Jiang 1998, Wu 1999, etc.). Following Schwarzschild (1996: 70-71), Lin (1998) suggests that Chinese *dou* is an overt realization of the cover-based generalized D-operator, adopting the cover concept from Gillon (1987). Pan (2000) argues that it is necessary to appeal to (a) the ordinary distributive operator analysis proposed by Dowty and Brodie (1984) and Link (1987), and (b) the existence of an implicit arguments in the relevant collective predicate, which renders the collective predicate distributive, in order to get the correct interpretation of *dou*. Jiang (1998) argues that *dou* has only one semantic meaning and its different uses are derived from context, thus unifying the different senses of *dou*. He points out that the expression associated with *dou* should always occur to the left of *dou*, and the so-called violation actually involves association with the presupposition of the sentence in question, which is assumed to be something empty and appearing to the left of *dou*. Hence, Jiang claims that the expression associated with *dou* cannot be determined solely by the surface sentence.

In this paper I argue that *dou* is more like a quantifier and thus triggers a tripartite structure: quantifier, the restrictor, and the matrix. Unlike previous analyses, I think *dou* can associate with expressions to both its left and right, and the relevant association is determined by both syntactic structure and focus. Syntax comes in first by mapping the topic part to the restrictor, and the comment, the matrix. Then focus comes to play by mapping the background to the restrictor, and the focus, the matrix. The normal cases of *dou* sentences only involve the mapping of the topic and the comment to the restrictor and the matrix, respectively. The cases involving *dou* associating with a focus to its right are handled by mapping the background, generated by replacing the focus by a variable, to the restrictor, and the focus, the matrix. The cases with *lian XP dou* are handled differently: the XP is mapped to the restrictor, as it is part of the topic, and the comment, the matrix. Even though XP is in focus here, it is not mapped to the matrix, as syntactic structure comes to play first and thus maps the topic to the restrictor, and the comment to the matrix. The role of the focused XP is to provide an alternative set to be used as the domain of quantification for *dou*.

My analysis agrees with Jiang in assuming that *dou* only has one semantic meaning, and all the other so-called meanings or senses are either implicatures or derived from context. However, it differs from him in (a) allowing *dou* to associate with expressions to both its left and right; (b) not assuming an empty category to be associated with *dou* that corresponds to a presupposition provided by context, as under my analysis, the focus-background partition can provide the relevant presupposition, and thus only syntactic structure is necessary for *dou* quantification; and (c) recognizing the role played by


focus.

The analysis proposed in this paper shows that the *dou* quantification in Chinese, an A-quantification, is also sensitive to syntactic structure, and it is thus not true that focus and background can always map to the matrix and the restrictor, respectively. Hence, both syntactic structure and focus play a role in the interpretation of *dou*-sentences in Mandarin Chinese.

「許」字的語義引申和語法意義：語言歷史的分析
潘銘基、葉鳳霞
香港中文大學中國語言及文學系
香港中文大學現代語言及文化系

漢語有實詞和虛詞之分。實詞是表示人或事物及其動作、變化、性狀等概念的詞，能獨立充當句子成分。漢語的實詞包括名詞、動詞、形容詞、數詞、量詞、代詞六類。虛詞指不能單獨成句，意義比較抽象，而具有一定語法意義的詞。如介詞、連詞、助詞。但部分漢語兼具虛，實兩種解釋。「許」字即其中一例。據《漢語大詞典》所載，「許」字有十六種解釋，包括：1.應允，許可。2.相信。3.佩服；稱許。4.應允給予；貢獻。5.特指允婚；許配。6.希望。7.表約略估計數。8.多；許多。9.處；處所。10.如此；這般。11.或許；可能。12.副詞。表示疑問。相當於「何」、「甚麼」。13.助詞。表示感嘆。14.通「衙」。謂承奉祭祀。15.古國名。16.指許州，在今河南省許昌市。以上十六種關於「許」字的解釋，部分具有實義，部分只能在句子中擔起語法意義，並不具有實義。

「許」字起源甚早，雖不見於甲骨文，但見於銅器銘文。有關字義的訓釋，則首見於東漢許慎《說文解字》。「許」字小篆「」，《說文》釋義為「許，聽也。从言，午聲」。楊樹達《積微居小學述林》云：「許從午聲，午即杵之象形字，字從言午，謂舂者送杵之聲也。……舉杵勸力月聲，許字之本義也。……舂者手持物而口有聲，故許字从言午，日有言而聲應之，故許引申義為聽。」楊樹達以為「許」字所以釋為「聽」者，乃由引申而來。上文舉「許」有「應允」、「相信」、「佩服」等義，就說者而言，莫非由「聽」這個行動開始，大抵楊樹達所言，亦可稱信。

至於作具有語法意義的虛詞用，據《古代漢語虛詞詞典》（1999）所載，「許」字可在十一種情況下充當其語法意義。如《後漢書。申屠剛傳》謂「後莽篡位，剛遂避地河西，轉入巴蜀，往來二十許年」，在這個例子中，「許」字用於數詞「二十」後，構成表示約數的數詞短語，其後常有名詞「年」。可譯為「来」或「左右」等。這類用例約始見於漢代以後，唐宋時期更為多見。今除不定數詞偶用外，其他各類評都已不用。

本文擬以出土材料（包括金文、簡帛等）及傳世文獻為基礎，進行有關「許」字的系統研究。首先，探討「許」字的語義發展過程，分析不同語義何時出現轉折以及個中原因，以見「許」字的歷史發展。然後，研究「許」字何以會走上虛化之路，並細及其出現以至消失的年代。最後，結合「許」字的實義、虛義發展，建構一幅「許」字的語言歷史分析圖。
Comparing the Lexicon of Sign Languages in East Asia: A Preliminary Study Focusing on the Influence of Japanese Sign Language on Taiwan Sign Language

SASAKI Daisuke
The Chinese University of Hong Kong
The University of Texas at Austin

Previous studies (Ichida 2000, Nakamura 2000, among others) have mentioned that we can observe the influence of Japanese Sign Language (JSL) on Taiwan Sign Language (TSL) and Korean Sign Language (KSL) with respect to the lexicon. This is due to the colonial occupation of these countries/territories prior to and during World War II. During this period, the Japanese government established a school for the deaf in Taipei (Smith 1987a), and Japanese teachers were sent from Tokyo and Osaka to schools in Taipei and Tainan, respectively (Smith 1987b). A similar story seems to be true of the situation in Korea, although no published source has so far documented it. Because of the influence of JSL, Smith and Ting (1979) and Smith (1990) go so far as to state that TSL and KSL belong to the Japanese Sign Language family, although there is evidence that TSL “has also inherited a large amount of signed vocabulary from the Mainland Chinese Sign Language family” (Smith and Ting 1979).

In the present study, I compare the vocabulary among sign languages in East Asia, in particular, focusing on Japanese Sign Language and Taiwan Sign Language. Similar studies have been conducted on many other sign languages, but no study has been done comparing the lexicons of sign languages in East Asia. To achieve this objective, and to be able to compare the results obtained in this study with those of previous studies, I compare the vocabulary by using two vocabulary sets that have been used in similar studies: a 100-sign vocabulary list prepared by Woodward (1976, 1978, 1991), which is based on Swadesh’s (1955) 200-word vocabulary list, and a 200-sign vocabulary list prepared by McKee and Kennedy (2000). Furthermore, a more detailed study is conducted, using the 752 vocabulary items contained in Smith and Ting’s (1979) Taiwan Sign Language dictionary. In this study, I particularly focus on the “similarly-articulated” signs among the sign languages in question, to see how those differences in such signs can be explained phonologically.

了2的句法和語義地位

石定栩 胡建華
香港理工大學

通常將附著在動詞上的體貌標記“了”稱為“了1”，而將出現在句末的語氣助詞“了”稱為“了2”。除了一些必須與其他標記共現的用法，如表示近期未來的“就（要）……了”以及表示歎歎的“太……了”之外，一般都認為“了2”的主要用法有兩種，一種是表示已經完成了的狀態變化，另一種是表示近期過去，即表示某種特定的已然狀況。例(1)和例(2)分別代表這兩種用法。
我找到理想的工作了。

我昨天下午看电影了。

这样的分析在一定程度上反映了汉语的实际情况，但也遇到了一些不好解决的问题。比如例 (3)，虽然大家都承认这个句子不好，但总也说不清楚为什么不好，也就无法提供合理的解释。目前较为占上风的说法是名词前的数词短语在作语，因为它没有 “一本” 的例 (4) 仍然可以说，不过，数词短语似乎并非唯一的罪魁祸首。同样带 “了”，而且宾语也带数词短语的例 (5) 就完全合法。另一方面，例 (6) 的宾语前并不带数词短语，可也不见得就好到哪里去。

(3) 我买一本了。
(4) 我买书了。
(5) 我能挣一万块钱了。
(6) 我买了老师推荐的书了。

解决这个问题可以从两个方面着手。一方面，有证据表明例 (1) 和例 (2) 的结构并不相同，将两个 “了” 都看成 “了了” 与事实不符。类似与例 (2) 和例 (4) 的句子中，动词后面的宾语缺乏一般名词性短语的句法特征，也无法形成语篇内承前省略的前指。比较合理的做法是将这种动宾结构视为动词性复合词，将这例的 “了” 考虑作在一般动词上的体貌标记，即 “了了”。动宾复合词中的名词性成分不能表示具体的事物，所以例 (3) 和例 (6) 不属于这一类，那里的 “了” 只是 “了了”。

另一方面，表示状态变化的句子需要前提，即必须对变化之前的原始状态做出确认。如果已经表现明确的原始状态，又缺乏相应的语境，就很难做出判断。而总的来说，例 (2) 说的是找理想的工作，这个过程很容易让人联想到变化之前的原始状态，即没有找到理想的工作，因而在理解上不会有疑问。而在没有上下文的情况下，例 (3) 找到一个合适的原始状态很不容易，而在一般情况下，人们又不会或不愿意花费那么多精力去寻找这种原始状态，所以就很难确认例 (3) 不能说。如果例 (7) 那样形成一个复句，大家所有的人都会接受类似的句子了。例 (6) 的情况也可以这样解释。

(7) 改掉了大手大脚花钱的习气，我现在每次买书了。

歷史比較法與粵方言音變
侍建國
香港教育學院

歷史比較法與粵方言音變

侍建國
香港教育學院

歷史比較法用於研究漢語方言的親屬關係及歷史演變，這一方法也可用於研究方言內部的歷史音變。以粵語為例，它分為五個片：廣府片、四邑片、高雷片、昌寶片、香山片。我們假設它們都來自一個共同的中古形式——中古粵語。歷史比較法就是通過比較這些方言片的特點，研究它們的相互關係及歷史演變。

本文根據粵語方言材料，對於粵語主要方言片的有關語音特徵，從共時音變和歷時音變兩個方面進行分析，以實例說明下列幾個概念：

1. 音變規則的相對先後

2. 語音變化與音系化

廣州方言有一套舌葉音聲母t、t’、t，它們實際發音受後面韻母的影響。在前、高元音前發成舌面音[ts]、[ts’]、[s]，從中古音看，古精組聲母與古知照組聲母在現代廣州方言合成一套舌葉音聲母。再比較粵語四邑片的臺山方言與開平方言，它們有一組舌尖前音聲母[ts]、[ts’]、[s]。從中古音看，古精組聲母在這兩個方言裏今讀[t]、[t’]、[¢]，古知照組聲母在這兩個方言裏今讀[ts]、[ts’]、[s]。

3. 區別性特徵與音位字母


4. 共時音系與歷時音變

現代粵語都經過聲母濁音清化過程。中古端、透、定三母在廣州方言讀[t]、[t’]；但四邑片今音不讀塞音，古端母及定母仄聲字讀零聲母，古透母及定母平聲字讀擦音[h]。以氣流量的大小看古定母的平仄在四邑片方言音系的分佈。古“蒸”、軒“溪”氣流量相對小，使得聲母消失；古“徒”、“覺”氣流量相對大，使得聲母變成氣流量較大的擦音[h]。

再將同一原理驗之于古端、透、定母，臺山、開平讀[t]、[t’]，古精、清、從母今音不讀塞音，古塞音今音不讀塞音。為什麼古塞音今音不讀塞音，古塞音今音不讀塞音？是不是古端、透、定讀擦音或零聲母，古精、清、從就填補塞音的空缺？這種現象是否屬於所謂“隧道(chain shifts)”？

隧道演變的關鍵是時間的先後，必須是一個音先變走，另一個才補上。假設粵語四邑片歷史上有塞音聲母的隧道演變，那麼，古端、透、定讀擦音或零聲母的時間，必須早于古精、清、從母讀擦音的時間，臺山、開平古精組今音[t]、[t’]，是保持與古知照組今音[ts]、[ts’]的對立。這兩組的對立歷史悠久。沒有材料顯示，四邑片的這組對立，發生在濁音清化之後，為填補塞音空缺而產生。

5. 語音變化的不平衡性

鑑於現代方言語言裏存在着古今系統的疊置現象，所以在比較方言間的互相關係時，不能以某一方言具有某種古代語音特徵，就斷定該方言整個音系都保存了古代音系。比如，古精組／知照組今音在四邑片保持對立。這兩個語音特徵都保留了古音特徵，但卻不能以此類推四邑片的音系代表古代音系。例如，臺山、開平古曾梗攝三、四等字，今音大多數韻尾收舌尖音-n/-t，少數收舌根音-¢/-k。這大概受到韻腹元音的影響。今音韻腹元音為[a]的都收-n/-t 尾，而元音為[æ]的都收-¢/-k。此外，古通攝今音韻腹為圓唇元音的，韻尾都收-¢/-k。

參考文獻:
陳曉錦 2001，廣東粵語的鼻音韻尾和入聲韻尾，《方言》第2期。
李如龍 2001，《漢語方言的比較研究》，北京，商務印書館。
The modifying clauses of both Cantonese and Korean are placed prenominally in relativized and focused constructions, despite the difference in their canonical word orders, SVO and SOV, respectively. Such characteristics of modifying structures of Cantonese and Korean allow ge3 in Cantonese and geo(t) in Korean to be used as pronominals with an abstract meaning like “(the) thing.”

In literature, Cantonese ge3 is only compared with Korean bound noun geo(t), and believed by Simpson and Wu (2001) to be on the way of grammaticalization of nominalizers or pronominalizers, which can be compared to the similar pathways of Mandarin de, and Japanese no (also see Yap et. al, 2002). These two morphemes, ge3 and geo(t), are treated as nominalizers sharing the same meaning and function in free relative and cleft constructions, and they also appear to function as stance markers providing the sentences with the mood of assertion. Interesting thing is that while Cantonese ge3 is used as a genitive/associative marker, and a relativizer in headed relative clauses, Korean geo(t) is blocked from having these functions. All these incompatible characteristics of ge3 and geo(t) may be clarified by comparing the status of ge3 as a linking morpheme with the adnominal morpheme –n in Korean.

When ge3 as a linking morpheme in a genitive and associative phrase, and a restrictive relative clause is considered to match to Korean adnominal morpheme –n, the claim is convincing that ge3 is originated from the morpheme with the “belonging” sense so that its meaning and function can extend
to a pronominal and a stance marker. While ge3 can replace the head noun in headless relative clauses and behave as a pronominal, Korean bound noun geo(t) has too strong lexical meaning, as the historical data show, though its meaning has been extended enough to be used in sentence ending position. Therefore, Korean adnominal morpheme –n and bound noun geo(t) should be viewed as a whole, as an equivalent form of Cantonese ge3. This comparative study also relates its finding to the word order problem – why Cantonese ge3 and Mandarin de, despite its many different usages, do not appear to function as a complementizer in complex noun phrase such as a propositional phrase (e.g. “I know [that …]”) or as an empty noun in Internally-headed Relative Clause construction as Korean –n geo(t) and Japanese no does.

Consequently, Korean is the only language among the four East Asian languages, which does not allow the modifying and non-determinate nominal meaning into one single morpheme, but has two separate morphemes.

TWO TYPES OF POSSESSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN CANTONESE
Ut Seong Joanna SIO
ULCL/Leiden University, The Netherlands

In Cantonese, there are (at least) two ways of expressing possessions:

Possessor-possessum (PP): Possessor-modification marker- possessum(PMP):

(1) leisei gin laangsaam  (2) leisei ge laangsaam
Leisei CL sweater       Leisei MOD sweater
‘Leisei’s sweater’      ‘Leisei’s sweater(s)’

(CL=classifier, MOD=modification marker)

The PP construction contrasts with the PMP construction in that the modification marker ge is only present in the latter construction. The Mandarin counterpart of the modification marker de has been analysed as optional (Fu 1994, Tang 1990). In this paper, I show that the modification marker ge is in fact not optional and the two constructions are different in the following respects:

a. The possessums of the two constructions are of different types. In a PP construction, the possessum cannot be a bare NP while in a PMP construction, the possessum has to be a bare NP.

PP: PMP:
(3) * Leisei laangsaam (NP)    (4) Leisei ge laangsaam (NP)
(3’) Leisei gin laangsaam (CIP) (4’) *Leisei ge gin laangsaam (CIP)

b. The two constructions can be combined, but the possessor with ge must appear right before the bare noun (example 5).

(5) a. *[Zeongsaam ge [Leisei gin laangsaam]]
   Zeongsaam MOD Leisei CL sweater
b. [Leisei gin [Zeongsaam ge laangsaam]]
   Leisei CL Zeongsaam MOD sweater
c. The interpretation of the two constructions is also different, as exemplified in the following example:

(6) a. *ngo ge gau ngaau can jan
    I MOD dog bite ASP human
    ‘My dog/s has/have bitten someone’

b. ngo zek gau ngaau can jan
    I CL dog bite ASP person
    ‘My dog has bitten someone’

I take the above differences to motivate two different structures for the PP and PMP constructions.

For the PP cases, I follow Postma’s (1997) proposal and argue that the possession semantics arises from a dependency relation between two referential indices. The dependency is established on the classifier head. It is an interaction between two sets of $\phi$ features forced by a Spec-Head configuration (with the possessor in SpecClP and the possessum heading the NP). The PP construction is indeed a sub-case of adjectival modification in which both the modifier and the modifiee happen to be referential. For the PMP cases, they are actually restrictive relative clauses in which the relative clause part is adjoined to the NP (Aoun and Li 2003). The different structures of the two different constructions have consequence on the interpretation of definiteness.

The proposal predicts that a PMP construction will have the same distribution/interpretation as its possessum because the possessor part is a modifying adjunction, and indeed, the distribution and interpretation of the expression in (2) are the same as a bare noun phrase. As for the PP construction, the Spec-Head configuration between the possessor and the possessum forces a definiteness-matching requirement between the two noun phrases.

References:
The Romanization of the Zhuang Language
Tai Chung-pui
Department of Linguistics, The University of Hong Kong
chungpui@hkusua.hku.hk

Zhuang is the largest minority ethnic group in China, which mainly lives in the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region. The Zhuang language, which consists of 2 dialects and 13 sub-dialects, is a major language with the Tai group of languages. Some earlier attempts to romanize the Zhuang and its related languages were done by missionaries (British and Foreign Bible Society 1904, Liang 1991). From 1947 to 1948, some Zhuang intellectuals also attempted to romanize their mother tongue (Liang 1991). In 1957, the Chinese government announced the official romanization scheme for the Zhuang language, and promoted it as the official writing system of the Zhuang nationality. This scheme has 21 Latin alphabets, 6 non-latin alphabets and 5 tone markers. The scheme was used until 1966. After the Cultural Revolution, the romanization scheme of the Zhuang language was amended in 1982. The amended scheme has all 26 basic Latin alphabets, while non-latin alphabets were eliminated. Besides of the official scheme, in Yunnan province there were 2 other schemes for local Zhuang dialects, known as the “Wenshan scheme” and the “Qiubei scheme”. They were proposed in 1986 (Lu 2001). This paper will introduce various romanization schemes of the Zhuang language, and analyse the correspondence between different schemes and the sound system of the Zhuang language. Moreover, this paper will discuss the difficulties encountered by the current official scheme of Zhuang romanization in representing different Zhuang dialects, and in promoting the romanization scheme among the Zhuang people.

Selected References

British and Foreign Bible Society (1904) Fù În Ma-Tai (Chung Chia Vernacular: Gospel of Matthew). Shanghai: British and Foreign Bible Society.


ERGATIVIZATION AND ‘PASSIVIZATION’ IN CHINESE
Sze-Wing Tang
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

It is argued in this paper that both direct and indirect passives in Chinese are derived by ergativization. There are two strategies that the patient object of the ergativized verb may survive, namely (a) undergoing movement, deriving direct passives, such as (1), and (b) being retained and assigned partitive Case from the ergativized verb, deriving indirect passives, such as (2).

Assuming that every predicate must have a subject, the ergativized predicates should have a subject and it could receive any kind of thematic roles, such as Instrumental (na kuai rou ‘that piece of meat’) in (3), as long as it is not agentive. Eventually, the subject of the ergativized predicate undergoes movement, serving as the subject of the matrix clause.

The noun phrase preceded by bei in long passives is not the agent and should be analyzed as the subject of a light verb CAUSE, interpreted as the causer semantically. The causative verb can be null, as in (1)-(3), or overtly realized as ba, as in (4). It is the causative verb that signals disposal in long passives.

It is further proposed that passives, causatives (i.e. the ba-construction), and pseudo-passives are all derived by ergativization. In (5), ‘S3’ is a pseudo-passive, in which ‘NP3’ is the subject of the ergativized verb; ‘S2’ is a causative derived by adding a causative verb to S3, in which ‘NP2’ is the causer; ‘S1’ is a long passive, in which the passive element bei is added to the ba-construction and ‘NP1’ is the subject of bei.

Why is bei added to the structure? It does not necessarily trigger ergativization or syntactic movement. Ergativization and movement should be independent from so-called ‘passivization’ (i.e. bei-insertion) in Chinese. The major function of bei is to select a clause (affector) and impose adversity/affectedness on its subject (affectee).

(1) Zhangsan bei tufei sha-le.
   Zhangsan BEI bandit kill-Perf
   ‘Zhangsan got killed by the bandits.’

(2) Zhangsan bei tufei sha-le fuqin.
   Zhangsan BEI tufei kill-Perf father
   ‘Zhangsan had his father killed by the bandits.’

(3) Na kuai rou, bei mama ei chao-le qingjiao.
   that Cl meat BEI mother fry-Perf green pepper
   ‘That piece of meat was used to be stir-fried with green pepper by mother.’

(4) Zhangsan bei tufei ba tui da-duan-le.
   Zhangsan BEI bandit BA leg hit-break-Perf
   ‘Zhangsan had a leg broken by the bandits.’

(5) [S1 NP1 bei [S2 NP2 (ba) [S3 NP3 V (NP4) ]]]
A BILINGUAL CHILD IS ABLE TO DISTINGUISH TWO SYSTEMS OF GRAMMAR FROM BEGINNING:
EVIDENCE FROM ACOUSTIC STUDY OF WORD-FINAL PLOSIVES

Tsui Wai Ming
tsuiwaiming@hotmail.com
Department of Modern Languages and Intercultural Studies
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

One of the major issues in the field of bilingual language acquisition is whether a bilingual child starts off with one system of grammar and gradually divides it into two (GDT, Gradual Differentiation Theory), or with two systems from the very beginning (SDT, Separate Development Theory) (Khattab 2002). The critical evidence determining which theories is more justifiable will come from the bilingual data before age 2;0. Evidence of this sort comes from the morphological analysis from Deuchar and Quay (1998). The writers show clear evidence supporting SDT at 1;11. This evidence seems to provide some support to SDT. However, it is simply based on a single token from the data. If SDT is to be better support, obviously, data which illustrate a bilingual child can consistently separate the two grammars is necessary.

The present study intends to provide more consistent data supporting SDT. Acoustic study of a Cantonese-English bilingual child's speech is carried out. The recording of the data is different from the previous study (e.g. Deuchar and Clark 1996) that it is taken from natural conversation among the child, the experimenter and the parents. In particular, it studies the burst amplitudes of word-final voiceless plosives. The method of measuring the amplitude is modified from Cho and Ladefoged (2002): RMS ratio is computed by dividing RMS amplitude after the vowel offset by the peak RMS of vowel. Therefore, the burst energy is normalized and comparison across speakers can be achieved. The results illustrate that, at as early as 1;10, the child was able to consistently distinguish English and Cantonese systems by producing released and unreleased bursts respectively.

The results are significant in two aspects: First, they show the child was trying to constantly distinguish the Cantonese and English systems of grammar before age 2;0, hence SDT is provided with more support. Second, previous studies (e.g. Allen 1985, Bond 1980, Konefal and Fokes 1981, Deuchar and Quay 1996, Snow 1997, John and Wilson 2002, Khattab 2002a, Khattab 2002b, Keshavarz and Ingram 2002) investigate how bilingual children differentiate two systems by approximating its production to the adult systems. On the other hand, the results of this study show the child tried to distinguish the two systems by deviating from the adult systems, as English word-final voiceless plosives are typically unreleased (Cruttenden 1994), whereas the child consistently released his English plosives.
學習粵語拼音和語音意識
童哲生
香港城市大學

本節討論學習香港語言學學會粵語拼音方案（簡稱粵拼）和辨別語音能力的關係。五十四名本港大專學生在參與一個粵拼課程的前和後均接受一項語音意識測驗。測驗結果顯示參與課程後，大學生的語音意識明顯提高，但相對不同的語音，語音意識的提高程度不同。本節探討這些差別的意義和對粵拼課程設計的啓示。

AN EXAMINATION OF THE ACOUSTIC CORRELATES IN ENGLISH WORD STRESS BY CANTONESE-SPEAKING ESL LEARNERS
Cathy S.P. Wong
Department of English, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

This paper reports on the preliminary findings on the acoustic features of a group of Cantonese-speaking ESL learners’ production of English word stress.

It has been found that Cantonese-speaking ESL learners produced English speech with no noticeable differences between strong and weak syllables (Bolton and Kwok 1990; Setter 2000). In effect, prominence is not realized in a way which native speakers normally expect. Normally, the three acoustic correlates that are regarded as relevant to prominence are syllable duration, loudness and pitch change. While syllable duration has been analyzed (Setter 2000), the other two dimensions have not been examined in detail. One of the aims of the present study is to explore how these three features are used in realizing English word stress as produced by Cantonese-speaking ESL learners.

A group of advanced Cantonese-speaking ESL learners were asked to read aloud a set of 35 items. These test items were adapted from Archibald (1997) for the examination of English word stress pattern. These items were randomized and each item was pronounced two times. An RP native speaker was also invited to take part in the test. Audio recording was made in a sound-proof booth on MDs. The recorded data were then analyzed by PRAAT (Version 4.0.35). The three relevant dimensions of stress: syllable length, intensity, and pitch patterns were measured and compared.

The results show that although in terms of syllable duration and pitch change, some learners in this group do demonstrate some deviation from the native speaker’s pattern, it is in loudness that most speakers consistently deviate from the native speaker’s pattern. Most of the words produced by this group of learners are characterized by intensity peaks which are almost identical. Some of the peaks coincide with the stressed syllables and some do not. In the same words produced by the native speaker, on the other hand, there is always only one easily identifiable intensity peak which always falls on the stressed syllable.
WEAKENED SYLLABLES AND STRESS IN CANTONESE
Roxana Fung & Cathy Wong
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

It is still unclear whether there exists any phenomenon that can be characterized as stress in Cantonese. Unlike other varieties of Chinese, Cantonese does not exhibit tone neutralization, and most function words, including sentence final particles, bear lexical tones. Hence, it seems that there are no unstressed syllables in Cantonese. However, when we examine the phonological realization revealed in a spontaneous speech corpus of modern Hong Kong Cantonese, consonant deletion, vowel reduction and syllable fusion are quite frequently found. These kinds of phonetic implementations are indirectly related to stress in many languages. We regard the characterization of reduced syllables as a good starting point for the investigation of stress in Cantonese. In our study, we first examine the distribution of reduced syllables with reference to their phonological environment and grammatical category. We then proceed to investigate their acoustic characteristics with reference to intensity, fundamental frequency and syllable duration. It is hoped that the present study would shed some lights on the study of stress in Cantonese by providing findings from spontaneous speech.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE USE OF VERBS IN THE WRITING OF HONG KONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
Colleen Wong and Marian Wu
Department of English, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

This study focuses on Hong Kong secondary students learning to express temporality in English. The use of English verbs and tenses in the students' writing will be examined.

The 5-year curriculum specifies a range of tenses be taught in the first three years -- in Secondary 1, the simple present, present continuous, past, and future tenses; in Secondary 2, the past continuous and present perfect tenses; in Secondary 3, the past perfect tense and conditionals. Modals are dealt with in Secondary 2 and 3. These tenses are reviewed in the last two years.

We have created a learner English corpus based on the compositions written by Secondary 1, 2, 3 and 5 students in a Hong Kong secondary school. The corpus comprises 542 pieces of writing under 25 titles of various text types, including descriptive, narrative, expository and discursive.

We will report on the stages of learning of tenses and the kinds of verbs used by Secondary 1 to 3 students. In particular, we have found differential uses of tenses, verbs and adverb phrases between weaker and stronger students throughout all grade levels. For example, in a Secondary 2 composition, 95% of the verbs used were in the simple present tense. Weaker students used "stative" verbs and verb "be" exclusively and no "activity" verbs were found. Stronger students used a wider range of verbs and tenses, from descriptions of the present (My name is... I live in...) to past references (When I was young, I was very naughty), then back to the present (Now I feel sorry...) and
ends with the future (What will I be?)

Among the questions we will raise is the pedagogic rationale and effectiveness of the prescribed teaching sequence of tenses vis-à-vis learners' cognitive maturity in temporality built up through their first language experiences.

References:

港臺客家與閩南話相關諺俗語說略
王晉光
香港中文大學中文系

漢語方言，無論劃分七區、八區或十區，（張光宇 1996:1）其實是各有系統，口語一般不能互通。各地俗語、諺語從屬於方言，其中當然包含了詞彙和語法成分，並且與各地區人民的生活經驗和文化因素有關，因而也各具特色，一般來說，也並不互通。

客家人主要雜處於閩、粵、贛交界地區。羅香林認為他們是南遷漢人和畲族接觸、雜處，遭受要挾以至通婚、「發生混化」的民系。 （羅香林，1975:74-76）客家話與贛語之差異在於「族群」，與閩語關係密切在於「共同有個北方淵源」。（張光宇，1996:19）我們翻查文獻，發現一個現象，一些流行於客家方言區之俗語和諺語，如福建長汀、廣東梅縣、臺灣苗栗、香港新界的諺語，亦同時流行於香港、廣州、泉州、臺北等地。本文羅列一些例證，探討其關係可能性。

近年粵、閩、客方言研究成為熱門之學，但研究者重點多數放在調查語音系統、詞彙、語法上，較少討論俗語、諺語、歇後語。詹伯慧《廣東粵方言概要》書後附了一個詳盡的文獻書目，而有關俗語、諺語、歇後語、謎語的文獻不過23條而已。（詹伯慧，2002:497-561）丁邦新、張雙慶《閩語研究及其與周邊方言的關係》編錄多篇探討方言間關係的論文，皆集中於語音系統或詞彙。翻查客、閩、粵歷屆研討會已出版之論文集，此類文章亦相當罕見。

本文羅列客家話中諺俗語與泉州閩語中相同條目，然後試圖參考語言擴散說，推測分隔兩地之不同方言語系之日常用語，其傳播之可能性。

1 唯見林榕蔭、林松陽(1996)〈南澳方言漁業諺語匯釋〉，詹伯慧、李如龍、張雙慶《第四屆國際閩方言研討會論文集》（汕頭：汕頭大學出版社）頁189-213。
ON THE MODAL INTERPRETATION OF THE FINAL PARTICLE AA1 MAA3
WONG, Nai-fai
Hong Kong Shue Yan College

In Cantonese, modality is expressed by modal verbs, modal adverbs and modal final particles. These modal words, similar to their counterparts in other languages, are “sentence operators at some level of logical form” (Kratzer 1991: 642). Questions arise as to what conditions the co-occurrence of these sentence operators.

This paper explores the interpretation of aa1 maa3 呀嗎, an epistemic sentence particle (Matthews and Yip 1994), and its relationship with other epistemic modal words in the same clause. The particle aa1 maa3 suggests the obviousness of a proposition. It is found that aa1 maa3 seems not so compatible with epistemic modal verbs and epistemic modal adverbs in the same clause, as in

(1) (a) 佢仲未番屋企嘅?
she still not yet return home PRT
“She is not back yet?”

(b) 個呀，佢應該/可能/肯定/或者去咗買嘢。
yes PRT she should/may/certainly/probably go PERFECT buy things
“Yes, she must/may have gone out to buy things.”

(c) 個呀，佢去咗買嘢呀嗎。
yes PRT she go PERFECT buy things obviously
“Yes, obviously she’s gone to buy things.”

(d) */??係呀，佢應該/可能/肯定/或者去咗買嘢呀嗎。

To respond to (1a) and (2a), using modal verbs or adverbs (1b and 2b) or using aa1 maa3 (1c and 2c) is fine, but the sentences crash when a sentence contains both (1d and 2d).

The ill-formedness of the (d) sentences above is either due to different modal strengths (or forces), or different modal reasoning. This study will attempt to resolve the issue in line with Kratzer (1991).

References:
THE SEMANTICS OF THE DURATIVE MARKER ZHE AND ITS DEPENDENCY ON CONTEXT
AN SEGMENTED DISCOURSE REPRESENTATION THEORY ACCOUNT
Jiun-Shiung Hunter Wu and Jenny Yi-Chun Kuo
National Chiayi University

This paper aims to provide a satisfactory semantics for the durative marker zhe. In the literature, such as Li and Thompson (1981), Lin (2002), Smith (1997), Yeh (1993), it is always suggested that the durative marker zhe goes with a certain class of predicates and the difference between these proposals lies in which class of predicate zhe can go with, e.g. Lin proposes that zhe goes with atelic events, including states and activities, while Yeh suggests that zhe goes with stage-level static predicates.

While Yeh is correct that zhe can go with stage-level static predicates, one complication about the interaction between activities and zhe is not discussed in the literature. That is, some activities cannot go with zhe alone, as in (1a) and (1b), but they can go with zhe only under one of the three circumstances: the combination goes with an adverbial, as (2a), the combination serves as the V1 in a V1 zhe V2 construction, as in (2b), and the combination stands in a clause which serves as a temporal background for another event, as in (2c).

1. a. ta qi zhe jiaotache (A superscripted I means “incomplete”)
   he ride DUR bike
   ‘He is/was riding a bike, ....’

   b. ta ku zhe
   he cry DUR
   ‘He is/was crying, ......’

2. a. ta gaoxingde/zheng tian qi zhe jiaotache
   he happily / whole day ride DUR bike
   ‘He is/was riding a bike happily/the whole day.’

   b. ta qi zhe jiaotache shangxue
   he ride DUR bike go to school
   ‘He goes to school by bike.’

   c. zuotian zaoshang dang ta qi zhe jiaotache de shihou ta jeje dou zai nianshu
   yesterday morning when he ride DUR bike DE time he sister all PRG study
   ‘Yesterday morning, during the time when he was riding a bike, his sister was studying all the time.’

This paper argues that zhe must go with a homogeneous eventuality and a non-homogeneous event which has the potential to become homogeneous can be coerced, by the context where it occurs, to become homogeneous. An interval-denoting adverbial can bring out homogeneity just as Dowty (1979: 168) suggests. An adverbial of manner lumps together the subevents of a non-homogeneous activity predicate, eliminates the distinction between the subevents, and distributes the property denoted by the adverbial over the lumped-together subevents, which provides the subinterval property. The V1 in the V1 zhe V2 construction serves as a temporal background for the V2, and a temporal
background tends to be homogeneous (cf. Asher and Lascarides 2003: 207). That is, the three circumstances presented above can all coerce a non-homogenous event which has the potential to become homogenous to become homogenous so that *zhe* can be compatible with them under these three circumstances.

**ALLBALANCED: A PROMOTER OF TRI-LINGUALISM AND BI-LITERACY**

Zhang Xiaoheng
Department of Chinese and Bilingual Studies
Hong Kong Polytechnic University

The important features of AllBalanced (全衡) at its present state include:

1. Runs on the WWW and is accessible to any Web client machine supporting Unicode (including PCs with Win 2000/XP of any language version);  
2. Supports Chinese character input using the methods of word-based Jyutping (粵拼), word-based Sucheng (速成), word-based Cangjie (倉頡), word-based Hanyu Pinyin (漢語拼音), character-based stroke order(筆順) and character-based ZYQ (正易全);  
3. Allows each input method to input traditional Chinese characters, simplified Chinese characters as well as a limited number of Hong Kong local characters;  
4. Allows input of pinyin word expressions with standard marks of tones, such as “xiānggāng míntiān huì gènghǎo!”;  
5. Enables convenient consultation for valuable information on Chinese characters and Chinese words, including their traditional characters, simplified characters, Hanyu Pinyin, Jyutpin, writing stroke orders, Cangjie codes, Sucheng codes and ZYQ codes, as well as the English equivalents of some Chinese words, which has made AllBalanced a better promoter of trilingualism and bi-literacy.

**A NOTE ON THE DIALECTAL BOUNDARY BETWEEN TAIZHOU AND WUZHOU WU**

Xiaonong Zhu
hmxzhu@ust.hk e900433@yahoo.com
Hong Kong University of Science and Technology

This paper examines the linguistic affiliation of a small area of Jinhua district at the boundary to Taizhou district, Zhejiang province. The dialects used in this area are classified under the Wuzhou sub-group of Wu. According to the linguistic intuition of the informants from that narrow area, however, the local dialects are closer to the Taizhou than to the Wuzhou sub-group. Fundamental
frequencies of the *yin-qu* tone of three dialects in that area are measured and compared with those of Taizhou and Wuzhou. It is found that the *yin-qu* pitch of the dialects under investigation is similar to those of Taizhou dialects. The most striking phonetic feature which the area shares with Taizhou is “creaky voice” associated with the *shangsheng* tones. Based on these findings, I suggest that the boundary between the Wuzhou and Taizhou sub-groups be moved westward to the Dapan mountain ridge and the dialects of that area be reclassified and included in the Taizhou sub-group. In addition, this paper has clarified an old phonetic puzzle that the so-called “mid-glottal stop” is actually creaky voice.