

China Perspectives

**PRACTICAL GRAMMAR OF
MODERN CHINESE III**
SENTENCE CONSTITUENTS

Liu Yuehua, Pan Wenyu, and Gu Wei



Practical Grammar of Modern Chinese III

Chinese grammar is characterized by its simple structure, lack of inflections, and wide use of monosyllabic morphemes. With the increased popularity of learning Chinese as a second language, there is a demand for a guide to Chinese grammar that's targeted at second language learners.

This four-volume set is one of the earliest and most influential works of Chinese grammar, with a special focus on teaching and learning Chinese as a second language. Drawing on rich teaching experience, the authors analyze a myriad of real-world examples to describe Chinese grammatical phenomena and rules while introducing the general grammar system of Chinese. This volume introduces sentence constituents in modern Chinese grammar, including subjects, objects, attributes, adverbials, complements, double references, and parentheses.

Since the first edition came out in 1983, this set has been revised twice and has remained one of the best sellers in the field. Practitioners and scholars of teaching Chinese as a second language, as well as students with a basic knowledge of Chinese, will find it to be a handy reference.

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Sentence Constituents

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First published 2021
by Routledge
2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon, OX14 4RN

and by Routledge
52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, NY 10017

Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business

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Translated by Yang Huiying

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English Version by permission of The Commercial Press.

British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

A catalog record for this book has been requested

ISBN: 978-0-367-56301-1 (hbk)

ISBN: 978-1-003-09722-8 (ebk)

Typeset in Times New Roman
by Apex CoVantage, LLC

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1 Subjects and predicates

Section one: features of subjects and predicates

A sentence can usually be divided into two parts. One is the subject part and the other is the predicate part. The subject part narrates, explains, or describes an object; the predicate part narrates, explains, or describes the subject. The cores of the two parts are subject and object respectively.

Example 1 他们上个星期游泳了。[tā men shàng gè xīng qī yóu yǒng le.]
(They went swimming last week.)

Example 2 街上的人真多。[jiē shàng de rén zhēn duō.]
(There are so many people in the street.)

In Example 1, “他们 [tā men] (they)” is the subject part as well as the subject in the sentence. “上个星期游泳了 [shàng gè xīng qī yóu yǒng le] (went swimming last week)” is the predicate part, in which “游泳 [yóu yǒng] (swimming)” is the predicate verb in it. In Example 2, “街上的人 [jiē shàng de rén] (people in the street)” is the subject part, in which “人 [rén] (people)” is the subject. “真多 [zhēn duō] (so many)” is the predicate part, in which “多 [duō] (many)” is the predicate. Generally speaking, subject and object are two main and indispensable constituents in the sentence, except for the sentence with no subject or the single-word/phrase sentence. For example, without the definite context, “他们 [tā men] (they)” or “游泳 [yóu yǒng] (swimming)” cannot clearly represent the complete meaning of the entire sentence “他们游泳。 [tā men yóu yǒng.] (They went swimming).”

In Chinese, the subject in the sentence with verb as predicate doesn't always refer to the doer of an action. Actually, it can indicate the doer, the recipient of an action, or neither of them.

Example 3 我吃了两个馒头。[wǒ chī le liǎng gè mán tou.]
(I ate two steamed buns.) (“I” as the doer of eating)

Example 4 我的馒头叫哥哥吃了。[wǒ de mán tou jiào gē gē chī le.]
(My steamed buns were eaten by my elder brother.) (“steamed buns” as the recipient of eating)

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Example 5 我是老师。[wǒ shì lǎo shī.]

(I am a teacher.) (“I” as neither the doer or the recipient)

These examples sound appropriate without any context, in which the subjects would be the topics as well if they appeared in a discourse.

In the existential sentence, a locational word can function as the subject.

Example 6 桌子上放着一本书。[zhuō zi shàng fàng zhe yī běn shū.]

(There is a book on the desk.) (“on the desk” as the location)

Example 7 前边来了一个人。[qián biān lái le yī gè rén.]

(A man got ahead.) (“ahead” as the location)

The sentence structure in Chinese is greatly restricted by discourse or context. Therefore, if the recipient of an action or the tool involved in an action is known, it will change into the topic and stand before the predicate. On the discourse level, the recipient as topic cannot be parsed further.

In Chinese, adjectives, nominals (phrases), and subject-predicate phrases can function as the predicate: adjectives as the predicate describe the property, state, or change of a person or a thing; nominals as the predicate show features or quantities of people or things; subject-predicate phrases as the predicate explain or describe people or things.

Example 8 他很努力。[tā hěn nǔ lì.]

(He is working very hard.) (adjective as the predicate)

Example 9 他北京人，瘦高个儿，圆脸庞，大眼睛。[tā běi jīng rén, shòu gāo gè er, yuán liǎn páng, dà yǎn jīng.]

(He is a thin Beijinger with a round face and big eyes.) (noun phrase as the predicate)

Example 10 他学习好，工作好，身体好，是个三好学生。[tā xué xí hǎo, gōng zuò hǎo, shēn tǐ hǎo, shì gè sān hǎo xué shēng.]

(He is a merit student who studies well, works hard, and is fit.) (subject-predicate phrase as the predicate)

In Chinese, the predicate generally goes after the subject, except for the inverted sentence in which the predicate comes before the subject. In this case, the subject is often pronounced slightly and divided from the predicate by a comma.

Example 11 真多啊，街上的人。[zhēn duō ā, jiē shàng de rén.]

(There are so many people in the street.)

Example 12 回来了吗，你妈妈？[huí lái le ma, nǐ mā mā?]

(Has your mom come back yet?)

In the following situations, the subject can be absent or invisible.

1 In a conversation or continuous utterances

Example 13

A: 那个人的照片你看过吗? [nà gè rén de zhào piàn nǐ kàn guò le ma?]
(Have you seen that man's photo?)

B: 看过了。[kàn guò le.]

B: (Yes, I have.)

A: 喜欢吗? [xǐ huān ma?]

(Do you like it?)

B: 长得不错。[zhǎng dé bú cuò.]

(He is good looking.)

Example 14 我今天上午去北海划了两个钟头船, 下午又去操场打了一场球, 所以很累。[wǒ jīn tiān shàng wǔ qù běi hǎi huá le liǎng gè zhōng tóu chuán, xià wǔ yòu qù cāo chǎng dǎ le yī chǎng qiú, suǒ yǐ hěn lèi.]

(I went boating in Beihai for two hours this morning and played a ball game on the playground this afternoon, so I was very tired.)

2 In the imperative sentence

In an imperative sentence, the subject can be present or absent.

Example 15 劳驾, 让开点儿。[láo jià, ràng kāi diǎn er.]
(Excuse me. Step aside please.)

Example 16 快去开门。[kuài qù kāi mén.]
(Open the door quickly.)

In a certain context, the predicate verb or object can be absent, too.

Example 17

A: 黑板上的字是谁写的? [hēi bǎn shàng de zì shì shuí xiě de?]
(Who wrote these words on the blackboard?)

B: 我。[wǒ.]
(It's me.)

Example 18

A: 玻璃是谁打破的? [bō li shì shuí dǎ pò de?]
(Who broke the window?)

B: 张小明。[Zhāng Xiǎo míng.]
(Zhang Xiaoming.)

Example 19

A: 下星期, 咱们老校友在北京聚会, 你参加吗? [xià xīng qī, zán men lǎo xiào yǒu zài běi jīng jù huì, nǐ cān jiā ma?]
(We alumni will gather together in Beijing next week. Will you join us?)

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B: 参加。[cān jiā.]

(Yes.)

A: 在哪儿? [zài nǎ er?]

(Where shall we meet?)

B: 未名湖畔。[wèi míng hú pàn.]

(By the lakeside of Weiming Lake.)

Section two: words or phrases as subjects

In Chinese, almost all notional words can function as a subject.

I. Nouns (phrases) or pronouns

These words are the most common subjects.

Example 1 王英是我的朋友。[Wáng Yīng shì wǒ de péng you.]

(Wang Ying is my friend.)

Example 2 月亮渐渐地升起来了。[yuè liàng jiàn jiàn de shēng qǐ lái le.]

(The moon rises gradually.)

Example 3 我们的事业一定会取得胜利。[wǒ men de shì yè yī dìng huì qǔ dé shèng lì.]

(Our cause will definitely win at last.)

Example 4 这是风筝。[zhè shì fēng zhēng.]

(This is a kite.)

Example 5 一切都准备好了。[yí qiè dōu zhun bèi hǎo le.]

(Everything is ready.)

II. Numerals or numeral-quantifier phrases

There are two cases: one is that quantity or unit of quantity functions as the narrative object, indicating the relation between number and measurement.

Example 6 零也是一个数。[líng yě shì yī gè shù.]

(Zero is also a number.)

Example 7 一米等于三市尺。[yī mǐ děng yú sān shì chǐ.]

(One meter equals three feet.)

Example 8 一年三百六十五天。[yī nián sān bǎi liù shí wǔ tiān.]

(There are three hundred and sixty-five days in one year.)

The other is that a numeral-quantifier phrase substitutes the noun it modifies to function as the subject because this noun has been previously mentioned.

Example 9 这儿还有两张票，一张给你，一张给张丽。[zhè er hái yǒu liǎng zhāng piào, yī zhāng gěi nǐ, yī zhāng gěi Zhāng Lì.]

(Here are two tickets, one for you and the other for Zhang Li.)

Example 10 教我们的两位老师，一位姓张，一位姓王。[jiāo wǒ men de liǎng wèi lǎo shī, yī wèi xìng Zhāng, yī wèi xìng Wáng.]

(Two teachers teach us, with one named Zhang and the other Wang.)

Example 11 园林的建筑，十之八九是靠水的。[yuán lín de jiàn zhù, shí zhī bā jiǔ shì kào shuǐ de.]

(In nine cases out of ten, building gardens requires water.)

III. Verbs (phrases) or adjectives (phrases)

When an action or a state becomes the narrative object, a verb (phrase) or adjective (phrase) can directly function as the subject without changing its form.

Example 12 虚心使人进步，骄傲使人落后。[xū xīn shǐ rén jìn bù, jiāo ào shǐ rén luò hòu.]

(Modesty helps one make progress; conceit makes one lag behind.)

Example 13 游泳是一种很好的体育运动。[yóu yǒng shì yī zhǒng hěn hǎo de tǐ yù yùn dòng.]

(Swimming is pretty good physical exercise.)

Example 14 多听、多说、多写、多读，对提高外语/英语水平很有好处。[duō tīng, duō shuō, duō xiě, duō dú, duì tí gāo wài yǔ /yīng yǔ shuǐ píng hěn yǒu hǎo chù.]

(More listening, speaking, writing, and reading help to improve one's foreign language/English level.)

Example 15 你应该少吃点儿，吃得太饱不好。

[nǐ yīng gāi shǎo chī diǎn er, chī dé tài bǎo bù hǎo.]

(You should eat less. Eating too much is not good for your health.)

Example 16 姑娘有点不好意思了，走也不是，坐也不是。[gū niang yǒu diǎn bù hǎo yì si le, zǒu yě bú shì, zuò yě bú shì.]

(The girl felt embarrassed, confusing her leaving or staying.)

In the written language, a verb (phrase) or adjective (phrase) can be modified by attribute when they function as the subject.

Example 17 您的到来为我们的晚会增添了欢乐的气氛。[nín de dào lái wèi wǒ men de wǎn huì zēng tiān le huān lè de qì fēn.]

(Your appearance adds cheer to our party.)

Example 18 第一次较大手术的成功，增强了我们的信心。[dì yī cì jiào dà shǒu shù de chéng gōng, zēng qiáng le wǒ men de xìn xīn.]

(We gained confidence from the success of the first major surgery.)

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Example 19 民族的灾难，人民的痛苦，激发了鲁迅的爱国思想。[mín zú de zāi nàn, rén mín de tòng kǔ, jī fā le Lǔ Xùn de ài guó sī xiǎng.]
(The disaster of the nation and the suffering of the people inspired Lu Xun's patriotic thought.)

IV. “的 [de]” phrases

“的 [de]” phrases often function as subjects, similar to nouns.

Example 20 打猎的追上来一看，狼不见了。[dǎ liè de zhuī shàng lái yī kàn, láng bú jiàn le.]

(When the hunter arrived, the wolf had already been out of sight.)

Example 21 他说的正是我想要的。[tā shuō de zhèng shì wǒ suǒ xiǎng de.]

(What he said was just what I expected.)

Example 22 最令人感动的是他的舍己救人的精神。[zuì lìng rén gǎn dòng de shì tā de shě jǐ jiù rén de jīng shén.]

(What moved us most was his spirit of sacrificing himself to save others.)

V. *Subject-predicate phrases*

Example 23 我们看书学习，掌握知识是为了更好地建设自己的国家。[wǒ men kàn shū xué xí, zhǎng wò zhī shí shì wèi le gèng hǎo de jiàn shè zì jǐ de guó jiā.]

(In order to better build our own country, we keep on learning.)

Example 24 他说话办事是极有分寸的。[tā shuō huà bàn shì shì jí yǒu fēn cùn de.]

(He is very measured in what he says and does.)

Example 25 我这几天不休息没关系。[wǒ zhè jǐ tiān bù xiū xiǎ méi guān xi.]
(It doesn't matter if I don't have a rest these days.)

Sometimes, a subject-predicate phrase can be parsed as subject and as predicate at the same time in a sentence.

Example 26 他讲课很出色。[tā jiǎng kè hěn chū sè.]

(He is excellent in teaching.) (“excellent in teaching” as the predicate)

Example 27 他讲课很出色。[tā jiǎng kè hěn chū sè.]

(He is excellent in teaching.) (“excellent in teaching” as the subject)

These two examples differ in meaning due to their parsing. Example 27 highly evaluates his teaching instead of other aspects; in Example 28, “很出色 [hěn chū sè] (excellent)” as the predicate narrates the subject “他讲课 [tā jiǎng kè] (his teaching).” Besides, a speech pause between the subject and predicate helps confirm the sentence structure.

Section three: words or phrases as predicates

In Chinese, a predicate is mainly performed by a verb (phrase), an adjective (phrase), or sometimes by a noun (phrase) or subject-predicate phrase. In addition, the predicate part includes adverbials, objects, or complements.

I. Verbs or verb phrases as predicates

In the following examples, the predicate part of each contains different constituents.

Example 1 他已经从国外回来了。[tā yǐ jīng cóng guó wài huí lái le.]
(He has come back from abroad.) (adverbial)

Example 2 最近，他创建了一个公司。[zuì jìn, tā chuàng jiàn le yī gè gōng sī.]
(He has set up a company recently.) (object)

Example 3 他的事业很快就发展起来了。[tā de shì yè hěn kuài jiù fā zhǎn qǐ lái le.]
(His career soon developed.) (adverbial and complement.)

Example 4 您的预言已经变成了现实。[nín de yù yán yǐ jīng biàn chéng le xiàn shí.]
(Your prediction has come true.) (adverbial, complement, and object.)

Example 5 他让他的儿女们回来学习自己祖国的语言。[tā ràng tā de ér nǚ men huí lái xué xí zì jǐ zǔ guó de yǔ yán.]
(He lets his children come back to learn their own language.)
(bi-constituents)

II. Adjectives or adjective phrases as predicates

Example 6 今天天气热，昨天凉快。[jīn tiān tiān qì rè, zuó tiān liáng kuài.]
(It is hot today and it was cool yesterday.) (single adjective)

Example 7 院子里乘凉的人很多。[yuàn zi lǐ chéng liáng de rén hěn duō.]
(There are many people enjoying the cool in the yard.) (adverbial)

Example 8 见到久别的儿子，老太太高兴极了。[jiàn dào jiǔ bié de ér zi, lǎo tài tài gāo xìng jí le.]
(After a long separation, the old lady was overjoyed to see her son again.)
(complement)

III. Nouns or noun phrases as predicates

Example 9 今天新年。[jīn tiān xīn nián.]
(Today is New Year.) (noun)

Example 10 现在十二点钟。[xiàn zài shí èr diǎn zhōng.]
(It is twelve o'clock now.) (noun phrase)

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Example 11 那套房子六十平米，两室一厅。[nà tào fáng zi liù shí píng mǐ, liǎng shì yì tīng.]
(That house with two bedrooms and a living area measures 60 square meters.)
(numeral-quantifier phrase and noun)

Example 12 这个大西瓜三元五角。[zhè gè dà xī guā sān yuán wǔ jiǎo.]
(This big watermelon costs three yuan five jiao.) (numeral-quantifier phrase)

IV. *Subject-predicates as predicates*

Example 13 他个子很高，走路很快。[tā gè zi hěn gāo, zǒu lù hěn kuài.]
(He is very tall and walks fast.)

Example 14 我头疼。[wǒ tóu téng.]
(I have a headache.)

Example 15 小明学习很努力。[Xiǎo Míng xué xí hěn nǔ lì.]
(Xiao Ming studies very hard.)

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2 Objects

An object refers to the entity involved in an action and makes this action conveyed by the verb clearer and more concrete. Therefore, an object is considered as the constituent associated to a verb or is directly connected with a verb without any function words in the middle.

Section one: semantic relations between verbs and objects

Whether a certain constituent functions as an object or not depends on two conditions in the sentence with the verb as the predicate. One is whether it is the object of an action and the other is whether it comes after the verb. Object is not always the recipient of an action; sometimes it functions as the doer of an action.

Example 1 台上坐着主席团。[tái shàng zuò zhe zhǔ xí tuán.]
(The presidium is sitting on the stage.)

Example 2 我家来了一位客人。[wǒ jiā lái le yī wèi kè rén.]
(A guest came to visit my family.)

In the examples, “主席团 [zhǔ xí tuán] (presidium)” and “一位客人 [yī wèi kè rén] (a guest)” are the doers of “sitting” and “visit,” and they actually function as the existing objects in the sentences.

The semantic relations between verb and object are various and the common ones are discussed in the following.

I. Objects as the recipients of action

Example 3 我学习中文。[wǒ xué xí zhōng wén.]
(I learn Chinese.)

Example 4 谢谢你，谢谢中国大夫。[xiè xiè nǐ, xiè xiè zhōng guó dài fu.]
(Thank you, Chinese doctor, thanks.)

Example 5 我们都认识不少汉字了。[wǒ men dōu rèn shí bù shǎo hàn zì le.]
(We have learned quite a few Chinese characters.)

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Example 6 张老师教我们。[Zhāng lǎo shī jiāo wǒ men.]
(Prof. Zhang teaches us.)

Example 7 我们才认识不久,我不太了解他。[wǒ men cái rèn shi bù jiǔ, wǒ bú tài liǎo jiě tā.]
(I don't know him very well because we've just known each other for a short time.)

II. *Objects as the results of action*

Example 8 他们挖了许多地洞。[tā men wā le xǔ duō dì dòng.]
(They have dug many caves under the ground.)

Example 9 他最近又写了一首长诗。[tā zuì jìn yòu xiě le yī shǒu cháng shī.]
(He has written another long poem recently.)

Example 10 我们在这儿照几张相。[wǒ men zài zhè er zhào jǐ zhāng xiàng.]
(We took several photos here.)

Example 11 彼得用那只接活的手,在一块红布上绣了“友谊”两个字。[Bǐ dé yòng nà zhǐ jiē huó de shǒu, zài yī kuài hóng bù shàng xiù le “yǒu yì” liǎng gè zì.]
(Peter embroidered “friendship” on a piece of red cloth with his recovered hand.)

III. *Objects as the tools involved in an action*

Example 12 她女儿拉小提琴拉得可好了。[tā nǚ ér lā xiǎo tí qín lā de kě hǎo le.]
(Her daughter is good at playing the violin.)

Example 13 他在给大米过筛子,把碎米分出来。[tā zài gěi dà mǐ guò shāi zi, bǎ suì mǐ fèn chū lái.]
(He is sifting out the rice to separate the broken rice.)

Example 14 运动场上人多极了,有的跳绳,有的舞剑,有的荡秋千,还有的在爬绳、跳马或者扔手榴弹、投标枪。[yùn dòng chǎng shàng rén duō jí le, yǒu de tiào shéng, yǒu de wǔ jiàn, yǒu de dàng qiū qiān, hái yǒu de zài pá shéng, tiào mǎ huò zhě rēng shǒu liú dàn, tóu biāo qiāng.]
(The playground is crowded with people skipping rope, dancing with swords, swinging, climbing rope, vaulting, or throwing discus and javelin.)

IV. *Objects as the locations or the directions of action*

Example 15 明天我们去长城。[míng tiān wǒ men qù cháng chéng.]
(We will go to the Great Wall tomorrow.)

Example 16 我们昨天没有爬山。[wǒ men zuó tiān méi yǒu pá shān.]
(We didn't climb the mountain yesterday.)

Example 17 走大路太远，咱们穿小路吧。[zǒu dà lù tài yuǎn, zán men chuān xiǎo lù ba.]

(It takes more time by the main road, so let's take the side road.)

Example 18 星期天我们一家人常去逛公园。[xīng qī tiān wǒ men yī jiā rén cháng qù guàng gōng yuán.]

(Our family often goes to the park on Sundays.)

Sometimes, the predicate verb is not an action verb when the object refers to direction or location.

Example 19 我们学校的办公楼座西朝东。[wǒ men xué xiào de bàn gōng lóu zuò xī cháo dōng.]

(Our school office building faces the east.)

Example 20 这条石子路直通后花园。[zhè tiáo shí zi lù zhí tōng hòu huā yuán.]

(This cobbled road directly leads to the back garden.)

Example 21 我的家就在学校的对面。[wǒ de jiā jiù zài xué xiào de duì miàn.]

(I live just opposite to the school.)

Example 22 在大森林里，哪儿是南，哪儿是北，我简直认不出来了。[zài dà sēn lín lǐ, nǎ er shì nán, nǎ er shì běi, wǒ jiǎn zhí rèn bù chū lái le.]

(In the forest, I am totally confused with directions.)

V. *Objects as the purpose or the reason of action*

Example 23 她着急自己的病老看不到好。[tā zhāo jí zì jǐ de bìng lǎo kàn bù hǎo.]

(She was anxious as her illness lasted a long time.)

Example 24 我后悔没嘱咐小明两句。[wǒ hòu huǐ méi zhǔ fù Xiǎo Míng liǎng jù.]

(I regret not giving Xiao Ming some advice.)

Example 25 外婆到乡下躲清静去了。[wài pó dào xiāng xià duǒ qīng jìng qù le.]

(Grandma went to the countryside for peace and quiet.)

Example 26 救急救不了穷啊！还得自己找饭碗子。[jiù jí jiù bù liǎo qióng ā! hái dé zì jǐ zhǎo fàn wǎn zi.]

(Help is only necessary for an emergency. You have to find a job by yourself.)

VI. *Objects as the existing or disappeared entities in existential sentences*

Example 27 外边有人。[wài biān yǒu rén.]

(Someone is outside.)

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Example 28 桌子上放着一套茶具和两个花瓶。[zhuō zi shàng fàng zhe yī tào chá jù hé liǎng gè huā píng.]

(There is a tea set and two vases on the table.)

Example 29 客厅的后面还有一个书房。[kè tīng de hòu miàn hái yǒu yī gè shū fāng.]

(There is a study behind the living room.)

Example 30 房间里只剩下我们俩了。[fáng jiān lǐ zhǐ shèng xià wǒ men liǎ le.]

(Only we two are left in the room.)

Example 31 一九一四年爆发了第一次世界大战。[yī jiǔ yī sì nián bào fā le dì yī cì shì jiè dà zhàn.]

(World War I broke out in 1914.)

Besides the aforementioned, there exist some other relations between verbs and objects and some of them are not easy to explain.

Example 32 祥子，咱们服个软，给他赔个不是。[Xiáng Zi, zán men fú gè ruǎn, gěi tā péi gè bú shì.]

(Xiang Zi, let's give up and apologize to him.)

Example 33 他又拉了个买卖，到家已经十一点多了。[tā yòu lā le gè mǎi mài, dào jiā yǐ jīng shí yī diǎn duō le.]

(He finished another deal and then got home after eleven o'clock.)

Section two: words or phrases as objects

I. Nouns (phrases) or pronouns as objects

Example 1 我们都学习汉语，阿里学现代汉语，我学古代汉语。[wǒ men dōu xué xí hàn yǔ, Ā Lǐ xué xiàn dài hàn yǔ, wǒ xué gǔ dài hàn yǔ.]

(We both learn Chinese. A Li learns modern Chinese and I learn ancient Chinese.)

Example 2 他们正在编写一本简明汉英小词典。[tā men zhèng zài biān xiě yī běn jiǎn míng hàn yīng xiǎo cí diǎn.]

(They are compiling a concise Chinese-English dictionary.)

Example 3 你们在谈论什么？[nǐ men zài tán lùn shén me?]

(What are you talking about?)

Example 4 这件事我托付您了。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ tuō fù nín le.]

(I leave it to you.)

II. “的 [de]” phrases as objects

Example 5 毛衣的样式很多，您要什么样的。[máo yī de yàng shì hěn duō, nín yào shén me yàng de.]

(There are sweaters of different styles. Which one do you want?)

Example 6 我买到的电影票是晚上七点半的。[wǒ mǎi dào de diàn yǐng piào shì wǎn shàng qī diǎn bàn de.]

(The movie ticket I bought says 7:30 p.m.)

Example 7 花园里的花有各种颜色，有黄的，粉的，红的，白的，淡绿的，五光十色，非常好看。[huā yuán lǐ de huā yǒu gè zhǒng yán sè, yǒu huáng de, fěn de, hóng de, bái de, dàn lǜ de, wǔ guāng shí sè, fēi cháng hǎo kàn.]

(The flowers in the garden are of different colors, such as yellow, pink, red, white, light green.)

Example 8 后面追上来几个打猎的。[hòu miàn zhuī shàng lái jǐ gè dǎ liè de.]

(Here followed several hunters.)

Example 9 您不用谢了,这是我们应该做的。[nín bú yòng xiè le, zhè shì wǒ men yīng gāi zuò de.]

(You don't need to say thanks because it is what we should do.)

III. Numerals or numeral-quantifier phrases as objects

Example 10 三乘三得九。[sān chéng sān dé jiǔ.]

(Three multiplied by three equals nine.)

Example 11 一米等于十分米。[yī mǐ děng yú shí fēn mǐ.]

(One meter is equal to ten centimeters.)

Example 12 这两所学校相距三四里。[zhè liǎng suǒ xué xiào xiāng jù sān sì lǐ.]

(These two schools are three or four li apart.)

Example 13 这个地区的水面面积约占全部面积的五分之三。[zhè gè dì qū de shuǐ miàn miàn jī yuē zhàn quán bù miàn jī de wǔ fēn zhī sān.]

(The water area takes up about three-fifths of the total.)

Example 14 他们住的房间是308。[tā men zhù de fáng jiān shì sān líng bā.]

(Their room is No. 308.)

Sometimes, a numeral-quantifier phrase functions as an object to indicate a thing that has been previously mentioned.

Example 15

A: 最近你看了篮球比赛吗? [zui jìn nǐ kàn le lán qiú bǐ sài ma?]

(Have you watched the basketball match recently?)

B: 上星期看了一场。[shàng xīng qī kàn le yī chǎng.]

(I watched one last week.)

Example 16 这样的纪念邮票我有三套，送你一套吧。[zhè yàng de jì niàn yóu piào wǒ yǒu sān tào, sòng nǐ yī tào ba.]

(I have three sets of these commemorative stamps. One set for you.)

IV. Verbs (phrases) or adjectives (phrases) as objects

Some verbs only take verbs as their objects and they include those involved in the process, such as “进行 [jìn xíng] (proceed),” “给予 [jǐ yǔ] (give),” “给以 [jǐ yǐ] (give),” or those involved in psychological states, such as “感觉 [gǎn jué] (sense),” “感到 [gǎn dào] (feel),” “希望 [xī wàng] (hope),” “以为 [yǐ wéi] (think),” “认为 [rèn wéi] (think),” or some action verbs, such as “开始 [kāi shǐ] (begin),” “继续 [jì xù] (go on),” “打算 [dǎ suàn] (intend).”

Example 17 这个问题我们已经进行了多次研究。[zhè gè wèn tí wǒ men yǐ jīng jìn xíng le duō cì yán jiū.]

(We have had several discussions on this issue.)

Example 18 根据大家的意见，这个设计图纸还需加以修改。[gēn jù dà jiā de yì jiàn, zhè gè shè jì tú zhǐ hái xū jiā yǐ xiū gǎi.]

(The design drawing needs to be modified further according to everyone's opinion.)

Example 19 现在继续开会，请大家入座。[xiàn zài jì xù kāi huì, qǐng dà jiā rù zuò.]

(Now let's continue the meeting. Please be seated.)

Example 20 代表们同意我们的安排。[dài biǎo men tóng yì wǒ men de ān pái.]

(The representatives agree with our arrangement.)

Example 21 关于这个方案，王工程师还要作进一步解释和说明。[guān yú zhè gè fāng àn, Wáng gōng chéng shī hái yào zuò jìn yī bù jiě shì hé shuō míng.]

(As for this plan, Engineer Wang needs to give more explanations and demonstrations.)

V. Subject-predicate phrases as objects

When a subject-predicate phrase functions as an object, it narrates a thing. Predicate verbs mainly include those involved in feeling or psychological activities and they are as follows:

说 [shuō] (say), 想 [xiǎng] (consider), 看 [kàn] (see), 听 [tīng] (listen), 觉得 [jué de] (think), 认为 [rèn wéi] (consider), 以为 [yǐ wéi] (think), 记得 [jì de] (remember), 忘 [wàng] (forget), 忘记 [wàng jì] (forget), 知道 [zhī dào] (know), 相信 [xiāng xìn] (believe), 认识 [rèn shi] (recognize), 希望 [xī wàng] (hope), 赞成 [zàn chéng] (agree), 怕 [pà] (fear), 反对 [fǎn duì] (oppose), 同意 [tóng yì] (agree), 发现 [fā xiàn] (discover), 指出 [zhǐ chū] (point out), 建议 [jiàn yì] (suggest).

Example 22 我知道你一心想做好人民代表的工作。[wǒ zhī dào nǐ yī xīn xiǎng zuò hǎo rén mín dài biǎo de gōng zuò.]

(I understand that you are determined to be a qualified representative of the people.)

Example 23 那时候,我多么盼望我能走进大学的校门啊! [nà shí hòu, wǒ duō me pàn wàng wǒ néng zǒu jìn dà xué de xiào mén a.]

(How I wished I could go to college at that time.)

Example 24 我们看到她的短发已经变成两条长辫子了。[wǒ men kàn dào tā de duǎn fà yǐ jīng biàn chéng liǎng tiáo cháng biàn zi le.]

(We see that her short hair has turned into two long braids.)

Example 25 当时,他认为这个同志的发言比较符合实际。[dāng shí, tā rèn wéi zhè gè tóng zhì de fā yán bǐ jiào fú hé shí jì.]

(At that time, he thought the speech of this comrade sounded relatively realistic.)

Example 26 他不怕山高路远,不怕严寒酷暑,走遍了产药材的名山。[tā bú pà shān gāo lù yuǎn, bú pà yán hán kù shǔ, zǒu biàn le chǎn yào cái de míng shān.]

(He has searched the mountains rich in herbals, fearless of hardship on the journey or from bad weather.)

VI. Prepositional phrases as object

Prepositional phrases can function as the object of “是 [shì]” and the common prepositions include “在 [zài] (at/in),” “为 [wèi] (for),” “为了 [wèi le] (for),” “由于 [yóu yú] (due to).”

Example 27 我第一次见到老杨同志是在延安某地的窑洞里。[wǒ dì yī cì jiàn dào Lǎo Yáng tóng zhì shì zài yán ān mǒu dì de yáo dòng lǐ.]

(It was in a certain cave dwelling in Yan'an that I first met comrade Yang.)

Example 28 我这次来,不只是为了我,也是为了你。[wǒ zhè cì lái, bù zhǐ shì wèi le wǒ, yě shì wèi le nǐ.]

(The reason why I came this time was not just for me but also for you.)

Example 29 他这次没参加比赛是由于最近身体不太好。[tā zhè cì méi cān jiā bǐ sài shì yóu yú zuì jìn shēn tǐ bú tài hǎo.]

(The reason why he didn't participate in the competition was that he hadn't been well recently.)

Example 30 我最初认识小川,是在1955年夏天。[wǒ zuì chū rèn shi Xiǎo Chuān, shì zài yī jiǔ wǔ nián xià tiān.]

(It was on the summer in 1955 that I first met Xiao Chuan.)

Example 31 我和老郭同志最后一别,是在1970年初夏,湖北的向阳湖畔。[wǒ hé Lǎo Guō tóng zhì zuì hòu yī bié, shì zài yī jiǔ qī líng nián chū xià, hú běi de xiàng yáng hú pàn.]

(My last farewell with comrade Guo was in the early summer of 1970, near Xiang Yang Lake in Hubei province.)

Section three: direct objects and indirect objects

Some verbs take two objects, one of which is the indirect object referring to a person, and the other of which is the direct object referring to a thing. An indirect object comes before a direct one.

Example 1 张老师教我们汉语。[Zhāng lǎo shī jiāo wǒ men hàn yǔ.]
(Prof. Zhang teaches us Chinese.)

Example 2 刚才小李告诉我一个好消息，你想听吗？[gāng cái Xiǎo Lǐ gào sù wǒ yī gè hǎo xiāo xī, nǐ xiǎng tīng ma?]
(Xiao Li told me good news just now. Do you want to know it?)

Example 3 你借我一点钱可以吗？[nǐ jiè wǒ yī diǎn qián kě yǐ ma?]
(Can you lend me some money?)

Such verbs are not in a large number in Chinese and they are as follows:

给 [gěi] (give), 送 [sòng] (give), 租 [zū] (rent), 借 [jiè] (borrow), 卖 [mài] (sell), 还 [huán] (return), 告诉 [gào su] (tell), 通知 [tōng zhī] (inform), 报告 [bào gào] (report), 求 [qiú] (beg), 教 [jiào] (teach), 问 [wèn] (ask), 请教 [qǐng jiào] (consult), 赔 [péi] (compensate), 称 [chēng] (call), 叫 [jiào] (call).

The direct objects of some verbs, such as “告诉 [gào su] (tell),” “求 [qiú] (beg),” “通知 [tōng zhī] (inform),” can be absent or moved to the head of sentence, but their indirect objects are necessarily required.

Example 4

A: 这件事我可以告诉老王吗？[zhè jiàn shì wǒ kě yǐ gào su Lǎo Wáng ma?]
(Can I tell it to Lao Wang?)

B: 你告诉他吧。[nǐ gào sù tā ba.]
(Just tell him.)

Example 5 明天早上开会。我通知你了，你可别忘了。[míng tiān zǎo shàng kāi huì. wǒ tōng zhī nǐ le, nǐ kě bié wàng le.]

(There will be a meeting tomorrow. Don't forget it.)

If only the direct object remained, the sentence would be incorrect.

Example 6 *他告诉一个新情况。[tā gào su yī gè xīn qíng kuàng.]

Example 7 *我求一件事。[wǒ qiú yī jiàn shì.]

But some verbs, such as “借 [jiè] (borrow),” “租 [zū] (rent),” can simply take the direct objects without the indirect ones.

Example 8 我想租(你)一间房子。[wǒ xiǎng zū (nǐ) yī jiān fáng zi.]
(I want to rent a house from you.)

Example 9 他已经借了(我)那么多钱了，还不够吗？[tā yǐ jīng jiè le (wǒ) nà me duō qián le, hái bú gòu ma.]
(He borrowed so much money from me. Isn't that enough?)

These verbs cannot only take the indirect objects before them, either. Therefore, the following examples sound inappropriate.

Example 10 *这间房子我想租你。[zhè jiān fáng zi wǒ xiǎng zū nǐ.]

Example 11 *很多钱他借了我。[hěn duō qián tā jiè le wǒ.]

Some verbs can take either the direct objects or the indirect ones. They are as follows:

教 [jiāo] (teach), 请教 [qǐng jiào] (consult), 问 [wèn] (ask), 还 [huán] (return), 给 [gěi] (give), 赔 [péi] (compensate).

Example 12 这些钱是他给我的。[zhè xiē qián shì tā gěi wǒ de.]

(It is him who gave me the money.)

他给两千块钱。[tā gěi liǎng qiān kuài qián.]

(He gave me two thousand yuan.)

Example 13 王老师教我。[Wáng lǎo shī jiāo wǒ.]

(Prof. Wang teaches me.)

王老师教数学。[Wáng lǎo shī jiāo shù xué.]

(Prof. Wang teaches math.)

Example 14 别担心，我赔你。[bié dān xīn, wǒ péi nǐ.]

(Don't worry. I'll pay for you.)

我赔一千，你赔一千，可以吗？[wǒ péi le qiān, nǐ péi le qiān, kě yǐ ma?]

(I pay for one thousand and you pay for one thousand. Is that O.K.?)

“称 [chēng] (name)” and “叫 [jiào] (name)” require two objects appearing simultaneously.

Example 15 人们都叫他无事忙。[rén men dōu jiào tā wú shì máng.]

(People call him “busy for nothing.”)

* (无事忙) 人们都叫他。[(wú shì máng) rén men dōu jiào tā.]

* 人们都叫无事忙。[tā rén men dōu jiào wú shì máng.]

Example 16 附近的人都称他师傅。[fù jìn de rén dōu chēng tā shī fu.]

(People nearby call him Shi Fu.)

* 他附近的人都称师傅。[tā fù jìn de rén dōu chēng shī fu.]

* 师傅附近的人都称他。[shī fu fù jìn de rén dōu chēng tā.]

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3 Attributes

Section one: functions and grammatical meanings of attributes

I. Functions of attributes

As a modifier, an attribute mainly modifies a noun in the phrase, such as “红旗 [hóng qí] (red banner)”, “伟大的国家 [wěi dà de guó jiā] (great country),” “木头桌子 [mù tóu zhuō zi] (wooden table),” “小张的书 [Xiǎo Zhāng de shū] (Xiao Zhang’s book).” It also modifies adjectives and verbs when they function as subjects and objects.

Example 1 红旗在空中飘扬。[hóng qí zài kōng zhōng piāo yáng.]
(The red flag is fluttering in the sky.)

Example 2 星期六，五班的同学访问了王国华的家。[xīng qī liù, wǔ bān de tóng xué fǎng wèn le Wáng Guó huá de jiā.]
(Students from Class Five visited Wang Guohua’s family this Saturday.)

Example 3 昨天你上街买了些什么？[zuó tiān nǐ shàng jiē mǎi le xiē shén me?]
(What did you buy in the downtown yesterday?)

Example 4 刚才那个姓杜的来了。[gāng cái nà gè xìng Dù de lái le.]
(A person surnamed Du came just now.)

Example 5 这篇文章歌颂了他们在抗洪救灾中表现出来的无私无畏的精神。[zhè piān wén zhāng gē sòng le tā men zài kàng hóng jiù zāi zhōng biǎo xiàn chū lái de wú sī wú wèi de jīng shén.]
(This article praises their unselfish and fearless spirit in the flood relief.)

Usually, proper nouns and personal pronouns seldom take attributes but such usage may occur in literal works.

Example 6 一夜没睡觉的王观临，两只眼都熬红了。[yī yè méi shuì jiào de Wáng Guān lín, liǎng zhī yǎn dōu áo hóng le.]
(Wang Guanlin, who didn’t sleep the whole night, had two red eyes.)

Example 7 还穿着破棉袄的他，觉得浑身躁热起来。 [hái chuān zhe pò mián ǎo de tā, jué de hún shēn zào rè qǐ lái.]

(He, who was still in a worn-out cotton-padded coat, felt hot and restless all over.)

An attribute always comes before what it modifies in Chinese, except for special requirements in rhetoric.

II. *Grammatical meanings of attributes*

An attribute modifies its headword (or head) in different ways. Its grammatical meanings and grammatical relations to the headword are very complex, based on how it can be divided into two categories, restrictive attribute and descriptive attribute.

1 Restrictive attribute

A restrictive attribute restricts its head in quantity, time, location, and affiliation. That is to say, it shows the scope that its headword refers to. It can be subdivided into the following types.

(1) To indicate quantity

Example 8 我买三斤苹果。 [wǒ mǎi sān jīn píng guǒ.]

(I bought three jin of apples.)

Example 9 这三本书我全看了。 [zhè sān běn shū wǒ quán kàn le.]

(I have read all of these three books.)

Example 10 很多学生在操场上锻炼身体。 [hěn duō xué shēng zài cāo chǎng shàng duàn liàn shēn tǐ.]

(Many students are doing exercises on the playground.)

Example 11 一件件往事涌上了心头。 [yī jiàn jiàn wǎng shì yǒng shàng le xīn tóu.]

(The past events occur in my mind.)

(2) To indicate time

Example 12 经过几个月的努力，这头野象基本被驯服了。 [jīng guò jǐ gè yuè de nǚ lì, zhè tóu yě xiàng jī běn bèi xùn fú le.]

(The wild elephant has nearly been tamed after months of effort.)

Example 13 他给我讲了一遍过去的情况。 [tā gěi wǒ jiǎng le yī biàn guò qù de qíng kuàng.]

(He told me the story of the past.)

(3) To indicate location

Example 14 你把身上的雪扫扫吧。 [nǐ bǎ shēn shàng de xuě sǎo sǎo ba.]

(Sweep the snow off your body.)

Example 15 书包里的书是我从图书馆借来的。 [shū bāo lǐ de shū shì wǒ cóng tú shū guǎn jiè lái de.]

(The books in the schoolbag are borrowed from the library.)

Example 16 你脑子里的想法我全清楚。[nǐ nǎo zi lǐ de xiǎng fǎ wǒ quán qīng chǔ.]

(I know clearly what you thought.)

(4) To indicate affiliation

Example 17 我们班有十个同学。[wǒ men bān yǒu shí gè tóng xué.]

(There are ten students in our class.)

Example 18 这是张明的铅笔。[zhè shì Zhāng Míng de qiān bǐ.]

(This is Zhang Ming's pencil.)

Example 19 谢谢各位旅客的关心。[xiè xiè gè wèi lǚ kè de guān xīn.]

(Thanks for every passenger's concern.)

Example 20 愚公的儿子, 孙子都赞成。[Yú Gōng de ér zi, sūn zi dōu zàn chéng.]

(The sons and grandsons of Yu Gong agreed.)

(5) To restrict scope

Example 21 他们中间的多数会觉悟过来。[tā men zhōng jiān de duō shù huì jué wù guò lái.]

(Most of them will be enlightened.)

Example 22 你的包裹超过了我们国家规定的重量。[nǐ de bāo guǒ chāo guò le wǒ men guó jiā guī dìng de zhòng liàng.]

(Your package exceeds the specified weight in our country.)

Example 23 你昨天说的那件事, 我们同意了。[nǐ zuó tiān shuō de nà jiàn shì, wǒ men tóng yì le.]

(We agreed to what you mentioned yesterday.)

Example 24 省里派来的两位同志住在招待所里。[shěng lǐ pài lái de liǎng wèi tóng zhì zhù zài zhāo dài suǒ lǐ.]

(Two comrades from the provincial government stayed in the hostel.)

Example 25 这些东西你拿回去吧, 我不能收。[zhè xiē dōng xī nǐ ná huí qù ba, wǒ bù néng shōu.]

(Take these things away; I cannot accept them.)

2 Descriptive attribute

A descriptive attribute describes its headword in property, state, purpose, material, occupation, and people's dress.

(1) To describe property or the state of things

Example 26 小赵穿了一件紫红色的大衣。[Xiǎo Zhào chuān le yī jiàn zǐ hóng sè de dà yī.]

(Xiao Zhao wears a claret-colored overcoat.)

Example 27 这是一个非常重要的会议。[zhè shì yī gè fēi cháng zhòng yào de huì yì.]

(This is a very important conference.)

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Example 28 我们踏上了一座颤颤悠悠的小桥。[wǒ men tà shàng le yī zuò chàn chàn yōu yōu de xiǎo qiáo.]
(We stepped on a shaky little bridge.)

Example 29 小明这个可爱的姑娘成长得很快。[Xiǎo Míng zhè gè kě ài de gū niang chéng zhǎng de hěn kuài.]
(Xiao Ming, a lovely girl, grew up fast.)

(2) To describe characteristics of people or things

Example 30 突然跑来一个十五六岁的孩子。[tū rán pǎo lái yī gè shí wǔ liù suì de hái zi.]
(Suddenly came a kid of fifteen or sixteen.)

Example 31 老马是一个雷厉风行的人。[Lǎo Mǎ shì yī gè léi lì fēng xíng de rén.]
(Lao Ma is a man of quick action.)

Example 32 最近他写了一篇关于中国经济的论文，颇受好评。[zuì jìn tā xiě le yī piān guān yú zhōng guó jīng jì de lùn wén, pō shòu hǎo píng.]
(He wrote an article on China's economy, which was well received.)

Example 33 他有哪些最值得尊敬的品德？[tā yǒu nǎ xiē zuì zhí dé zūn jìng de pǐn dé?]
(What is his most honorable morality?)

Example 34 我看了一眼这个双层玻璃的窗子，玻璃上结满了冰花。[wǒ kàn le yī yǎn zhè gè shuāng céng bō li de chuāng zi, bō li shàng jié mǎn le bīng huā.]
(I glanced at this double-glazed window and found it was covered by ice flowers.)

(3) To explain the purpose or the source

Example 35 这个装工具的箱子我很熟悉。[zhè gè zhuāng gōng jù de xiāng zi wǒ hěn shú xī.]
(I am very familiar with this tool box.)

Example 36 我要买一支画画用的铅笔。[wǒ yào mǎi yī zhī huà huà yòng de qiān bǐ.]
(I want to buy a pencil for drawing.)

Example 37 老大娘给了我一把刚从树上打下来的枣儿。[lǎo dà niáng gěi le wǒ yī bǎ gāng cóng shù shàng dǎ xià lái de zǎo er.]
(The old woman gave me a handful of jujubes picked off from the tree just now.)

(4) To indicate material

Example 38 房间里摆着一张木头桌子，两把铁木折椅。[fáng jiān lǐ bǎi zhe yī zhāng mù tóu zhuō zi, liǎng bǎ tiě mù zhé yǐ.]
(There is a wooden table and two folding ironwood chairs in the room.)

Example 39 纸箱子里装满了书。[zhǐ xiāng zi lǐ zhuāng mǎn le shū.]
(The paper box is full of books.)

(5) To explain occupation

Example 40 我们班的汉语老师姓李。[wǒ men bān de hàn yǔ lǎo shī xìng lǐ.]
(Our Chinese teacher is surnamed Li.)

Example 41 张健的父亲是土建工程师。[Zhāng Jiàn de fù qīn shì tǔ jiàn gōng chéng shī.]
(Zhang Jian's father is a civil engineer.)

(6) Other descriptive attributes

Example 42 这里没有一般工地上常常发生的那种“我在哪儿”的笑话。[zhè lǐ méi yǒu yī bān gōng dì shàng cháng cháng fā shēng de nà zhǒng “wǒ zài nǎ er” de xiào huà.]
(There was no joke of “where I am,” which you would possibly see in other construction sites.)

Example 43 那是一个颐养天年的好地方。[nà shì yī gè yí yǎng tiān nián de hǎo dì fang.]
(That's a very nice place for the aged to live a peaceful life.)

Example 44 他的一本三十万字的回忆录已经写完了。[tā de yī běn sān shí wàn zì de huí yì lù yǐ jīng xiě wán le.]
(He has finished the memoir of 300,000 words.)

3 Differences between restrictive attribute and descriptive attribute

(1) They have different grammatical meanings and expressive functions

A restrictive attribute distinguishes things with “这个 [zhè ge] (this)” or “那个 [nà ge] (that)”. That is to say, a restrictive attribute confirms “a certain one” asked by “哪... [nǎ] (which...)” or “谁的 [shuí de] (whose).”

Generally speaking, the attributes indicating time, location, or affiliation are restrictive.

Example 45 桌子上的书是中文的。[zhuō zi shàng de shū shì zhōng wén de.]
(The books on the desk are in Chinese.) (to confirm “on the desk”)

Example 46 今天的天气很好。[jīn tiān de tiān qì hěn hǎo.]
(It's a fine day today.) (to confirm “today”)

Example 47 小明的妈妈是个医生。[Xiǎo Míng de mā ma shì gè yī shēng.]
(Xiao Ming's mother is a doctor.) (to confirm “doctor”)

The attribute just before a single subject-predicate (verb) phrase is also restrictive.

Example 48 这是哥哥给我的铅笔。[zhè shì gē ge gěi wǒ de qiān bǐ.]
(It is the pencil that my elder brother gave to me.) (to confirm “give”)

Example 49 老师说的那本书我已经买到了。[lǎo shī shuō de nà běn shū wǒ yǐ jīng mǎi dào le.]
(I bought the book the teacher introduced.) (to confirm “teacher introduced”)

A descriptive attribute focuses on what is described, ignoring other existing things of the same type. That is to say, a descriptive attribute defines “what it is like” or “how it is like.” Usually, an adjective or the subject-predicate (adjective) phrase is descriptive.

Example 50 我的朋友买了一条漂亮的围巾。[wǒ de péng yǒu mǎi le yī tiáo piào liàng de wéi jīn.]
(My friend bought a beautiful scarf.)

Example 51 远处传来了隐隐的炮声。[yuǎn chù chuán lái le yīn yīn de pào shēng.]
(There came a dull sound of a cannon in the distance.)

Example 52 他的热情洋溢的讲话，给我留下了深刻的印象。[tā de rè qíng yáng yì de jiǎng huà, gěi wǒ liú xià le shēn kè de yìn xiàng.]
(I was deeply impressed by his passionate speech.)

Example 53 我的老师是一位性情温和的人。[wǒ de lǎo shī shì yī wèi xìng qíng wēn hé de rén.]
(My teacher is a sweet-tempered person.)

Verbs (phrases), subject-predicate phrases, or prepositional phrases can function as restrictive attributes or descriptive attributes. It depends on in which situation or sentence it is used.

Example 54 这时，对面走来一位穿红衣服的姑娘。[zhè shí, duì miàn zǒu lái yī wèi chuān hóng yī fu de gū niang.]
(Then a girl in red came from the opposite direction.) (descriptive)

Example 55 穿红衣服的那位姑娘是小李的妹妹。[chuān hóng yī fu de nà wèi gū niang shì Xiǎo Lǐ de mèi mei.]
(The girl in red is Xiao Li’s younger sister.) (restrictive)

Example 56 这是一个装衣服的箱子。[zhè shì yī gè zhuāng yī fu de xiāng zi.]
(This is the case for clothes.) (descriptive)

Example 57 装衣服的那个箱子已经运走了。[zhuāng yī fu de nà gè xiāng zi yǐ jīng yùn zǒu le.]
(The case with clothes has been carried away.) (restrictive)

In a certain context, “adjective+noun” also restricts the scope of what it refers to and distinguishes itself from other things in property of different nature or features.

Example 58 给你这本新画报，我要那本旧的。[gěi nǐ zhè běn xīn huà bào, wǒ yào nà běn jiù de.]

(This new pictorial is for you and I'll take the old one.)

Example 59

A: 同志，你想买哪件衣服？[tóng zhì, nǐ xiǎng mǎi nǎ jiàn yī fu?]

(Excuse me, which clothes do you want?)

B: 我想买那件蓝色的上衣。[wǒ xiǎng mǎi nà jiàn lán sè de shàng yī.]

(I'd like to take that blue coat.)

In this case, “adjective+noun” shares the same grammatical features with those descriptive attributes.

- (2) Descriptive attributes appear in narration and description of literal works. Descriptive attributes, especially for those complex ones, mainly appear in narration and in the description of literal works. They rarely occur in conversation or argumentation.
- (3) Attributes of two types have different sequences in the same sentence. Restrictive attributes come before descriptive attributes.
- (4) The headword of a restrictive attribute refers to a definite thing; the headword of a descriptive attribute may refer to a definite thing, an indefinite thing, or just any one of the same type.

Example 60 你昨天看的电影怎么样？[nǐ zuó tiān kàn de diàn yǐng zěn me yàng?]

(How was the movie you watched yesterday?) (restrictive attribute)

Example 61 你可以给我介绍一个漂亮的女朋友吗？[nǐ kě yǐ gěi wǒ jiè shào yī gè piào liang de nǚ péng yǒu ma?]

(Can you set up with me a pretty girlfriend?) (descriptive attribute)

Example 62 教你们音乐的那位老师病了。[jiāo nǐ men yīn yuè de nà wèi lǎo shī bìng le.]

(The teacher who teaches you music is ill.) (restrictive attribute)

Example 63 我们需要一位音乐老师,男女都可以。[wǒ men xū yào yī wèi yīn yuè lǎo shī, nán nǚ dōu kě yǐ.]

(We need a music teacher, no matter male or female.) (descriptive attribute)

Section two: words (phrases) as attributes and usages of “的 [de]”

In Chinese, many words (phrases) can function as attributes, including nouns, numeral-quantifier phrases, adjectives (phrases), verbs (phrases), subject-predicate phrases, or fixed phrases. “的 [de]” often comes closely after an attribute as its syntactic mark, but its appearance depends on the property and grammatical meaning of the attribute.

- 1 When a numeral-quantifier phrase, numeral, or quantifier functions as restrictive attribute, “的 [de]” doesn’t appear.

Example 1 接着，他们给我讲了一个故事。[jiē zhe, tā men gěi wǒ jiǎng le yī gè gù shi.]

(And then, they told me a story.)

Example 2 杨白劳身上落了一层雪。[yáng bái láo shēn shàng luò le yī céng xuě.]

(Yang Bailao was covered by a layer of snow.)

Example 3 老张，托你给王来泉同志捎个信儿。[Lǎo Zhāng, tuō nǐ gěi Wáng Lái quán tóng zhì shāo gè xìn er.]

(Lao Zhang, please take my message to Comrade Wang Laiquan.)

Example 4 他读的当然不外是些“易经,” “书经”。[tā dú de dāng rán bú wài shì xiē “yì jīng,” “shū jīng.”]

(What he has read are the Classics, like *Book of Changes* or *Book of History*.)

Example 5 阿Q对着墙壁也发愣,于是两手扶着空板凳。[ā Q duì zhe qiáng bì yě fā lèng, yú shì liǎng shǒu fú zhe kōng bǎn dèng.]

(Being supported by the wooden bench with his two hands, A Q faced the wall in a daze.)

When a numeral-quantifier phrase functions as a descriptive attribute, “的 [de]” appears.

Example 6 连五十多岁的老张也来参加乒乓球比赛了。[lián wǔ shí duō suì de Lǎo Zhāng yě lái cān jiā pīng pāng qiú bǐ sài le.]

(Even Old Zhang in his fifties took part in the table tennis competition.)

Example 7 他买了一条三斤的鲤鱼。[tā mǎi le yī tiáo sān jīn de lǐ yú.]

(He bought a carp of three jin.)

Example 8 一寸的钉子买一两就成了。[yī cùn de dīng zi mǎi yī liǎng jiù chéng le.]

(It is all right to buy one liang of the nails of one-inch size.)

“的 [de]” doesn’t appear when borrowed quantifiers function as restrictive attributes.

Example 9 他看见前边有一个女同志, 肩上扛着一袋粮食。[tā kàn jiàn qián biān yǒu yī gè nǚ tóng zhì, jiān shàng káng zhe yī dài liáng shi.]

(He saw a female comrade ahead, with a bag of grain on her shoulder.)

When the attribute describes a state of “be full of,” “的 [de]” is required.

Example 10 他从外边跑进来, 一头的汗。[tā cóng wài biān pǎo jìn lái, yī tóu de hàn.]

(He ran into the house from the outside, with sweat all over his face.)

Example 11 一屋的人都愣住了。[yī wū de rén dōu lèng zhù le.]
(All the people in the house became speechless because of astonishment.)

A fraction numeral takes “的 [de],” when it functions as an attribute.

Example 12 今年百分之四十的职工增加了工资。[jīn nián bǎi fēn zhī sì shí de zhí gōng zēng jiā le gōng zī.]
(Forty percent of the staff have received the salary raise this year.)

Sometimes, “的 [de]” can be absent.

Example 13 我们厂百分之七十女工是青年。[wǒ men chǎng bǎi fēn zhī qī shí nǚ gōng shì qīng nián.]
(Seventy percent of women workers in our factory are young people.)

“一[yī]+the overlapped quantifier” takes “的 [de],” when it functions as an attribute. Sometimes, “的 [de]” can be absent.

Example 14 地上摆着一筐一筐的西红柿。[dì shàng bǎi zhe yī kuāng yī kuāng de xī hóng shì.]
(There were baskets of tomatoes on the floor.)

Example 15 一列一列的火车满载着生产物资开往祖国的四面八方。[yī liè yī liè de huǒ chē mǎn zài zhe shēng chǎn wù zī kāi wǎng zǔ guó de sì miàn bā fāng.]
(Train after train are loaded with producer goods and heading for all directions of the motherland.)

Example 16 到布谷鸟欢叫的时候，一条条更高大的石坝修起来了，一个个山头被推倒了。[dào bù gǔ niǎo huān jiào de shí hòu, yī tiáo tiáo gèng gāo dà de shí bà xiū qǐ lái le, yī gè gè shān tóu bèi tuī dào le.]
(By the time the cuckoo singing comes, the higher dams will have been built up and more hills will have been levelled.)

But, with “的 [de],” the entire sentence sounds more descriptive.

Example 17 地道口里还有一道道的门，民兵们把门一关，放进去的毒气又从原来的洞口出来了。[dì dào kǒu lǐ hái yǒu yī dào dào de mén, mǐn bīng men bǎ mén yī guān, fàng jìn qù de dú qì yòu cóng yuán lái de dòng kǒu chū lái le.]
(Some doors were set up at the entrance of the tunnel to stop the poisonous gas; when they were closed by militias, it would prevent the gas from entering.)

When the overlapped quantifier functions as an attribute, “的 [de]” doesn't appear.

Example 18 今天，垛垛高墙夷为平地，座座亭榭任人憩歇。[jīn tiān, duò duò gāo qiáng yí wéi píng dì, zuò zuò tíng xiè rèn rén qì xiē.]
(Nowadays, high walls have been levelled and pavilions have been set up for people.)

- 2 When a “demonstrative pronoun/interrogative pronoun (except for personal pronoun)+numeral-quantifier phrase” functions as a restrictive attribute, “的 [de]” doesn’t appear.

Example 19 哪个老师教你们体育？[nǎ gè lǎo shī jiāo nǐ men tǐ yù?]
(Which teacher teaches you P.E.?)

Example 20 你的衬衣是什么颜色的？[nǐ de chèn yī shì shén me yán sè de?]
(What color is your shirt?)

Example 21 这个工厂有多少工人？[zhè gè gōng chǎng yǒu duō shǎo gōng rén?]
(How many workers are there in the factory?)

Example 22 这个话说得多好啊！[zhè gè huà shuō de duō hǎo ā!]
(What a nice speech!)

Example 23 延风，你说这几颗种子怎么样？[Yán Fēng, nǐ shuō zhè jǐ kē zhǒng zi zěn me yàng?]
(Yan Feng, what do you think about these seeds?)

“的 [de]” should follow the attributes functioned by “谁 [shuí] (who)” for affiliation and some pronouns for description, such as “怎么样 [zěn me yàng] (how),” “这样 [zhè yàng] (such),” “那样 [nà yàng] (such),” “什么样 [shén me yàng] (what).”

Example 24 这是谁的地图？[zhè shì shuí de dì tú?]
(Whose map is it?)

Example 25 这样的人还不该表扬吗？[zhè yàng de rén hái bù gāi biǎo yáng ma?]
(Shouldn’t such people be praised?)

Example 26 老李是怎么样的一人，你给我们介绍介绍。[Lǎo Lǐ shì zěn me yàng yī gè rén, nǐ gěi wǒ men jiè shào jiè shào.]
(What kind of person is Lao Li? Please tell us something about him.)

“别 [bié]” can be connected with “的 [de]” but “别人 [bié rén] (other people),” “别处 [bié chù] (other places)” are excepted.

Example 27 下次再给你们介绍别的情况。[xià cì zài gěi nǐ men jiè shào bié de qíng kuàng.]
(I will tell you something else next time.)

Example 28 这种产品还有别的用处没有? [zhè zhǒng chǎn pǐn hái yǒu bié de yòng chù méi yǒu?]

(Does this product possess other uses?)

If a personal pronoun indicates affiliation, it can be followed by “的 [de].”

Example 29 你的工作怎么样? [nǐ de gōng zuò zěn me yàng?]

(How is your job?)

Example 30 白求恩同志用自己的血把那个八路军战士救活了。[bái qiú ēn tóng zhì yòng zì jǐ de xuè bǎ nà gè bā lù jun zhàn shì jiù huó le.]

(Bethune saved the soldier of the Eighth Route Army with his own blood.)

Sometimes, the sentence meaning varies with the appearance of “的 [de].”

Example 31 同学们今天出发，我们老师明天出发。[tóng xué men jīn tiān chū fā, wǒ men lǎo shī míng tiān chū fā.]

(You students set out today and we teachers leave tomorrow.)

Example 32 我们的老师非常严厉。[wǒ men de lǎo shī fēi cháng yán lì.]

(Our teacher is very strict.)

In Example 31, “我们 [wǒ men] (we)” as a double reference refers to “老师 [lǎo shī] (teachers).” Thus “的 [de]” cannot appear in the middle; in Example 32, “我们 [wǒ men] (we)” is the attribute of “老师 [lǎo shī] (teacher)” to indicate affiliation, so “的 [de]” is necessarily required.

In the interrogative or rhetorical question of the spoken language, “的 [de]” can be absent after the personal pronoun.

Example 33 我书包怎么不见了? [wǒ shū bāo zěn me bú jiàn le?]

(How come my schoolbag was out of sight?)

Example 34 你帽子不是戴在头上么? [nǐ mào zi bú shì dài zài tóu shàng me?]

(Isn't your hat on your head?)

When the headword is the address of a person or a name of group or organization, “的 [de]” appears after personal pronoun, but in the spoken language, “的 [de]” is often absent.

Example 35 你姐姐是昨天来的吗? [nǐ jiě jie shì zuó tiān lái de ma?]

(Did your elder sister come yesterday?)

Example 36 我想谈谈我们国家的情况。[wǒ xiǎng tán tán wǒ men guó jiā de qíng kuàng.]

(I'd like to talk about our country.)

Example 37 我母亲是非常善良勤劳的。[wǒ mǔ qīn shì fēi cháng shàn liáng qín láo de.]

(My mother is very kind-hearted and hard-working.)

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Example 38 你们班的学生比我们班的少。[nǐ men bān de xué shēng bǐ wǒ men bān de shǎo.]
(The students in your class are fewer than those in our class.)

An attribute doesn't always take “的 [de]” to modify a locative.

Example 39 小明悄悄地藏在他后边。[Xiǎo Míng qiāo qiāo de cáng zài tā hòu biān.]
(Xiao Ming hid behind him noiselessly.)

Example 40 我们学校很大。[wǒ men xué xiào hěn dà.]
(Our school is very large.)

- 3 “的 [de]” is necessarily required, when a noun functions as an attribute to indicate affiliation.

Example 41 “玉荣...”后边传来了姐姐的喊声。[“Yù Róng...” hòu biān chuán lái le jiě jie de hǎn shēng.]
(“Yu Rong...” shouted the elder sister from behind.)

The locative takes “的 [de]” to function as the attribute.

Example 42 里边的小屋子里，也发出了一阵咳嗽。[lǐ biān de xiǎo wū zi lǐ, yě fā chū le yī zhèn ké sou.]
(Inside the little house came a fit of coughing.)

When a locative is modified by a noun, “的 [de]” doesn't appear.

Example 43 操场北边是游泳池。[cāo chǎng běi biān shì yóu yǒng chí.]
(To the north of the playground is the swimming pool.)

Example 44 “看!”她把照片递到小李面前。[“kàn!” tā bǎ zhào piàn dì dào Xiǎo Lǐ miàn qián.]
(“Look!” She showed the photo to Xiao Li.)

Some nouns don't indicate affiliation but refer to occupation, material, property, or source. They belong to descriptive attributes and are closely integrated with their headwords to form the idiomatic phrases. Here, “的 [de]” is not permitted to appear. For instance:

语文老师 [yǔ wén lǎo shī] (Chinese teacher) *语文的老师 [yǔ wén de lǎo shī]
纸箱子 [zhǐ xiāng zi] (paper box) *纸的箱子 [zhǐ de xiāng zi]
历史问题 [lì shǐ wèn tí] (historical issue) *历史的问题 [lì shǐ de wèn tí]
纺织工艺 [fǎng zhī gōng yì] (textile technology) *纺织的工艺 [fǎng zhī de gōng yì]

Sometimes with or without “的 [de],” the noun attribute expresses different meanings or indicates different grammatical relations.

Example 45 他是我们的班主任老师。[tā shì wǒ men de bān zhǔ rèn lǎo shī.]
(He is our head teacher.) (descriptive)

他是我们班主任的老师。[tā shì wǒ men bān zhǔ rèn de lǎo shī.]
(He is the teacher of our head teacher.) (affiliation)

Example 46 敌人的狐狸尾巴露出来了。[dí rén de hú li wěi bā chū lái le.]
(The real intention of the enemies is clear.) (descriptive)

狐狸的尾巴很大。[hú li de wěi bā hěn dà.]
(The fox has a big tail.) (affiliation)

- 4 Whether “的 [de]” follows the adjective attribute depends on how many syllables the adjective has. When it is monosyllabic, “的 [de]” doesn’t appear.

Example 47 我们一起学习，一起锻炼，我们是好朋友。[wǒ men yī qǐ xué xí, yī qǐ duàn liàn, wǒ men shì hǎo péng yǒu.]
(We study and exercise together. We are good friends.)

Example 48 这是一件小事，你别着急。[zhè shì yī jiàn xiǎo shì, nǐ bié zhāo jí.]
(Don’t worry. This is not a big deal.)

Sometimes, “的 [de]” can be used after the adjective attribute to highlight comparison.

Example 49 他为先生制竹片总是选嫩的竹子。[tā wèi xiān shēng zhì zhú piàn zǒng shì xuǎn nèn de zhú zǐ.]
(He often chose the young bamboo to make the bamboo slips for his master.)

Example 50 这个重的箱子给我，你提那个轻的。[zhè gè zhòng de xiāng zǐ gěi wǒ, nǐ tí nà ge qīng de.]
(I’ll carry this heavy box. The light one is for you.)

When the adjective attribute is disyllabic, “的 [de]” is usually required.

Example 51 鲁迅先生团起潮湿的纸，揉烂了，把它放进炉子里。[Lǔ Xùn xiān shēng tuán qǐ cháo shī de zhǐ, róu làn le, bǎ tā fàng jìn lú zi lǐ.]
(Mr. Lu Xun crumpled the damp paper and threw it into the stove.)

Example 52 孙先生是一个谦虚的人。[Sūn xiān shēng shì yī gè qiān shuài de rén.]
(Mr. Sun is a humble and frank man.)

Some adjectives are frequently combined with certain nouns to form stable phrases and “的 [de]” doesn’t appear in the middle of them.

Example 53 关键时刻就要当机立断, 坚持原则。[guān jiàn shí kè jiù yào dāng jī lì duàn, jiān chí yuán zé.]

(At a critical moment one should be decisive and steady to their principles.)

Example 54 要把国内外一切积极因素调动起来。[yào bǎ guó nèi wài yī qiè jī jí yīn sù diào dòng qǐ lái.]

(To mobilize all positive factors home and abroad.)

Other fixed phrases are as follows:

糊涂虫 [hú tú chóng] (blunderer), 老实人 [lǎo shí rén] (honest people), 俏皮话 [qiào pí huà] (witty remarks), 正经事 [zhèng jīng shì] (serious affairs), 可怜相 [kě lián xiāng] (pitiable look), 重大贡献 [zhòng dà gòng xiàn] (significant contribution), 先进单位 [xiān jìn dān wèi] (advanced unit), 伟大胜利 [wěi dà shèng lì] (great victory).

For those adjective attributes possessing additional constituents or in the overlapped form, they usually take “的 [de],” such as “冰凉 [bīng liáng] (ice-cold),” “通红 [tōng hóng] (as red as a lobster),” “黑洞洞 [hēi dòng dòng] (pitch-dark),” “白花花 [bái huā huā] (shining white),” “很多 [hěn duō] (plenty of),” “好多 [hǎo duō] (a great many),” “不少 [bù shǎo] (quite a few/little).”

Example 55 我在朦胧中, 眼前展开一片海边碧绿的沙地来, 上面深蓝的天空中挂着一轮金黄的圆月。[wǒ zài méng lóng zhōng, yǎn qián zhǎn kāi yī piàn hǎi biān bì lǜ de shā dì lái, shàng miàn shēn lán de tiān kōng zhōng guà zhe yī lún jīn huáng de yuán yuè.]

(In the dim moonlight, I could see a stretch of sea-green sand with a golden moon hanging in the dark blue sky.)

Example 56 这天一早, 我就背着那鼓鼓囊囊的挎包来到航测专用码头。[zhè tiān yī zǎo, wǒ jiù bēi zhe nà gǔ gǔ nāng nāng de kuà bāo lái dào háng cè zhuān yòng mǎ tóu.]

(Early in the morning, with a bulging bag on my shoulder, I went to the single-user wharf for an aerial survey.)

Example 57 他颈上套着一个明晃晃的银项圈。[tā jǐng shàng tào zhe yī gè míng huǎng huǎng de yín xiàng quān.]

(He wore a shining silver necklace.)

Example 58 弯弯的月牙, 已经移到村西头柳树林上头了。[wān wān de yuè yá, yǐ jīng yí dào cūn xī tóu liǔ shù lín shàng tóu le.]

(The curved moon has risen above the willow trees at the west side of the village.)

Example 59 走, 我们到最高的地方去看看。[zǒu, wǒ men dào zuì gāo de dì fāng qù kàn kàn.]

(Come on, let's stand at the highest place to have a good view.)

But for some adjective phrases, such as “很多 [hěnduō] (many/much),” “好多 [hǎoduō] (many/much)” and “不少 [bùshǎo] (not a few),” they don’t take “的 [de].” “多 [duō] (many/much)” and “少 [duō] (few/little)” cannot function as attributes independently, so “*多人 [duō rén]” or “*少东西 [shǎo dōng xi]” is not correct.

Example 60 您瞧，好多人在天安门前照相呢，我们也去合影留念吧。[nín qiáo, hǎo duō rén zài tiān ān mén qián zhào xiàng ne, wǒ men yě qù hé yǐng liú niàn ba.]

(Look, plenty of people are taking photos on Tiananmen Square. Let’s take a photo too.)

Example 61 妈妈送给我不少礼物。[mā ma sòng gěi wǒ bù shǎo lǐ wù.]
(Mom gave me quite a few gifts.)

Example 62 他刚才把我捆起来，装在口袋里，上边还压了很多书。[tā gāng cái bǎ wǒ kǔn qǐ lái, zhuāng zài kǒu dài lǐ, shàng biān hái yā le hěnduō shū.]

(He tied me up just now and put me in the sack with a lot of books over it.)

- 5 “的” [de] is necessarily required when a verb or a verb phrase functions as an attribute.

Example 63 杭州人称它为绿化的仓库。[háng zhōu rén chēng tā wéi lǜ huà de cāng kù.]

(People in Hangzhou call it a green warehouse.)

Example 64 我们立刻像置身在惊涛骇浪的大海，撑着伞和披着的油布都失去了抵抗的力量。[wǒ men lì kè xiàng zhì shēn zài jīng tāo hài làng de dà hǎi zhōng, chēng zhe de sǎn hé pī zhe de yóu bù dōu shī qù le dǐ kàng de lì liàng.]

(Even with the umbrella and the tarpaulin, we immediately got wet all over, like being thrown into the stormy sea.)

Example 65 这是新出版的杂志，你看吗？[zhè shì xīn chū bǎn de zá zhì, nǐ kàn ma?]

(This is the latest magazine. Do you want to read it?)

Example 66 靠墙跟摆着装满书籍的柜子。[kào qiáng gēn bǎi zhe zhuāng mǎn shū jí de guǐ zi.]

(A cabinet of books is placed against the wall.)

Example 67 一下飞机，他就去开会研究如何争取贷款的问题去了。[yī xià fēi jī, tā jiù qù kāi huì yán jū rú hé zhēng qǔ dài kuǎn de wèn tí qù le.]

(When he got off the plane, he went to the meeting to discuss how to get a loan.)

Sometimes, without “的 [de]” in the middle, the combination of an attribute and its headword has different meaning. For example, “吃的东西 [chī de dōng xi]

(something to eat)” shows the relation of modifying and being modified; “吃东西 [chī dōng xi] (to eat something)” indicates the verb-object relation. Similar examples are “打破了的碗 [dǎ pò le de wǎn] (the broken bowl)” and “打破了碗 [dǎ pò le wǎn] (someone broke a bowl).”

Some disyllabic verbs often modify certain nouns of two syllables without “的 [de]” in the middle, which won’t be misunderstood as the verb-object relation.

Example 68 远远地听见一片欢笑声。[yuǎn yuǎn de tīng jiàn yī piàn huān xiào shēng.]

(A burst of laughter could be heard from afar.)

Example 69 大家提了不少改进意见。[dà jiā tí le bù shǎo gǎi jìn yì jiàn.]

(Quite a few improvement opinion have been put forward by people.)

Example 70 发展工作进行得很顺利。[fā zhǎn gōng zuò jìn xíng de hěn shùn lì.]

(The work is going well.)

Example 71 考试成绩公布了。[kǎo shì chéng jì gōng bù le.]

(The examination results have been announced.)

In Chinese, when a disyllabic verb and a disyllabic noun are combined based on the verb-object relation, the noun usually comes before the verb and functions as an attribute with the verb as its headword. Then, as a whole, they can function as subject or object without “的 [de]” in the middle. Such function is due to the fact that the verb has almost lost its verbal property and has already possessed the nominal property.

Example 72 理论学习是很重要的。[lǐ lùn xué xí shì hěn zhòng yào de.]

(Theoretical study is of essential importance.)

Example 73 这一段景物描写十分优美。[zhè yī duàn jǐng wù miáo xiě shí fēn yōu měi.]

(The paragraph about the scenery description is very attractive.)

Also, the aforementioned combination can function as an attribute.

Example 74 我们应该重视人才培养的问题。[wǒ men yīng gāi zhòng shì rén cái péi yǎng de wèn tí.]

(We should attach importance to the talent training.)

Example 75 土地测量工作进行得很顺利。[tǔ dì cè liáng gōng zuò jìn xíng de hěn shùn lì.]

(The land survey is going very well.)

More similar examples are “学生教育问题 [xué shēng jiào yù wèn tí] (student education),” “身体检查的结果 [shēn tǐ jiǎn chá de jié guǒ] (result of physical checkup),” “车辆疏导的情况 [chē liàng shū dǎo de qíng kuàng] (traffic

condition),” “妇女解放的意义 [fù nǚ jiě fàng de yì yì] (the significance of women's emancipation).”

- 6 “的 [de]” is necessarily required when a subject-object phrase functions as an attribute.

Example 76 故宫过去是封建帝王住的地方，现在是劳动人民游览的场所。[gù gōng guò qù shì fēng jiàn dì wáng zhù de dì fang, xiàn zài shì láo dòng rén mín yóu lǎn de chǎng suǒ.]

(The Imperial Palace used to be the living place for the feudal emperors; now it is a scenic spot for the people.)

Example 77 这时，破草屋里走出来一位衣服破旧的老大娘。[zhè shí, pò cǎo wū lǐ zǒu chū lái yī wèi yī fu pò jiù de lǎo dà niáng.]

(Then an old woman in shabby clothes came out of the dilapidated hut.)

- 7 “的 [de]” is necessarily required when a prepositional phrase functions as an attribute.

Example 78 中国人民要加强同世界各国人民的友谊。[zhōng guó rén mín yào jiā qiáng tóng shì jiè gè guó rén mín de yǒu yì.]

(Chinese people should strengthen their friendships with people from all over the world.)

Example 79 种地，生产粮食，这不是对国家的贡献吗？[zhǒng dì, shēng chǎn liáng shí, zhè bú shì duì guó jiā de gòng xiàn ma?]

(Aren't farming and crop production contributions to the country?)

- 8 “的 [de]” is necessarily required when the fixed phrase in the four-character form functions as an attribute.

Example 80 突然，眼前如彩虹升起，一幅幅五光十色的织锦把我给吸引住了。[tū rán, yǎn qián rú cǎi hóng shēng qǐ, yī fú fú wǔ guāng shí sè de zhī jǐn bǎ wǒ gěi xī yǐn zhù le.]

(I was suddenly attracted by the colorful tapestries like a rainbow rising in front of me.)

Example 81 在这座巍峨的纪念碑前，终日都有川流不息的人群向革命先烈默默致敬。[zài zhè zuò wēi é de jì niàn bēi qián, zhōng rì dōu yǒu chuān liú bù xī de rén qún xiàng gé mìng xiān liè mò mò zhì jìng.]

(In front of the towering monument the people pay silent salute to the revolutionary martyrs in a steady stream all day long.)

Example 82 今天早晨广播了两篇热情洋溢的讲话，我们听了很受鼓舞。[jīn tiān zǎo chén guǎng bō le liǎng piān rè qíng yáng yì de jiǎng huà, wǒ men tīng le hěn shòu gǔ wǔ.]

(We were inspired by two enthusiastic speeches broadcasted this morning.)

- 9 “的 [de]” is necessarily required when the phrase in the form of a compound sentence functions as an attribute.

Example 83 鲁迅先生读完这封并不是给他，而是作为收信人的证件的短信，和来客谈了一会儿，把他送走了。[Lǚ Xùn xiān shēng dú wán zhè fēng bìng bú shì gěi tā, ér shì zuò wéi shōu jiàn rén de duǎn xìn, hé lái kè tán le yī huì er, bǎ tā sòng zǒu le.]

(After reading through the short message which was actually the certificate of the recipient, Mr. Lu Xun talked to the messenger for a while and then sent him off.)

Example 84 他又不敢大声喊，怕惊醒白天做得劳乏、晚上躺下就睡着了的母亲。[tā yòu bù gǎn dà shēng hǎn, pà jīng xǐng bái tiān zuò de láo fá, wǎn shàng tǎng xià jiù shuì zhǎo le de mǔ qīn.]

(He kept a lower voice for fear of waking up his mother, who had worked hard during the day and quickly fallen asleep at night.)

- 10 When an attribute and its headword are combined as the appellation for people or the category name, “的 [de]” cannot appear in the middle.

Example 85 知识青年 [zhī shí qīng nián] (educated youth)

爱民模范 [ài mín mó fàn] (models who care about the people's suffering by heart)

个体户 [gè tǐ hù] (self-employed businessmen)

公关小姐 [gōng guān xiǎo jiě] (republic relation lady)

擦边球 [cā biān qiú] (touch ball)

烤白薯 [kǎo bái shǔ] (baked sweet potato)

应届毕业生 [yīng jiè bì yè shēng] (fresh graduate)

电子邮件 [diàn zǐ yóu jiàn] (e-mail)

新技术推广交流会 [xīn jì shù tuī guǎng jiāo liú huì] (new technology promotion seminar)

北京大兴区人民医院 [běi jīng dà xīng qū rén mín yī yuàn] (People's Hospital of Da Xing District of Beijing)

There are some rules to follow about whether “的 [de]” is used nor not.

First, if a noun phrase takes “的 [de],” it is flexible in combining an attribute with its headword; if a noun phrase doesn't take “的 [de],” it is limited to some extent in the combination. For example, “河岸 [hé àn] (river bank),” “江岸 [jiāng àn] (river bank),” “海岸 [hǎi àn] (coast)” are acceptable, but “*湖岸 [hú àn]” is not. “体育老师 [tǐ yù lǎo shī] (PE teacher),” “炼钢工人 [liàn gāng gōng rén] (steel worker)” are correct, but “*体育学生 [tǐ yù xué shēng],” “*豆腐工人 [dòu fu gōng rén]” are not. “关键时刻 [guān jiàn shí kè] (critical moment)” is proper but “*关键天 [guān jiàn tiān]” is not.

Second, a noun phrase with “的 [de]” can develop but without “的 [de],” it cannot. For example, “美丽的故乡 [měi lì de gù xiāng] (beautiful hometown)” and “教室的使用 [jiào shì de shǐ yòng] (the use of a classroom) can develop into “美丽而可爱的

故乡 [měi lì er kě ài de gù xiāng] (beautiful and lovely hometown)” and “教室的管理和使用 [jiào shì de guǎn lǐ hé shǐ yòng] (the management and use of a classroom)” respectively; “小女孩 [xiǎo nǚ hái] (little girl)” or “笨女孩 [bèn nǚ hái] (stupid girl)” cannot be combined into “*小而笨女孩 [xiǎo er bèn nǚ hái]; “炼钢工人 [liàn gāng gōng rén] (steelworker)” or “纺织工人 [fǎng zhī gōng rén] (textile worker)” cannot be combined into “*炼钢和纺织工人 [liàn gāng hé fǎng zhī gōng rén].”

Third, adjectives for colors and nouns for property and occupation are flexible in connecting other nouns. Disyllabic verbs are more flexible in connecting the nouns for time, place, manner, approach, means, phenomenon, issue, and situation, such as “开会时间 [kāi huì shí jiān] (the meeting time),” “集合地点 [jí hé dì diǎn] (the assembling place),” “购销方式 [gòu xiāo fāng shì] (ways of sale and purchase),” “开采方法 [kāi cǎi fāng fǎ] (exploration method),” “迟到现象 [chí dào xiàn xiàng] (phenomenon of being late),” “游泳问题 [yóu yǒng wèn tí] (the problem about swimming)” “生长情况 [shēng zhǎng qíng kuàng] (growth situation).”

Fourth, if the nouns or the headwords are the same in a noun phrase without “的 [de],” it is necessary to repeat them. For example, “语文老师 and 体育老师 [yǔ wén lǎo shī hé tǐ yù lǎo shī] (Chinese teacher and P.E. teacher)” is correct but “*语文和体育老师 [yǔ wén hé tǐ yù lǎo shī]” is not; “社会主义革命 and 社会主义建设 [shè huì zhǔ yì gé mìng hé shè huì zhǔ yì jiàn shè] (socialist revolution and socialist construction)” is acceptable but “*社会主义革命和建设 [shè huì zhǔ yì gé mìng hé jiàn shè]” is not; “新书包 and 新本子 [xīn shū bāo hé xīn běn zì] (new schoolbags and new exercise books)” is proper but “*新书包和本子 [xīn shū bāo hé běn zì]” is not. However, some words indicating indefinite quantities are excepted, such as 很多 [hěn duō] (many),” “不少 [bù shǎo] (quite a few),” “某些 [mǒu xiē] (certain).” For example, “有些工厂和农村 [yǒu xiē gōng chǎng hé nóng cūn] (some factories and rural areas),” “不少老师和学生 [bù shǎo lǎo shī hé xué shēng] (quite a few teachers and students)” are correct.

Fifth, with “的 [de],” a noun phrase can omit its identical attributes or headwords, such as “他是工人和农民的朋友。[tā shì gōng rén hé nóng mín de péng yǒu.] (He is the friend of workers and farmers.)” and “开会的时间和地点另行通知。[kāi huì de shí jiān hé dì diǎn líng xíng tōng zhī.] (The time and the place of meeting will be further notified.)”

In short, these rules have been widely accepted as daily expressions and cannot be changed. Therefore, it takes time and patience for foreigners to remember them.

Section three: multiple attributes

Multiple attributes refer to those modifiers that are included in a phrase consisting of an attribute and its headword, such as “清洁、明亮的窗户 [qīng jié, míng liàng de chuāng hù] (a clean and transparent window),” “一本很厚的书 [yī běn hěn hòu de shū] (a very thick book),” “站在门口的那个穿皮夹克的人 [zhàn zài mén kǒu de nà gè chuān pí jiǎ kè de rén] (the man who is in a fur jacket and standing at the door).”

Multiple attributes can be divided into three types, namely multiple attributes of coordinative relation, multiple attributes of successive relation, and multiple attributes of combined relations of the aforementioned two.

I. Multiple attributes of coordinative relation

1 How to understand multiple attributes of coordinative relation

They exist in the coordination relation and modify a headword together or respectively. When they function together, they are, as a whole, related to the headword; when they function respectively, they are, as an individual, directly related to the headword. Usually, these attributes possess the identical property.

Example 1 要调整重工业和农业、轻工业的投资比例。[yào tiáo zhěng zhòng gōng yè hé nóng yè, qīng gōng yè de tóu zī bǐ lì.]

(To adjust the proportion of investment to heavy industry, agriculture, and light industry) (to modify together)

Example 2 那个女工给我们谈了工厂和她自己的情况。[nà gè nǚ gōng gěi wǒ men tán le gōng chǎng hé tā zì jǐ de qíng kuàng.]

(That female worker told us about the factory and herself.) (to modify respectively)

Example 3 人们一下子都变成客客气气、嘻嘻哈哈、谨慎小心的人了。[rén men yī xià zi dōu biàn chéng kè kè qì qì, xī xī hā hā, jǐn shèn xiǎo xīn de rén le.]

(Suddenly the people became courteous, vague, and cagey.) (to modify respectively)

2 How to use conjunction and “的 [de]” among multiple attributes of coordinative relation

If these attributes consist of nouns or verbs, some conjunctions, such as “和 [hé] (and),” “以及 [yǐ jí] (and),” or “或 [huò] (or),” often appear between the last two attributes. For the preceding ones, they are often separated by a slight-pause mark “、.”

Example 4 这是小明和小刚的老师。[zhè shì Xiǎo Míng hé Xiǎo Gāng de lǎo shī.]

(This is the teacher of Xiao Ming and Xiao Gang.)

Example 5 在学习或工作的时候，他的思想总是非常集中。[zài xué xí huò gōng zuò de shí hòu, tā de sī xiǎng zǒng shì fēi cháng jí zhōng.]

(He concentrates most when learning or working.)

Example 6 必须兼顾国家、集体和个人三方面的利益。[bì xū jiān gù guó jiā, jí tǐ hé gè rén sān fāng miàn de lì yì.]

(The interest of the state, the collective, and the individual must be taken into account.)

If the attributes indicate different status, conjunctions can divide the attributes of less closeness and those of closeness are separated by “、”.

Example 7 老师和爸爸、妈妈的嘱咐时常在他耳边响起。[lǎo shī hé bà ba, mā ma de zhǔ fù shí cháng zài tā er biān xiǎng qǐ.]

(The advice from the teacher, the father, and the mother is always recalled in his ear.)

If attributes are two adjectives, they can be directly connected with each other.

Example 8 他被小燕真挚诚恳的态度感动了。[tā bèi Xiǎo Yàn zhēn zhì chéng kěn de tài dù gǎn dòng le.]

(He was moved by Xiao Yan's sincerity.)

Example 9 老人穿了一件破旧衣服。[lǎo rén chuān le yī jiàn pò jiù yī fu.]

(The old man was in worn-out clothes.)

Or they can be connected by “又~又~ [yòu~yòu~],” “很~很~ [hěn~hěn~],” “最~最~ [zuì~zuì~].”

Example 10 孩子们挖了一个又(很)大又(很)深的坑。[hái zi men wā le yī gè yòu (hěn) dà yòu (hěn) shēn de kēng.]

(The children dug a very large and deep hole.)

Example 11 我要到最遥远最艰苦的地方去工作。[wǒ yào dào zuì yǎo yuǎn zuì jiān kǔ de dì fang qù gōng zuò.]

(I shall work in the remotest and the hardest places.)

Or they can be connected by “而 [er] (and),” if they are progressive by each other in meaning.

Example 12 伟大而光明的祖国啊，愿你永远“如日之升”。[wěi dà ér guāng míng de zǔ guó ā, yuàn nǐ yǒng yuǎn “rú rì zhī shēng.”]

(My great and brilliant motherland! May you forever be flourishing and invigorating, like the rising sun.)

Example 13 她是一个热情而开朗的姑娘。[tā shì yī gè rè qíng ér kāi lǎng de gū niang.]

(She is a passionate and cheerful girl.)

Otherwise, “和 [hé] (and)” or “或 [huò] (or)” can be chosen.

Example 14 总之，我们要调动一切直接的和间接的力量，为把我国建设成为一个强大的社会主义祖国而奋斗。[zǒng zhī, wǒ men yào diào dòng yī qiè zhí jiē de hé jiān jiē de lì liàng, wèi bǎ wǒ guó jiàn shè chéng wéi yī gè qiáng dà de shè huì zhǔ yì zǔ guó ér fèn dòu.]

(In short, we should struggle for a powerful socialist country by mobilizing all strengths directly and indirectly.)

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Example 15 他站住了，脸上现出欢喜和凄凉的神情。[tā zhàn zhù le, liǎn shàng xiàn chū huān xǐ hé qī liáng de shén qíng.]

(He stood still, with a look of joy as well as desolation on his face.)

Example 16 先进的或落后的群众都发动起来了。[xiān jìn de huò luò hòu de qún zhòng dōu fā dòng qǐ lái le.]

(The masses, advanced or backward, were aroused.)

If coordinative attributes are more than two, each of them can be separated by “、” or the last two can be connected by “而 [er] (and),” “和 [hé] (and)” or “或 [huò] (or)”.

Example 17 这是一个伟大、正确、英明的决定！[zhè shì yī gè wěi dà, zhèng què, yīng míng de jué dìng!]

(This is a great, reasonable, and wise decision!)

Example 18 我们要把祖国建设成为一个独立、繁荣而富强的国家。[wǒ men yào bǎ zǔ guó jiàn shè chéng wéi yī gè dú lì, fán róng er fù qiáng de guó jiā.]

(We will develop our motherland into an independent, prosperous, and strong country.)

In order to strengthen their function, “的 [de]” can be added to each of the attributes.

Example 19 我们要和一切资本主义国家的无产阶级联合起来，要和日本的、英国的、美国的、德国的、意大利的以及一切资本主义国家的无产阶级联合起来。 . . . [wǒ men yào hé yī qiè zī běn zhǔ yì guó jiā de wú chǎn jiē jí lián hé qǐ lái, yào hé rì běn de, yīng guó de, měi guó de, dé guó de, yì dà lì de yī qiè zī běn zhǔ yì guó jiā de wú chǎn jiē jí lián hé qǐ lái . . .]

(We will unite all the proletariat of all capitalized countries, such as Japan, England, America, Germany, Italy, and so on.)

Example 20 我要到最遥远的最艰苦的地方去工作。[wǒ yào dào zuì yáo yuǎn de zuì jiān kǔ de dì fang qù gōng zuò.]

(I shall work in the remotest and hardest places.)

3 How to sequence multiple attributes of coordinative relation

Theoretically, they can be freely sequenced, but in fact their sequence is fixed by various factors.

According to a certain logic relation among them, they can be re-sequenced, following an increased or decreased degree in the aspects of status, importance, value, distance, or quantity.

Example 21 这次会议很重要，县、市、省的干部都要参加。[zhè cì huì yì hěn zhòng yào, xiàn, shì, shěng de gàn bù dōu yào cān jiā.]

(This conference is vital, and the cadres from counties, cities, and provinces should attend.) (the increased levels)

Example 22 我们必须兼顾国家、集体和个人的利益。[wǒ men bì xū jiān gù guó jiā, jí tǐ hé gè rén de lì yì.]

(We must take into account the interest of the state, the collective and the individual.) (the decreased levels)

Example 23 学校的教学科研工作都要抓紧。[xué xiào de jiào xué kē yán gōng zuò dōu yào zhuā jǐn.]

(Both teaching and scientific research should be emphasized.) (the decreased importance)

Example 24 他很在乎亲人、友人和邻里对这件事的看法。[tā hěn zài hū qīn rén, yǒu rén hé lín lǐ duì zhè jiàn shì de kàn fǎ.]

(He cares much about the opinions from his relatives, friends, and neighbors.) (the decreased closeness)

Example 25 他在香港买了很多金银首饰。[tā zài xiāng gǎng mǎi le hěn duō jīn yín shǒu shì.]

(He bought a lot of golden and silver jewelry in Hong Kong.) (the decreased value)

Similar relevant examples are as follows:

长处和短处的问题 [cháng chù hé duǎn chù de wèn tí]

(the issues of merits and demerits)

优点和缺点的标准 [yōu diǎn hé quē diǎn de biāo zhǔn]

(the standards of advantages and disadvantages)

老师和学生的帮助 [lǎo shī hé xué shēng de bāng zhù]

(the help from teachers to students)

社会主义革命和社会主义建设 [shè huì zhǔ yì gé mìng hé shè huì zhǔ yì jiàn shè]

(the revolution and construction of socialism)

文化教育事业 [wén huà jiào yù shì yè]

(the career of culture and education)

Sometimes, the sequence of attributes are rearranged following the development rule in recognition or cognition.

Example 26 这就是我军多年来发展壮大历史。[zhè jiù shì wǒ jūn duō nián lái fā zhǎn zhuàng dà de lì shǐ.]

(This is the history of how our army has developed and expanded over the years.) (the rule of development)

Example 27 这时，一位身穿花衣服，梳着两条长辫子，长着一双大眼睛的姑娘站了起来。[zhè shí, yī wèi shēn chuān huā yī fu, shū zhe liǎng tiáo cháng biàn zi, zhǎng zhe shuāng dà yǎn jīng de gū niang zhàn le qǐ lái.]

(Then a girl stood up, who was in a colorful dress with two long braids and big eyes.) (the rule of observation)

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Example 28 设计院来了一个才从艺术学院毕业的，作雕塑师的姑娘。
[shè jì yuàn lái le yī gè cái cóng yì shù xué yuàn bì yè de, zuò diāo sù shī de gū niang.]

(A girl, who was a sculptor and just graduated from an academy of arts, came to the designing institute.) (the rule of occurrence)

Some are rearranged based on Chinese culture or Chinese practices, such as “男女青年 [nán nǚ qīng nián] (male and female youth)” and “兄弟姐妹 [xiōng dì jiě mèi] (brothers and sisters).”

Example 29 这时他想起临行时父亲和母亲对自己的嘱咐。[zhè shí tā xiǎng qǐ lín xíng shí fù qīn hé mǔ qīn duì zì jǐ de zhǔ fù.]

(Then he remembered what his father and mother had told him when he left.)

Only a few attributes possessing identical status can be freely sequenced.

Example 30 小张、小李和小赵的文章都写得不错。[Xiǎo Zhāng, Xiǎo Lǐ hé Xiǎo Zhào de wén zhāng dōu xiě dé bú cuò.]

(Xiao Zhang, Xiao Li, and Xiao Zhao are all good at writing.)

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II. *Multiple attributes of successive relation*

1 How to understand multiple attributes of successive relation

They exist based on the successive relation and successively modify the next newly formed structure of modifiers and their headwords. They often consist of descriptive or restrictive words or both. They cannot be connected by any conjunction nor separated by any punctuation.

Example 31 葫芦架下摆着一张矮腿的小长桌。[méng lú jià xià bǎi zhe yī zhāng ǎi tuǐ de xiǎo cháng zhuō.]

(Under the calabash shed is a little long table with short legs.)

In this example, “长 [cháng] (long)” modifies “桌 [zhuō] (table),” then “小 [xiǎo] (little)” modifies “长桌 [cháng zhuō] (long table),” and then “矮腿的 [ǎi tuǐ de] (short legs)” modifies “小长桌 [xiǎo cháng zhuō] (a little long table),” and finally “一张 [yī zhāng] (a)” modifies “矮腿的小长桌 [ǎi tuǐ de xiǎo cháng zhuō] (little long table with short legs).”

Example 32 右边，立一个五尺高的乌木塑龙灯座。[yòu biān, lì yī gè wǔ chǐ gāo de wū mù sù lóng dēng zuò.]
(To the right stands a five-foot high ebony lamp in a dragon shape.)

Seemingly, some attributes are based on the successive relation but actually they are sequenced according to their structure relation, such as “专程来参加纪念活动的斯诺的姐姐 [zhuān chéng lái cān jiā jì niàn huó dòng de Sī nuò de jiě jie] (Snow’s sister who specially came to the commemorative activity).

In the this example, “斯诺 [sī nuò] (Snow)” modifies “姐姐 [jiě jie] (sister)” and “专程来参加纪念活动的 [zhuān chéng lái cān jiā jì niàn huó dòng de]” modifies “斯诺的姐姐 [Sī nuò de jiě jie] (Snow’s sister).”

2 How to sequence multiple attributes of successive relation

Multiple attributes of successive relation should be sequenced by a hierarchical order.

(1) The sequence of multiple attributes of successive relation

Multiple attributes of successive relation can be divided into two levels, namely descriptive attributes at the first level and restrictive attributes at the second level. Usually, the second level comes before the first level.

Example 33 曹飞是工业组最老的编辑。[Cáo Fēi shì gōng yè zǔ zuì lǎo de biān jí.]
(Cao Fei is the most senior editor in the industry group.) (the restrictive attribute and the descriptive attribute)

Example 34 她数着窗外蓝色大海里悄悄飘过去的灯光。[tā shǔ zhe chuāng wài lán sè dà hǎi lǐ qiāo qiāo piāo guò qù de dēng guāng.]
(She counted the lights that quietly floated away on the blue sea outside the window.) (the restrictive attribute and the descriptive attribute)

Example 35 我了解这个省工业中存在的比较尖锐的问题。[wǒ xiǎng liǎo jiě zhè gè shěng gōng yè zhōng cún zài de bǐ jiào jiān ruì de wèn tí.]
(I want to know the sharp problems of the industry in this province.) (the restrictive attribute and the descriptive attribute)

The sequence in the these examples cannot be reversed because it is widely accepted in the daily use.

(2) The sequence of restrictive attributes

The sequence of restrictive attributes is as follows.

a Nouns or pronouns indicating affiliation

If there is a locative after a noun or a pronoun, they are regarded as one attribute rather than two.

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Example 36 我眼前这个人很面熟。[wǒ yǎn qián zhè gè rén hěn miàn shú.]
(The man in front of me looks very familiar.)

b Locative and time word

When they appear at the same time, either of them can come after the other.

c Other attributes indicating scope, such as subject-predicate phrase, verb phrase, or prepositional phrase

If a time word or a locative is contained in a subject-predicate phrase, verb phrase, or prepositional phrase, they are regarded as one attribute rather than two.

Example 37 我昨天说的那个人走了吗? [wǒ zuó tiān shuō de nà gè rén zǒu le ma?]

(Did the man I mentioned yesterday leave?)

Example 38 在操场上打球的学生穿着运动服。[zài cāo chǎng shàng dǎ qiú de xué shēng chuān zhe yùn dòng fú.]

(The students who are playing ball on the playground are all in gym suits.)

d Numeral-quantifier phrase

Example 39 这是整个学校一天的活动计划。[zhè shì zhěng gè xué xiào yī tiān de huó dòng jì huá.]

(This is the whole day's schedule of this school.)

Example 40 他刚才说的关于会议的那一套意见我全不同意。[tā gāng cái shuō de guān yú huì yì de nà yī tào yì jiàn wǒ quán bù tóng yì.]

(I totally disagree with all the suggestions about the conference he put forward just now.)

Example 41 杨明在体育运动方面的兴趣很广。[Yáng Míng zài tǐ yù yùn dòng fāng miàn de xìng qù hěn guǎng.]

(Yang Ming has a wide range of interests in sports.)

Example 42 这位总编每天早晨的这次谈话总是很及时。[zhè wèi zǒng biān měi tiān zǎo chén de zhè cì tán huà zǒng shì hěn jí shí.]

(The chief editor's talk in every morning is always timely.)

When a locative appears with a noun or a pronoun indicating affiliation, their sequence is decided by their semantic relation. If the scope of a locative is larger than or as large as that of a noun or pronoun, the former comes before the latter.

Example 43 报纸头版上高厅长这篇论文很有分量。[bào zhǐ tóu bǎn shàng Gāo tǐng zhǎng zhè piān lùn wén hěn yǒu fèn liàng.] (locative+affiliation)
(The article of Direct-General Gao on the front page of the newspaper is very important.)

Example 44 操场北面我们班的那间活动室已经锁上了。[cāo chǎng běi miàn wǒ men bān de nà jiān huó dòng shì yǐ jīng suǒ shàng le.] (locative+affiliation)
(The activity room of our class in the north of the playground has been locked.)

If the scope of the latter is larger than that of the former, the latter comes before the former.

Example 45 我们班操场北边那间活动室已经锁上了。[wǒ men bān cāo chǎng běi biān nà jiān huó dòng shì yǐ jīng suǒ shàng le.] (affiliation+locative)
(The activity room of our class in the north of the playground has been locked.)

(3) The sequence of descriptive attributes

Generally, the sequence of descriptive attributes is as follows.

- a Subject-predicate phrase
- b Verb (phrase) or prepositional phrase
- c Adjective (phrase) and other descriptive words
- d Adjective not followed by “的 [de]” and descriptive noun

Example 46 这当然是少有的最好的情形。[zhè dāng rán shì shǎo yǒu de zuì hǎo de qíng xíng.]
(This, of course, is the best situation that rarely happens.)

Example 47 他穿一双没膝的长筒尼龙袜子。[tā chuān yī shuāng mò xī de cháng tǒng ní lóng wà zi.]
(He wore a pair of knee-length nylon socks.)

Example 48 那个个子比一般人高些的青年工人是我的弟弟。[nà ge gè zǐ bǐ yī bān rén gāo xiē de qīng nián gōng rén shì wǒ de dì dì.]
(That young worker taller than ordinary people is my younger brother.)

Example 49 我心里有一股说不出的痛苦的味道。[wǒ xīn lǐ yǒu yī gǔ shuō bù chū lái de tòng kǔ de wèi dào.]
(I was filled with a bitter feeling beyond words.)

Sometimes, adjectives or nouns not followed by “的 [de]” are successively used to function as descriptive attributes, such as “大红国光苹果 [dà hóng guó guāng píng guǒ] (big Guoguang apples),” “绿绸夹袄 [lǜ chóu jiá ǎo] (green silk-lined coat).” The sequence of these attributes generally follows the order: big/small/new/old-source-color-shape/style-material-noun.

Example 50 一张小黑椭圆木头桌子[yī zhāng xiǎo hēi tuǒ yuán mù tóu zhuō zi]
(a little black oval wooden table)
两把进口大白铁椅子 [liǎng bǎ jìn kǒu dà bái tiě yǐ zi]
(two large imported white iron chairs)

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一头金色的披肩长发 [yī tóu jīn sè de pī jiān cháng fà]
(long blonde hair)

大屏幕国产彩色立体声电视机 [dà píng mù guó chǎn cǎi sè lì tǐ shēng diàn
shì jī]
(domestic large-screen color stereo TV set)

“小夹袄 [xiǎo jiá ǎo] (little lined coat),” “长袍 [cháng páo] (long robe),” “小棉袄 [xiǎo mián ǎo] (little cotton-padded coat)” have already been used as the names of clothes, so they are inseparable.

Example 51 浅绿绸子小夹袄 [qiǎn lǜ chóu zi xiǎo jiá ǎo] (light green silk-lined jacket)

青洋绉肥腿单裤 [qīng yáng zhòu féi tuǐ dān kù] (wide crepe unlined pants)

琵琶襟紫呢短大衣 [pí pá jīn zǐ ní duǎn dà yī] (a purple short overcoat with a pipa-shaped front collar)

没膝的长筒胶鞋 [méi xī de cháng tǒng jiāo xié] (knee-length rubber boots)

灰色哥萨克式羊皮帽 [huī sè gē sà kè shì yáng pí mào] (grey Cossack sheepskin hat)

Here, either color or style can come before the other.

(4) The words indicating quantity

Some words indicating quantity can function as restrictive attributes, including a numeral-quantifier phrase, a demonstrative numeral-quantifier phrase, and some adjectives. Since they are very complex in use, they need to be discussed individually. The words of such type have their specific positions: they stand at the end of restrictive attributes or before descriptive attributes.

- a Some nouns don't indicate affiliation and come after numeral-quantifier phrases. They are descriptive.

Example 52 上午召开了一次学术委员会紧急会议。[shàng wǔ zhào kāi le yī cì xué shù wěi yuán huì jǐn jí huì yì.]

(An emergent meeting of the academic board was held this morning.)

Example 53 墙上挂着一幅周总理像。[qiáng shàng guà zhe yī fú Zhōu zǒng lǐ xiàng.]

(On the wall hangs a picture of Premier Zhou.)

- b Sometimes, time words as attributes don't indicate restriction and come after a numeral-quantifier phrase. They are descriptive.

Example 54 你给我一张二十六号的“人民日报”。[nǐ gěi wǒ yī zhāng èr shí liù hào de rén mín rì bào.]

(Give me a copy of *People's Daily* from the 26th.)

Example 55 大批大批昨天的落后分子进入了先进人物的行列。[dà pī dà pī zuó tiān de luò hòu fēn zǐ jìn rù le xiān jìn rén wù de háng liè.]

(A large number of the backward people in the past have caught up with those advanced ones.)

- c The demonstrative pronouns, such as “这 [zhè] (this)” and “那 [nà] (that),” can function as attributes alone. They come before rather than substitute what they refer to.

Example 56 在那春夜京郊的小路上，有一对青年在散步。[zài nà chūn yè jīng jiāo de xiǎo lù shàng, yǒu yī duì qīng nián zài sǎn bù.]

(On one spring night in Beijing, a young couple were having a walk on a road in the suburb.)

Example 57 在这北国的散发着泥土芳香的田野里，我深深地陶醉了。[zài zhè běi guó de sǎn fā zhe ní tǔ fāng xiāng de tián yě lǐ, wǒ shēn shēn de táo zuì le.]

(I was deeply intoxicated with the fragrance of the field in the North.)

The sequence of multiple attributes of successive relation follows the order: restrictive attribute+numeral-quantifier phrase+descriptive attribute.

Example 58 两薄片透明的白云悄悄地游动着。[liǎng sān piàn tòu míng de bái yún qiāo qiāo de yóu dòng zhe.]

(Several thin, white clouds are floating around quietly.)

Example 59 现在他要去给他们那儿八十名闲得难受的钳工找工作。[xiàn zài tā yào qù gěi tā men nà er bā shí míng xián dé nán shòu de qián gōng zhǎo gōng zuò.]

(Now he had to look for jobs for those eighty idle fitters.)

Example 60 大街上和舞会上人们向她投过来的羡慕的眼光，使她受不了。[dà jiē shàng hé wǔ huì shàng rén men xiàng tā tóu guò lái de xiàn mù de yǎn guāng, shǐ tā shòu bù liǎo.]

(She could not stand those envious eyes of the people on the street and at the dance.)

Example 61 我使劲把朝江的那面大窗子推开。[wǒ shǐ jìn bǎ cháo jiāng de nà miàn dà chuāng zi tuī kāi.]

(I tried my best to open the large window facing the river.)

Example 62 他耐心地听我叙述前几天看到的这些情况。[tā nài xīn de tīng wǒ xù shù qián jǐ tiān kàn dào de zhè xiē qíng kuàng.]

(With patience, he listened to my description of what I saw several days ago.)

In order to strengthen the descriptive effect, descriptive attributes (except for nouns) can be moved before numeral-quantifier phrases.

Example 63 突然，天空出现了年轻而快活的一抹红色！[tū rán, tiān kōng chū xiàn le nián qīng er kuài huó de yī mǒ hóng sè!]

(All of a sudden, a fresh and bright dash of red appeared in the sky.)

Example 64 这儿住了大小一共二十八个部门单位。[zhè er zhù le dà xiǎo yí gòng èr shí bā gè bù mén dān wèi.]

(There are twenty-eight departments here in total.)

Example 65 他不知不觉选择了最简单的一种工作方法。[tā bù zhī bù jué xuǎn zé le zuì jiǎn dān de yī zhǒng gōng zuò fāng fǎ.]

(Unconsciously, he chose the simplest way to work.)

Example 66 盛开的桃花丁香混成那么浓的一股香味。[shèng kāi de táo huā dīng xiāng hùn chéng nà me nóng de yī gǔ xiāng wèi.]

(The strong fragrance comes from the peach blossoms and lilac.)

Example 67 弯弯曲曲一千多条小路，你找哪一条？[wān wān qū qū yī qiān duō tiáo xiǎo lù, nǐ zhǎo nǎ yī tiáo?]

(There are more than a thousand twisting paths and which one are you looking for?)

In these examples, all of the descriptive words can be moved after the numeral-quantifier phrase.

In short, the sequence of multiple attributes of successive relation follows the following order:

- a Noun or pronoun indicating affiliation
- b Locative or time word, either of which come before the other.
- c Numeral-quantifier phrase followed by descriptive attribute
- d Subject-predicate phrase, verb (phrase), prepositional phrase
- e Numeral-quantifier phrase followed by restrictive attribute
- f Adjective (phrase) and other descriptive words
- g Adjectives not followed by “的 [de]” and descriptive nouns

Example 68 不久，草原上又响起了他们愉快的歌声。[bù jiǔ, cǎo yuán shàng yòu xiǎng qǐ le tā men yú kuài de gē shēng.]

(Soon, their cheerful song resounded in the prairie.)

Example 69 这时，一个年纪稍大的大个子解放军走了过来。[zhè shí, yī gè nián jì shāo dà de dà gè zǐ jiě fàng jūn zǒu le guò lái.]

(At this moment a tall elder soldier of the People's Liberation Army came over.)

Example 70 他们克服了所遇到的一切意想不到的困难。[tā men kè fú le suǒ yù dào de yī qiè yì xiǎng bú dào de kùn nán.]

(They overcame all the unexpected difficulties they encountered.)

Example 71 张野看着黄佳英那个严肃的样子, 觉得她确实变了。
[Zhāng Yě kàn zhe Huáng Jiā yīng nà gè yán sù de yàng zi, jué de tā què shí biàn le.]

(Looking at the serious look on Huang Jiaying's face, Zhang Ye felt she had changed indeed.)

Example 72 那就是墙壁上的一张画满了各种工作母机与农具的大广告画。
[nà jiù shì qiáng bì shàng de yī zhāng huà mǎn le gè zhǒng gōng zuò mǔ jī yǔ nóng jù de dà guǎng gào huà.]

(On the wall was the advertising picture showing all sorts of agricultural machines and farm tools.)

Example 73 他刚走进四号病房就见在病房门口走廊里坐着的一位六十多岁的老大爷在向他招手。
[tā gāng zǒu jìn sì hào bìng fáng jiù jiàn zài bìng fáng mén kǒu zǒu láng lǐ zuò zhe de yī wèi liù shí duō suì de lǎo dà yé zài xiàng tā huī shǒu.]

(No sooner had he entered the No. 4 ward than he saw an old man in his sixties sitting on the corridor of outside the ward and waving to him.)

3 How to use “的 [de]” with multiple attributes with successive relation

- (1) If other attributes appear after the subject-object phrase, verb (phrase), or prepositional phrase, “的 [de]” usually follows these attributes. But, if a numeral-quantifier phrase comes after an adjective phrase, “的 [de]” can be absent.
- (2) If other attributes not being followed by “的 [de]” appear after the noun or pronoun indicating affiliation, “的 [de]” is necessarily required after it.

Example 74 我要为家乡的茶叶工人欢呼。
[wǒ yào wèi jiā xiāng de chá yè gōng rén huān hū.]

(I want to cheer for the workers of tea production in my hometown.)

Example 75 我的老同学在北京工作。
[wǒ de lǎo tóng xué zài běi jīng gōng zuò.]

(My old school friend works in Beijing.)

“的 [de]” is not required to appear after the noun or pronoun that not only indicates affiliation but also is followed by a demonstrative pronoun, interrogative pronoun, locative, or other attributes followed by “的 [de]” at the same time.

Example 76 你跟八路军哪些人有联系?
[nǐ gēn bā lù jūn nǎ xiē rén yǒu lián xì?]

(Whom were you in touch with in the Eighth Route Army?)

Example 77 后来, 纪政明政委总是把毛主席这篇讲话的油印本放在挎包里带在身边。
[hòu lái, Jì Zhèng míng zhèng wěi zǒng shì bǎ Máo zhǔ xí zhè piān jiǎng huà de yóu yìn běn fàng zài kuà bāo lǐ dài zài shēn biān.]

(Later, Ji Zhengming, the political commissar, always carried a mimeograph copy of Chairman Mao's speech in his satchel.)

Example 78 我后头那个人是谁? [wǒ hòu tou nà gè rén shì shuí?]
(Who is that man behind me?)

Example 79 当他的双手接触到我哆嗦着的身体时 . . . [dāng tā de shuāng shǒu jiē chù dào wǒ duō suo zhe de shēn tǐ shí . . .]
(When his hands were in touch with my shaking body . . .)

- (3) If a disyllabic adjective as an attribute comes before a descriptive noun as an attribute, “的 [de]” is necessarily required after this adjective.

Example 80 劳动人民创造了灿烂的古代文化。[láo dòng rén mín chuàng zào le càn làn de gǔ dài wén huà.]
(The glorious ancient culture was created by the laboring people.)

Example 81 可是孩子们还小, 要帮助他们走上正确的生活道路, 还得花费不少心血。[kě shì hái zǐ men hái xiǎo, yào bāng zhù tā men zǒu shàng zhèng què de shēng huó dào lù, hái děi huā fèi bù shǎo xīn xuè.]
(Since the children are still young, it takes many painstaking efforts to lead them to grow up on the right life path.)

Example 82 小姑娘穿着一条漂亮的绸裙子。[xiǎo gū niang chuān zhe yī tiáo piào liang de chóu qún zi.]
(The little girl was in a beautiful silk skirt.)

“的 [de]” can be absent after the adjective which is the closest to the headword with other attributes followed by “的 [de]” in front of it.

Example 83 长城是中国劳动人民的伟大创造。[cháng chéng shì zhōng guó láo dòng rén mín de wěi dà chuàng zào.]
(The Great Wall is the great creation of the laboring people of China.)

Example 84 新时代的劳动人民, 怎么能忘记过去的悲惨生活呢? [xīn shí dài de láo dòng rén mín, zěn me néng wàng jì guò qù de bēi cǎn shēng huó ne?]
(How is it possible for the laboring people in the new era to forget their miserable lives in the past?)

Example 85 他了解大娘想看儿子的迫切心情。[tā liǎo jiě dà niáng xiǎng kàn ér zi de pò qiè xīn qíng.]
(He understood the elder woman's eagerness to visit her son.)

When two adjectives (phrases) function as attributes simultaneously, “的 [de]” is necessarily required after them. But, the monosyllabic adjective doesn't take “的 [de]” in the rear because it is supposed to be the closest to the headword.

Example 86 赵永进那双有神的大眼, 在长眉毛下, 迎着星光在闪亮。[Zhào Yǒng jìn nà shuāng yǒu shén de dà yǎn, zài cháng méi máo xià, yíng zhe xīng guāng zài shǎn liàng.]

(Below the long eyebrows, Zhao Yongjin's big and piercing eyes sparkled in the night.)

Example 87 人们亲切地把这头健壮的小象叫“版纳”。[rén men qīn qiè de bǎ zhè tóu jiàn zhuàng de xiǎo xiàng jiào “Bǎn nà.”]
(People affectionately named this little robust elephant “Banna.”)

In short, “的 [de]” cannot be used in succession among multiple attributes in order to avoid ambiguity. Generally, “的 [de]” closest to the headword often remains.

4 How to distinguish multiple attributes from a complex phrase as attribute

Different from a complex phrase as attribute, multiple attributes refer to those words before the headword that is connected with them based on the relation of modifying and being modified. However, such a relation doesn't exist among the attributes themselves.

Example 88 他不是我想找的那个年轻人。[tā bú shì wǒ xiǎng zhǎo de nà gè nián qīng rén.]
(He is not that young man I am looking for.)

In this example, “我想找的 [wǒ xiǎng zhǎo de] (I am looking for),” “那个 [nà gè] (that)” and “年轻 [nián qīng] (young)” modify “人 [rén] (man)” together but they don't modify one another.

Example 89 南京长江大桥把中国东南部被隔断的铁路、公路连接起来。[nán jīng cháng jiāng dà qiáo bǎ zhōng guó dōng nán bù bèi gé duàn de tiě lù, gōng lù lián jiē qǐ lái.]
(Nanjing Yangtze River Bridge connects the separated railways and highways together in the southeast of China.)

In this example, “中国东南部 [zhōng guó dōng nán bù] (the southeast of China)” functions as one attribute, in which “中国 [zhōng guó] (China)” directly modifies “东南部 [dōng nán bù] (the southeast)” but not “被隔断的铁路、公路 [bèi gé duàn de tiě lù, gōng lù] (the separated railways and highways).” Therefore, “中国东南部 [zhōng guó dōng nán bù] (the southeast of China)” is a complex phrase as attribute rather than the multiple attributes.

Example 90 直线L2就是和L1切于一侧的半径为R的圆的圆心的轨迹。[zhí xiàn L2 jiù shì hé L1 qiē yú yī cè de bàn jìng wéi R de yuán de yuán xīn de guǐ jì.]
(L2 is the track of the center of a circle with L1 as its radius.)

In this example, the headword is “轨迹 [guǐ jì] (track)” with a complex phrase “和L1切于一侧的半径为R的圆的圆心 [hé L1 qiē yú yī cè de bàn jìng wéi R de yuán de yuán xīn] (with L1 as its radius)” as its complex attribute. Inside the phrase, “圆

心 [yuán xīn] (center of a circle)” is its headword with “和L1切于一侧的半径为R的圆 [hé L1 qiē yú yī cè de bàn jìng wéi R de yuán] (a circle with L1 as its radius)” as its attribute. In the same way, “圆 [yuán] (circle)” is the headword with “和L1切于一侧 [hé L1 qiē yú yī cè] (with L1)” and “半径为R的 [bàn jìng wéi R de] (as its radius)” as its coordinative attributes.

Example 91 他是我哥哥的老师的孩子的同学。 [tā shì wǒ gē ge de lǎo shī de hái zi de tóng xué.]
(He is the classmate of my elder brother’s teacher’s child.)

The attribute in the previous example implies an internal hierarchy of affiliation, different from the multiple attributes of successive relation. It is very common in academic articles or papers but rarely appears in the spoken language. Generally the last “的 [de]” remained and the rest of them can be absent in order to avoid ambiguity.

Besides, in the previous example, each word directly modified by the preceding constituent must refer to a specific person, such as “我哥哥 [wǒ gē ge] (my elder brother),” “我哥哥的老师 [wǒ gē ge de lǎo shī] (my brother’s teacher),” “我哥哥的老师的孩子 [wǒ gē ge de lǎo shī de hái zi] (the children of my elder brother’s teacher),” “我哥哥的老师的孩子的同学 [wǒ gē ge de lǎo shī de hái zi de tóng xué] (the classmate of my elder brother’s teacher’s child).” Another similar example is as follows:

Example 92 信封右角邮票上的图案很好看。 [xìn fēng yòu jiǎo yóu piào shàng de tú àn hěn hǎo kàn.]
(The pattern of the stamp at the right corner of the envelope is very pretty.)

If a phrase contains several nouns indicating affiliation, except for the last one, the rest of the nouns would form a complex to modify the last noun, such as “我父亲的父亲的父亲 [wǒ fù qīn de fù qīn de fù qīn] (my great-grandfather).”

In this example, “我父亲 [wǒ fù qīn] (my father)” refers to a specific person and the same is true for “我父亲的父亲 [wǒ fù qīn de fù qīn] (my father’s father)” and “我父亲的父亲的父亲 [wǒ fù qīn de fù qīn de fù qīn] (my great-grandfather).”

In general, if several nominal constituents are connected by an internal hierarchy of affiliation, the preceding nouns will form an attribute to modify the last noun. The first noun is regarded as a reference, due to which a specific person, thing, or object can be clearly confirmed.

III. Multiple attributes with the relation of coordination and succession

These attributes are characterized by the relations of coordination and succession. Consequently, their sequence in the sentence will be restricted by the rules of these two.

Example 93 她好读书，书籍使她认识现在的世界，也帮助她获得几个热心为她介绍书籍以及帮助她认识其他方面的诚恳的朋友。[tā hào dú shū, shū jí shǐ tā rèn shí xiàn zài de shì jiè, yě bāng zhù tā huò dé jǐ gè rè xīn wèi tā jiè shào shū jí yǐ jí bāng zhù tā rèn shí qí tā fāng miàn de chéng kěn de péng yǒu.]

(She loves reading. Books not only make her aware of the world as it is, but also helps her make several sincere friends, who are eager to help her in reading, as well as teach others.)

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4 Adverbials

Section one: functions and classifications of adverbials

I. What is an adverbial?

In a phrase, an adverbial modifies a verb or an adjective, such as “努力学习 [nǔ lì xué xí] (study hard),” “详细描述 [xiáng xì miáo xiě] (describe precisely),” “很红 [hěn hóng] (very red),” “格外高兴 [gé wài gāo xìng] (very glad).” In a sentence, an adverbial is a modifier of the predicate which can be served by the verb, adjective, subject-predicate, or noun.

Example 1 我常常打篮球。[wǒ cháng cháng dǎ lán qiú.]
(I often play basketball.)

Example 2 西边是人民大会堂，您看，多雄伟。[xī biān shì rén mín dà huì táng, nín kàn, duō xióng wěi.]
(The Great Hall of the People is in the west of Tiananmen Square. You see how majestic it is.)

Example 3 弟弟今天很不高兴。[dì dì jīn tiān hěn bù gāo xìng.]
(My brother is very unhappy today.)

Example 4 时令才初冬，河水就结冰了。[shí lìng cái chū dōng, hé shuǐ jiù jié bīng le.]
(It is only early winter but the river has frozen.)

Example 5 张文刚才头疼了。[Zhāng Wén gāng cái tóu téng le.]
(Zhang Wen had a headache just now.)

An adverbial usually modifies the constituents after it. If it comes before the subject, it modifies the entire sentence.

Example 6 四月中我从非洲到法国，五月十号，我从法国乘飞机来到中国，参加一个国际贸易博览会。[sì yuè zhōng wǒ cóng fēi zhōu dào fǎ guó, wǔ yuè shí hào, wǒ cóng fǎ guó chéng fēi jī lái dào zhōng guó, cān jiā yì gè guó jì mào yì bó lǎn huì.]
(In mid-April, I went from Africa to France. On May 10, I flew to China from France to attend an international trade fair.)

Example 7 刚才我谈了一下明天的活动。对明天的安排你们还有什么意见? [gāng cái wǒ tán le yì xià míng tiān de huó dòng. duì míng tiān de ān pái nǐ men hái yǒu shén me yì jiàn?]

(I just talked about tomorrow's activities. What suggestions do you have for tomorrow's arrangements?)

The main function of an adverbial is to connect sentences or sentence groups when they come before the subject. In Example 6, the time word “五月十号 [wǔ yuè shí hào] (May 10)” connects two sentences before and after it; in Example 7, “对明天的安排 [duì míng tiān de ān pái] (tomorrow's arrangements)” connects two sentences before and after it.

If the adverbial comes after the subject, it modifies the predicate part after it.

Example 8 天气逐渐暖和起来了。[tiān qì zhú jiàn nuǎn huo qǐ lái le.]
(The weather is getting warmer.)

Example 9 小刚一直学习很努力。[Xiǎo Gāng yì zhí xué xí hěn nǔ lì.]
(Xiao Gang has been studying very hard.)

Example 10 医生又把病历仔细翻了一遍。[yī shēng yòu bǎ bìng lì zǐ xì fān le yī biàn.]

(The doctor checked the medical record carefully again.)

Example 11 放学了，孩子们高高兴兴地从学校往家走。[fàng xué le, hái zǐ men gāo gāo xìng xìng de cóng xué xiào wǎng jiā zǒu.]

(After school, the children went home happily.)

II. Classification of adverbials

A variety of words can function as adverbials to convey various meanings. Adverbials can modify verbs and adjectives in different ways. According to their functions, they can be generally divided into two big categories, namely descriptive adverbials and non-descriptive adverbials. Each of these contains many types.

1 Descriptive adverbials

They can be semantically subdivided into those describing doers of actions and those for actions.

(1) Descriptive adverbials for doers of actions

They mainly describe facial expressions, postures, or obvious psychological activities of doers and are popular in literary works. The following words can function as descriptive adverbials.

Adjectives (phrases): 激动 [jī dòng] (excited), 高兴 [gāo xìng] (happy), 兴奋 [xīng fèn] (excited), 愉快 [yú kuài] (happy), 幸福 [xìng fú] (happiness), 十分自然 [shí fēn zì rán] (very natural), 很大方 [hěn dà fāng]

(very generous), 美滋滋 [měi zī zī] (very pleased), 懒洋洋 [lǎn yang yang] (slouchingly).

Verbs (phrases): 犹豫 [yóu yù] (hesitate), 怀疑 [huái yì] (suspect), 吃惊 [chī jīng] (astonish), 踉踉跄跄 [liàng liàng qiāng qiāng] (stumble along), 又蹦又跳 [yòu bèng yòu tiào] (crowhop), (像) . . . 一样 (似地) [(xiàng) . . . yì yàng (shì de)] (seem like), 有些抱歉 [yǒu xiē bào qiàn] (a little bit sorry), 有把握 [yǒu bǎ wò] (confident).

Fixed phrases: 热情洋溢 [rè qíng yáng yì] (ebullient), 兴高采烈 [xìng gāo cǎi liè] (elated), 目不转睛 [mù bù zhuǎn jīng] (gaze at), 大摇大摆 [dà yáo dà bǎi] (swaggering).

Adverbs: 公然 [gōng rán] (openly), 暗暗 [àn àn] (secretly), 暗自 [àn zì] (inwardly), 偷偷 [tōu tōu] (secretly), 私自 [sī zì] (selfishly).

Besides, a subject-predicate phrase can also function as a descriptive adverbial, such as “他脸色阴沉地说 . . . [tā liǎn sè yīn chén de shuō . . .] (He said with a sullen face . . .).

Example 12 四凤胆怯地望着大海。[Sì Fèng dǎn qiè de wàng zhe dà hǎi.] (Si Feng looked at Da Hai timidly.)

Example 13 老人哆哆嗦嗦地从怀里拿出一件东西。[lǎo rén duō duō suō suō de cóng huái lǐ ná chū yì jiàn dōng xi.]

(With his trembling hands, the old man took out a thing from his arms.)

Example 14 他沾沾自喜地说。[tā zhān zhān zì xǐ de shuō.]

(He said smugly.)

(2) Descriptive adverbials for actions

They mainly modify and describe the manners of actions, including the following words.

Adjectives (phrases): 快 [kuài] (fast), 高 [gāo] (high), 彻底 [chè dǐ] (down-right), 仔细 [zǐ xì] (carefully), 草草 [cǎo cǎo] (carelessly), 慢慢 [màn màn] (slowly), 积极 [jī jí] (actively), 详细 [xiáng xì] (detailedly), 努力 [nǔ lì] (make great efforts), 很快 [hěn kuài] (very fast), 非常热烈 [fēi cháng rè liè] (very warm), 十分详细 [shí fēn xiáng xì] (very detailed).

Onomatopoeic words: 噗嗤 [pū chī] (titter), 砰砰 [pēng pēng] (bang-bang), 淅淅沥沥 [xī xī lī lī] (the continuous patter of raindrops), 哗哗 [huà huà] (the sound of gurgling water), 呜呜 [wū wū] (purrr) . . .

Verbs (phrases): 来往 [lái wǎng] (come and go), 来回 [lái huí] (back and forth), 巡回 [xún huí] (tour), 不住 [bú zhù] (ceaselessly), 不停 [bù tíng] (continuously).

Numeral-quantifier phrases: 一把 [yì bǎ] (handful), 一脚 [yì jiǎo] (a kick), 一趟一趟 [yì tàng yì tàng] (a trip), 一勺一勺 [yì sháo yì sháo] (a spoon of), 三拳两脚 [sān quán liǎng jiǎo] (a few cuffs and kicks).

Nouns (phrases): 历史 [lì shǐ] (history), 主观主义 [zhǔ guān zhǔ yì] (subjectivism), 快步 [kuài bù] (trot), 大声 [dà shēng] (in a loud voice).

Fixed phrases: 滔滔不绝 [tāo tāo bù jué] (spout eloquent speeches), 斩钉截铁 [zhǎn dīng jié tiě] (resolute and decisive), 当面锣, 对面鼓 [dāng miàn luó, duì miàn gǔ] (argue face to face).

Adverbs indicating manners of actions: 一直 [yí zhí] (all the time), 断然 [duàn rán] (absolutely), 逐渐 [zhú jiàn] (gradually), 渐渐 [jiàn jiàn] (gradually), 一起 [yì qǐ] (together), 一一 [yī yī] (each), 分别 [fēn bié] (respectively), 亲自 [qīn zì] (personally), 亲手 [qīn shǒu] (with one's own hands), 亲眼 [qīn yǎn] (with one's own eyes), 擅自 [shàn zì] (do sth. without authorization), 暗自 [àn zì] (secretly), 私自 [sī zì] (privately), 公然 [gōng rán] (openly), 各自 [gè zì] (respective), 独自 [dú zì] (alone), 互相 [hù xiāng] (mutual), 逐一 [zhú yī] (one by one), 特地 [tè dì] (specially), 专门 [zhuān mén] (specially), 一 [yī] (once), 不断 [bú duàn] (constantly), 忽然 [hū rán] (suddenly), 猛地 [měng rán] (abruptly), 蓦地 [mù dì] (unexpectedly), 顺便 [shùn biàn] (conveniently), 附带 [fù dài] (incidentally), 随便 [suí biàn] (casual), 任意 [rèn yì] (arbitrarily), 肆意 [sì yì] (recklessly), 不断 [bú duàn] (unceasingly), 陆续 [lù xù] (one after another), 连连 [lián lián] (repeatedly), 重新 [chóng xīn] (anew), 再三 [zài sān] (over and over again), 一再 [yí zài] (again and again), 反复 [fǎn fù] (repeatedly), 经常 [jīng cháng] (often), 时常 [shí cháng] (frequently), 偶尔 [ǒu ěr] (occasionally), 赶快 [gǎn kuài] (quickly) . . .

Example 15 这次手术很顺利地做完了。[zhè cì shǒu shù hěn shùn lì de zuò wán le.]

(The operation was done smoothly.)

Example 16 她的血压急剧下降。[tā de xuè yā jí jù xià jiàng.]

(Her blood pressure dropped sharply.)

Example 17 请你亲自给他做这个手术。[qǐng nǐ qīn zì gěi tā zuò zhè gè shǒu shù.]

(Please do the operation on him by yourself.)

Example 18 雨渐渐地小了。[yǔ jiàn jiàn de xiǎo le.]

(The rain gradually became slight.)

Although both of the subtypes include adjectives (phrases), verbs (phrases), and fixed phrases, they function differently.

Example 19 我们到公园的时候, 很多中国小朋友热烈地欢迎我们。[wǒ men dào gōng yuán de shí hòu, hěn duō zhōng guó xiǎo péng yǒu rè liè de huān yíng wǒ men.]

(When we arrived at the park, many Chinese children welcomed us warmly.)

Example 20 他没有得到更多的消息, 只是长长地嘘了口气, 靠在床上坐下。[tā méi yǒu dé dào gèng duō de xiāo xī, zhǐ shì cháng cháng de xū le kǒu qì, kào zài chuáng biān shàng zuò xià.]

(Not hearing any news, he sat down on the bedside with a long sigh.)

Example 21 在新修的几千亩大的人造平原上，拖拉机来狂奔驰。[zài xīn xiū de jǐ qiān mǔ dà de rén zào píng yuán shàng, tuō lā jī lái wǎng bēn chí.]

(Tractors are running to and fro on the newly built man-made plain of thousands of acres.)

The adverbials in these examples describe the actions.

Example 22 黎明激动地握着小陈的手：“真谢谢你！”[Lí Míng jī dòng de wò zhe Xiǎo Chén de shǒu: “zhēn xiè xiè nǐ!”]

(Li Ming held Xiao Chen's hand excitedly and said, “Thank you so much!”)

Example 23 我兴奋地问：“是谁呀？”[wǒ xīng fèn de wèn: “shì shuí ya?”]

(I asked excitedly: “Who is it?”)

Example 24 小李尴尬地点点头。[xiǎo lǐ gān gà de diǎn diǎn tóu.]

(Xiao Li nods awkwardly.)

Example 25 他犹豫地说：“这个办法行么？”[tā yóu yù de shuō: “zhè gè bàn fǎ xíng me?”]

(He said with hesitation: “Is this way O.K.?”)

The adverbials in these examples describe the moods of doers in the actions.

It is necessary to distinguish the differences between the adverbials of these two types because they decide not only the appearance of “地 [de]” but also the sequence of complex adverbials. As what is mentioned previously, they express different meanings in description. The first type semantically describes doers of actions, including their moods, attitudes, postures, facial expressions in actions. The second type describes actions, mainly including their manners and conditions. In addition, they are different in structure.

The adverbials modifying actions sometimes can be changed to narrate actions.

Example 26 小朋友们热烈地欢迎我们。[xiǎo péng yǒu men rè liè de huān yíng wǒ men.]

(The children gave us a warm welcome.)

小朋友们对我们的欢迎很热烈。[xiǎo péng yǒu men duì wǒ men de huān yíng hěn rè liè.]

(The children gave us a very warm welcome.)

Example 27 我们把房间彻底打扫了一下。[wǒ men bǎ fáng jiān chè dǐ dǎ sǎo le yí xià.]

(We gave the room a thorough cleaning.)

我们把房间打扫得很彻底。[wǒ men bǎ fáng jiān dǎ sǎo de hěn chè dǐ.]

Example 28 他把事情的经过详细说了一遍。[tā bǎ shì qing de jīng guò xiáng xì shuō le yí biàn.]

(He made a detailed elaboration on the matter.)

他把事情的经过说得很详细。[tā bǎ shì qíng de jīng guò shuō de hěn xiáng xì.]

(He elaborated the matter at length.)

Example 29 老张平时积极工作。[Lǎo Zhāng píng shí jī jí gōng zuò.]

(Lao Zhang usually has an active attitude towards the work.)

老张平时工作很积极。[Lǎo Zhāng píng shí gōng zuò hěn jī jí.]

(Lao Zhang usually works very actively.)

But the adverbials for doers of actions cannot be changed in this way.

Example 30 “. . .”他高兴地对我说。[“. . .” tā gāo xìng de duì wǒ shuō.]

(“. . .,” he said happily to me.)

*“. . .”他对我说得很高兴。[tā duì wǒ shuō de hěn gāo xìng.]

Example 31 妈妈温和地看了女儿一眼。[mā ma wēn hé de kàn le nǚ ér yì yǎn.]

(The mother gave her daughter a gentle look.)

*妈妈看女儿一眼很温和。[mā ma kàn nǚ ér yì yǎn hěn wēn hé.]

*妈妈看了女儿看得很温和。[mā ma kàn le nǚ ér kàn de hěn wēn hé.]

Example 32 他怀疑地注视着我。[tā huái yì de zhù shì zhe wǒ.]

(He looked at me with suspicion.)

*他注视得我很怀疑。[tā zhù shì de wǒ hěn huái yì.]

Many adverbials for moods of doers in the actions can be changed in this way without changing their own meanings.

Example 33 他很高兴地对我说。[tā hěn gāo xìng de duì wǒ shuō.]

(He happily said to me.)

他很高兴。[tā hěn gāo xìng.]

(He is very happy.)

Example 34 妈妈很温和地看了女儿一眼。[mā ma hěn wēn hé de kàn le nǚ ér yì yǎn.]

(The mother looked at her daughter with a gentle look.)

妈妈很温和。[mā ma hěn wēn hé.]

(Mom is very gentle.)

Example 35 她怀疑地注视着我。[tā huái yì de zhù shì zhe wǒ.]

(She gazed at me with suspicion.)

她很怀疑我。[tā hěn huái yì wǒ.]

(She's suspicious of me.)

The adverbials describing actions cannot be changed to narrate doers of actions.

Example 36 心脏剧烈地跳动着。[xīn zàng jù liè de tiào dòng zhe.]

(The heart beats violently.)

*心脏很剧烈。[xīn zàng hěn jù liè.]

Example 37 我们把房间彻底打扫了一下。[wǒ men bǎ fáng jiān chè dǐ dǎ sǎo le yì xià.]

(We cleaned the room thoroughly.)

*我们很彻底。[wǒ men hěn chè dǐ.]

Example 38 这个人总是孤立地看问题。[zhè gè rén zǒng shì gū lì de kàn wèn tí.]

(The man always views the problem in isolation from others.)

这个人总是很孤立。[zhè gè rén zǒng shì hěn gū lì.]

(This man is always isolated.) (different meaning)

Either of these two types can be performed by most adjectives (phrases), verbs (phrases), subject-predicate phrases, and fixed phrases. Only a few adjectives can function as different descriptive adverbials in different sentences.

Example 39 小明认真学习。[Xiǎo Míng rèn zhēn xué xí.]

(Xiao Ming studies hard.) (to describe “study”)

小明认真地说: . . . [Xiǎo Míng rèn zhēn de shuō: . . .]

(Xiao Ming said seriously: . . .) (to describe “Xiao Ming”)

2 Non-descriptive adverbials

As what the name implies, they don't describe but restrict sentences, predicate constituents, verbs, or adjectives in the aspects of time, location, scope, object, and purpose. They can be further divided into several subtypes.

(1) To indicate time

The adverbials for time can be performed by time words, adverbs, and prepositional phrases.

Time words: 今天 [jīn tiān] (today), 上午 [shàng wǔ] (morning), 1980年 [1980 nián] (in 1980), 5月5号 [5 yuè 5 hào] (May 5th), 三点钟 [sān diǎn zhōng] (3 o'clock), 原来 [yuán lái] (original), 以后 [yǐ hòu] (later), 三天 [sān tiān] (three days), 一年 [yì nián] (one year) . . .

Adverbs: 已经 [yǐ jīng] (already), 早 [zǎo] (early), 就 [jiù] (as early as), 才 [cái] (just), 从来 [cóng lái] (always), 曾经 [céng jīng] (once), 一向 [yì xiàng] (all along), 向来 [xiàng lái] (all along), 历来 [lì lái] (always), 终于 [zhōng yú] (finally), 马上 [mǎ shàng] (immediately), 立刻 [lì kè] (immediately), 刚 [gāng] (just), 将 [jiāng] (will), 快 [kuài] (soon), 永远 [yǒng yuǎn] (forever), 始终 [shǐ zhōng] (always), 一直 [yì zhí] (all the time), 总 [zǒng] (always), 老 [lǎo] (more often than not), 往往 [wǎng wǎng] (usually), 通常 [tōng cháng] (always), 有时 [yǒu shí] (sometimes), 仍然 [réng rán] (still), 依然 [yī rán] (still), 同时 [tóng shí] (meanwhile), 先 [xiān] (early), 正 [zhèng] (just in time), 本来 [běn lái] (original), 然后 [rán hòu] (then) . . .

Prepositional phrases: 从...起 [cóng... qǐ] (from), 自... [zì...] (since), 打... [dǎ...] (from), 在... [zài...] (in), 当... [dāng...] (when), 于... [yú...] (when)...

(2) To indicate tone and estimation

They are mainly performed by the following adverbs.

明明 [míng míng] (obviously), 的确 [dí què] (indeed), 难道 [nán dào] (could it be said that), 岂 [qǐ] (how), 简直 [jiǎn zhí] (simply), 幸亏 [xìng kǔ] (luckily), 到底 [dào dǐ] (anyway), 究竟 [jiū jìng] (unexpectedly), 毕竟 [bì jìng] (after all), 居然 [jū rán] (unexpectedly), 竟然 [jìng rán] (unexpectedly), 当然 [dāng rán] (of course), 果然 [guǒ rán], 根本 [gēn běn] (radical), 索性 [suǒ xìng] (may/might as well), 反正 [fǎn zhèng] (anyway), 何必 [hé bì] (there is no need), 何苦 [hé kǔ] (why bother), 未尝 [wèi cháng] (have not), 何尝 [hé cháng] (how can it be that...), 不妨 [bù fāng] (it would be well if...), 千万 [qiān wàn] (be sure to), 务必 [wù bì] (be sure to), 显然 [xiǎn rán] (obvious), 大概 [dà gài] (probably), 大约 [dà yuē] (about), 大致 [dà zhì] (approximately), 也许 [yě xǔ] (maybe), 偏偏 [piān piān] (deliberately), 几乎 [jī hū] (almost), 差不多 [chà bù duō] (almost)...

(3) To indicate purpose, evidence, concern, and coordination

They are mainly performed by the following prepositional phrases.

For purpose: 为... [wèi...] (for), 为了... [wèi le...] (for)

For evidence: 按... [àn...] (in accordance with), 根据... [gēn jù...] (according to), 据... [jù...] (according to), 由... [yóu...] (based on), 照... [zhào...] (on the basis of), 依... [yī...] (according to), 拿... [ná...] (in the light of), 从... [cóng...] (as for)...

For concern: 关于 [guān yú] (with regard to), 就 [jiù] (concerning)...

For coordination: 同... [tóng...] (together), 跟... [gēn...] (together), 和... [hé...] (with), 与... [yǔ...] (with)...

(4) To indicate location, space, route, and direction

They are mainly performed by the following locational words and prepositional phrases.

For location and space: 上 [shàng] (on), 左边 [zuǒ biān] (the left side), 屋里 [wū lǐ] (in the room), 地上 [dì shàng] (on the floor), 桌子上 [zhuō zi shàng] (on the table), 在... [zài...] (on), 于... [yú...] (on), 当... [dāng...] (when).

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For route: 沿(着) . . . [yán (zhe)] (along), 顺(着) . . . [shùn (zhe)] (along), 打 . . . [dǎ] (from), 从 . . . [cóng] (from), 通过 [tōng guò] (through) . . . , 经(过) . . . [jīng (guò)] (past) . . .

For direction: 朝 [cháo] (towards), 向 [xiàng] (to), 往 [wǎng] (to), 照 [zhào] (in the direction of) . . .

(5) To indicate object

They are mainly performed by the following prepositional phrases.

对 . . . [duì . . .] (for), 给 . . . [gěi . . .] (to), 跟 . . . [gēn . . .] (with), 和 [hé] (and), 于 [yú] (together), 照 [zhào] (in the direction of), 为 [wèi] (for), 同 [tóng] (together), 替 [tì] (on behalf of) . . .

(6) To indicate negation, degree, repetition, scope, and relevance

They are mainly performed by the following adverbs.

For negation: 不 [bù/bú] (not), 没(有) [méi (yǒu)] (no), 甭 [béng] (do not), 别 [bié] (do not) . . .

For degree: 很 [hěn] (very), 十分 [shí fēn] (very), 非常 [fēi cháng] (very), 更 [gèng] (more), 最 [zuì] (the most), 特别 [tè bié] (specially), 极 [jí] (extremely), 格外 [gé wài] (especially), 可 [kě] (so), 真 [zhēn] (so), 好 [hǎo] (good), 多(么) [duō (me)] (how), 比较 [bǐ jiào] (relatively), 稍微 [shāo wēi] (a little), 略微 [luè wēi] (a bit), 有点儿 [yǒu diǎn er] (slightly), 颇 [pō] (quite), 太 [tài] (exceedingly), 还 [hái] (still) . . .

For repetition: 又 [yòu] (also), 再 [zài] (again), 还 [hái] (still), 重 [chóng] (again), 也 [yě] (also) . . .

For scope: 都 [dōu] (both), 全 [quán] (all), 统统 [tōng tōng] (altogether), 一概 [yí gài] (totally), 净 [jìng] (only), 只 [zhǐ] (only), 就 [jiù] (only), 仅仅 [jǐn jǐn] (only), 光 [guāng] (only), 唯独 [wéi dú] (nothing but), 不过 [bú guò] (nothing but) . . .

For relevance: 就 [jiù] (only), 也 [yě] (also), 都 [dōu] (both), 又 [yòu] (again), 还 [hái] (still) . . .

3 Differences between descriptive adverbials and non-descriptive adverbials

The differences are as follows.

(1) Non-descriptive adverbials can appear in the sentences with the predicates of different types.

Example 40 他昨天去上海了。[tā zuó tiān qù shàng hǎi le.]

(He went to Shanghai yesterday.) (the sentence with a verb as predicate)

Example 41 小梅今天比谁都高兴。[Xiǎo Méi jīn tiān bǐ shuí dōu gāo xìng.]

(Xiao Mei is happier than anyone else today.) (the sentence with an adjective as predicate)

Example 42 他的确头疼。[tā dí què tóu téng.]

(He does have a headache.) (the sentence with a subject-predicate phrase as predicate)

Example 43 今天刚星期三，急什么！[jīn tiān gāng xīng qī sān, jí shén me!]

(It's just Wednesday. Take it easy!) (the sentence with a noun as predicate)

But, these sentences take different non-descriptive adverbials. For example, non-descriptive adverbials for time and tone only appear in sentence with a noun as the predicate and sentences with subject-predicates as the predicate. There are more non-descriptive adverbials qualified for sentences with verbs as the predicate than those qualified for sentences with adjectives as the predicate.

Descriptive adverbials are not qualified for sentences with nouns as the predicate and sentences with subject-predicates as the predicate. Only some of descriptive adverbials can be used in sentences with adjectives as the predicate, such as “像 . . . 一样/似的 [xiàng . . . yí yàng/shì de] (seem like).”

The sentence with a verb as the predicate can take adverbials for many aspects. However, if the complement of possibility or modal complement comes after the predicate verb, the sentence will just take a few descriptive adverbials for time, such as “渐渐 [jiàn jiàn] (gradually),” “忽然 [hū rán] (suddenly),” and a few verbal quantifiers, such as “一下子 [yí xià zi] (at one blow),” “一脚 [yì jiǎo] (one kick).”

In short, what types of adverbials the predicate of a sentence can take depends on the semantic meaning of the sentence as well as its structure.

- (2) Most non-descriptive adverbials can appear before a subject to modify the entire sentence, except for the prepositional phrase consisting of “把 [bǎ]” or “被 [bèi]” and most adverbs. Generally speaking, descriptive adverbials don't appear before subjects, except for those for time, such as “渐渐地 [jiàn jiàn de] (gradually),” “很快 [hěn kuài] (quickly),” “慢慢地 [màn màn de] (slowly).”
- (3) Both descriptive adverbials and non-descriptive adverbials appear in different types of writing. Non-descriptive adverbials appear in narration, description, and argumentation; descriptive adverbials mainly appear in narration but less in conversation. The adverbials for doers of actions only appear in narrative paragraphs in novels.
- (4) Except for most adverbs, the notional words functioning as non-descriptive adverbials can be generally used as a response or as a complete sentence, or even used to pose a question.

Example 44

A: 你哪天去北京? [nǐ nǎ tiān qù běi jīng?]

(When are you going to Beijing?)

B: 明天。[míng tiān.]

(Tomorrow.)

Example 45

A: 你给谁买鞋? [nǐ gěi shuí mǎi xié?]

(For whom do you buy shoes?)

B: 我妹妹。[wǒ mèi mei.]

(For my sister.)

For most of time, descriptive adverbials cannot be used as a response nor used to pose a question.

- (5) Generally speaking, “地 [de]” can come after descriptive adverbials but not non-descriptive adverbials.

Section two: usage of “地 [de]” as a structural auxiliary word after adverbials

I. No “地 [de]” after non-descriptive adverbials

Generally, “地 [de]” doesn’t appear after non-descriptive adverbials.

Example 1 第二天他起得很早。[dì èr tiān tā qǐ de hěn zǎo.]

(He got up early the next day.) (time)

Example 2 我从口袋里掏出一块手绢。[wǒ cóng kǒu dài lǐ tāo chū yì kuài shǒu juàn.]

(I took a handkerchief from my pocket.) (location)

Example 3 他们都为实现四个现代化而努力工作着。[tā men dōu wèi shí xiàn sì gè xiàn dài huà ér nǚ lì gōng zuò zhe.]

(They all have worked hard to realize the four modernizations.) (purpose)

Example 4 小马跟小赵游泳去了。[Xiǎo Mǎ gēn Xiǎo Zhào yóu yǒng qù le.]

(Xiao Ma went swimming with Xiao Zhao.) (accompany)

Example 5 大家对这个节目没有兴趣。[dà jiā duì zhè gè jié mù méi yǒu xìng qù.]

(No one is interested in the program.) (object)

Example 6 观众的确很喜欢这部电影。[guān zhòng dí què hěn xǐ huān zhè bù diàn yǐng.]

(The audience really likes this film.) (mood)

Example 7 喜儿三岁上就死了娘。[Xǐ ér sān suì shàng jiù sǐ le niáng.]

(When Xier was three years old, her mother died.) (relation)

Example 8 今天不是星期日。[jīn tiān bú shì xīng qī rì.]

(Today is not Sunday.) (negation)

Example 9 老师把刚才说过的句子又说了一遍。[lǎo shī bǎ gāng cái shuō guò de jù zi yòu shuō le yì biàn.]

(The teacher repeated the sentence he just said.) (repetition)

Example 10 一篮水果正好五斤。[zhè yì lán shuǐ guǒ zhèng hǎo wǔ jīn.]
(A basket of fruit is exactly five jin.) (quantity)

Example 11 今天我们班的同学都来上课了。[jīn tiān wǒ men bān de tóng xué dōu lái shàng kè le.]
(All the students of our class have come to class today.) (scope)

“地 [de]” usually doesn’t appear after disyllabic adverbials of degree, but in order to strengthen their modifying effect, “地 [de]” can appear.

Example 12 这个决定非常地英明。[zhè gè jué dìng fēi cháng de yīng míng.]
(It is a brilliant decision.)

Example 13 小妹今天格外地高兴。[xiǎo mèi jīn tiān gé wài de gāo xìng.]
(My little sister is extremely happy today.)

Example 14 白梅对工作极度地负责任。[Bái Méi duì gōng zuò jí dù de fù zé rèn.]
(Bai Mei is extremely responsible for her work.)

II. “地 [de]” after descriptive adverbials

Most descriptive adverbials can take “地 [de]” after them.

1 “地 [de]” is generally required after the descriptive adverbials for doers of actions.

(1) “地 [de]” can come after adjectives and adjective phrases.

Example 15 加丽亚得意地说：“我成功了！”[jiā lì yà dé yì de shuō: “wǒ chéng gōng le!”]
(Calia said proudly, “I did it!”)

Example 16 她大方地伸出手来同我握手。[tā dà fāng de shēn chū shǒu lái tóng wǒ wǒ shǒu.]
(She stretched out her hand gracefully and shook hands with me.)

Example 17 黄英激动地说：“我太佩服你了！”[Huáng Yīng jī dòng de shuō “wǒ tài pèi fú nǐ le!”]
(Huang Ying said excitedly, “I admire you so much!”)

Example 18 小红不高兴地走了。[Xiǎo Hóng bù gāo xìng de zǒu le.]
(Xiao Hong left unhappily.)

Example 19 这时他很客气地提出三点要求。[zhè shí tā hěn kè qì de tí chū sān diǎn yào qiú.]
(Then he politely spoke out three demands.)

But, monosyllabic adjectives are excluded from this usage, such as “他看着我傻笑。[tā kàn zhe wǒ shǎ xiào.] (He looked at me with a giggle.)”

- (2) “地 [de]” can come after verbs and verb phrases.

Example 20 我爱人一见便吃惊地问：“你买的？” [wǒ ài rén yì jiàn biàn chī jīng de wèn: “nǐ mǎi de?”]
 (As soon as my wife saw it, she asked me in surprise, “Did you buy it?”)

Example 21 老人抱歉地笑了笑。 [lǎo rén bào qiàn de xiào le xiào.]
 (The old man smiled in an apologetic way.)

Example 22 小明踉踉跄跄地走回了家。 [Xiǎo Míng liàng liàng qiàng qiàng de zǒu huí le jiā.]
 (Xiao Ming staggered home.)

Example 23 雪仍无声地往下飘着。 [xuě réng wú shēng de wǎng xià piāo zhe.]
 (The snow was still falling in silence.)

Example 24 我们挨得紧紧地站着，一句话也不说。 [wǒ men āi de jǐn jǐn de zhàn zhe, yī jù huà yě bù shuō.]
 (We stood close to each other without saying a word.)

- (3) “地 [de]” can come after subject-predicate phrases and fixed phrases.

Example 25 他声音肯定而坚决地说：“我一定要把他找回来！” [tā shēng yīn kěn dìng ér jiān jué de shuō: “wǒ yí dìng yào bǎ tā zhǎo huí lái!”]
 (He said firmly and determinedly, “I must get him back!”)

Example 26 这时王玉昆气喘吁吁地跑了进来。 [zhè shí Wáng Yù kūn qì chuǎn xū xū de pǎo le jìn lái.]
 (Then Wang Yukun ran in, out of breath.)

Example 27 我浑身战栗了一下，手忙脚乱地解开了包袱。 [wǒ hún shēn zhàn lì le yí xià, shǒu máng jiǎo luàn de jiě kāi le bāo fu.]
 (I shuddered all over and unpacked my baggage in a panic.)

Example 28 张广发聚精会神地听着。 [Zhāng Guǎng fā jù jīng huì shén de tīng zhe.]
 (Zhang Guangfa listened attentively.)

Example 29 我很喜欢他这种豪爽劲，便也毫无顾忌地发表意见。 [wǒ hěn xǐ huān tā zhè zhǒng háo shuǎng jìn, biàn yě háo wú gù jì de fā biǎo yì jiàn.]
 (I like his courage so much that I follow his way to express my opinion.)

Sometimes, “地 [de]” can be absent after the fixed phrase for doers of actions. In this case, the phrase cannot function as an adverbial any more and the entire sentence will change into one with serial verbs, or even become two clauses separated by a comma.

Example 30 他横眉立目地塞给那个人一张纸：“写！” [tā héng méi lì mù diē sāi gěi nà gè rén yì zhāng zhǐ “xiě!”]
 (He threw a piece of paper to the man in an angry way and said: “Write on it!”)

他横眉立目,塞给那个人一张纸:“写!” [tā héng méi lì mù, sāi gěi nà gè rén yì zhāng zhǐ “xiě!”]

(Looking at the man angrily, he threw him a piece of paper and said: “Write on it!”)

Example 31 我昏头昏脑地在街上乱走。 [wǒ hūn tóu hūn nǎo de zài jiē shàng luàn zǒu.]

(I wandered along the street in a daze.)

我昏头昏脑(,)在街上乱走。 [wǒ hūn tóu hūn nǎo (,) zài jiē shàng luàn zǒu.]

(I was in a daze, wandering along the street.)

Example 32 老人无可奈何地回家去了。 [lǎo rén wú kě nài hé de huí jiā qù le.]

(The old man went home helplessly.)

老人无可奈何,回家去了。 [lǎo rén wú kě nài hé, huí jiā qù le.]

(The old man felt helpless and then went home.)

“(像) . . . 似地 [(xiàng) . . . shì de] (seem like)” won’t take another “地 [de]” again; “(像) . . . 一样 [(xiàng) . . . yī yàng] (seem like)” may or may not take “地 [de]” after it.

Example 33 我麻木了似地望着门。 [wǒ má mù le shì de wàng zhe mén.]

(I looked at the door in a numb way.)

Example 34 小红像小鸟一样(地)飞回了家。 [Xiǎo Hóng xiàng xiǎo niǎo yī yàng (de) fēi huí le jiā.]

(Xiao Hong ran home happily, like a bird.)

Other descriptive adverbials for doers of actions usually take “地 [de]” after them.

Example 35 外边风小了,雪花大片大片地往下落着。 [wài biān fēng xiǎo le, xuě huā dà piàn dà piàn de wǎng xià luò zhe.]

(The wind outside is getting weaker, and the snow falls heavily.)

Example 36 他抓起电话,粗声大气地问:“你找谁?” [tā zhuā qǐ diàn huà, cū shēng dà qì de wèn: “nǐ zhǎo shuí!”]

(He picked up the phone and asked loudly, “Who do you want to speak!”)

Example 37 罗立长站起来,疾言厉色地驳斥说 . . . [Luó Lì zhǎng zhàn qǐ lái, jí yán lì sè de bó chì shuō . . .]

(Luo Lichang stood up and refuted with a stern face and harsh voice . . .)

- 2 The conditions of “地 [de]” appearing after the descriptive adverbials for actions or changes are complex.

Generally speaking, “地 [de]” doesn’t appear after most adjectives (phrases), verbs (phrases), subject-predicate phrases, fixed phrases, onomatopoeic words, and numeral-quantifier phrases. Sometimes, “地 [de]” can appear in order to strengthen the descriptive effect.

(1) Adjectives

Generally, “地 [de]” doesn’t come after monosyllabic adjectives.

Example 38 快走几步，跟上队伍！[kuài zǒu jǐ bù, gēn shàng duì wǔ!]
(Come on, keep up with the troops!)

Example 39 他眼睛直视着前方。[tā yǎn jīng zhí shì zhe qián fāng.]
(He looked steadily into the distance.)

“真 [zhēn]” as adverbial takes “的 [de]” for the sake of the descriptive effect.

Example 40

这件事我真不知道。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ zhēn bù zhī dào.]
(I really don’t know about it.)

这件事我真的不知道。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ zhēn de bù zhī dào.]
(I really don’t know about it.)

“猛 [měng] (suddenly)” as adverbial takes “地 [de].”

Example 41 突然他看见前面一个老人正在过马路，他猛地一下刹住车。[tū rán tā kàn jiàn qián miàn yì gè lǎo rén zhèng zài guò mǎ lù, tā měng de yì xià shā zhù chē.]
(Suddenly he saw an old man crossing the street in front of him and he braked with a jerk.)

“地 [de]” can come after most of disyllabic adjectives and can be absent as well.

Example 42 你有事可以直接找他。[nǐ yǒu shì kě yǐ zhí jiē zhǎo tā.]
(If necessary, you can go straight to him.)

Example 43 要切实（地）帮助他们解决一些问题。[yào qiè shí (de) bāng zhù tā men jiě jué yì xiē wèn tí.]
(To practically help them to solve some problems.)

Example 44 要注意安全生产。[yào zhù yì ān quán shēng chǎn.]
(Pay attention to safety in production.)

Example 45 医生把病历仔细（地）翻了一遍。[yī shēng bǎ bìng lì zǐ xì (de) fān le yí biàn.]
(The doctor checked the medical records carefully again.)

Example 46 这件事我又详细（地）说了一遍。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ yòu xiáng xì (de) shuō le yí biàn.]
(I explained this matter at length again.)

Some adjectives require “地 [de]” to describe the finished actions.

Example 47 大夫清楚地写了两个字:手术! [dài fu qīng chǔ de xiě le liǎng gè zì: shǒu shù!]

(The doctor clearly wrote down: operation!)

Example 48 他模糊地听见有人在喊他。[tā mó hú de tīng jiàn yǒu rén zài hǎn tā.]

(He heard a vague call to him.)

Example 49 他含混地应了一声。[tā hán hún de yīng le yì shēng.]

(He gave a vague reply.)

The overlapped adjectives for the finished actions have a free choice of “地 [de]” after them.

Example 50 她回身轻轻(地)把门关上了。[tā huí shēn qīng qīng (de) bǎ mén guān shàng le.]

(She turned around and closed the door gently.)

Example 51 难道咱们眼巴巴(地)看着粮食烂在地里? [nán dào zán men yǎn bā bā (de) kàn zhe liáng shí làn zài dì lǐ?]

(How can we let the grains rot in the field?)

Example 52 大家痛痛快快地(地)玩了一天。[dà jiā tòng tòng kuài kuài (de) wán le yì tiān.]

(Everyone enjoyed playing all the day.)

If an overlapped adjective modifies a monosyllabic verb, “地 [de]” is necessary.

Example 53 小刚一边穿衣服, 一边慢慢地问: “什么事?” [Xiǎo Gāng yī biān chuān yī fu, yì biān màn màn de wèn: “shén me shì?”]

(As he dressed, Xiao Gang slowly asked, “What’s up?”)

Example 54 我一翻身, 觉出床在轻轻地颤。[wǒ yì fān shēn, jué chū chuáng zài qīng qīng de chàn.]

(As soon as I turned over, I felt that the bed wobbled lightly.)

Adjective phrases also take “地 [de]”; “很 [hěn] (very)+monosyllabic adjective” has a free choice of using “地 [de],” such as “这件事大家很快(地)就传开了。[zhè jiàn shì dà jiā hěn kuài (de) jiù chuán kāi le.] (Everyone knew this story soon).”

Example 55 那位姑娘非常详细地介绍了自己的经历。[nà wèi gū niang fēi cháng xiáng xì de jiè shào le zì jǐ de jīng lì.]

(The girl introduced her experience at length.)

Example 56 入了党, 我就可以更好地维护党的利益。[rù le dǎng, wǒ jiù kě yǐ gèng hǎo de wéi hù dǎng de lì yì.]

(I can better safeguard the interests of the Party by joining it.)

(2) Verbs

Generally, verbs are free in choosing “地 [de].”

Example 57 拖拉机在田野里来回(地)奔驰。[tuō lā jī zài tián yě lǐ lái huí (de) bēn chí.]

(The tractors are running back and forth in the fields.)

Example 58 老人唠唠叨叨(地)说个没完。[lǎo rén lǎo lao dāo dāo (de) shuō gè méi wán.]

(The old man nagged on and on.)

But, “很少 [hěn shǎo] (rarely)” or “很难 [hěn nán] (hardly)” don’t take “地 [de].”

Example 59 最近我很少看见他。[zuì jìn wǒ hěn shǎo kàn jiàn tā.]

(I rarely see him lately.)

Example 60 这件事能不能成还很难说。[zhè jiàn shì néng bù néng chéng hái hěn nán shuō.]

(It is hard to say whether it will succeed.)

“不住 [bú zhù] (constantly)” and “不停 [bù tíng] (constantly)” require “地 [de]” and the same is true for verb phrases.

Example 61 一路上, 我思想里不停地翻腾着这个问题。[yì lù shàng, wǒ sī xiǎng lǐ bù tíng de fān téng zhe zhè gè wèn tí.]

(The question kept on running through my mind all the way.)

Example 62 这条河不住地流啊流啊, 越流越开阔。[zhè tiáo hé bú zhù de liú a liú a, yuè liú yuè kāi kuò.]

(The river broadens as it runs on and on.)

Example 63 我们很感兴趣地观看孩子们的表演。[wǒ men hěn gǎn xìng qù de guān kàn hái zǐ men de biǎo yǎn.]

(We watched the children’s performance with great interest.)

Example 64 为了提高农民的生活水平, 国家有计划地提高了农副产品的收购价格。[wèi le tí gāo nóng mǐn de shēng huó shuǐ píng, guó jiā yǒu jì huà de tí gāo le nóng fù chǎn pǐn de shōu gòu jià gé.]

(In order to improve the farmers’ living standard, the state has planned to increase the purchase price of the agricultural and sideline products.)

“地 [de]” is usually absent in some fixed combination of “disyllabic verb+verb,” such as “联合发表 [lián hé fā biǎo] (joint announcement) and “补充说明 [bǔ chōng shuō míng] (additional remarks).”

(3) Fixed phrases

Fixed phrases are free in choosing “地 [de].”

Example 65 我们自下而上(地)进行动员, 工作很顺利。[wǒ men zì xià ér shàng (de) jìn xíng dòng yuán, gōng zuò hěn shùn lì.]
(Our mobilization from bottom to top went smoothly.)

Example 66 你就这样按部就班(地)往下学, 一定能提高。[nǐ jiù zhè yàng àn bù jiù bān (de) wǎng xià xué, yì dìng néng tí gāo.]
(If you continue to learn step by step, you will certainly improve.)

(4) Nouns (phrases) usually require “地 [de].”

Example 67 这个任务已经历史地落在我们肩上。[zhè gè rèn wù yǐ jīng lì shǐ de luò zài wǒ men jiān shàng.]
(From the historical perspective, we should shoulder the task.)

Example 68 他们总是形式主义地看问题。[tā men zǒng shì xíng shì zhǔ yì de kàn wèn tí.]
(They always look at the problem in Formism.)

But, noun phrases like “快步 [kuài bù] (trot)” and “大声 [dà shēng] (loud)” are exceptional.

Example 69 护士快步走了进来。[hù shì kuài bù zǒu le jìn lái.]
(The nurse trotted in.)

Example 70 别大声嚷嚷, 安静点儿! [bié dà shēng rāng rang, ān jìng diǎn er!]
(Don't yell, be quiet!)

(5) Numeral-quantifier phrases

Numeral-quantifier phrases don't take “地 [de].”

Example 71 几万名工人一下子来到大草原, 有很多困难。[jǐ wàn míng gōng rén yí xià zi lái dào dà cǎo yuán, yǒu hěn duō kùn nán.]
(It is difficult to transport tens of thousands of workers to the prairie at once.)

Example 72 小战士一把把敌人揪住了。[xiǎo zhàn shì yì bǎ bǎ dí rén jiū zhù le.]
(The young soldier grasped the enemy tightly at once.)

But, the overlapped numeral-quantifier phrases are free in choosing “地 [de].”

Example 73 老栓一趟一趟(地)给客人倒茶。[Lǎo Shuān yí tàng yí tàng (de) gěi kè rén dào chá.]
(Lao Shuan filled the tea cup for the guest again and again.)

Example 74 水一股一股(地)涌进了房间。[shuǐ yì gǔ yì gǔ (de) yǒng jìn le fáng jiān.]
(The water gushed into the room.)

Also, the phrases consisting of overlapped numeral-quantifier phrases are free in choosing “地 [de]” as well.

Example 75 你不要着急，一个字一个字往下念。[nǐ bú yào zhāo jí, yí gè zì yí gè zì wǎng xià niàn.]

(Take it easy and read it word by word.)

Example 76 经过一家一户(地)了解情况，问题大体上清楚了。[jīng guò yí jiā yí hù (de) liǎo jiě qíng kuàng, wèn tí dà tǐ shàng qīng chǔ le.]

(After inquiring for information from door to door, the problem has been basically clarified.)

(6) Multiple-syllable onomatopoeic words

They have a free choice of “地 [de].”

Example 77 这时外面鞭炮声噼里啪啦(地)响了起来。[zhè shí wài miàn biān pào shēng pī lǐ pā lā (de) xiǎng le qǐ lái.]

(Then the firecrackers crackled outside.)

Example 78 姑娘们格格(地)笑了起来。[gū niang men gé gé (de) xiào le qǐ lái.]

(The girls giggled.)

Example 79 五点半钟，便桥的木头吱吱嘎嘎(地)响了起来。[wǔ diǎn bàn zhōng, biàn qiáo de mù tóu zī zī gā gā (de) xiǎng le qǐ lái.]

(At half past five, the temporary wooden bridge began to creak.)

But, monosyllabic onomatopoeic words require “地 [de].”

Example 80 手枪乒地响了一声。[shǒu qiāng pīng de xiǎng le yì shēng.]

(The pistol cracked.)

Example 81 堡垒轰地被炸开了。[bǎo lěi hōng de bèi zhà kāi le.]

(The fortress was bombed down.)

(7) Most adverbs as descriptive adverbials have a free choice of “地 [de]” and the absence of “地 [de]” happens frequently

Example 82 妈妈再三(地)嘱咐他要当心。[mā ma zài sān (de) zhǔ fù tā yào dāng xīn.]

(Mother repeatedly told him to be careful.)

Example 83 工人们反复(地)讨论这个计划。[gōng rén men fǎn fù (de) tāo lùn zhè gè jì huà.]

(The workers discussed the plan over and over again.)

Example 84 我们经常(地)在一起研究工作。[wǒ men jīng cháng (de) zài yì qǐ yán jiū gōng zuò.]

(We often do research together.)

Example 85 在相处的过程中，我们互相之间逐渐(地)了解了。[zài xiāng chǔ de guò chéng zhōng, wǒ men hù xiāng zhī jiān zhú jiàn (de) liǎo jiě le.]

(We gradually understood each other when we got along with each other.)

Example 86 她的脸渐渐(地)红了，嘴角露出了微笑。[tā de liǎn jiàn jiàn (de) hóng le, zuǐ jiǎo lù chū le wēi xiào.]

(Her face flushed and a smile appeared at the corners of her mouth.)

Monosyllabic adverbs cannot take “地 [de]”; the adverbs such as “亲自 [qīn zì] (personally),” “亲手 [qīn shǒu] (personally),” and “亲眼 [qīn yǎn] (with one’s own eyes),” cannot take it, either.

Section three: positions of adverbials

In Chinese, adverbials always come before headwords; sometimes they can be moved backwards for the sake of special rhetorical effects of rhetoric.

Example 1 于是我们只好等待着黄昏的到来，抑郁地。[yú shì wǒ men zhǐ hǎo děng dài zhe hóng hūn de dào lái, yì yù de.]

(So we have to wait for arrival of dusk in depression.)

But such expressions rarely happen, except for literary works.

In this section, two positions of adverbials before headwords are to be discussed. One is before the subject and the other is after the subject. Most of the adverbials are required to come after the subject; a few of them only appear before the subject. And the rest can stand either after or before the subject. The positions of adverbials are finally decided by functions and parts of speech of the words that serve as adverbials.

I. *The adverbials required to come before subjects*

These adverbials are restrictive, mainly including the prepositional phrases formed by “关于 [guān yú] (as for),” “至于 [zhì yú] (as for).”

Example 2 关于他，这里有不少类似小说一样的传说。[guān yú tā, zhè lǐ yǒu bù shǎo lèi sì xiǎo shuō yī yàng de chuán shuō.]

(There are many fictional legends about him.)

Example 3 关于明年的计划，我们以后再讨论。[guān yú míng nián de jì huà, wǒ men yǐ hòu zài tāo lùn.]

(For the plan for next year, we’ll discuss it later.)

Example 4 考试的范围我可以告诉你们，至于考试的题目，那当然要保密喽！[kǎo shì de fàn wéi wǒ kě yǐ gào sù nǐ men, zhì yú kǎo shì de tí mù, nà dāng rán yào bǎo mì lou!]

(I can tell you the exam scope, but as for what they are, of course, I won’t tell you!)

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Example 5 在月底以前你一定要给我一个答复，至于同意还是不同意，那是你的自由。[zài yuè dǐ yǐ qián nǐ yī dìng yào gěi wǒ yī gè dá fù, zhī yú tóng yì hái shì bù tóng yì, nà shì nǐ de zì yóu.]
(You must reply to me at the end of this month; “agree” or “disagree,” it is your choice.)

Those locational words without prepositions inside are also required to come before the subject. In this case, the predicate of the sentence usually contains the complex descriptive adverbials.

Example 6 院子里，孩子们你追我赶地玩着。[yuàn zi lǐ, hái zǐ men nǐ zhuī wǒ gǎn de wán zhe.]
(In the yard, the children chased each other for fun.)

Example 7 池塘旁边，一群白鹅一跛一跛地迈着方步。[chí táng páng biān, yī qún bái é yì bǒ yì bǒ de mài zhe fāng bù.]
(Beside the pool, a flock of white geese tottered with measured steps.)

II. *The adverbials required to come after subjects*

They include most of descriptive adverbials and some restrictive adverbials.

Most descriptive adverbials are required to come after the subject, except for several special ones.

Example 8 像只燕子似地，小红在林子里一会儿飞到这儿，一会飞到那儿。[xiàng zhī yàn zi shì de, xiǎo hóng zài lín zi lǐ yī huì er fēi dào zhè er, yī huì fēi dào nà er.]
(Like a swallow, Xiao Hong ran happily here and there in the woods.)

Example 9 一脚他就把球踢出了大门外。[yī jiǎo tā jiù bǎ qiú tī chū le dà mén wài.]
(He kicked the ball out of the gate with one foot.)

Example 10 慢慢地大家对我没那么客气了。[màn màn de dà jiā duì wǒ bú nà me kè qì le.]
(Gradually, people stopped keeping a polite distance from me.)

The following restrictive adverbials are required to come after the subject.

- 1 Adverbs excluding those indicating tones of speaking and some time adverbs
- 2 A few locational words without prepositions inside in the spoken language

In this case, the predicate part should be brief.

Example 11 客人们请屋里坐！[kè rén men qǐng wū lǐ zuò!]
(Guests, please sit inside!)

Example 12 老人炕上睡，炕上吃。[lǎo rén kàng shàng shuì, kàng shàng chī.]

(The old man not only sleeps on the heatable brick bed, but also eats on it.)

- 3 The prepositions formed by “把 [bǎ],” “被 [bèi],” “将 [jiāng],” “叫 [jiào],” “让 [ràng],” “给 [gěi],” “管 [guǎn],” “替 [tì],” “离 [lí]”

Example 13 你把那本书递给我。[nǐ bǎ nà běn shū dì gěi wǒ.]

(You pass me that book.)

Example 14 这个孩子管他叫叔叔。[zhè gè hái zi guǎn tā jiào shū shu.]

(The child addresses him as uncle.)

Example 15 北大离清华不远。[běi dà lí qīng huá bù yuǎn.]

(Peking University is not far from Tsinghua University.)

Example 16 你给我买点东西来。[nǐ gěi wǒ mǎi diǎn dōng xi lái.]

(You go and buy something for me.)

III. The adverbials appearing either before or after subjects (mainly referring to restrictive adverbials)

- 1 The words indicating time

They include time words and the following adverbs.

忽然 [hū rán] (suddenly), 原先 [yuán xiān] (originally), 突然 [tū rán] (abruptly), 马上 [mǎ shàng] (immediately), 立刻 [lì kè] (immediately), 回头 [huí tóu] (next time), 一时 [yì shí] (temporarily), 起初 [qǐ chū] (originally), 慢慢地 [màn màn de] (gradually).

- 2 Most prepositional phrases
3 Adverbs indicating tones of speaking
4 Several descriptive adverbs

The aforementioned generally come after the subject.

Example 17 你明天来吧。[nǐ míng tiān lái ba.]

(You come tomorrow.)

Example 18 我忽然想起一件事来。[wǒ hū rán xiǎng qǐ yí jiàn shì lái.]

(One thing suddenly occurred to me.)

Example 19 我想趁这个工夫跟老人聊聊。[wǒ xiǎng chèn zhe gè gōng fu gēn lǎo rén liáo liáo.]

(I'd like to talk with the old man in the meantime.)

Example 20 阿丹经常在宿舍里听录音。[ā dān jīng cháng zài sù shě lǐ tīng lù yīn.]

(A Dan usually listens to the tape in the dormitory.)

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Example 21 这几个月小燕确实付出了不少劳动。[zhè jǐ gè yuè xiǎo yàn què shí fù chū le bù shǎo láo dòng.]
(Xiao Yan has indeed worked hard these months.)

However, in the following situations, they are required to move forward.

1 To connect sentences or text in order to continue the preceding ones

Example 22 头天晚上他很晚才睡。第二天他起得很迟。[tóu tiān wǎn shàng tā hěn wǎn cái shuì. dì èr tiān tā qǐ de hěn chí.]
(He went to bed late last night. Therefore, he got up late the next morning.)

Example 23 这时服务员停掉广播赶回来了。[zhè shí fú wù yuán tíng diào guǎng bō gǎn huí lái le.]
(Then the waiter turned off the radio and came back.)

Example 24 我们每天上午上四节课。除了上课以外，我们还常常出去参观。[wǒ men měi tiān shàng wǔ shàng sì jiē kè. chú le shàng kè yǐ wài, wǒ men hái cháng cháng chū qù cān guān.]
(We have four classes every morning. In addition, we often go out for a visit.)

Example 25 在这些事实面前，大家又受到了一次教育。[zài zhè xiē shí shí miàn qián, dà jiā yòu shòu dào le yí cì jiào yù.]
(From these facts, everyone learned the lesson again.)

2 To emphasize themselves

Example 26 明天上午你来开会，别忘了！[míng tiān shàng wǔ nǐ lái kāi huì, bié wàng le!]
(You must attend the meeting tomorrow morning. Don't forget it!)

Example 27 突然，周围一片黑暗。[tū rán, zhōu wéi yí piàn hēi àn.]
(Suddenly, everything was dark.)

Example 28 明明你错了，为什么不承认呢？[míng míng nǐ cuò le, wèi shén me bù chéng rèn ne?]
(You are absolutely wrong. Why don't you admit it?)

Example 29 对他，我从来没有有什么好印象。[duì tā, wǒ cóng lái méi yǒu shén me hǎo yìn xiàng.]
(I have never had a good impression of him.)

Example 30 在家里，我看不下去书。[zài jiā lǐ, wǒ kàn bú xià qù shū.]
(I can't read any books at home.)

3 To modify more than one clause

Example 31 天一擦黑，就把后门关上了，把鸡窝堵上了。[tiān yì cā hēi, tā jiù bǎ hòu mén guān shàng le, bǎ jī wō dǔ shàng le.]

(As soon as it gets dark, she closes the back door and blocks the henhouse.)

Example 32 原先,我仗着是个老杭州,打算在杭州待三天,订了一天游湖,两天参观市区的计划。[yúan xiān, wǒ zhàng zhe shì gè lǎo háng zhōu, dǎ suàn zài háng zhōu dāi sān tiān, dīng le yì tiān yóu hú, liǎng tiān cān guān shì qū de jì huà.]

(Considering its ancient history, I decided to visit Hangzhou for three days, including one day for the lake tour and two days for the downtown.)

Example 33 进城后,他入了党,提了干,为革命做了很多工作。[jìn chéng hòu, tā rù le dǎng, tí le gān, wèi gé mìng zuò le hěn duō gōng zuò.]

(After entering the city, he joined the Party, got promoted, and did a lot of work for the revolution.)

Example 34 在实践中,我们的医学知识由少到多,医疗技术逐步提高。[zài shí jiàn zhōng, wǒ men de yī xué zhī shì yóu shǎo dào duō, yī liáo jì shù zhú bù tí gāo.]

(In practice, our medical knowledge has gradually increased and the medical technology has improved.)

Example 35 在中国共产党的领导下,中国人民推翻了三座大山,建立了中华人民共和国。[zài zhōng guó gòng chǎn dǎng de lǐng dǎo xià, zhōng guó rén mín tuī fǎn le sān zuò dà shān, jiàn lì le zhōng huá rén mín gòng hé guó.]

(Under the leadership of the CPC, the Chinese people overthrew “three big oppressions” and set up the People’s Republic of China.)

4 To contrast or compare the actions happening at different times or under different conditions

Example 36 明天我们要去长城,不能去你那儿了,以后再去看你吧。[míng tiān wǒ men yào qù cháng chéng, bù néng qù nǐ nà er le, yǐ hòu zài qù kàn nǐ ba.]

(We’re going to the Great Wall tomorrow, so we can’t visit you until next time.)

Example 37 从前他是一个工人,最近才当上干部。[cóng qián tā shì yì gè gōng rén, zuì jìn cái dāng shàng gàn bù.]

(He used to be a worker and recently got promoted to be a cadre.)

Example 38 在业务上,我教你;在思想上,你多帮助我。[zài yè wù shàng, wǒ jiāo nǐ; zài sī xiǎng shàng, nǐ duō bāng zhù wǒ.]

(I teach you in doing business; you help me more in thinking.)

Example 39 对工作,他精益求精;对困难,他从不退缩;对朋友,他满腔热情;对自己,他严格要求。[duì gōng zuò, tā jīng yì qiú jīng; duì kùn nán, tā cóng bù tuì suō; duì péng yǒu, tā mǎn qiāng rè qíng; duì zì jǐ, tā yán gé yāo qiú.]

(For work, he pursues perfection; for difficulties, he faces them bravely; for friends, he keeps enthusiasm; for himself, he insists on self-restriction.)

5 With the adverbials of many syllables or in complex structures

Example 40 当暴风雨快到来的时候, 龙梅的爸爸就骑马去找孩子和羊群。[dāng bào fēng yǔ kuài dào lái de shí hòu, lóng méi de bà ba jiù qí mǎ qù zhǎo hái zǐ hé yáng qún.]

(Knowing the storm was coming, Long Mei's father rode the horse to find the children and the sheep.)

Example 41 在我上大学的前一天, 田大婶给我讲了她以前的痛苦生活。[zài wǒ shàng dà xué de qián yì tiān, tián dà shěn gěi wǒ jiǎng le tā yǐ qián de tòng kǔ shēng huó.]

(The day before I went to college, Aunt Tian told me about her miserable life.)

Example 42 对每一个具体的困难, 我们都要采取认真对待的态度。[duì měi yí gè jù tǐ de kùn nán, wǒ men dōu yào cǎi qǔ rèn zhēn duì dài de tài dù.]

(We should take a serious attitude towards every specific difficulty.)

Example 43 根据开荒造林季节的要求和生产的的特点, 参加造林队的知青在开荒造林季节要保证在场劳动。[gēn jù kāi huāng zào lín jì jié de yāo qiú hé shēng chǎn de tè diǎn, cān jiā zào lín duì de zhī qīng zài kāi huāng zào lín jì jié yào bǎo zhèng zài chǎng láo dòng.]

(According to the afforestation season, the school graduates as participants were required to be present.)

In short, the adverbials before the subject help connect sentences or text, which can also be shown by Examples 2 to 5.

Section four: multiple adverbials

Multiple adverbials refer to a sentence containing two or more adverbials. They can be divided into three types, namely multiple adverbials of coordinative relation, multiple adverbials of successive relation, and multiple adverbials of both relations.

I. Multiple adverbials of coordinative relation

1 How to understand multiple adverbials of coordinative relation

They equally modify the headword and no hierarchy exists among them.

Example 1 我和同志们坚定, 沉着地驾驶着飞机, 穿云下降。[wǒ hé tóng zhì men jiān dìng, chén zhuó de jià shǐ zhe fēi jī, chuān yún xià jiàng.]

(My comrades and I flew the plane through the clouds, firmly and calmly.)

Example 2 这对国家对社会比较有利。[zhè duì guó jiā duì shè huì bǐ jiào yǒu lì.]

(It is more beneficial to the country and to the society as well.)

2 How to connect two adverbials of coordinative relation and how to use “地 [de]” with them

When two adverbials of coordinative relation are adjectives, they can be connected directly or separated by other means, such as a slight-pause mark, “而 [ér] (and)” and “而又 [ér yòu] (and).”

Example 3 纪诚朴欢快, 爽朗地说。[jì chéng pǔ huān kuài, shuǎng lǎng de shuō.]

(Ji Chengpu talked happily and heartily.)

Example 4 被压迫人民勇敢机智地进行斗争, 并取得了胜利。[bèi yā pò rén mín yǒng gǎn jī zhì de jìn xíng dòu zhēng, bìng qǔ dé le shèng lì.]

(The oppressed people fought bravely and wisely, and finally they won.)

Example 5 哥哥亲切而 (又) 诚恳地给弟弟指出了努力方向。[gē ge qīn qiè ér (yòu) chéng kěn de gěi dì dì zhǐ chū le nǚ lì fāng xiàng.]

(The elder brother showed the direction for his younger brother to strive, cordially and kindly.)

When the adverbials are two prepositional phrases or verb phrases, they can be connected directly or separated by a slight-pause mark.

Example 6 这个办法对老师对同学都很方便。[zhè gè bàn fǎ duì lǎo shī duì tóng xué dōu hěn fāng biàn.]

(This method is very convenient for teachers and students.)

Example 7 有些生产项目要有计划, 有步骤地发展。[yǒu xiē shēng chǎn xiàng mù yào yǒu jì huà, yǒu bù zhòu de fā zhǎn.]

(Some production projects should be planned and developed step by step.)

When there are more than two adverbials, they can be separated by a slight-pause mark respectively.

Example 8 在国际交往方面, 中国主张坚决, 彻底, 干净, 全部地消灭大国沙文主义。[zài guó jì jiāo wǎng fāng miàn, zhōng guó zhǔ zhāng jiān jué, chè dǐ, gān jìng, quán bù de xiāo miè dà guó shā wén zhǔ yì.]

(In international relations, China advocates resolute, thorough, clean, and complete elimination of the chauvinism of great powers.)

In this example, only the last adverbial takes “地 [de].” Sometimes, “地 [de]” can be added after each of them for the sake of emphasizing themselves respectively.

Example 9 中国革命的文学家艺术家 . . . 必须长期地, 无条件地, 全心全意地到工农中去, 到火热的斗争中去。[zhōng guó gé mìng de wén xué jiā yì shù jiā . . . bì xū cháng qī de, wú tiáo jiàn de, quán xīn quán yì de dào gōng nóng zhōng qù, dào huǒ rè de dòu zhēng zhōng qù.]

(The Chinese revolutionary writers and artists should devote themselves to the workers and peasants as well as to the fervent struggle in the long run, unconditionally and wholeheartedly.)

Similar to attributes of coordinative relation, the sequence of adverbials of coordinative relation is free in theory; in fact, it is restricted by logic, process of observation, language habits and context, such as the sequences in “干净 [gān jìng] (clean),” “彻底 [chè dǐ] (thorough),” “全部 [quán bù] (all),” “自由平等 [zì yóu píng děng] (freedom and equality),” “勇敢而坚强 [yǒng gǎn ér jiān qiáng] (brave and strong).”

II. Multiple adverbials of successive relation

1 How to understand multiple adverbials of successive relation

Although there is no hierarchy among them, multiple adverbials of successive relation modify the predicate part in turn and each of them is semantically related to the headword.

Example 10 平时，雷锋从来也不乱花一分钱。[píng shí, léi fēng cóng lái yě bù luàn huā yì fēn qián.]

(Usually, Lei Feng never spends a penny at random.)

Example 11 董大贵满有把握地从床子上把活卸了下来。[dǒng dà guì mǎn yǒu bǎ wò de cóng chuáng shàng bǎ huó xiè le xià lái.]

(Dong Dagui confidently removed his product from the bed.)

This type of adverbial doesn't take any conjunctions or pronunciations among them. They follow the same rules of adding “地 [de]” just as each of them does.

2 How to sequence adverbials of successive relation

Comparatively speaking, the sequence of adverbials of successive relation is more flexible than that of attributes of the same type. It mainly depends on their functions as well as grammatical meanings. Generally speaking, it is supposed to be accepted by Chinese speakers but sometimes, certain flexibility or particularity for some adverbials should be taken into account.

(1) Among descriptive adverbials, those for actions go after those for doers of actions.

Example 12 成瑶笑盈盈地斜视着华为。[chéng yáo xiào yíng yíng de xié shì zhe huá wéi.]

(Chen Yao glanced at Hua Wei with a smile.)

Example 13 他不动声色地一件件处理着。[tā bú dòng shēng sè de yí jiàn jiàn chù lǐ zhe.]

(He stayed calm and did these things one by one.)

Example 14 她像跟谁辩论似地猛然仰起了头 . . . [tā xiàng gēn shuí biàn lùn sì de měng rán yǎng qǐ le tóu . . .]

(She raised her head upward suddenly as if she were arguing with someone.)

(2) With the exception of most adverbs, restrictive adverbials generally take the following sequence.

- a Adverbials indicating time
- b Adverbials indicating tones of speaking and adverbials connecting clauses
- c Adverbials indicating purpose, evidence, concern, and correlation
- d Adverbials indicating location, space, direction, and route
- e Adverbials indicating objects

Example 15 陈松林后来索性不去多想了。[chén sōng lín hòu lái suǒ xìng bú qù duō xiǎng le.]

(Then Chen Songlin just gave up thinking about it.)

Example 16 这件事我昨天在下边都跟你谈了。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ zuó tiān zài xià biān dōu gēn nǐ tán le.]

(I had a private talk with you yesterday.)

(3) Adverbials of two relations can be generally arranged in the following sequence.

- a Adverbials indicating time
- b Adverbials indicating tones of speaking and adverbials connecting sentences
- c Adverbials indicating doers of actions
- d Adverbials indicating purpose, evidence, concern, and correlation
- e Adverbials indicating location, space, direction, and route
- f Adverbials indicating objects
- g Adverbials indicating actions

Example 17 你给我乖乖地在这儿，哪儿也不准去。[nǐ gěi wǒ guāi guāi de zài zhè er, nǎ er yě bù zhǔn qù.]

(You just stay here and don't go anywhere.)

Example 18 余新江攥起拳头，在小圆桌上狠狠地一击。[yú xīn jiāng zuàn qǐ quán tóu, zài xiǎo yuán zhuō shàng hěn hěn de yì jī.]

(Yu Xinjiang clenched his fist and hit a small round table hard.)

Example 19 成瑶立刻机灵地上前去扶住了她。[chéng yáo lì kè jī ling de shàng qián qù fú zhù le tā.]

(Cheng Yao immediately went forward to support her with a hand.)

Example 20 你要像个朋友似地跟人家好好谈谈。[nǐ yào xiàng gè péng yǒu shì de gēn rén jiā hǎo hǎo tán tán.]

(You should talk to him like a friend.)

Example 21 她兴奋地从哥哥手里很快地抢过那封信来。[tā xìng fèn de cóng gē ge shǒu lǐ hěn kuài de qiǎng guò nà fēng xìn lái.]

(Excitedly, she snatched the letter from her brother's hand quickly.)

Example 22 二十多年来，他为革命踏踏实实地工作着。[èr shí duō nián lái, tā wèi gé mìng tā tā shì shì de gōng zuò zhe.]

(For more than twenty years, he has worked for the revolution in a down-to-earth manner.)

Example 23 你们从前到底在一起共同生活了多久？[nǐ men cóng qián dào dǐ zài yì qǐ gòng tóng shēng huó le duō jiǔ?]

(How long on earth have you lived together in the past?)

Example 24 有一次曾刚在队务会议上与周主任针锋相对地争论起来。[yǒu yí cì Céng Gāng zài duì wù huì yì shàng yǔ Zhōu zhǔ rèn zhēn fēng xiāng duì de zhēng lùn qǐ lái.]

(Once, Zeng Gang had a tit-for-tat argument with Director Zhou at the meeting.)

(4) Others.

- a “在 . . . [zài . . .] (at/in . . .)” and “从 . . . [cóng . . .] (from . . .)” can stand before or after adverbials for doers of actions, to indicate their location or space.

Example 25 他在家愉快地度过了暑假。[tā zài jiā lǐ yú kuài de dù guò le shǔ jiǎ.]

(He had a happy summer vacation at home.)

他愉快地在家里度过了暑假。[tā yú kuài de zài jiā lǐ dù guò le shǔ jiǎ.]

(He had a happy summer vacation at home.)

Example 26 姑娘不好意思地在众人面前唱了起来。[gū niang bù hǎo yì si de zài zhòng rén miàn qián chàng le qǐ lái.]

(Facing the crowd, the girl began to sing with embarrassment.)

姑娘在众人面前不好意思地唱了起来。[gū niang zài zhòng rén miàn qián bù hǎo yì si de chàng le qǐ lái.]

(Facing the crowd, the girl began to sing with embarrassment.)

Example 27 早晨他高高兴兴地从家里走出来。[zǎo chén tā gāo gāo xìng xìng de cóng jiā lǐ zǒu chū lái.]

(In the morning, he left home happily.)

早晨他从家里高高兴兴地走出来。[zǎo chén tā cóng jiā lǐ gāo gāo xìng xìng de zǒu chū lái.]

(In the morning, he left home happily.)

“在 . . . [zài . . .] (at/in . . .)” and “从 . . . [cóng . . .] (from . . .)” can also come after or before the adverbs for time.

Example 28 他在国内已经学过一年汉语了。[tā zài guó nèi yǐ jīng xué guò yì nián hàn yǔ le.]

(He has learned Chinese for a year in China.)

他已经在国内学过一年汉语了。[tā yǐ jīng zài guó nèi xué guò yì nián hàn yǔ le.]

(He has learned Chinese for a year in China.)

Example 29 这个人从床上忽然坐了起来。[zhè gè rén cóng chuáng shàng hū rán zuò le qǐ lái.]

(The man sat up suddenly in the bed.)

这个人忽然从床上坐了起来。[zhè gè rén hū rán cóng chuáng shàng zuò le qǐ lái.]

(The man suddenly sat up in the bed.)

“对 . . . [duì . . .] (to)” indicating a certain object can sometimes come before the adverbials for doers of actions.

Example 30 他亲切地对我说 . . . [tā qīn qiè de duì wǒ shuō . . .]

(He said kindly to me . . .)

他对我亲切地说 . . . [tā duì wǒ qīn qiè de shuō . . .]

(He said kindly to me . . .)

- b In order to strength the descriptive effect, descriptive adverbials including disyllabic adjectives, overlapped adjectives, and numeral-quantifier phrases in the overlapped form often come before the adverbials for location, space, route, or direction. However, monosyllabic adjectives are exceptional.

Example 31 交通艇嗖嗖地向前疾驶着。[jiāo tōng tǐng sōu sōu de xiàng qián jí shǐ zhe.]

(The traffic boat sped forward.)

Example 32 他拿起钢笔很流利地在笔记本上用中文写下了自己的名字。[tā ná qǐ gāng bǐ hěn liú lì de zài bǐ jì běn shàng yòng zhōng wén xiě xià le zì jǐ de míng zì.]

(He picked up a pen and wrote his name in Chinese quickly on the notebook.)

Example 33 老张，你详细跟他说说。[lǎo zhāng, nǐ xiáng xì gēn tā shuō shuō.]

(Lao Zhang, tell him in detail.)

Example 34 有人发觉一个人影悄悄地从训导处后面的窗口跳出。[yǒu rén fā jué yī gè rén yǐng qiāo qiāo de cóng xùn dǎo chù hòu miàn de chuāng kǒu tiào chū.]

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(A man was found jumping secretly out of the rear window of the training office.)

Example 35 敌人一步一步地向后退着。[dí rén yī bù yī bù de xiàng hòu tuì zhe.]

(The enemy retreated gradually.)

- c When several phrases for time appear simultaneously in a sentence, they will follow the sequence: time word-prepositional phrase-adverb.

Example 36 这个青年最近时常来书店。[zhè gè qīng nián zuì jìn shí cháng lái shū diàn.]

(This young man often shows up in the bookshop recently.)

Example 37 我从现在起永远不吸烟了。[wǒ cóng xiàn zài qǐ yǒng yuǎn bù xī yān le.]

(I will never smoke from now on.)

Example 38 昨天我从早上七点一直睡到下午两点。[zuó tiān wǒ cóng zǎo shàng qī diǎn yì zhí shuì dào xià wǔ liǎng diǎn.]

(Yesterday I slept from seven in the morning to two in the afternoon.)

- d When two adverbials describing actions appear at the same time, the one with fewer syllables goes after the one with more syllables.

Example 39 匪徒慢慢地紧逼过来。[fěi tú màn màn de jǐn bī guò lái.]

(The bandits were getting closer slowly.)

Example 40 他一个步骤一个步骤地仔细计算着。[tā yí gè bù zhòu yí gè bù zhòu de zǐ xì jì suàn zhe.]

(He calculated carefully, step by step.)

- e Positions of other adverbs as adverbials

The positions of adverbs for negation, repetition, or degree are related to the sentence structures. They may not directly modify the headwords but if they do, they should closely come before them.

Example 41 大厅里掌声一直十分热烈。[dà tīng lǐ zhǎng shēng yì zhí shí fēn rè liè.]

(The warm applause in the hall has continued.)

Example 42 这个人我不认识。[zhè gè rén wǒ bú rèn shi.]

(I don't know this man.)

Example 43 你再说一遍。[nǐ zài shuō yí biàn.]

(I beg your pardon.)

If they modify a phrase, they come before it.

Example 44 小梅听了这句话很不高兴。[xiǎo méi tīng le zhè jù huà hěn bù gāo xìng.]

(Xiao Mei was displeased after hearing it.)

Example 45 他又一夜没回来。[tā yòu yí yè méi huí lái.]

(He didn't come back for another night.)

Example 46 别再给我添麻烦吧，疯子！[bié zài gěi wǒ tiān má fan ba, fēng zi!]

(Don't make troubles any more, you madman!)

The different sequence of adverbs of such a type can produce different meanings.

Example 47 我对这件衣服不十分满意。[wǒ duì zhè jiàn yī fu bù shí fēn mǎn yì.]

(I'm not very satisfied with this dress.)

我对这件衣服十分不满意。[wǒ duì zhè jiàn yī fu shí fēn bù mǎn yì.]

(I am completely dissatisfied with this dress.)

Example 48 他每天都来，今天可能也不来。[tā měi tiān dōu bù lái, jīn tiān kě néng yě bù lái.]

(He never comes, so today may not be an exception.)

他不每天都来，今天来不来很难说。[tā bù měi tiān dōu lái, jīn tiān lái bù lái hěn nán shuō.]

(He doesn't come every day, so it's hard to say whether he comes or not today.)

Example 49 你上午看了一个电影，怎么下午又看电影？[nǐ shàng wǔ kàn le yí gè diàn yǐng, zěn me xià wǔ yòu kàn diàn yǐng?]

(You watched a movie this morning; why did you watch another one in the afternoon?)

你经常下午看电影，很影响工作，怎么今天又下午看电影？[nǐ jīng cháng xià wǔ kàn diàn yǐng, hěn yǐng xiǎng gōng zuò, zěn me jīn tiān yòu xià wǔ kàn diàn yǐng?]

(You often watch movies in the afternoon, which has affected your work very much. So why do you do it again this afternoon?)

The adverbs indicating scope, such as “都 [dōu] (all)” and “全 [quán] (all),” are required to come after the constituents indicating the entirety.

Example 50 你听听，街坊四邻全干活儿，就是你没有正经事儿。[nǐ tīng tīng, jiē fāng sì lín quán gàn huó er, jiù shì nǐ méi yǒu zhèng jīng shì er.]

(Listen, all the neighbors are working hard, but you're the only one who does nothing.) (“all the neighbors” as the entirety)

Example 51 臭水往屋里跑，把什么东西都淹了。[chòu shuǐ wǎng wū lǐ pǎo, bǎ shén me dōng xi dōu yān le.]

(The smelly water flowed into the house and made everything wet.) (“everything” as the entirety)

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Example 52 入冬以来，体育活动在各个班都积极开展起来了。[rù dōng yǐ lái, tǐ yù huó dòng zài gè gè bān dōu jī jī kāi zhǎn qǐ lái le.]

(Since the beginning of the winter, sports activities of each class have been carried out actively.) (“all classes” as entirety)

Reference

Liu Yuehua. 1983. Classifications of Adverbials and Sequence of Multiple Adverbials. In *Grammar Research and Exploration (I)*, Beijing: Peking University Press.

5 Complements

The predicate constituents after verbs or adjectives are usually considered as the typical complements, mainly consisting of resultant complements, directional complements, and modal complements. They share a common structural feature: two statements. For instance, “他喝醉了。[tā hē zuì le.] (He was drunk.)” in which one statement is “他喝(酒)。[tā hē (jiǔ)] (He drank the wine.)” and the other is “他醉了。[tā zuì le.] (He was drunk.)” The same is true for the following examples.

Example 1 我打破了一个杯子。[wǒ dǎ pò le yī gè bēi zi.]
(I broke a cup.) (“I broke a cup”+“the cup was broken”)

Example 2 老师走进教室。[lǎo shī zǒu jìn jiào shì.]
(The teacher walked into the classroom.) (“the teacher walked”+“into the classroom”)

Semantically speaking, the preceding verb or adjective indicates a reason and the complement after it shows a related result. Thus, “he drank the wine” is the reason for the result of “he was drunk”; “the teacher walked” is the reason for the result of “into the classroom.” Of course, each type of complement can be divided further from their syntactic and semantic aspects, some of which may not contain two statements, but a majority include two in structure.

Such phenomenon rarely occurs or probably is substituted by two sentences in other languages. Therefore, it is difficult for foreign Chinese learners to grasp it.

Complements of possibility are very similar to resultant complements and directional complements both structurally and semantically, so they will be discussed in this chapter.

As for quantitative complements and complements of prepositional phrases, although they are very different from those aforementioned complements, they will also be discussed in this chapter according to the traditional grammar system in the past.

Although both objects and complements come after verbs, they greatly differ from each other. An object refers to what is involved in an action conveyed by a verb, due to which most objects are nominal; typical complements are predicative, mainly stating or describing persons or things involved, thus most of them are non-nominal, except for quantitative complements.

Based on their structural and semantic features, complements can be classified into the following seven types.

- 1 Resultant complements.
- 2 Directional complements
- 3 Complements of possibility
- 4 Modal complements
- 5 Degree complements
- 6 Numeral-quantifier complements
- 7 Prepositional phrase as complement

Generally speaking, complements are frequently used in the spoken language and the narrative styles of writing, but rarely occur in the written language or argumentation.

Section one: resultant complements

I. *Resultant complements*

As its name implies, it indicates the result of an action or state of the doer or the action recipient. For example, the result of “打破了一个杯子。[dǎ pò le yī gè bēi zi.] (A cup was broken.)” caused by verb “打 [dǎ] (break)” changed the state of “杯子 [bēi zi] (cup)” as the action recipient. Some resultant complements indicate the evaluation or judgment to certain actions. For example, “完 [wán] (finish)” in “功课做完了。[gōng kè zuò wán le.] (The homework has been finished.)” as the resultant complement is the evaluation or judgment to the action of “做 [zuò] (do).” Resultant complements are often functioned by adjectives or verbs, which mainly express the results caused by certain actions or states.

Example 1 医生们紧张地工作，他们一定会救活他。[yī shēng men jǐn zhāng de gōng zuò, tā men yī dìng huì jiù huó tā.]

(With confidence, the doctors were working hard to save him.)

In this example, “活 [huó] (alive)” as the resultant complement in “救活他 [jiù huó tā] (save him)” cannot be omitted because the sentence states the confidence of saving his life instead of stressing “save” itself.

Example 2 虽然今天学的生词很多，但约翰很快就全记住了。[suī rán jīn tiān xué de shēng cí hěn duō, dàn yuē hàn hěn kuài jiù quán jì zhù le.]

(Although John learned many new words today, he quickly remembered them all by heart.)

In this example, “住 [zhù]” as the resultant complement in “全记住了 [quán jì zhù le] (remember them by heart)” cannot be omitted because the sentence emphasizes the result of remembering instead of “remember” itself.

Example 3 他从冰箱里拿出来一个西瓜，放在桌子上，然后拿出刀来，先一刀把西瓜切开，再切成一块一块的，请大家吃。[tā cóng bīng xiāng lǐ ná chū lái yī gè xī guā, fàng zhuō zi shàng, rán hòu ná chū dāo lái, xiān yī dāo bǎ xī guā qiē kāi, zài qiè chéng kuài yī kuài de, qǐng dà jiā chī.]
(He took a watermelon from the refrigerator and put it on the table. After that he took a knife to cut it into half and then into several pieces for all of us to eat.)

In this example, the complements, such as “出来 [chū lái],” “开 [kāi],” and “成 [chéng]” cannot be changed into the dynamic auxiliary word “了 [le]” because it sounds inappropriate in Chinese.

The dynamic auxiliary word “了 [le]” is different from the resultant complement, the former of which expresses the action occurrence or the state appearance, and the latter of which indicates the concrete result of a certain action. Therefore, “了 [le]” cannot substitute the resultant complement, otherwise the meaning will be ambiguous.

Example 4 *这本书我到处托人买，今天可买了一本。[zhè běn shū wǒ dào chù tuō rén mǎi, jīn tiān kě mǎi le yī běn.]
这本书我到处托人买，今天可买到了一本。[zhè běn shū wǒ dào chù tuō rén mǎi, jīn tiān kě mǎi dào le yī běn.]
(I looked for this book everywhere, and finally I bought it today.)

Here, the resultant complement “到 [dào]” cannot be omitted because the speaker wants to express the result of “买 [mǎi] (buy).”

II. Semantic orientation of resultant complements and their objects

Semantic orientation refers to the semantic relations between the resultant complements and other sentence constituents. Usually, resultant complements are semantically related to objects, subjects, and predicate verbs.

1 To orientate action recipients

Action recipients, including locations and tools, mainly refer to objects of verbs, subjects of “把 [bǎ]” sentences, and “被 [bèi]” sentences.

Example 5 他擦干净桌子，扔掉一个空烟盒和一些碎纸。[tā cā gān jìng zhuō zi, rēng diào yī gè kōng yān hé hé yī xiē suì zhǐ.]
(He cleaned the table and threw away an empty cigarette case and some shredded paper.)

Example 6 那时你在阿勒泰山的雪坡上拖走一根粗大的木头。[nà shí nǐ zài ā lè tài shān de xuě pō shàng tuō zǒu yī gēn cū dà de mù tóu.]
(At that time you dragged a thick piece of wood on the snow slope of the Altay Mountains.)

Example 7 凶手是我带去的，可是我能对谁来讲清这一切呢？[xiōng shǒu shì wǒ dài qù de, kě shì wǒ néng duì shuí lái jiǎng qīng zhè yī qiè ne?] (It was with me when the murderer came, so how could I explain it away?)

Example 8 他颠着手划亮一根火柴，点燃一支香烟。[tā diān zhe shǒu huá liàng yī gēn huǒ chái, diǎn rán yī zhī xiāng yān.] (He set up a match and then lit a cigarette.)

Example 9 早晨，阳光照红了巨大的桥身。[zǎo chén, yáng guāng zhào hóng le jù dà de qiáo shēn.] (In the early morning, the rising sun kindled a huge bridge.)

In these examples, the predicate verbs are transitive so they can take their own objects. Some intransitive verbs or some verbs that shouldn't take objects become qualified in taking objects, only if they are followed by resultant complements.

Example 10 听了他这句话，大家笑弯了腰，笑疼了肚子。[tīng le tā zhè jù huà, dà jiā xiào wān le yāo, xiào téng le dù zi.] (After hearing his words, everyone doubled up with laughter.)

Example 11 为了给你买这双鞋，我跑断了腿，可是你还不领情。[wèi le gěi nǐ mǎi zhè shuāng xié, wǒ pǎo duàn le tuǐ, kě shì nǐ hái bù lǐng qíng.] (In order to buy you this pair of shoes, I was busy running about but you weren't grateful.)

Resultant complements often appear in “把 [bǎ]” sentences.

Example 12 老农民和东郭先生一起把狼打死了。[lǎo nóng mǐn hé dōng guō xiān shēng yī qǐ bǎ láng dǎ sǐ le.] (The old farmer and Mr. Dong Guo killed the wolf together.)

Example 13 我打算明天就把这笔钱寄走。[wǒ dǎ suàn míng tiān jiù bǎ zhè bǐ qián jì zǒu.] (I'm going to remit the money tomorrow.)

Example 14 我将把“晋陕峡谷”四个字改成“伟大的晋陕峡谷”。[wǒ jiāng bǎ “jìn shǎn xiá gǔ” sì gè zì gǎi chéng “wěi dà de jìn shǎn xiá gǔ.”] (I will change “Canyon between Shanxi and Shaanxi” into “the great Canyon between Shanxi and Shaanxi.”)

Example 15 他把刀磨快了，准备杀鸡。[tā bǎ dāo mó kuài le, zhǔn bèi shā jī.] (He sharpened the knife to kill the chicken.)

Also, resultant complements frequently occur in “被 [bèi]” sentences.

Example 16 卧铺全被卖光了，没有一个空的。[wò pù quán bèi mài guāng le, méi yǒu yī gè kōng de.] (Sleeping berths were all sold out, and no more were available.)

Example 17 到布谷鸟欢叫的时候，一个个的山头被搬倒了。[dào bù gǔ niǎo huān jiào de shí hòu, yī gè gè de shān tóu bèi bān dào le.]
(By the time the cuckoos sing, the hills would have been leveled one by one.)

Example 18 你想，我怎么能不被惯坏呢。[nǐ xiǎng, wǒ zěn me néng bú bèi guàn huài ne.]
(You see, how could it be impossible for me to be spoiled.)

Besides, resultant complements can orientate the recipients as topics.

Example 19 那天早晨，我带上两只钢笔，灌足墨水，然后去考场。[nà tiān zǎo chén, wǒ dài shàng liǎng zhī gāng bǐ, guàn zú mò shuǐ, rán hòu qù kǎo chǎng.]
(That morning, I took two pens full of ink, and then went to the examination room.)

Example 20 屋子收拾干净了。[wū zi shōu shì gān jìng le.]
(The house has been cleaned up.)

2 To orientate action doers

Resultant complements can orientate action doers that mainly function as subjects or existential objects.

Example 21 他一路上不知摔倒了多少次。[tā yī lù shàng bù zhī shuāi dào le duō shǎo cì.]
(He didn't count how many times he fell down all the way.)

Example 22 衣服湿透了。[yī fu shī tòu le.]
(The clothes are wet all the way through.)

Example 23 去年冬天，我学会了滑冰。[qù nián dōng tiān, wǒ xué huì le huá bīng.]
(Last winter, I learned to skate.)

Example 24 我听懂了他的话。[wǒ tīng dǒng le tā de huà.]
(I understand his words.)

Example 25 昨天下大雪，邻村冻死了几只羊。[zuó tiān xià dà xuě, lín cūn dòng sǐ le jǐ zhī yáng.]
(It snowed heavily yesterday and several sheep in the neighboring village froze to death.)

In Example 23, the noun “滑冰 [huá bīng] (skate)” is the recipient of both the predicate verb “学 [xué] (learn)” and the complement “会 [huì],” so the object can come after the complement here. The same is true for the noun “话 [huà] (words)” as the recipient of “听 [tīng] (listen)” and the complement “懂 [dǒng] (understand)” in Example 24.

Some structures of verb-complements can take objects with many restrictions.

Example 26 他一喝醉了酒就胡说八道。[tā yī hē zuì le jiǔ jiù hú shuō bā dào.]
(He talks nonsense as soon as he gets drunk.)

Example 27 你吃饱了饭没事干是怎么的? 到这儿来倒什么乱? [nǐ chī bǎo le fàn méi shì gàn shì zěn me de? dào zhè er lái dào shén me luàn?]
(Why did you behave like this? Don't make troubles here.)

In the last example, the objects are only restricted to “酒 [jiǔ] (wine)” and “饭 [fàn] (food).”

In the following sentences, all the complements semantically orientate the action recipients.

Example 28 人坐懒了, 吃馋了。[rén zuò lǎn le, chī chán le.]
(He idled the days away eating and slouching.)

Example 29 这个人写文章写傻了。[zhè gè rén xiě wén zhāng xiě shǎ le.]
(This person can do nothing but write.)

Example 30 我们在一起混熟了。[wǒ men zài yī qǐ hùn shú le.]
(We've got to know each other well.)

Example 31 他听呆了。[tā tīng dāi le.]
(He's stupefied after hearing it.)

Example 32 我打赢了。[wǒ dǎ yíng le.]
(I won.)

3 To describe, explain, or evaluate the action

Some resultant complements are semantically related to verbs only, mainly describing, explaining, or evaluating the actions. Such complements can be divided into two subtypes, one of which simply describes the action and the other of which carries a sense of failing to reach certain standards.

(1) Describing the action

Example 33 你看完这本杂志了吗? [nǐ kàn wán zhè běn zá zhì le ma?]
(Have you finished this magazine?)

Example 34 不必担心, 他的病已经好利索了。[bú bì dān xīn, tā de bìng yǐ jīng hǎo lì suo le.]
(Don't worry. His illness has already been cured.)

Example 35 小声点, 别吓着孩子! [xiǎo shēng diǎn, bié xià zhe hái zi!]
(Keep your voice down, and don't scare the children!)

Example 36 我们商量好了, 明天就动身。[wǒ men shāng liang hǎo le, míng tiān jiù dòng shēn.]
(We have discussed leaving tomorrow.)

Example 37 他这个人我算看透了, 一毛不拔。[tā zhè gè rén wǒ suàn kàn tòu le, yī máo bù bá.]
(I know very well that he is extremely stingy.)

In these examples, if the predicate verbs are transitive, they take objects, such as “看 [kàn] (read/know),” “商量 [shāng liang] (discuss)” and “吓 [xià] (scare);” “好 [hǎo] (cured)” in Example 34 is intransitive, so it cannot take its object.

(2) Failing to reach certain standards

Some adjectives functioning as resultant complements carry a sense of failing to reach certain standards. They are as follows:

大 [dà] (big), 小 [xiǎo] (small), 快 [kuài] (fast), 慢 [màn] (slow), 肥 [féi] (fat), 瘦 [shòu] (thin), 轻 [qīng] (light), 重 [zhòng] (heavy), 咸 [xián] (salty), 淡 [dàn] (light), 长 [cháng] (long), 短 [duǎn] (short), 多 [duō] (more), 少 [shǎo] (less), 粗 [cū] (thick), 细 [xì] (thin), 宽 [kuān] (wide), 窄 [zhǎi] (narrow), 高 [gāo] (high), 低 [dī] (low).

Example 38 今天上课我来晚了。[jīn tiān shàng kè wǒ lái wǎn le.]
(I was late for today's class.) (compared with “the time for class”)

Example 39 这件衣服做大了。[zhè jiàn yī fu zuò dà le.]
(The dress is bigger.) (compared with “the suitable size”)

Example 40 坑挖浅了，再往深里挖挖吧。[kēng wā qiǎn le, zài wǎng shēn lǐ wā wā ba.]
(The pit is a bit shallow, so dig it deeper.) (compared with “the suitable depth”)

Example 41 他酒喝多了，开始瞎说了。[tā jiǔ hē duō le, kāi shǐ xiā shuō le.]
(He drank too much and began to talk nonsense.) (compared with “his capacity for liquor”)

Example 42 照片挂歪了，你正一下。[zhào piàn guà wāi le, nǐ zhèng yī xià.]
(The picture is slightly askew, so please move it to the straight position.) (compared with the “straight position”)

Such the resultant complements cannot take their objects and usually are present with “了 [le]” at the end of sentence.

4 The structure of verb-object functioning as the resultant complement

Some structures of verb-objects can function as resultant complements, which takes up a small quantity in Chinese.

Example 43 他吃人家的饭吃迷了心，连自己的亲人都不认了。[tā chī rén jiā de fàn chī mí le xīn, lián zì jǐ de qīn rén dōu bú rèn le.]
(He was so obsessed with others' advantages that he even disowned his relatives.)

Example 44 这个地方乱出名了，谁都不愿意来工作。[zhè gè dì fāng luàn chū míng le, shuí dōu bú yuàn yì lái gōng zuò.]
(No one wants to work here due to its well-known chaos.)

Example 45 西瓜熟过劲了，不能吃了。[xī guā shú guò jìn le, bù néng chī le.]

(The watermelon is too overripe to eat.)

III. *The structural features of sentences containing resultant complements*

1 The negative form of resultant complements

Usually, “没 [méi] (no)” comes before a predicate verb or adjective to negate the resultant complement, so the negative form of a resultant complement is “没 [méi] (no)+verb+resultant complement” which indicates the unachieved result.

Example 46 这个故事我没听懂。[zhè gè gù shi wǒ méi tīng dǒng.]
(I didn't understand the story.)

Example 47 还有一次，裁判员没看清楚，判错了。[hái yǒu yī cì, cái pàn yuán méi kàn qīng chǔ, pàn cuò le.]
(Once, the referee made a wrong judgment because of not seeing it clearly.)

In these examples, neither the result of “听 [tīng] (listen)” nor the result of “看 [kàn] (see)” is achieved.

Only if the resultant complement appears in the hypothetical conditional sentence, can it be negated by “不 [bù/bú] (not).”

Example 48 我不做完练习不去游泳。[wǒ bú zuò wán liànxí bú qù yóuyǒng.]
(I won't go swimming until I finish my exercises.)

Example 49 他每天不看完微信不睡觉。[tā měi tiān bú kàn wán wēixìn bú shuì jiào.]
(He won't go to sleep until he finishes checking the WeChat every day.)

Example 50 你要是不把他赶走，后果将不堪设想。[nǐ yào shì bù bǎ tā gǎn zǒu, hòu guǒ jiāng bù kān shè xiǎng.]
(If you don't get rid of him, the consequences will be unimaginable.)

2 No constituent between a resultant complement and a predicate verb or adjective

No constituent is permitted to appear between a resultant complement and a predicate verb or adjective. The dynamic auxiliary words, such as “了 [le]” and “过 [guò],” except for “着 [zhe],” can come after the complement. Sometimes, the complements with “了 [le]” or “过 [guò]” can take objects as well.

Example 51 小燕关掉了总闸，好几台机器停产了。[Xiǎo Yàn guān diào le zǒng zhá, hǎo jǐ tái jī qì tíng chǎn le.]
(Xiao Yan turned off the main switch, which made several machines stop production.)

Example 52 为了治理好这条河，他们费尽了心思。[wèi le zhì lǐ hǎo zhè tiáo hé, tā men fèi jìn le xīn si.]

(They have tried their best to control this river.)

Example 53 他从来没打断过别人的发言。[tā cóng lái méi dǎ duàn guò bié rén de fā yán.]

(He never interrupts others' talking.)

3 About objects

In some sentences, the objects following resultant complements should be regarded as the objects of verb-complement phrases rather than the objects of the predicate verbs.

Example 54 他看见了一个人。[tā kàn jiàn le yī gè rén.]

(He saw a man.)

This can explain why some intransitive verbs that cannot take direct objects become qualified in this function.

Example 55 他跑丢了一只鞋。[tā pǎo diū le yī zhī xié.]

(He lost a shoe.)

Example 56 这件事听了叫人笑破了肚皮。[zhè jiàn shì tīng le jiào rén xiào pò le dù pí.]

(This matter doubled people up with laughter.)

Example 57 小姑娘哭红了眼睛。[xiǎo gū niang kū hóng le yǎn jīng.]

(The eyes of this little girl were red from crying.)

Sometimes, a resultant complement decides the relation between a verb and an object.

Example 58 人人努力搞好生产。[rén rén nǔ lì gǎo hǎo shēng chǎn.]

(Everyone works hard to do well in production.)

Example 59 “四人帮”搞乱了革命和生产。[“sì rén bāng” gǎo luàn le gé mìng hé shēng chǎn.]

(The “Gang of Four” disrupted the revolution and the production.)

In the previous examples, it is the resultant complement “好 [hǎo] (do well)” or “乱 [luàn] (disrupt)” rather than the verb “搞 [gǎo] (do)” that decides the sentence's meaning. In other words, the relation between the verb-complement phrase and the object is emphasized but not the relation between the object and the verb.

Example 60 打倒反动派。[dǎ dào fǎn dòng pài.]

(To overthrow the reactionaries.)

Here, the result of overthrowing reactionaries is emphasized but not “overthrowing” itself.

In addition, whether the resultant complement takes an object or not also depends on where the verb-complement stands in successive utterances. In other words, the rules of Chinese discourse decide the position of the verb-complement: standing in the position of the object; in a “把 [bǎ]” sentence; or standing at the head of a sentence.

Example 61 他修理好了那辆自行车。[tā xiū lǐ hǎo le nà liàng zì xíng chē.]
(He fixed the bike.) (in the position of object)

他把那辆自行车修理好了。[tā bǎ nà liàng zì xíng chē xiū lǐ hǎo le.]
(He fixed the bike.) (in “把 [bǎ]” sentence)

那辆自行车他修理好了。[nà liàng zì xíng chē tā xiū lǐ hǎo le.]
(He fixed the bike.) (at the head of sentence)

- 4 The detailed description about “了 [le]” after the complement is in Chapter 5, Section Two, Part IV

IV. Adjectives and verbs functioning as resultant complements

Only adjectives and verbs can function as resultant complements. Adjectives as resultant complements are very popular in the spoken language, no matter if it is for monosyllabic or disyllabic adjectives. Comparatively speaking, only a few verbs have such a function and they are as follows.

见 [jiàn] (see), 成 [chéng] (accomplish), 懂 [dǒng] (understand), 走 [zǒu] (walk), 跑 [pǎo] (run), 哭 [kū] (cry), 笑 [xiào] (laugh), 往 [wǎng] (go), 掉 [diào] (fall), 着 [zhe] (fall), 倒 [dào] (turn), 翻 [fān] (fall), 倒 [dào] (turn), 作 [zuò] (do), 为 [wèi] (do), 死 [sǐ] (die), 透 [tòu] (penetrate), 丢 [diū] (throw), 到 [dào] (arrive), 在 [zài] (be), 给 [gěi] (give).

These verbs don't indicate active or concrete actions. Instead, they indicate passive actions conveyed by predicate verbs.

Example 62 他把妹妹气哭了。[tā bǎ mèi mei qì kū le.]
(He made his sister cry.)

Example 63 我把桌子上的东西碰掉了。[wǒ bǎ zhuō zi shàng de dōng xi pèng diào le.]
(I knocked off the stuff from the table by mistake.)

Example 64 你怎么把他推倒了。[nǐ zěn me bǎ tā tuī dǎo le.]
(Why did you push him over?)

In these examples, the resultant complements “哭 [kū] (cry),” “掉 [diào] (off),” “倒 [dào] (over)” indicate a certain passive action respectively.

Example 65 由于孩子气妈妈，结果妈妈打了孩子。[yóu yú hái zǐ qì mā ma, jié guǒ mā ma dǎ le hái zǐ.]
(The mother hit her child because the child made her angry.)

This example conveys an active action so no resultant complement is needed here.

Some verbs will change their lexical meanings when functioning as resultant complements. The discussions on them are as follows.

1 见 [jiàn]

“见 [jiàn]” basically indicates the result of “seeing.” It usually comes after verbs about perception, including “看 [kàn] (look),” “瞧 [qiáo] (look),” “瞅 [chǒu] (look at),” “望 [wàng] (look),” “听 [tīng] (listen),” “闻 [wén] (listen/smell),” to indicate an action result.

Example 66 孩子们看见我来了，都非常高兴。[hái zǐ men kàn jiàn wǒ lái le, dōu fēi cháng gāo xìng.]
(The children were very happy for me to come.)

Example 67 这种物体发出的声音太小，我听了半天也没听见。[zhè zhǒng wù tǐ fā chū de shēng yīn tài xiǎo, wǒ tīng le bàn tiān yě méi tīng jiàn.]
(This object makes too weak a sound to be heard, even if I tried my best.)

Example 68 一进门我就闻见一股香味。[yī jìn mén wǒ jiù wén jiàn yī gǔ xiāng wèi.]
(I caught a scent of fragrance as soon as I entered the door.)

Also, “见 [jiàn]” can function as the resultant complement after a verb, such as “遇 [yù] (meet),” “碰 [pèng] (meet),” “梦 [mèng] (dream).”

Example 69 你遇见老刘告诉他一声，今晚在家里等我。[nǐ yù jiàn lǎo liú gào sù tā yī shēng, jīn wǎn zài jiā lǐ děng wǒ.]
(If you meet Lao Liu, tell him to wait for me at home tonight.)

Example 70 我昨天梦见了我的一个老同学。[wǒ zuó tiān mèng jiàn le wǒ de yī gè lǎo tóng xué.]
(I dreamed about one of my old school friends yesterday.)

2 住 [zhù]

“住 [zhù]” indicates the position of a person or thing to be fixed by the predicate verb.

Example 71 他听了我的话立刻站住了。[tā tīng le wǒ de huà lì kè zhàn zhù le.]
(He stopped at once after hearing my words.)

Example 72 我紧紧握住老李的手。[wǒ jǐn jǐn wò zhù Lǎo Lǐ de shǒu.]
(I hold on to Lao Li's hand tightly.)

Example 73 门挡住了外面的灯光。[mén dǎng zhù le wài miàn de dēng guāng.]
(The door blocked out the light outside.)

Example 74 咱们可别叫他给吓住啊。[zán men kě bié jiào tā gěi xià zhù a.]
(We can't be scared by him.)

Example 75 这些生词我记住了。[zhè xiē shēng cí wǒ jì zhù le.]
(I have remembered these words.)

3 着 [zháo]

- (1) “着 [zháo]” indicates an achieved purpose conveyed by a predicate verb and it mainly appears in the spoken language.

Example 76 你说的那本书我借着了。[nǐ shuō de nà běn shū wǒ jiè zhe le.]
(I borrowed the book you mentioned.)

Example 77 这个谜语他没猜着。[zhè gè mí yǔ tā méi cāi zháo.]
(He failed to answer the riddle.)

In these examples, “着 [zháo]” should be pronounced with stress in the negative form but slightly (the light tone: 轻声 [qīng shēng]) in the affirmative form.

- (2) “着 [zháo]” indicates a certain undesirable result conveyed by some verbs or adjectives.

Example 78 这个孩子穿得太少，冻着了。[zhè gè hái zi chuān de tài shǎo, dòng zhe le.]
(The child was sick from the cold due to wearing few clothes.)

Example 79 你们休息一会儿，小心别累着。[nǐ men xiū xi yī huì er, xiǎo xīn bié lèi zhe.]
(Take a rest and don't get too tired.)

Similar verb phrases are as follows:

热着 [rè zhe] (hot), 捂着 [wǔ zhe] (covered), 饿着 [è zhe] (hungry), 撑着 [chēng zhe] (hold on), 烫着 [tàng zhe] (burn), 凉着 [liáng zhe] (cool), 吓着 [xià zhe] (scared).

Here, “着 [zhe]” is always pronounced slightly (the light tone).

- (3) “着 [zháo]” indicates “falling asleep.”

Example 80 他看着看着书，睡着了。[tā kàn zhe kàn zhe shū, shuì zháo le.]
(He fell asleep when reading a book.)

- (4) “着 [zháo]” indicates “burning.”

Example 81 他划着了火柴，点上了灯。[tā huá zhe le huǒ chái, diǎn shàng le dēng.]

(He struck a match to light the lamp.)

- (5) “着 [zháo]” indicates “should be or being qualified.”

Example 82 你不是我的老师，你管不着！[nǐ bú shì wǒ de lǎo shī, nǐ guǎn bù zháo!]

(You are not my teacher, and mind your own business.)

Example 83 你也不是我的上级，批评不着我！[nǐ yě bú shì wǒ de shàng jí, pī píng bù zháo wǒ!]

(You're not my superior, and you have no right to criticize me!)

“着 [zháo]” in the previous examples from 80 to 83 should be stressed in pronunciation.

4 好 [hǎo]

“好 [hǎo]” indicates the achieved result of an action.

Example 84 东郭先生把狼捆好，装进口袋里。[Dōng Guō xiān shēng bǎ láng kǔn hǎo, zhuāng jìn kǒu dai li.]

(Mr. Dong Guo tied the wolf and put it in his bag.)

Example 85 鲁班把所有的工具都修理好了。[Lǔ Bān bǎ suǒ yǒu de gōng jù dōu xiū lǐ hǎo le.]

(Lu Ban repaired all the tools.)

Example 86 要搞好安全生产，搞好环境保护。[yào gǎo hǎo ān quán shēng chǎn, gǎo hǎo huán jìng bǎo hù.]

(We must ensure production safety and environmental protection.)

Example 87 这篇文章写好了，交给你吧。[zhè piān wén zhāng xiě hǎo le, jiāo gěi nǐ ba.]

(This article has been finished, and now I give it to you.)

Example 88 饭做好了，开饭吧。[fàn zuò hǎo le, kāi fàn ba.]

(The meal is ready. Let's enjoy it.)

5 掉 [diào]

- (1) “掉 [diào]” indicates “fall off.”

Example 89 小心点儿，别把他的博士帽碰掉了。[xiǎo xīn diǎn er, bié bǎ tā de bó shì mào pèng diào le.]

(Be careful. Don't knock off his doctor's cap.)

- (2) “掉 [diào]” indicates “disappear.”

Example 90 我们要想办法吃掉敌人，否则就会被敌人吃掉。[wǒ men yào xiǎng bàn fǎ chī diào dí rén, fǒu zé jiù huì bèi dí rén chī diào.]
(We must find a way to defeat the enemy, otherwise we would be defeated by them.)

Example 91 这一段话是多余的，删掉吧。[zhè yī duàn huà shì duō yú de, shān diào ba.]
(This passage is redundant. Please delete it.)

Example 92 抓到他很不容易，你怎么让他跑掉了？[zhuā dào tā hěn bù róng yì, nǐ zěn me ràng tā pǎo diào le?]
(It was not easy to catch him. How could you let him run away?)

Example 93 很久没下雨了，坑里的水都蒸发掉了。[hěn jiǔ méi xià yǔ le, kēng lǐ de shuǐ dōu zhēng fā diào le.]
(It hasn't rained for a long time, so the water in the pit has evaporated.)

The similar examples about “掉 [diào]” are as follows:

卖掉 [mài diào] (sell), 丢掉 [diū diào] (throw), 忘掉 [wàng diào] (forget), 去掉 [qù diào] (get rid of), 除掉 [chú diào] (remove), 烧掉 [shāo diào] (burn), 消灭掉 [xiāo miè diào] (destroy), 走掉 [zǒu diào] (go away), 死掉 [sǐ diào] (dead), 溜掉 [liū diào] (slip off), 逃掉 [táo diào] (escape), 挥发掉 [huī fā diào] (volatile).

They are often used in the south of China.

6 在 [zài]

- (1) “在 [zài]” indicates a location conveyed by a predicate verb. The object of location is necessarily required.

Example 94 我坐在五排十一号。[wǒ zuò zài wǔ pái shí yī hào.]
(I sit on the seat of No. 11 in the fifth row.)

Example 95 你们把生词抄在本子上。[nǐ men bǎ shēng cí chāo zài běn zi shàng.]
(You copy the new words in the exercise books.)

Example 96 小王站在我面前。[Xiǎo Wáng zhàn zài wǒ miàn qián.]
(Xiao Wang stands in front of me.)

Example 97 问题出在计划性不强上。[wèn tí chū zài jì huà xìng bù qiáng shàng.]
(The problem is that it has not been well planned.)

- (2) “在 [zài]” indicates the occurrence of time.

Example 98 这个故事发生在古代。[zhè gè gù shi fā shēng zài gǔ dài.]
(This story happened in ancient times.)

Example 99 时间定在明天上午八点。[shí jiān dìng zài míng tiān shàng wǔ bā diǎn.]
(The time is set at 8 o'clock tomorrow morning.)

Section two: directional complements

Directional complements come after verbs and include two types, namely simple directional complements and compound directional complements. The former is formed by the verbs indicating certain directions and they are as follows:

来 [lái] (come), 去 [qù] (go), 上 [shàng] (up), 下 [xià] (down), 进 [jìn] (enter), 出 [chū] (out), 回 [chū] (back), 过 [guò] (over), 起 [qǐ] (start), 开 [kāi] (open), 到 [dào] (to).

The latter is formed by compound verb phrases and they are as follows:

上来 [shàng lái] (come up), 上去 [shàng qù] (go up), 下来 [xià lái] (come down), 下去 [xià qù] (go down), 进来 [jìn lái] (come in), 进去 [jìn qù] (go in), 出来 [chū lái] (come out), 出去 [chū qù] (go out), 回来 [huí lái] (come back), 回去 [huí qù] (go back), 过来 [guò lái] (come), 过去 [guò qù] (go), 起来 [qǐ lái] (stand up), 开来 [kāi lái] (drive come), 开去 [kāi qù] (drive go), 到...来 [dào... lái] (arrive), 到...去 [dào... qù] (go to).

In Chinese, there are 28 directional complements in total. Some directional complements can come after adjectives.

1. Grammatical meaning of directional complements

Generally speaking, directional complements are very complex in grammatical meaning because most of them possess a variety of meanings and only a few have one meaning. There are three types of meanings, namely directional meaning, resultant meaning, and state meaning.

1 Directional meaning

Directional meaning is the basic meaning conveyed by directional verbs themselves. Directional complement indicates the result of “moving.” For example, “来 [lái] (come)” indicates the action of “moving”; “去 [qù] (go)” means “moving” toward another destination. Similarly, “下 [xià] (go down)” indicates “moving” from a higher position to a lower position and “上 [shàng] (go up)” means a contrary direction. Among directional complements, there are many pairs of contrary meanings and they are as follows:

来 [lái] (come)/去 [qù] (go), 上 [shàng] (up)/下 [xià] (down), 上来 [shàng lái] (come up)/下来 [xià lái] (come down), 上去 [shàng qù] (go up)/下去 [xià qù] (go down)

qù) (go down), 进 [jìn] (enter)/出 [chū] (go out), 进来 [jìn lái] (come in)/出来 [chū lái] (go out), 进去 [jìn qù] (go into)/出去 [chū qù] (go out).

Now how to define the initial point of “moving” for simple directional complements, such as “来 [lái] (come),” “去 [qù] (go),” and compound ones consisting of “来 [lái] (come)” or “去 [qù] (go).”

- (1) The initial point refers to the position of the speaker or “I/we,” when the first personal pronoun is adopted in narration.

Example 1 他向我走过来。[tā xiàng wǒ zǒu guò lái.]
(He walked toward me.) (“I” as the position of the speaker)

Example 2 我向山上跑去。[wǒ xiàng shān shàng pǎo qù.]
(I ran up the mountain.) (“I” as the position of the speaker)

Example 3 昨天我们上口语课，铃还没响，老师就进教室来了。[zuó tiān wǒ men shàng kǒu yǔ kè, líng hái méi xiǎng, lǎo shī jiù jìn jiào shì lái le.]
(Yesterday our oral English teacher came in before the bell rang.) (“我们 [wǒ men] (we)” as the position of the speaker)

- (2) The initial point may refer to the position of the person or thing narrated by the third personal pronoun.

Example 4 小张忽然昏倒在地上，大家急忙向他跑过来。[Xiǎo Zhāng hū rán hūn dǎo zài dì shàng, dà jiā jí máng xiàng tā pǎo guò lái.]
(Xiao Zhang suddenly fell down in a faint, and everyone rushed to him.)
(the position of “Xiao Zhang” as the initial point)

Example 5 看见张大夫，他急忙跑了过去。[kàn jiàn Zhāng dài fu, tā jí máng pǎo le guò qù.]
(When he saw Dr. Zhang, he ran to him in a hurry.) (the original position of “he” as the initial point)

When “来 [lái] (come)” and “去 [qù] (go)” function as directional complements, they imply the action with the definite target. “来 [lái] (come)” indicates the target of action itself.

Example 6 车上的人都向他跑来。
(All the people got out of the car and ran to him.)

In this example, “他 [tā] (he)” is the target of “running.”

“去 [qù] (go)” indicates that the target is away from the speaker, often accompanied with adverbials, such as “朝 [cháo] (toward),” “向 [xiàng] (toward).”

Example 7 狼向东郭先生扑去。[láng xiàng Dōng Guō xiān shēng pū qù.]
(The wolf pounced on Mr. Dong Guo.)

In this example, “东郭先生 [Dōng Guō xiān shēng] (Mr. Dong Guo)” is the target of “pouncing on.”

- (3) The initial point may refer to a certain location to be described or for the ongoing action.

Example 8 为了叫井冈山变得更快，国家派来了两千好儿女，同井冈山人一起来开发这座万宝山。[wèi le jiào jǐng gāng shān biàn de gèng kuài, guó jiā pài lái le liǎng qiān hǎo ér nǚ, tóng jǐng gāng shān rén yī qǐ lái kāi fā zhè wàn bǎo shān.]

(In order to make Jing Gang Mountains develop faster, our government sent two thousand capable volunteers to develop this area with local citizens together.) (“井冈山 [jǐng gāng shān] (Jing Gang Mountains)” as the initial point)

Example 9 会场里坐了不少人，这时还不断有人进来。[huì chǎng lǐ zuò le bù shǎo rén, zhè shí hái bù duàn yǒu rén jìn lái.]

(The meeting hall is full of many people, and more and more are still crowding in.) (“会场 [huì chǎng] (the meeting hall)” as the initial point)

2 Resultant meaning

Sometimes, directional complements don't indicate direction but the result or the achieved target of an action. Most directional complements are of resultant meanings and some of them are of more than one. Usually, resultant meanings can be divided into two types. One is the basic resultant meaning, which is very close to the directional meaning. In other words, they are the same if the directional complement only carries one resultant meaning. The other is the non-basic resultant meaning. For those directional complements of contrary meanings, their resultant meanings are contrary as well.

3 State meaning

Compared to resultant meaning, state meaning is more grammaticalized, indicating a continuous process of an action or a state from space to time. Its grammaticalization makes itself classified into the dynamic auxiliary words in some grammar books. Actually, some directional complements still keep their state meanings, such as “上 [shàng] (up),” “下 [xià] (down),” “下来 [xià lái] (come down),” “下去 [xià qù] (go down),” “起 [qǐ] (rise),” “起来 [qǐ lái] (stand up),” “开 [kāi] (open).”

State meanings are also related to directional meanings; that is to say, if the latter carries contrary meanings, so does the former.

II. Meanings of each directional complement

Only the common meanings are discussed here.

1 来 [lái] (come)

Its directional meaning indicates “moving” towards the initial point.

Example 10 忽然一条小狗向我跑来。[hū rán yī tiáo xiǎo gǒu xiàng wǒ pǎo lái.]
(Suddenly a puppy ran to me.)

Example 11 会场已经坐满了人，可是还不时有人进来。[huì chǎng yǐ jīng zuò mǎn le rén, kě shì hái bù shí yǒu rén jìn lái.]
(The meeting hall is full of people, and more and more are still crowding in.)

Example 12 一天，老师傅把鲁班叫来，说：“你该下山了。”[yī tiān, lǎo shī fu bǎ Lǔ bān jiào lái, shuō: “nǐ gāi xià shān le.”]
(One day, the old master worker asked Luban to come and said: “It’s time for you to go down the mountain.”)

Example 13 欧阳海受了重伤，车上的人都向他跑来。[Ōu yáng Hǎi shòu le zhòng shāng, chē shàng de rén dōu xiàng tā pǎo lái.]
(Ouyang Hai was seriously injured, and all the people got out of the car and ran to him.)

2 去 [qù] (go)

Its directional meaning indicates “moving” away from the initial point to another target.

Example 14 谢利说我的字典夏西借去了。[Xiè lì shuō wǒ de zì diǎn Xià xī jiè qù le.]
(Shirley told me that my dictionary was borrowed by Shashi.)

Example 15 “让我把你吃了吧！”狼说着就向东郭先生扑去。[“ràng wǒ bǎ nǐ chī le ba!” láng shuō zhe jiù xiàng Dōng Guō xiān shēng pū qù.]
(“Let me eat you!” the wolf said and pounced on Mr. Dong Guo.)

Example 16 他朝图书馆的方向走去。[tā cháo tú shū guǎn de fāng xiàng zǒu qù.]
(He walked toward the library.)

Example 17

A: 喂，明天你能回来一下吗？[wèi, míng tiān nǐ néng huí lái yī xià ma?]
(Hello, can you come back tomorrow?)

B: 能回来，你在家等我吧。[néng huí lái, nǐ zài jiā děng wǒ ba.]
(Yes, I can. Wait for me at home.)

3 上 [shàng] (up)

(1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from a lower position to a higher position by a certain action, without any definite initial point.

Example 18 龙梅把羊赶上山。[Lóng Méi bǎ yáng gǎn shàng shān.]
(Long Mei drove the sheep up the mountain.)

In this example, the initial point cannot be defined and it may refer to “on the mountain” or “at the foot of the mountain.” The same is true of the following example.

Example 19 气球慢慢飞上天空。[qì qiú màn màn fēi shàng tiān kōng.]
(The balloon slowly rose to the sky.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” towards the initial point by a certain action.

Example 20 老王叫我，我就快步走上前问他有什么事。[Lǎo Wáng jiào wǒ, wǒ jiù kuài bù zǒu shàng qián wèn tā yǒu shén me shì.]
(When Lao Wang called me, I quickly stepped forward to ask him what he wanted.)

- (3) Its basic resultant meaning refers to “touching, attaching, or even fastening.”

Example 21 请你把门关上。[qǐng nǐ bǎ mén guān shàng.]
(Please close the door.)

Example 22 我用一块布把电视机蒙上了。[wǒ yòng yī kuài bù bǎ diàn shì jī méng shàng le.]
(I covered the TV with a piece of cloth.)

Example 23 去年我出差到重庆，正赶上八月十五。[qù nián wǒ chū chāi dào chóng qing, zhèng gǎn shàng bā yuè shí wǔ.]
(I went to Chongqing on business last year, and it happened to be August 15.)

Example 24 今天外边很冷，把大衣穿上吧。[jīn tiān wài biān hěn lěng, bǎ dà yī chuān shàng ba.]
(It's cold outside today, so put on the coat.)

Example 25 请在卡片上写上你的名字。[qǐng zài kǎ piàn shàng xiě shàng nǐ de míng zì.]
(Please write down your name on the card.)

- (4) Its resultant meaning refers to achievement of the desirable target.

Example 26 他终于买上了他喜欢的汽车。[tā zhōng yú mǎi shàng le tā xǐ huān de qì chē.]
(He finally bought the car he liked.)

Example 27 我弟弟去年好不容易考上了大学。[wǒ dì dì qù nián hǎo bù róng yì kǎo shàng le dà xué.]
(My younger brother finally got into college last year.)

Example 28 这个村子的居民去年才用上水。[zhè gè cūn zi de jū mǐn qù nián cái yòng shàng shuǐ.]

(Tap water was just available to the residents of this village last year.)

Example 29 他借了很多钱，一直还不上。[tā jiè le hěn duō qián, yì zhí huán bú shàng.]

(He borrowed a lot of money but never paid it back.)

“上 [shàng] (up)” is common in the spoken language.

- (5) Its state meaning refers to the beginning of an action or state.

Example 30 老师刚说了一句话，学生们就议论上了。[lǎo shī gāng shuō le yī jù huà, xué shēng men jiù yì lùn shàng le.]

(When the teacher just spoke, the students interrupted her and began to discuss.)

Example 31 小明，我叫你睡觉，你怎么又唱上了。[Xiǎo Míng, wǒ jiào nǐ shuì jiào, nǐ zěn me yòu chàng shàng le.]

(Xiao Ming, I told you to sleep, and why do you start to sing again?)

Example 32 这个孩子时间抓得很紧，刚下课回到家，又用上功了。[zhè gè hái zi shí jiān zhuā de hěn jǐn, gāng xià kè huí dào jiā, yòu yòng shàng gōng le.]

(This child was very strict with time. When he returned home, he immediately started his learning immediately.)

Example 33 你不是在上学吗，怎么做上生意了？[nǐ bú shì zài shàng xué ma, zěn me zuò shàng shēng yì le?]

(You're supposed to be in school. Why are you doing business now?)

4 上来 [shàng lái] (come up)

- (1) Its directional meaning is similar to that of “上 [shàng] (up),” indicating “moving” from a lower position to a higher position as the initial point.

Example 34 这时我看见山下的人很快地跑上山来。[zhè shí wǒ kàn jiàn shān xià de rén hěn kuài de pǎo shàng shān lái.]

(Then I saw the people running up the mountain quickly.)

Example 35 他在电话里说：“快点上楼来！”[tā zài diàn huà lǐ shuō: “kuài diǎn shàng lóu lái!”]

(He said on the phone: “Come upstairs quickly!”)

Example 36 喂，你给我带上一杯茶来。[wèi, nǐ gěi wǒ dài shàng yī bēi chá lái.]

(Hey, come upstairs to bring me a cup of tea.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” towards the speaker.

Example 37 比赛在激烈的进行，我们队打得不太好，这时教练把队长换上场来。[bǐ sài zài jī liè de jìn xíng, wǒ men duì dǎ dé bú tài hǎo, zhè shí jiào liàn bǎ duì zhǎng huàn shàng chǎng lái.]

(The match was ongoing. Considering our poor performance, the coach decided to let the team leader substitute in.)

Example 38 他走上前来，悄悄对我说：“你要注意旁边那个人！”[tā zǒu shàng qián lái, qiāo qiāo duì wǒ shuō: “nǐ yào zhùyì páng biān nà gè rén!”]
(He came up and whispered to me: “You should keep an eye open for the person next to you!”)

- (3) Its basic resultant meaning is to touch, attach, or fasten something to the main part or the entirety of an object.

Example 39 这个名单上的人不够，能不能再补上来几个？[zhè gè míng dān shàng de rén bú gòu, néng bù néng zài bǔ shàng lái jǐ gè?]

(There are not enough names on this list, and can you fill in more?)

Here, “上 [shàng] (up)” is more popular than “上来 [shàng lái] (come up)” in use.

- (4) Its resultant meaning refers to the successful accomplishment, which is often conveyed by the complement of possibility.

Example 40 这个问题太难，我答不上来。[zhè gè wèn tí tài nán, wǒ dá bú shàng lái.]

(This question is too difficult for me to answer.)

Example 41 我刚认识他不久，还叫不上他的名字来。[wǒ gāng rèn shí tā bù jiǔ, hái jiào bú shàng tā de míng zì lái.]

(I don't remember his name because I have just met him.)

Example 42 你家在哪儿？我可说不上来。[nǐ jiā zài nǎ er? wǒ kě shuō bú shàng lái.]

(I have no idea where your house is.)

5 上去 [shàng qù] (go up)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from a lower position as the initial point to a higher position by an action.

Example 43 听见楼上“嘭”的一声，我赶紧跑上楼去。[tīng jiàn lóu shàng “pēng” de yī shēng, wǒ gǎn jǐn pǎo shàng lóu qù.]

(Hearing a “bang” upstairs, I went upstairs quickly.)

Example 44 我看见一个孩子很快地爬上树去。[wǒ kàn jiàn yī gè hái zǐ hěn kuài de pá shàng shù qù.]

(I saw a child climbing up the tree quickly.)

Example 45 他在楼上等着呢，你快把文件给他送上去。[tā zài lóu shàng děng zhe ne, nǐ kuài bǎ wén jiàn gěi tā sòng shàng qù.]
(He is waiting for you upstairs. Go upstairs and give him the papers.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” away from the initial point to another place by an action.

Example 46 佣人听见主人叫他，他很快地走上前去问主人有什么事。[yòng rén tīng jiàn zhǔ rén jiào tā, tā hěn kuài de zǒu shàng qián qù wèn zhǔ rén yǒu shén me shì.]

(When hearing he was called by the master, the servant quickly stepped forward to ask him about what he could do.)

Example 47 一个电影明星来了，我看见很多孩子围了上去。[yī gè diàn yǐng míng xīng lái le, wǒ kàn jiàn hěn duō hái zǐ wéi le shàng qù.]

(When a movie star showed up, I saw a lot of children gathering around him.)

- (3) Its basic resultant meaning shows a secondary part of an object to be touched, attached, and even fastened by an action.

Example 48 这幅画儿很好看，你挂上去吧。[zhè fú huà er hěn hǎo kàn, nǐ guà shàng qù ba.]

(This picture is very nice, and please hang it up.) (focus on “wall”)

Example 49 我也报名，请你把我的名字写上去。[wǒ yě bào míng, qǐng nǐ bǎ wǒ de míng zi xiě shàng qù.]

(I’ll sign up too, and please write down my name on it.) (focus on “it”)

Example 50 那根绳子太短，把这根接上去。[nà gēn shéng zi tài duǎn, bǎ zhè gēn jiē shàng qù.]

(That rope is too short so connect it with this one.) (focus on “that rope”)

Example 51 屋子里灰尘太大，电视机容易脏，把这块布蒙上去。[wū zi lǐ huī chén tài dà, diàn shì jī róng yì zāng, bǎ zhè kuài bù méng shàng qù.]

(The house is so dusty that the TV will easily be damaged. Cover it with this piece of cloth.) (focus on “the cloth”)

The basic resultant meaning of “上 [shàng] (up)” is the same as that of “上来 [shàng lái] (come up)” or “上去 [shàng qù] (go up),” but if the focus is unclear, “上 [shàng] (up)” is more frequently used, compared to the other two.

6 下 [xià]

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from a higher position to a lower position by an action.

Example 52 手放下吧。[shǒu fàng xià ba.]

(Put your hands down.)

Example 53 听见有人叫我，我很快走下楼。[tīng jiàn yǒu rén jiào wǒ, wǒ hěn kuài zǒu xià lóu.]

(Hearing someone calling me, I quickly went downstairs.)

Pay attention to the following two examples.

Example 54 孩子看见我，高兴地跳下床。[hái zi kàn jiàn wǒ, gāo xìng de tiào xià chuáng.]

(The child saw me and jumped off from the bed happily.)

Example 55 孩子看见我，高兴地跳下地。[hái zi kàn jiàn wǒ, gāo xìng de tiào xià dì.]

(The child jumped down happily when he saw me.)

Actually, these two examples are the same in meaning. Differently, the locational words “床 [chuáng] (bed)” and “地 [dì] (ground)” after “下 [xià] (down)” indicate the initial point and the finishing point of an action respectively. Thus it can be seen that when a location is higher than the horizon, it can be considered as the initial point; when it is equal to or lower than the horizon, it can be considered as the finishing point.

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” away from the initial point by an action.

Example 56 服务员端下一盘菜倒掉了。[fú wù yuán duān xià yī pán cài dào diào le.]

(The waiter took a dish away and emptied it.)

- (3) Its resultant meaning shows “separating” so as to be fastened.

Example 57 他放下手术刀，脱下白大褂，走了出去。[tā fàng xià shǒu shù dāo, tuō xià bái dà guà, zǒu le chū qù.]

(He put down the scalpel, took off his doctor’s coat, and went out.)

Example 58 孩子们采下一束野花，送给老师。[hái zǐ men cǎi xià yī shù yě huā, sòng gěi lǎo shī.]

(The children picked a bunch of wild flowers and gave them to the teacher.)

Example 59 她生下孩子以后，精神好了一些。[tā shēng xià hái zi yǐ hòu, jīng shén hǎo le yī xiē.]

(She began to feel better after giving birth to her baby.)

Example 60 结婚的日子已经定下了，可是他还决定不了是不是要跟她结婚。[jié hūn de rì zi yǐ jīng dìng xià le, kě shì tā hái jué dìng bù liǎo shì bú shì yào gēn tā jié hūn.]

(The date of marriage has been set, but he hasn’t decided whether to marry her or not.)

- (4) Its resultant meaning shows “sunken.”

Example 61 他很瘦，脸颊陷下两个坑。[tā hěn shòu, liǎn jiá xiàn xià liǎng gè kēng.]

(He was thin and had two sunken cheeks.)

- (5) Its resultant meaning shows “hold.”

Example 62 我的钱包很小，装不下那么多钱。[wǒ de qián bāo hěn xiǎo, zhuāng bú xià nà me duō qián.]

(My wallet is too small to hold so much money.)

Example 63 这间屋子坐不下一百个人。[zhè jiān wū zi zuò bú xià yī bǎi gè rén.]

(This room can't hold a hundred people.)

Example 64 他心里搁不下事儿，老是坐立不安的。[tā xīn lǐ gē bú xià shì er, lǎo shì zuò lì bù ān de.]

(He couldn't bear anything in the mind so he was always restless.)

- (6) Its state meaning refers to a changing state from a dynamic condition to a static condition.

Example 65 我一喊，他就停下了。[wǒ yī hǎn, tā jiù tíng xià le.]

(As soon as I shouted, he stopped.)

Example 66 这几天我刚定下心写论文，你又来打扰我。[zhè jǐ tiān wǒ gāng dìng xià xīn xiě lùn wén, nǐ yòu lái dǎ rǎo wǒ.]

(I just decided to write my thesis these days, but you came to disturb me again.)

Example 67 大家对你这么好，你怎么老也安不下心呢？[dà jiā duì nǐ zhè me hǎo, nǐ zěn me lǎo yě ān bú xià xīn ne.]

(Everyone is so good to you, so why do you still feel restless?)

Here, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” is more commonly used than “下 [xià] (down).”

7 下来 [xià lái] (come down)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from a higher position to a lower position as the initial point by an action.

Example 68

A: 你快跑下来，有人急着找你。[nǐ kuài pǎo xià lái, yǒu rén jí zhe zhǎo nǐ.]
(Run downstairs quickly. Someone is looking for you.)

B: 好，我就下去。[hǎo, wǒ jiù xià qù.]

(O.K., I go downstairs now.)

Example 69 我看见乘客们从飞机上走下来了。[wǒ kàn jiàn chéng kè men cóng fēi jī shàng zǒu xià lái le.]

(I saw the passengers getting off the plane.)

Example 70 我从楼上搬下来几把椅子。[wǒ cóng lóu shàng bān xià lái jǐ bǎ yǐ zi.]

(I fetched some chairs from upstairs.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” away from the initial point by an action.

Example 71 我向司令汇报完军情，退下来一步，转身走出司令部。[wǒ xiàng sī lǐng huì bào wán jūn qíng, tuì xià lái yī bù, zhuǎn shēn zǒu chū sī lǐng bù.]

(Having reported the military situation to the commander, I stepped back and turned around to walk out of the command.)

Example 72 教练看他太累了，把他换下场来。[jiào liàn kàn tā tài lèi le, bǎ tā huàn xià chǎng lái.]

(Seeing he was too tired, the coach substituted him out.)

- (3) Its resultant meaning shows “separating” so as to be fastened, focusing on the secondary part of an object.

Example 73 我很喜欢墙上那幅画，你摘下来给我吧。[wǒ hěn xǐ huān qiáng shàng nà fú huà, nǐ zhāi xià lái gěi wǒ ba.]

(I really like the picture on the wall, so could you take it off and give it to me?)

Example 74 我想记一个电话号码，你从本子上撕下一张纸来给我好吗？[wǒ xiǎng jì yī gè diàn huà hào mǎ, nǐ cóng běn zi shàng sī xià yī zhāng zhǐ lái gěi wǒ hǎo ma?]

(I want to record a phone number. Will you tear off a piece of paper from the notebook and give it to me?)

Example 75 我用力从地里拔下来一个萝卜。[wǒ yòng lì cóng dì lǐ bá xià lái yī gè luó bo.]

(I tried my best to pull out a radish from the ground.)

Example 76 你别走了，留下来跟我们一起工作吧。[nǐ bié zǒu le, liú xià lái lái gēn wǒ men yī qǐ gōng zuò ba.]

(Don't leave, stay here and work with us.)

Example 77 请你把黑板上的句子抄下来。[qǐng nǐ bǎ hēi bǎn shàng de jù zi chāo xià lái.]

(Please copy the sentence on the blackboard.)

- (4) Its resultant meaning shows “sunken,” which is as same as that of “下 [xià] (down).”

Example 78 几天不吃饭，他就瘦下来了。[jǐ tiān bù chī fàn, tā jiù shòu xià lái le.]

(He began to lose weight after eating nothing for a few days.)

Example 79 车带瘪下来了，该打气了。[chē dài biě xià lái le, gāi dǎ qì le.]
(The tires are flat and need pumping up.)

- (5) Its resultant meaning shows an accomplishment of an energy-consuming and time-consuming action.

Example 80 一天的重体力劳动干下来，身体好像散了一样，一步也不想走了。[yī tiān de zhòng tǐ lì láo dòng gàn xià lái, shēn tǐ hǎo xiàng sǎn le yī yàng, yī bù yě bù xiǎng zǒu le.]

(After a day of heavy physical labor, he was totally exhausted and didn't want to move even one step.)

Example 81 三年中文学下来，他的进步是明显的。[sān nián zhōng wén xué xià lái, tā de jìn bù shì míng xiǎn de.]

(After three years of learning Chinese, he has made great progress.)

If the context is clear, the verb before “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” can be absent and “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” follows the time word directly.

Example 82 一年下来，他完全习惯了。[yī nián xià lái, tā wán quán xí guàn le.]

(After one year, he was completely used to it.)

- (6) Its state meaning indicates a changing state from the dynamic condition to the static condition. Here, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” is more commonly used than “下 [xià] (down).”

Example 83 汽车开到我家门口，停了下来。[qì chē kāi dào wǒ jiā mén kǒu, tíng le xià lái.]

(The car came to a stop in front of my door.)

Example 84 你应该定下心来好好念书。[nǐ yīng gāi dìng xià xīn lái hǎo hǎo niàn shū.]

(You should settle down and study hard.)

Example 85 大厅忽然静了下来，原来贵宾到了。[dà tīng hū rán jìng le xià lái, yuán lái guì bīn dào le.]

(The hall suddenly fell silent and the distinguished guest arrived.)

Example 86 天渐渐黑下来了。[tiān jiàn jiàn hēi xià lái le.]

(It was getting dark.)

Example 87 火车慢下来了，原来要进站了。[huǒ chē màn xià lái le, yuán lái yào jìn zhàn le.]

(The train slowed down because it was about to draw up at the station.)

Usually, some negative adjectives can be combined with “下来 [xià lái] (come down),” such as “暗 [àn] (dark),” “静 [jìng] (quiet),” “低 [dī] (low).”

8 下去 [xià qù]

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from a lower position to a higher position as the initial point of an action.

Example 88 楼下的孩子们打起来了，他很快地跑下楼去。[lóu xià de hái zǐ men dǎ qǐ lái le, tā hěn kuài de pǎo xià lóu qù.]

(The children downstairs started to fight, and he quickly ran downstairs.)

Example 89 我叫小王给山下的人带下去一些水果。[wǒ jiào Xiǎo Wáng gěi shān xià de rén dài xià qù yī xiē shuǐ guǒ.]

(I asked Xiao Wang to bring some fruits to the people at the foot of the mountain.)

Example 90 这些家具没有用了，你搬下楼去吧。[zhè xiē jiā jù méi yǒu yòng le, nǐ bān xià lóu qù ba.]

(These pieces of furniture are useless, so move them downstairs.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” away by an action from the initial point where the speaker stands.

Example 91 把没有吃完的饭菜撤下去吧。[bǎ méi yǒu chī wán de fàn cài chè xià qù ba.]

(To take the rest food away.)

Example 92 场上的裁判把他罚下场去。[chǎng shàng de cái pàn bǎ tā fá xià chǎng qù.]

(The referee on the court sent him off the court.)

- (3) Its resultant meaning shows “separating” so as to be fastened, focusing on a main part of an object or its entirety.

Example 93 墙上挂那幅画不好看，摘下去吧。[qiáng shàng guà nà fú huà bù hǎo kàn, zhāi xià qù ba.]

(It doesn't look nice with that picture on the wall. Take it off.) (focus on the “wall”)

Example 94 写错了，他生气地把那张纸从本子上撕下去！[xiě cuò le, tā shēng qì de bǎ nà zhāng zhǐ cóng běn zi shàng sī xià qù!]

(Due to the wrong spelling, he angrily tore the piece of paper off the notebook.) (focus on “the notebook”)

Therefore, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” is for what is to be kept; “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” is for what is to be abandoned in the previous examples. Here are more similar examples.

Example 95 下课了，学生把黑板上的字擦下去了。[xià kè le, xué shēng bǎ hēi bǎn shàng de zì cā xià qù le.]

(After class, the students erased the words on the blackboard.)

Example 96 把这个杈掰下去，这盆花就会长得好一点。[bǎ zhè gè chā bāi xià qù, zhè pén huā jiù huì zhǎng de hǎo yī diǎn.]

(Break off this branch and the potted flower will grow better.)

Example 97 他的声音真大，把大家的声音都压下去了，会场上一下子安静下来。[tā de shēng yīn zhēn dà, bǎ dà jiā de shēng yīn dōu yā xià qù le, huì chǎng shàng yī xià zi ān jìng xià lái.]

(His voice was so loud that he silenced everyone in the meeting hall.)

- (4) Its resultant meaning shows “sunken,” which is more frequently used than “下 [xià] (down)” and “下来 [xià lái] (come down).”

Example 98 眼看他一天天瘦下去了，可是医生一点办法也没有。[yǎn kàn tā yī tiān tiān shòu xià qù le, kě shì yī shēng yī diǎn bàn fǎ yě méi yǒu.]

(He was losing weight day by day, but the doctor could do nothing about it.)

Example 99 几天不睡觉，他眼窝陷下去了，眼睛显得更大了。[jǐ tiān bú shuì jiào, tā yǎn wō xiàn xià qù le, yǎn jīng xiǎn de gèng dà le.]

(After a few days of missing sleep, he got sunken eyes, which made his eyes seem bigger than usual.)

Example 100 汽车被撞得凹下去一块。[qì chē bèi zhuàng de āo xià qù yī kuài.]

(There was a dent in the car because of a collision.)

- (5) Its state meaning refers to a changing state from the dynamic condition to the static condition.

Example 101 听了这句话，他的眼光黯淡下去了。[tīng le zhè jù huà, tā de yǎn guāng àn dàn xià qù le.]

(His eyes dimmed at the words.)

Example 102 他一度低沉下去的勇气陡然增加了。[tā yī dù dī chén xià qù de yǒng qì dǒu rán zēng jiā le.]

(His courage, once depressed, became worse suddenly.)

Here is a comparison between “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” and “下来 [xià lái] (come down).” First, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” can connect “停 [tíng] (stop),” “站 [zhàn] (stand)” but “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” cannot. Second, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” can connect more adjectives than “下去 [xià qù] (go down).” For instance, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” can connect the adjectives for speed, attitude, and tone of speaking but “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” cannot. Third, “下来 [xià lái] (come down)” usually shows the changes at present or nearby but “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” is for the changes in the distance.

Example 103 教室里静下来了, 老师才开始讲课。[jiào shì lǐ jìng xià lái le, lǎo shī cái kāi shǐ jiǎng kè.]

(When the classroom got quiet the teacher began to lecture.)

Example 104 我想听听隔壁吵什么, 可是争吵声渐渐低下去了, 我听不清楚。[wǒ xiǎng tīng tīng gé bì chǎo shēn me, kě shì zhēng chǎo shēng jiàn jiàn dī xià qù le, wǒ tīng bù qīng chǔ.]

(I wanted to know what the quarrel was about in the next room, but it died down gradually and I couldn't hear it clearly.)

- (6) Its state meaning refers to an ongoing state or the existence of a state, which may be conveyed by the complement of possibility.

Example 105 说下去! [shuō xià qù!]

(Go on!)

Example 106 我要是再在这儿住下去, 非得憋死不可。[wǒ yào shì zài zài zhè er zhù xià qù, fēi děi biē sǐ bù kě.]

(If I lived here any longer, I would suffocate to death.)

Example 107 我们不能再沉默下去了, 我们要抗争! [wǒ men bù néng zài chén mò xià qù le, wǒ men yào kàng zhēng!]

(We cannot stay silent anymore; we must fight!)

Example 108 他的话毫无道理, 我再也听不下去了。[tā de huà háo wú dào lǐ, wǒ zài yě tīng bú xià qù le.]

(There is no reason for what he said. So I don't want to listen to it anymore.)

Here, the meaning of “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” is more dynamic and more popular in use.

9 进 [jìn] (enter)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the outside to the inside by an action.

Example 109 上课了, 学生们走进教室。[shàng kè le, xué shēng men zǒu jìn jiào shì.]

(When the class began, the students came into the classroom.)

Example 110 我眼看着那只美丽的小鸟飞进了树林。[wǒ yǎn kàn zhe nà zhī měi lì de xiǎo niǎo fēi jìn le shù lín.]

(I watched the beautiful bird fly into the woods.)

- (2) Its resultant meaning indicates “sunken.”

Example 111 墙上凹进一块, 很显眼。[qiáng shàng āo jìn yī kuài, hěn xiǎn yǎn.]

(There is a noticeable dent in the wall.)

116 *Complements*

Example 112 他的额头瘪进一块。[tā de é tóu biě jìn yī kuài.]
(There was a dent in his forehead.)

10 进来 [jìn lái] (come in)

Its directional meaning indicates “moving” by an action from the outside to the inside as the initial point).

Example 113 孩子们，外边太冷，你们进来吧。[hái zi men, wài biān tài lěng, nǐ men jìn lái ba.]
(Kids, it’s too cold outside. Come in.)

Example 114 上课了，学生们走进教室来。[shàng kè le, xué shēng men zǒu jìn jiào shì lái.]
(When the class began, the students came into the classroom.)

11 进去 [jìn qù] (go in)

(1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the outside as the initial point to the inside.

Example 115 有事咱们进屋去说吧。[yǒu shì zán men jìn wū qù shuō ba.]
(Let’s go into the house and have a discussion on it.)

Example 116 刚才我看见两个人进商店里去了。[gāng cái wǒ kàn jiàn liǎng gè rén jìn shāng diàn lǐ qù le.]
(I saw two men go into the shop just now.)

(2) Its resultant meaning indicates “sunken.”

Example 117 她满脸皱纹，眼睛深深地凹进去。[tā mǎn liǎn zhòu wén, yǎn jīng shēn shēn de āo jìn qù.]
(Her face was wrinkled and her eyes were deeply sunken.)

Example 118 他满脸胡子，太阳穴和腮都瘪进去了。[tā mǎn liǎn hú zi, tài yáng xué hé sāi dōu biě jìn qù le.]
(He had a full beard, and his temples and cheeks were sunken.)

12 出 [chū] (out)

(1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the inside to the outside by an action.

Example 119 听了他的话，妹妹哭着跑出家门。[tīng le tā de huà, mèi mei kū zhe pǎo chū jiā mén.]
(After hearing his words, my sister cried and ran out of the house.)

Example 120 放学了，孩子们排着队走出了校门。[fàng xué le, hái zi men pái zhe duì zǒu chū le xiào mén.]
(When the school was over, the children lined up and walked out of the school gate.)

- (2) Its resultant meaning refers to a changing result from unclearness/invisible to clearness/visible.

Example 121 那件事你想出什么办法没有? [nà jiàn shì nǐ xiǎng chū shén me bàn fǎ méi yǒu?]

(Have you come up with anything about that?)

Example 122 从字典里我查出这个字的发音和意思了,可是还不知道怎么用。[cóng zì diǎn lǐ wǒ chá chū zhè gè zì de fā yīn hé yì si le, kě shì hái bù zhī dào zěn me yòng.]

(I consulted the dictionary about its pronunciation and meaning, but I still don't know how to use this word.)

Example 123 你听出这是谁的声音了吗? [nǐ tīng chū zhè shì shuí de shēng yīn le ma?]

(Did you figure out whose voice it is?)

Example 124 这所大学多年来培养出成千上万的人才。[zhè suǒ dà xué duō nián lái péi yǎng chū chéng qiān shàng wàn de rén cái.]

(The university has trained thousands of talents over the years.)

13 出来 [chū lái] (come out)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the inside to the outside as the initial point.

Example 125 小明,快出来,外边的雪真好看。[Xiǎo Míng, kuài chū lái, wài biān de xuě zhēn hǎo kàn.]

(Xiao Ming, come out quickly. The snow outside is really beautiful.)

Example 126 我看见一只鸟从笼子里飞出来了。[wǒ kàn jiàn yī zhī niǎo cóng lóng zi lǐ fēi chū lái le.]

(I saw a bird fly out of the cage.)

- (2) Its resultant meaning refers to a result from unclearness/invisibleness to clearness/visibleness.

Example 127 关于这个问题学校应该制定出一套办法来。[guān yú zhè gè wèn tí xué xiào yīng gāi zhì dìng chū yī tào bàn fǎ lái.]

(The school should work out a solution to this problem.)

Example 128 床底下藏着一些违禁品,他很怕被搜出来。[chuáng dī xià cáng zhe yī xiē wéi jìn pǐn, tā hěn pà bèi sōu chū lái.]

(He was afraid that the hidden contraband under the bed was to be found out.)

Example 129 那个人叫什么名字,住在哪儿,你打听出来了没? [nà gè rén jiào shén me míng zi, zhù zài nǎ er, nǐ dǎ tīng chū lái le ma?]

(Have you got that person's name and the address information?)

Example 130 我认为群众的积极性还没有充分发挥出来。[wǒ rèn wéi qún zhòng de jī jí xìng hái méi yǒu chōng fèn fā huī chū lái.]

(I don't think enthusiasm of the masses has been brought into full play.)

118 *Complements*

Example 131 他做出来的菜真是色、香、味俱全。[tā zuò chū lái de cài zhēn shì sè, xiāng, wèi jù quán.]
(His dishes are characterized by color, flavor, and taste.)

14 出去 [chū qù] (go out)

Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the inside as the initial point to the outside by an action.

Example 132 下课了，我看见老师和学生们都走出教室去了。[xià kè le, wǒ kàn jiàn lǎo shī hé xué shēng men dōu zǒu chū jiào shì qù le.]
(After class, I saw that the teacher and the students went out the classroom.)

Example 133 我们在树林里迷了路，不知怎样才能走出树林去。[wǒ men zài shù lín lǐ mí le lù, bù zhī zěn yàng cái néng zǒu chū shù lín qù.]
(We lost our way in the woods and didn't know how to go out from the woods.)

Example 134 这件事情你可不能说出去。[zhè jiàn shì qíng nǐ kě bù néng shuō chū qù.]
(You mustn't tell it to anyone!)

15 回 [huí] (back)

Its directional meaning indicates a return to the original place by an action, such as home, homeland, or the place of departure.

Example 135 放学了，我们跑回宿舍。[fàng xué le, wǒ men pǎo huí sù shè.]
(After school, we ran back to the dormitory.)

Example 136 你真幸福，明天就要飞回祖国了。[nǐ zhēn xìng fú, míng tiān jiù yào fēi huí zǔ guó le.]
(How happy you are! Tomorrow you will fly back to the motherland.)

16 回来 [huí lái] (come back)

Its directional meaning indicates a return to the original place as the initial point by an action, such as home, homeland, or the place of departure.

Example 137 我家的小鸟飞走两天以后，又飞回来了。[wǒ jiā de xiǎo niǎo fēi zǒu liǎng tiān yǐ hòu, yòu fēi huí lái le.]
(My little bird flew away for two days and has come back now.)

Example 138 爸爸刚出去，又匆匆返回来，原来忘了要带的东西。[bà ba gāng chū qù, yòu cōng cōng fǎn huí lái, yuán lái wàng le yào dài de dōng xī.]
(Dad just went out but hurried back because he had left something at home.)

17 回去 [huí qù] (go back)

Its directional meaning indicates a return to the original place by an action, such as home, homeland, or the place of departure, but the initial point is not the original place.

Example 139 你把这本书寄回家去吧。[nǐ bǎ zhè běn shū jì huí jiā qù ba.]
(Send this book home.)

Example 140 太晚了，你把她们送回宿舍去吧。[tài wǎn le, nǐ bǎ tā men sòng huí sù shè qù ba.]
(It's too late. Please send them back to the dormitory.)

18 过 [guò] (over)

(1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” through, towards, or away from the initial point to another place.

Example 141 飞机飞过高山，飞过海洋，飞向遥远的大洋彼岸。[fēi jī fēi guò gāo shān, fēi guò hǎi yáng, fēi xiàng yáo yuǎn de dà yáng bǐ àn.]
(The plane flew over the high mountains and the sea, and then flew to the distant shore.)

Example 142 他看见有人来了，慌忙跳过墙逃跑了。[tā kàn jiàn yǒu rén lái le, huāng máng tiào guò qiáng táo pǎo le.]
(Seeing someone coming, he hurriedly jumped over the wall and ran away.)

Example 143 陆大夫从护士的手里接过病历。[Lù dài fū cóng hù shì de shǒu lǐ jiē guò bìng lì.]
(Dr. Lu took the medical record from the nurse.)

Example 144 我正在讲话，他一把夺过话筒抢着说 . . . [wǒ zhèng zài jiǎng huà, tā yī bǎ duó guò huà tǒng qiǎng zhe shuō . . .]
(I was about to talk when he grabbed the microphone to speak . . .)

(2) Its directional meaning indicates a changed direction towards or away from the initial point.

Example 145 我进屋的时候他正往窗外看，听见我进来，他转过身向我点了点头。[wǒ jìn wū de shí hòu tā zhèng wǎng chuāng wài kàn, tīng jiàn wǒ jìn lái, tā zhuǎn guò shēn xiàng wǒ diǎn le diǎn tóu.]
(He was looking out of the window when I came in. Hearing my coming, he turned around and nodded to me.)

Example 146 我看见她从对面走来，高兴地叫着她的名字，可是不知为什么，她扭过头不理我。[wǒ kàn jiàn tā cóng duì miàn zǒu lái, gāo xìng de jiào zhe tā de míng zì, kě shì bù zhī wèi shén me, tā niǔ guò tóu bù lǐ wǒ.]
(I saw her coming from the opposite side and called her name happily, but I didn't know why she turned her head and ignored me.)

(3) Its resultant meaning indicates “living through.”

Example 147 她们在破庙里躲过了敌人的搜查。[tā men zài pò miào lǐ duǒ guò le dí rén de sōu chá.]

(They escaped the enemy’s search in an old temple.)

Example 148 我们好不容易熬过寒冷的冬天。[wǒ men hǎo bù róng yì áo guò hán lěng de dōng tiān.]

(We managed to survive the cold winter.)

Example 149 这件事你瞒不过我。[zhè jiàn shì nǐ mán bú guò wǒ.]

(You couldn’t keep it from me.)

Example 150 你快逃吧，敌人不会放过你的。[nǐ kuài táo ba, dí rén bú huì fàng guò nǐ de.]

(Run away quickly; otherwise the enemy won’t let you go.)

(4) Its resultant meaning indicates “overrunning” about time or location.

Example 151 我坐车的时候睡着了，结果坐过了站。[wǒ zuò chē de shí hòu shuì zháo le, jié guǒ zuò guò le zhàn.]

(I fell asleep on the bus and missed my stop.)

Example 152 他一跳到水里，水就没过脖子了。[tā yī tiào dào shuǐ lǐ, shuǐ jiù mò guò bó zi le.]

(When he jumped into the water, the water went up to his neck.)

Example 153 今天早上我睡过了，上课迟到了。[jīn tiān zǎo shàng wǒ shuì guò le, shàng kè chí dào le.]

(I overslept this morning so I was late for class.)

Example 154 弟弟长得很快，已经高过我耳朵了。[dì dì zhǎng de hěn kuài, yǐ jīng gāo guò wǒ ěr duo le.]

(My brother grows so fast that he is almost up to my ears.)

(5) Its resultant meaning indicates “surpassing.”

Example 155 这种萝卜甜极了，赛过鸭梨。[zhè zhǒng luó bo tián jí le, sài guò yā lí.]

(This radish is very sweet, better than the pear.)

Example 156 听你这一席话，真是胜过读十年书啊！[tīng nǐ zhè yī xí huà, zhēn shì shèng guò dú shí nián shū a!]

(I profit more from your suggestions than from a ten-year reading.)

Example 157 我不跟你比，我跑不过你。[wǒ bù gēn nǐ bǐ, wǒ pǎo bú guò nǐ.]

(I don’t compete with you on running because I can’t beat you.)

Here, “不过 [bú guò]” can come after adjectives to indicate the same meaning.

Example 158 那个地方再美不过了。[nà gè dì fāng zài měi bú guò le.]
(That place couldn't be more beautiful.)

Example 159 他的工作再舒服不过了。[tā de gōng zuò zài shū fu bú guò le.]
(His work couldn't be more comfortable.)

- (6) Its resultant meaning shows “ending,” which is similar to “了 [le].” In this case, the verb before “过 [guò] (over)” should indicate the known information for the speaker.

Example 160 这封信你看过以后就烧掉吧。[zhè fēng xìn nǐ kàn guò yǐ hòu jiù shāo diào ba.]
(Burn this letter after you read it.)

Example 161

A: 你在这儿吃饭吧。[nǐ zài wǒ men zhè er chī fàn ba.]
(Eat with us, please.)

B: 我吃过了。[wǒ chī guò le.]
(I've already eaten my meal.)

Example 162 明天你吃过晚饭来一趟。[míng tiān nǐ chī guò wǎn fàn lái yī tang.]
(Come tomorrow after your dinner.)

Example 163

A: 昨天我叫你们看的电影你们看过了吗? [zuó tiān wǒ jiào nǐ men kàn de diàn yǐng nǐ men kàn guò le ma?]
(Did you watch the film I told you about yesterday?)

B: 看过了。[kàn guò le.]
(Yes, we did.)

Here, this meaning differs from what the dynamic auxiliary word “过 [guò]” expresses. “过 [guò] (over)” as the complement is pronounced with stress while “过 [guò]” as the dynamic auxiliary word requires a slight pronunciation. Besides, they differ from each other in connecting other verbs.

19 过来 [guò lái] (come over)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” through a location or towards the initial point by an action.

Example 164 这时一辆卡车开过桥来。[zhè shí yī liàng kǎ chē kāi guò qiáo lái.]
(Then a truck drove across the bridge.)

Example 165 那个卖东西的老汉向我走过来。[nà gè mài dōng xi de lǎo hàn xiàng wǒ zǒu guò lái.]
(The old man selling something came toward me.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates a direction that is changed by an action to face the initial point.

Example 166 这时前边那个人转过脸来，我一看是一个多年未见的中学同学。[zhè shí qián biān nà gè rén zhuǎn guò liǎn lái, wǒ yī kàn shì yī gè duō nián wèi jiàn de zhōng xué tóng xué.]

(Then the man in front of me turned around and I found he was one of my middle school friends I hadn't seen for years.)

Example 167 走在前面的人回过头来告诉我：“注意，前面有一条沟！” [zǒu zài qián miàn de rén huí guò tóu lái gào sù wǒ: “zhù yì, qián miàn yǒu yī tiáo gōu!”]

(The man in front turned to me and said: “Watch out! A ditch ahead!”)

- (3) Its resultant meaning indicates “overcoming difficulties.”

Example 168 到现在我也不知道，当时我怎么没死，硬是熬过来了。[dào xiàn zài wǒ yě bù zhī dào, dāng shí wǒ zěn me méi sǐ, yìng shì áo guò lái le.]

(Up to now I don't know why I didn't die but survived at the time.)

Example 169 这些年你真不容易，你是怎么闯过来的？[zhè xiē nián nǐ zhēn bù róng yì, nǐ shì zěn me chuǎng guò lái de?]

(How did you get through these tough years?)

Example 170 秋天，从饥饿中挣扎过来的人们，脸上开始出现健康的红润。[qiū tiān, cóng jī è zhōng zhēng zhā guò lái de rén men, liǎn shàng kāi shǐ chū xiàn jiàn kāng de hóng rùn.]

(In autumn, a healthy rosinness began to appear on the faces of the people who had survived hunger.)

Example 171 尽管敌人对他严刑拷打，他还是挺过来了。[jìn guǎn dí rén duì tā yán xíng kǎo dǎ, tā hái shì tǐng guò lái le.]

(In spite of the enemy's torture, he survived.)

- (4) Its resultant meaning indicates a recovery or change from the abnormal condition to the normal condition.

Example 172 经过医生的抢救，他终于醒过来了。[jīng guò yī shēng de qiǎng jiù, tā zhōng yú xǐng guò lái le.]

(After the doctors' rescue, he finally woke up.)

Example 173 直到这件事的严重后果出现了，我才明白过来，我错了。[zhí dào zhè jiàn shì de yán zhòng hòu guǒ chū xiàn le, wǒ cái míng bái guò lái, wǒ cuò le.]

(It was not until the serious consequences emerged that I realized that I was wrong.)

Example 174 放心，他的身体很好，会活过来的。[fàngxīn, tā de shēn tǐ hěn hǎo, huì huó guò lái de.]

(Don't worry. He is fine and will survive.)

Example 175 今天真冷，出去了一趟，回来一个小时了，还暖和不过来。[jīn tiān zhēn lěng, chū qù le yī tàng, huí lái yí gè xiǎo shí le, hái nuǎn huó bú guò lái.]

(It's so cold today that I still felt cold even after I came back from outside an hour ago.)

- (5) Its resultant meaning indicates the accomplishment in quantity, which is often conveyed by the complement of possibility, implying a failure of the requirements.

Example 176 跑得我喘不过气来。[pǎo de wǒ chuǎn bú guò qì lái.]

(I ran out of breath.)

Example 177 人太多，我数不过来。[rén tài duō, wǒ shù bù guò lái.]

(There are too many people for me to count.)

Example 178 工作太多，他一个人忙不过来。[gōng zuò tài duō, tā yī gè rén máng bú guò lái.]

(There is too much work to do on his own.)

Example 179 这些天我忙着考试，家里的事情顾不过来了。[zhè xiē tiān wǒ máng zhe kǎo shì, jiā lǐ de shì qing gù bú guò lái le.]

(I have been so busy with exams these days that I couldn't take care of my family.)

Example 180 你们这么多人一齐问问题，我怎么回答得过来呢？[nǐ men zhè me duō rén yì qí wèn wèn tí, wǒ zěn me huí dá de lái ne?]

(How could it be possible for me to answer all the questions by all of you?)

20 过去 [guò qù] (go over)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” through a location or away from the initial point to another place.

Example 181 飞机飞过山去，渐渐看不见了。[fēi jī fēi guò shān qù, jiàn jiàn kàn bú jiàn le.]

(The plane flew over the mountain and faded out of sight.)

Example 182 我去机场接一位从国外来的朋友，我正等着着急，看见他迎面走来，我也快走几步，迎了过去。[wǒ qù jī chǎng jiē yī wèi cóng guó wài lái de péng yǒu, wǒ zhèng děng de zhāo jí, kàn jiàn tā yíng miàn zǒu lái, wǒ yě kuài zǒu jǐ bù, yíng le guò qù.]

(I went to the airport to pick up a friend from abroad. When I was waiting, I saw him coming toward me so I also rushed to him.)

- (2) Its directional meaning indicates a changed direction away from the initial point by an action.

Example 183 她正在换衣服，背过脸去！[tā zhèng zài huàn yī fu, bèi guò liǎn qù!]

(She is changing her clothes so turn your face around!)

Example 184 他在我后边向我说着什么，说话声音很小，我听不清楚，只好扭过头去听。[tā zài wǒ hòu biān xiàng wǒ shuō zhe shén me, shuō huà shēng yīn hěn xiǎo, wǒ tīng bù qīng chǔ, zhǐ hǎo niǔ guò tóu qù tīng.]

(He said something behind me, but his voice was too weak for me to catch clearly, so I turned to him to listen.)

- (3) Its resultant meaning indicates “living through.”

Example 185 二十多年的时光转眼流逝过去了。[èr shí duō nián de shí guāng zhuǎn yǎn liú shì guò qù le.]

(Twenty years passed in a flash.)

Example 186 苦日子总算熬过去了。[kǔ rì zi zǒng suàn áo guò qù le.]

(The hard days have finally passed.)

Example 187 这个人好对付，我只用一句话就搪塞过去了。[zhè gè rén hǎo duì fu, wǒ zhǐ yòng yī jù huà jiù táng sè guò qù le.]

(This man was so easy to deal with that I paltered with him.)

Example 188 这件事说过去就算了，以后谁也不要再提了。[zhè jiàn shì shuō guò qù jiù suàn le, yǐ hòu shuí yě bú yào zài tí le.]

(The matter is over and don't mention it again.)

21 起 [qǐ] (rise)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the lower position to a higher position. “上 [shàng] (up)” is different from “起 [qǐ] (rise),” the former of which is usually followed by a locational object as the finishing point and the latter of which cannot be followed by such an object.

Example 189 空中升起一个气球。[kōng zhōng shēng qǐ yī gè qì qiú.]

(A balloon rose to the sky.)

Example 190 他气得跳起脚骂人。[tā qì de tiào qǐ jiǎo mà rén.]

(He cursed someone in exasperation.)

- (2) Its resultant meaning shows a connection or combination.

Example 191 连起这几个点就是一个六边形。[lián qǐ zhè jǐ gè diǎn jiù shì yī gè liù jiǎo xíng.]

(To connect these points to form a hexagon.)

Example 192 他的这一不寻常的行动开始引起我们的注意。[tā de zhè yī bù xún cháng de xíng dòng kāi shǐ yǐn qǐ wǒ men de zhù yì.]

(His unusual actions began to draw our attention.)

Example 193 从此她们建立起一种新型的师徒关系。[cóng cǐ tā men jiàn lì qǐ yī zhǒng xīn xíng de shī tú guān xì.]

(Since then, they have established a new type of mentorship.)

Example 194 听见有脚步声，他赶紧藏起那件血衣。[tīng jiàn yǒu jiǎo bù shēng, tā gǎn jǐn cáng qǐ nà jiàn xuè yī.]

(Hearing footsteps, he hid the bloody suit in a hurry.)

Example 195 青年们在学校附近办起一个补习班。[qīng nián men zài xué xiào fù jìn bàn qǐ yī gè bǔ xí bān.]

(The young people started a remedial class nearby the school.)

Compared to the basic resultant meaning of “上 [shàng] (up),” “起 [qǐ] (rise)/起来 [qǐ lái] (rise)” can indicate connection with different parts of an object. Therefore, “起 [qǐ] (rise)” is appropriate with verbs of different meanings.

(3) Its resultant meaning indicates “protruding.”

Example 196 干了一天活，他手上打起了几个血泡。[gàn le yī tiān huó, tā shǒu shàng dǎ qǐ le jǐ gè xuè pào.]

(After a day’s work, he had a few bleeding blisters on his hand.)

Example 197 妈妈刚说她一句，她就噘起了嘴。[mā ma gāng shuō tā yī jù, tā jiù juē qǐ le zuǐ.]

(She pouted when her mother just began to speak.)

Example 198 你们应该挺起腰板，像个主人翁的样子。[nǐ men yīng gāi tǐng qǐ yāo bǎn, xiàng gè zhǔ rén wēng de yàng zǐ.]

(You should stand straight to show your confidence of ownership.)

(4) Its resultant meaning indicates subjective endurance for economy, time, qualification, spirit, or physical power. It is often conveyed by the complement of possibility.

Example 199 我穿不起名牌衣服。[wǒ chuān bù qǐ míng pái yī fu.]

(I can’t afford designer clothes.)

Example 200 他是个重病人，这个问题你们还是快点解决吧，时间长了他拖不起。[tā shì gè zhòng bìng rén, zhè gè wèn tí nǐ men hái shì kuài diǎn jiě jué ba, shí jiān cháng le tā tuō bù qǐ.]

(He is seriously ill, and you have to do something to help him; otherwise he cannot last too long.)

Example 201 我不敢粗心大意，出了问题我担待不起。[wǒ bù gǎn cū xīn dà yì, chū le wèn tí wǒ dān dài bù qǐ.]

(I dare not be careless; otherwise, I cannot afford this responsibility.)

Example 202 这么贵的房子我可买不起。[zhè me guì de fáng zi wǒ kě mǎi bù qǐ.]

(I can't afford such an expensive house.)

Example 203 跳这种舞? 我可丢不起这个人。[tiào zhè zhǒng wǔ? wǒ kě diū bù qǐ zhè gè rén.]

(Let me dance like this? I can't afford to lose face.)

- (5) Its state meaning indicates a new state. “起 [qǐ] (rise)” is required to follow the verb directly.

Example 204 她们一边吃饭，一边聊起别后十几年的情况。[tā men yī biān chī fàn, yī biān liáo qǐ bié hòu shí jǐ nián de qíng kuàng.]

(As they ate, they talked about what had happened after their separation more than ten years ago.)

Example 205 一些人窃窃私议，似乎也怀疑起这个会可能是个阴谋。[yī xiē rén qiè qiè sī yì, sì hū yě huái yí qǐ zhè gè huì kě néng shì gè yīn móu.]

(Some people murmured in secret, seemingly suspecting that it might be a conspiracy.)

Example 206 不知什么时候，天下起了小雨。[bù zhī shén me shí hòu, tiān xià qǐ le xiǎo yǔ.]

(I don't know when it began to rain.)

Example 207 空中不时响起一阵阵沉闷的雷声。[kōng zhōng bù shí xiǎng qǐ yī zhèn zhèn chén mēn de léi shēng.]

(A roll of dull thunder was heard from time to time.)

22 起来 [qǐ lái] (rise)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from a lower position to a higher position, similar to what “起 [qǐ] (rise)” expresses.

Example 208 气球升起来了。[qì qiú shēng qǐ lái le.]

(The balloon rose to the sky.)

Example 209 把头抬起来。[bǎ tóu tái qǐ lái.]

(Keep your head up.)

Example 210 大风刮起来一阵砂石，打在汽车的玻璃上。[dà fēng guā qǐ lái yī zhèn shā shí, dǎ zài qì chē de bō lí shàng.]

(The wind whipped up a blast of gravel and hit the glass of the car.)

- (2) Its resultant meaning indicates a connection or combination.

Example 211 她们勾结起来欺骗他不是第一次了。[tā men gōu jié qǐ lái qiān bié tā bù shì dì yī cì le.]

(It was not the first time they had conspired to deceive him.)

Example 212 这两笔钱加起来一共是多少? [zhè liǎng bǐ qián jiā qǐ lái yī gòng shì duō shǎo?]

(How much do these two sums add up to?)

Example 213 你把头发盘起来, 会凉快一点。[nǐ bǎ tóu fà pán qǐ lái, huì liáng kuài yī diǎn.]

(You will feel cooler if you put your hair up.)

Example 214 快藏起来! [kuài cáng qǐ lái!]

(Hide!)

Example 215 你怎么精神老也集中不起来? [nǐ zěn me jīng shén lǎo yě jízhōng bù qǐ lái?]

(Why can't you concentrate all the time?)

(3) Its resultant meaning indicates “protruding suddenly.”

Example 216 你看你, 哭得眼睛都肿起来了。[nǐ kàn nǐ, kū de yǎn jīng dōu zhǒng qǐ lái le.]

(You see, your eyes are swollen from crying.)

Example 217 不小心, 头上碰起一个包来。[bù xiǎo xīn, tóu shàng pèng qǐ yī gè bāo lái.]

(She got a bump on her head by accident.)

Example 218 把胸挺起来! [bǎ xiōng tǐng qǐ lái!]

(Stand upright!)

(4) Its state meaning shows a new state. When following the verb, “起来 [qǐ lái] (rise)” indicates an ongoing action from the static condition to the dynamic condition; when following the adjective, “起来 [qǐ lái]” indicates the beginning of a new state.

Example 219 天阴了, 下起雪来了。[tiān yīn le, xià qǐ xuě lái le.]

(It was overcast and began to snow.)

Example 220 看见地上有一条蛇, 他吓得叫了起来。[kàn jiàn dì shàng yǒu yī tiáo shé, tā xià de jiào le qǐ lái.]

(Seeing a snake on the ground, he cried out in terror.)

Example 221 听他说完, 大家都笑了起来。[tīng tā shuō wán, dà jiā dōu xiào le qǐ lái.]

(When he finished, everyone laughed.)

Example 222 你不是不喜欢打球吗? 怎么今天打起篮球来了? [nǐ bú shì bù xǐ huān dǎ qiú ma? zěn me jīn tiān dǎ qǐ lán qiú lái le?]

(Why do you play basketball today? You don't like it, do you?)

Example 223 他平时很节俭, 今天怎么大方起来了? [tā píng shí hěn jié jiǎn, jīn tiān zěn me dà fāng qǐ lái le?]

(He is usually very frugal. Why is he so generous today?)

“起来 [qǐ lái] (rise)” is different from “下来 [xià lái] (come down).” First, the former can connect a wide range of adjectives; the latter only connects some of them. Second, the former usually connects affirmative adjectives, such as “高 [gāo] (high),” “快 [kuài] (fast),” “亮 [liàng] (bright);” the latter only connects those negative adjectives, such as “低 [dī] (low),” “慢 [màn] (slow),” “暗 [àn] (dark).” Sometimes, “起来 [qǐ lái] (rise)” can connect negative adjectives when the abnormal changes happen.

Example 224 我抽了马一鞭子，马跑得反而慢起来了。[wǒ chōu le mǎ yī biān zi, mǎ pǎo de fǎn ér màn qǐ lái le.]

(I whipped the horse to speed it up, but it slowed down on the contrary.)

Example 225 大白天，怎么天忽然暗起来了？[dà bái tiān, zěn me tiān hū rán àn qǐ lái le?]

(Why is it suddenly dark in the daytime?)

23 开 [kāi] (open)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” away from a location by an action.

Example 226 看见我跟爸爸有话要说，他就走开了。[kàn jiàn wǒ gēn bà ba yǒu huà yào shuō, tā jiù zǒu kāi le.]

(Seeing that I had something to say to Dad, he walked away.)

Example 227 滚开！[gǔn kāi!]

(Get out!)

- (2) Its resultant meaning indicates “separating” or “splitting.”

Example 228 我闭上眼睛想休息一会，听见有声音，就睁开眼睛看了看，什么都没有。[wǒ bì shàng yǎn jīng xiǎng xiū xi yí huì, tīng jiàn yǒu shēng yīn, jiù zhēng kāi yǎn jīng kàn le kàn, shén me dōu méi yǒu.]

(When I closed my eyes to have a rest, I heard a sound so I opened my eyes to check, but nothing happened.)

Example 229 这家的门我可敲不开。[zhè jiā de mén wǒ kě qiāo bù kāi.]

(I have no means to let this family open the door.)

Example 230 你把这个面包掰开。[nǐ bǎ zhè gè miàn bāo bāi kāi.]

(You break off this bread with your hands.)

Example 231 距离分不开她们。[jù lí fēn bù kāi tā men.]

(The distance cannot separate them.)

“开 [kāi] (open)” is different from “下 [xià] (down).” The latter separates some part from the entirety; the former divides an object into several parts.

Example 232 你把西瓜切开。[nǐ bǎ xī guā qiē kāi.]

(Cut the watermelon in half.)

Example 233 你把西瓜切下来一块。[nǐ bǎ xī guā qiē xià lái yī kuài.]
(to cut off a piece of watermelon.)

- (3) Its resultant meaning indicates “stretching” or “dispersing.”

Example 234 紧皱的眉头骤然舒展开了，他脸上露出了笑容。[jǐn zhòu de méi tóu zhòu rán shū zhǎn kāi le, tā liǎn shàng lù chū le xiào róng.]
(A tightly frowning brow suddenly relaxed and a smile appeared on his face.)

Example 235 她把台布抖开，铺在桌子上。[tā bǎ tái bù dòu kāi, pū zài zhuō zi shàng.]
(She unfolded the tablecloth and spread it on the table.)

Example 236 他的外号一下子叫开了。[tā de wài hào yī xià zi jiào kāi le.]
(His nickname was quickly spread.)

- (4) Its resultant meaning indicates a capacity of holding things or actions.

Example 237 屋子太小，摆不开两张床。[wū zi tài xiǎo, bǎi bù kāi liǎng zhāng chuáng.]
(The room is too small to hold two beds.)

Example 238 这么多饺子，这个锅煮不开。[zhè me duō jiǎo zi, zhè gè guō zhǔ bù kāi.]
(This pot is too small to boil so many dumplings.)

Example 239 场地太小，这么多人跳舞怎么跳得开？[chǎng dì tài xiǎo, zhè me duō rén tiào wǔ zěn me tiào de kāi.]
(The venue is too small to hold so many people dancing.)

“开 [kāi] (open)” and “下 [xià] (down)” differ in carrying a meaning of capacity. First, the former is mainly for the capacity of space; the latter is for the capacity of both space and a container. Second, the former can refer to the capacity of doing something; the latter cannot. Third, they connect different verbs.

- (5) Its resultant meaning indicates “understanding” or “fully comprehending.”

Example 240 你要想开点，无论多么大的灾难，总会过去的。[nǐ yào xiǎng kāi diǎn, wú lùn duō me dà de zāi nàn, zǒng huì guò qù de.]
(You have to take heart. No matter how serious the disaster is, it will pass at last.)

Example 241 我这个人最看得开，失业了，再找工作就是了，愁什么？[wǒ zhè gè rén zuì kàn de kāi, shī yè le, zài zhǎo gōng zuò jiù shì le, chóu shén me?]
(I am a person free from care. If I lost my job, I would try to find another one. I won't be bothered by it.)

Example 242 他事情解释开了，别人对他的误解也就消除了。[tā shì qíng jiě shì kāi le, bié rén duì tā de wù jiě yě jiù xiāo chú le.]
(After his explanation, misunderstandings about him are eliminated.)

- (6) Its state meaning indicates a changing state from the static condition to the dynamic condition.

Example 243 他一看见我来了，就喊开了：“小张，小张！快过来！”[tā yī kàn jiàn wǒ lái le, jiù hǎn kāi le: “Xiǎo Zhāng, Xiǎo Zhāng! kuài guò lái!”]
(When he saw me coming, he shouted: “Xiao Zhang, Xiao Zhang! Come over here!”)

Example 244 听了这句话，妹妹哭开了。[tīng le zhè jù huà, mèi mei kū kāi le.]
(After hearing this, my sister cried.)

Example 245 离这一天还有一个星期，她们就盘算开了。[lí zhè yī tiān hái yǒu yī gè xīng qī, tā men jiù pán suàn kāi le.]
(They began to make the plan a week before that day.)

Here is the comparison between “开 [kāi] (open)” and “起来 [qǐ lái] (rise).”

First, the latter can connect a wide range of verbs and adjectives; the latter mainly connects verbs and several adjectives, such as “乱 [luàn] (disordered),” “忙 [máng] (busy).” Second, the former indicates an uncontrolled action, implying dissatisfaction of the speaker.

Example 246 你听，她们又吵开了。真烦人！[nǐ tīng, tā men yòu chǎo kāi le. zhēn fán rén!]
(Listen, they quarrel again. It's very annoying!)

Example 247 几个小流氓在街上打开了，别人都远远地绕道走了。[jǐ gè xiǎo liú máng zài jiē shàng dǎ kāi le, bié rén dōu yuǎn yuǎn de rào dào zǒu le.]
(A few hooligans were fighting in the street, which forced the people to take a long detour.)

Third, the former is more oral than the latter.

24 到 [dào] (arrive)

- (1) Its directional meaning indicates “moving” to a location.

Example 248 汽车开到商店门前停了下来。[qì chē kāi dào shāng diàn mén qián tíng le xià lái.]
(The car stopped in front of the shop.)

Example 249 上个月我来到这里看望我的父母。[shàng gè yuè wǒ lái dào zhè lǐ kàn wàng wǒ de fù mǔ.]
(I came here to visit my parents last month.)

Example 250 他走到我面前站住了，好像有什么事情。[tā zǒu dào wǒ miàn qián zhàn zhù le, hǎo xiàng yǒu shén me shì qing.]
(He came up to me and stopped, as if he had something to say.)

Example 251 这本书我们学到二十三课了。[zhè běn shū wǒ men xué dào èr shí sān kè le.]
(We have learned lesson 23 in this book.)

Besides, “到 [dào] (arrive)” indicates a stop at a concrete point in time.

Example 252 昨晚我看书看到两点。[zuó wǎn wǒ kàn shū kàn dào liǎng diǎn.]
(I read until two o'clock last night.)

Example 253 这个试验一直要做到十二月才能做完。[zhè gè shì yàn yī zhí yào zuò dào shí èr yuè cái néng zuò wán.]
(The experiment won't be finished until December.)

Also, “到 [dào] (arrive)” shows an achieved degree.

Example 254 最近他忙到饭都顾不上吃了。[zui jìn tā máng dào fàn dōu gù bú shàng chī le.]
(Recently he is too busy to have the meal.)

Example 255 他们俩好到花钱不分彼此，穿衣服不分你我，比亲兄弟还亲。[tā men liǎng hǎo dào huā qián bù fēn bǐ cǐ, chuān yī fu bù fēn nǐ wǒ, bǐ qīn xiōng dì hái qīn.]
(They behave like two close brothers, such as sharing money and clothes together.)

Example 256 这个人坏到家了。[zhè gè rén huài dào jiā le.]
(The man is a wholly bad guy.)

(2) Its resultant meaning indicates an achieved purpose or result by an action.

Example 257 写论文需要的书都找到了。[xiě lùn wén xū yào de shū dōu zhǎo dào le.]
(I found all the books for my thesis.)

Example 258 你今天看到李老师的了吗？[nǐ jīn tiān kàn dào Lǐ lǎo shī le ma?]
(Did you see Prof. Li today?)

Example 259 他昨天受到上级的表扬。[tā zuó tiān shòu dào shàng jí de biǎo yáng.]
(He was praised by his superior yesterday.)

Example 260 我昨天在茶馆里遇到了分别十年的老同学。[wǒ zuó tiān zài chá guǎn lǐ yù dào le fēn bié shí nián de lǎo tóng xué.]
(I met my old school friend in the teahouse yesterday. We haven't seen each other for ten years.)

Example 261 他预料到你今天可能来。[tā yù liào dào nǐ jīn tiān kě néng lái.]
(He predicted your coming today.)

25 到 . . . 来 [dào . . . dào] (arrive at)

Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the distance towards the initial point by an action. There requires a locational word between “到 [dào] (arrive)” and “来 [lái] (come).”

Example 262 我哥哥出国五年以后，又回到这个城市来了。[wǒ gē ge chū guó wǔ nián yǐ hòu, yòu huí dào zhè gè chéng shì lái le.]
(My elder brother came back to this city after staying abroad five years.)

Example 263 你去把他请到我们学校来作一次讲演，好吗？[nǐ qù bǎ tā qǐng dào wǒ men xué xiào lái zuò yī cì jiǎng yǎn, hǎo ma?]
(Would you please invite him to give a speech in our school?)

26 到 . . . 去 [dào . . . qù] (go to)

Its directional meaning indicates “moving” from the nearby place towards the distance by an action. A locational word between “到 [dào] (arrive)” and “去 [qù] (go)” is required.

Example 264 这儿冬天太冷，鸟儿都飞到南方去了。[zhè er dōng tiān tài lěng, niǎo er dōu fēi dào nán fāng qù le.]
(It's so cold here in winter that the birds have gone south.)

Example 265 你把他送到飞机场去吧。[nǐ bǎ tā sòng dào fēi jī chǎng qù ba.]
(Take him to the airport.)

“到 . . . 去 [dào . . . qù] (go to)” can also show a certain degree.

Example 266 他这个人我了解，坏不到哪儿去。[tā zhè gè rén wǒ liǎo jiě, huài bù dào nǎ er qù.]
(I know him; he is not a bad man.)

Example 267 这儿毕竟是南方，冬天再冷，也冷不到哪儿去。[zhè er bì jìng shì nán fāng, dōng tiān zài lěng, yě lěng bù dào nǎ er qù.]
(After all, the winter in the south is not very cold.)

III. *Semantic orientations of directional complements*

Similar to the resultant complement, the directional complement is semantically related to a certain constituent in a sentence. Its semantic orientation can be simply discussed in two situations.

- 1 Its semantic orientation points to the recipient of an action, when the directional complement comes after a transitive verb.

Example 268 小明从图书馆借来一本书。[Xiǎo Míng cóng tú shū guǎn jiè lái yī běn shū.]

(Xiao Ming borrowed a book from the library.)

Example 269 你把本书打开。[nǐ bǎ běn shū dǎ kāi.]

(Open the book.)

- 2 Its semantic orientation points to the doer of an action, when the directional complement comes after an intransitive verb.

Example 270 气球慢慢地升起来了。[qì qiú màn man de shēng qǐ lái le.]

(The balloon rose slowly.)

Example 271 前面走过来一个人。[qián miàn zǒu guò lái yī gè rén.]

(A man walked ahead.)

Example 272 大油凝上了。[dà yóu níng shàng le.]

(The lard congealed.)

IV. *Structural features of sentences consisting of directional complements*

- 1 Use of simple directional complements and compound directional complements

Generally speaking, the complements of these two types are the same in semantic meaning, especially for their directional meanings and basic resultant meanings. Many factors can influence the choice of complements in a sentence, namely the initial point, focus, syntactic structure, and syllables. A compound complement is appropriate, except for “上 [shàng] (up)” and “开 [kāi] (open),” when it is at the end of the sentence without any object following; the complements of these two types are acceptable in the sentence when there exists an object or other words following them.

Example 273 办法我想出来了。[bàn fǎ wǒ xiǎng chū lái le.]

(I figured it out.)

*办法我想出了。[bàn fǎ wǒ xiǎng chū le.]

Example 274 我们要团结起来。[wǒ men yào tuán jié qǐ lái.]

(We must unite.)

*我们要团结起。[wǒ men yào tuán jié qǐ.]

Example 275 艰苦的岁月终于熬过去了。[jiān kǔ de suì yuè zhōng yú áo guò le.]

(The hard years have finally passed.)

*艰苦的岁月终于熬过了。[jiān kǔ de suì yuè zhōng yú áo guò le.]

Example 276 车头凹进去了。[chē tóu āo jìn qù le.]

(The front of the car is sunken.)

*车头凹进了。[chē tóu āo jìn le.]

Example 277 上课了，学生们从外边走进来了。[shàng kè le, xué shēng men cóng wài biān zǒu jìn lái le.]

(It's time for class and the students came in from outside.)

上课了，学生们从外边走进了教室。[shàng kè le, xué shēng men cóng wài biān zǒu jìn le jiào shì.]

(It's time for class and the students came into the classroom from outside.)

Example 278 游行队伍走过来了。[yóu xíng duì wǔ zǒu guò lái le.]

(The parade is coming.)

游行队伍走过广场，向市政府走去。[yóu xíng duì wǔ zǒu guò guǎng chǎng, xiàng shì zhèng fǔ zǒu qù.]

(The parade went across the square and walked towards the city government.)

2 Position of object

If the directional complement appears with the object in a sentence, their positions are worthy of attention.

(1) Positions of the simple directional complement and the object

If the object is a locational word, it is required to come before “来/去 [lái/qù] (come/go)” indicating the directional meaning.

Example 279 太晚了，我要回家去。[tài wǎn le, wǒ yào huí jiā qù.]

(It's too late; I'm going home.)

Example 280 叫你哥哥回学校来。[jiào nǐ gē ge huí xué xiào lái.]

(Ask your brother to come back to school.)

If the object is a noun for people or thing, it is allowed to come before or after the directional complement.

Example 281 睡觉前，妈妈给我端来一碗汤，一定叫我喝了。[shuì jiào qián, mā ma gěi wǒ duān lái yī wǎn tāng, yī dìng jiào wǒ hē le.]

(Before going to bed, my mother brought me a bowl of soup and asked me to drink it.)

睡觉前，妈妈给我端一碗汤来，一定叫我喝了。[shuì jiào qián, mā ma gěi wǒ duān yī wǎn tāng lái, yī dìng jiào wǒ hē le.]

(Before going to bed, my mother brought a bowl of soup to me and asked me to drink it.)

Example 282 端一碗汤来！[duān yī wǎn tāng lái!]

(Bring a bowl of soup!)

In these examples, the objects in the first two are free in their position because the actions mentioned in the sentences have been finished; the object in the last

one is usually put before the simple directional complement, since the action in the sentence hasn't happened yet.

Usually, the object is required to come after those simple directional complements, such as “上 [shàng] (up),” “下 [xià] (down),” “进 [jìn] (enter),” “出 [chū] (out).” It is true to resultant complements.

Example 283 我们很快地走下山。[wǒ men hěn kuài de zǒu xià shān.]
(We walked quickly down the hill.)

Example 284 客人陆续走进大厅。[kè rén lù xù zǒu jìn dà tīng.]
(The guests entered the hall one by one.)

Similar to resultant complements, the objects should come after the simple directional complements indicating the resultant meanings.

Example 285 我们想出一个办法，你看行不行？[wǒ men xiǎng chū yī gè bàn fǎ, nǐ kàn xíng bù xíng?]
(We found a solution; do you think it is feasible?)

Example 286 闭上眼睛！[bì shàng yǎn jīng!]
(Close your eyes!)

When simple directional complements indicate state meanings, the objects come after them.

Example 287 他闭上眼睛，深情地拉起“天鹅湖”。[tā bì shàng yǎn jīng, shēn qíng de lā qǐ “tiān é hú.”]
(He closed his eyes and began to play the violin tune “Swan Lake” affectionately.)

Example 288 孩子们高兴得唱上歌了。[hái zi men gāo xìng de chàng shàng gē le.]
(The children are singing happily.)

(2) Positions of the compound directional complement and the object

If the object is a locational word, it is required to stand in the middle of the compound directional complement indicating the directional meaning.

Example 289 我们很高兴地走上楼去。[wǒ men hěn gāo xìng de zǒu shàng lóu qù.]
(We went upstairs happily.)

Example 290 他明天就要飞回国去了。[tā míng tiān jiù yào fēi huí guó qù le.]
(He will fly home tomorrow.)

If the object is a noun for people or things, it has three positions.

a In the middle of the compound directional complement

Example 291 这时他从房间里搬出一把椅子来。[zhè shí tā cóng fáng jiān lǐ bān chū yī bǎ yǐ zi lái.]

(Then he moved a chair out of his room.) (finished)

Example 292 把椅子搬出房间去。[bǎ yǐ zi bān chū fáng jiān qù.]

(Move the chair out of the room.) (unfinished)

Example 293 地里走出几个人来。[dì lǐ zǒu chū jǐ gè rén lái.]

(Several people stepped out of the field.) (finished)

Example 前面跑过一匹小马来。[qián miàn pǎo guò yī pǐ xiǎo mǎ lái.]

(Here came a running pony.) (finished)

Example 294 忽然随着一阵风飘过一阵花香来。[hū rán suí zhe yī zhèn fēng piāo guò yī zhèn huā xiāng lái.]

(Suddenly, with a gust of wind came a fragrant smell of flowers.) (finished)

b After the compound directional complement

Example 295 他从房间里搬出来一把椅子。[tā cóng fáng jiān lǐ bān chū lái yī bǎ yǐ zi.]

(He moved a chair out of the room.) (finished)

c Before the compound directional complement

Example 296 从房间里搬一把椅子出来。[cóng fáng jiān lǐ bān yī bǎ yǐ zi chū lái.]

(Move a chair out of the room.) (unfinished)

Thus it can be seen that the object in the middle of the directional complement is the most appropriate for finished actions and unfinished actions. The object can serve as the existential object or be functioned by a common noun, abstract noun, or locational word. The object comes after the compound directional complement to indicate the finished actions; the case about the object coming before the compound directional complement rarely happens.

When the compound directional complement expresses the resultant meaning, the object usually stands in the middle of it.

Example 297 他说了半天，我才明白过这个理来。[tā shuō le bàn tiān, wǒ cái míng bai guò zhè gè lǐ lái.]

(He had talked for a long time before I understood what he meant.)

Example 298 你怎么老是板起面孔来训人呢？[nǐ zěn me lǎo shì bǎn qǐ miàn kǒng lái xùn rén ne?]

(Why do you always keep a still face to scold people?)

Example 299 我们想了很久也没有想出办法来。[wǒ men xiǎng le hěn jiǔ yě méi yǒu xiǎng chū bàn fǎ lái.]

(We thought it for a long time but failed to figure it out.)

Also, the object is in the middle of the compound directional complement indicating the state meaning.

Example 300 他一见了我就诉起苦来。[tā yī jiàn le wǒ jiù sù qǐ kǔ lái.]
(As soon as he saw me, he began to complain.)

Example 301 看见前面来了一辆车，我就停下脚步来。[kàn jiàn qián miàn lái le yī liàng chē, wǒ jiù tíng xià jiǎo bù lái.]
(I stopped when I saw a car coming ahead.)

When “下去 [xià qù] (go down)” indicates “continue doing,” the object should be absent.

- (3) About “了 [le]” after the resultant complement and the directional complement
- a “了 [le]” is different from the complements of these two types in the expressive function as well as the syntactic structure.

First, the sentence meaning varies by the presence of “了 [le].” Without “了 [le],” it means the result of an unfinished action. With “了 [le],” it indicates the opposite meaning.

Example 302 我去买下那所房子给你们住，好吗？[wǒ qù mǎi xià nà suǒ fáng zi gěi nǐ men zhù, hǎo ma?]

(I want to buy that new house for you to stay, all right?) (unfinished)

你既然买下了那所房子，就应该马上搬进去。[nǐ jì rán mǎi xià le nà suǒ fáng zi, jiù yīng gāi mǎ shàng bān jìn qù.]

(Since you bought that house, you should move in at once.) (finished)

Example 303 咱们冲出敌人的包围吧！[zán men chōng chū dí rén de bāo wéi ba!]

(Let's break out of the enemy's siege!) (unfinished)

你们冲出了敌人的包围，这是很不容易的。[nǐ men chōng chū le dí rén de bāo wéi, zhè shì hěn bù róng yì de.]

(It was not easy for you to have broken out of the enemy's siege.) (finished)

The meaning of the interrogative sentence also varies by the presence of “了 [le].”

Example 304 他什么时候回学校来？[tā shén me shí hòu huí xué xiào lái?]

(When will he come back to school?) (unfinished)

他回学校来了吗？[tā huí xué xiào lái le ma?]

(Has he come back to school yet?) (finished or unfinished)

Second, “了 [le]” is necessarily required to come after some verb-complement structures to indicate the finished action.

Example 305 我从小住惯了平房，不喜欢住楼。[wǒ cóng xiǎo zhù guàn le píng fang, bù xǐ huān zhù lóu.]

(I have been living in a bungalow since I was a child, so I don't like living in a storied house.)

Example 306 阿二的觉悟果然提高了，也和他的父亲闹翻了。[Ā èr de jué wù guǒ rán tí gāo le, yě hé tā de fù qīn nào fān le.]

(The political consciousness of A Er was indeed raised, and consequently he fell out with his father.)

Example 307 他们这几年吃腻了鸡鸭鱼肉，想吃青菜豆腐。[tā men zhè jǐ nián chī nì le jī yā yú ròu, xiǎng chī qīng cài dòu fu.]

(They have been fed up with the luxurious life and want to experience a simple life.)

Example 308 朱自治看错黄历了，这时候再也没有人把他当作朱经理，资本家二个字也不是那么好听的。[Zhū Zì zhì kàn cuò huáng lì le, zhè shí hòu zài yě méi yǒu rén bǎ tā dāng zuò Zhū jīng lǐ, zī běn jiā èr gè zì yě bú shì nà me hǎo tīng de.]

(Zhu Zizhi misestimated the present situation: he was no longer Manager Zhu nor the so-called capitalist.)

Example 309 他的酒意消掉了一半，不由自主地向后退。[tā de jiǔ yì xiāo diào le yī bàn, bù yóu zì zhǔ de xiàng hòu tuì.]

(He gradually got his consciousness away from drunkenness and couldn't help stepping backward.)

Similar verb-complement structures also include “看够了 [kàn gòu le] (be sick of seeing)” and “听烦了 [tīng fán le] (be sick of hearing).”

Third, the expressive effect varies by the presence of “了 [le]”. With “了 [le]” before the verb-complement, it strengthens the verb to emphasize the occurrence of an action.

Example 310 我不假思索地说了出来。[wǒ bù jiǎ sī suǒ de shuō le chū lái.]

(I spoke it out without thinking.)

Example 311 他一屁股坐了下去，把沙发坐出了一个坑。[tā yī pì gǔ zuò le xià qù, bǎ shā fā zuò chū le yī gè kēng.]

(He sat down on the sofa suddenly, which made a dent in it.)

Example 312 有人把糖塞到我那小外孙的嘴里，他立时吐了出来。[yǒu rén bǎ táng sāi dào wǒ nà xiǎo wài sūn de zuǐ lǐ, tā lì shí tǔ le chū lái.]

(Someone put a candy into my little grandson's mouth and he immediately spat it out.)

Example 313 她笑着迎了上来。[tā xiào zhe yíng le shàng lái.]

(She came up with a smile.)

When “了 [le]” appears after the verb-complement structure, it covers the entire structure to emphasize the accomplishment of an action. Here is a comparison of these two situations.

Example 314 我走进教室后，全体学生立刻站了起来。[wǒ zǒu jìn jiào shì hòu, quán tǐ xué shēng lì kè zhàn le qǐ lái.]

(When I came into the classroom, all the students stood up at once.)

我走进教室时，看见学生已经站起来了。[wǒ zǒu jìn jiào shì shí, kàn jiàn xué shēng yǐ jīng zhàn qǐ lái le.]

(When I came into the classroom, I saw all the students stand up.)

The first example indicates the whole process of standing and the second example expresses the result of standing.

Of course, without “了 [le],” the sentence structure will be more brief and cohesive.

Example 315 阿二是个性情豪爽的人，毫不犹豫地说出了他的体会。[Ā èr shì gè xìng qíng háo shuǎng de rén, háo bù yóu yù de shuō chū le tā de tǐ huì.]

(As a forthright person, A Er spoke out on his experience without any hesitation.)

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(As a forthright person, A Er spoke out on his experience without any hesitation.)

Example 316 一桌菜起码有三分之一是浪费的，泔水桶里倒满了鱼肉和白米。[yī zhuō cài qǐ mǎ yǒu sān fēn zhī yī shì làng fèi de, gān shuǐ tǒng lǐ dào mǎn le yú ròu hé bái mǐ.]

(At least a third of dishes on the table have been wasted, like fish, meat, and rice.)

一桌菜起码有三分之一是浪费的，泔水桶里倒满鱼肉和白米。[yī zhuō cài qǐ mǎ yǒu sān fēn zhī yī shì làng fèi de, gān shuǐ tǒng lǐ dào mǎn yú ròu hé bái mǐ.]

(At least a third of dishes on the table have been wasted, like fish, meat, and rice.)

In addition, “了 [le]” also functions as a pause when standing at the end of sentence, which results from the rules of the text.

Example 317 “慢点!” [màn diǎn!]

(Slow down!)

朱自冶站住了。[Zhū Zì yě zhàn zhù le.]

(Zhu Ziyue stopped.)

下面轰地一声笑起来了。[xià miàn hōng de yī shēng xiào qǐ lái le.]

(The audience burst into laughter.)

好呀，老顾客又回来了! [hǎo ya, lǎo gù kè yòu huí lái le!]

(Very good! Here come the regular customers!)

The sentences in Example 317 are selected from *Gastronome*, a novel written by Lu Wenfu (1928–2005), all of which stand alone as a text respectively.

Sometimes, “了 [le]” neither stands at the end of a paragraph nor appears in a compound sentence with the complement. The following sentence usually doesn't continue the action mentioned in the previous one.

Example 318 他们哈哈地笑起来了，心情是很愉快的。[tā men hā hā de xiào qǐ lái le, xīn qíng shì hěn yú kuài de.]

(They laughed and were in a happy mood.)

Example 319 小板车借回来了，可那朱自冶却像幽灵似地跟着小板车到了我的家里。[xiǎo bǎn chē jiè huí lái le, kě nà Zhū Zì yě què xiàng yōu líng sì de gēn zhe xiǎo bǎn chē dào le wǒ de jiā lǐ.]

(I borrowed the handcart, but Zhu Ziyue followed it to my house, like a ghost.)

In each of these examples, there is an obvious pause marked by a comma after “了 [le]” so that the two clauses with different subjects are separated to indicate two different actions. Actually, it's better if the comma is changed into a full stop.

The following examples seem to be more brief and cohesive without “了 [le]” after the verb-complement structures.

Example 320 我们这些从蒋管区去的学生被半路截留，被编入干部队伍随军渡江去接管城市。[wǒ men zhè xiē cóng jiǎng guǎn qū qù de xué shēng bèi bàn lù jié liú, bèi biān rù gàn bù duì wǔ suí jūn dù jiāng qù jiē guǎn chéng shì.]

(We were stopped on the way from the district governed by the Right, and then were enrolled into a cadre team that planned to cross the river to take over the city.)

Example 321 人们突然都静下来，目光都集中在我身上。[rén men tū rán dōu jìng xià lái, mù guāng dōu jí zhōng zài wǒ shēn shàng.]

(All of sudden, people fell silent and looked at me.)

In the last examples, if “了 [le]” were added after the verb-complement structure, the original sentences would change into two complete sentences, with a full stop in the middle.

Example 322 我们这些从蒋管区去的学生被半路截留，被编入干部队伍了。后来随军渡江去接管城市。[wǒ men zhè xiē cóng jiǎng guǎn qū qù de xué shēng bèi bàn lù jié liú, bèi biān rù gàn bù duì wǔ le. hòu lái suí jūn dù jiāng qù jiē guǎn chéng shì.]

(We were stopped on the way from the district governed by the Right, and then were enrolled into a cadre team. Later on, with the team we crossed the river and took over the city.)

Example 323 人们突然都静下来了。他们目光都集中在我身上。[rén men tū rán dōu jìng xià lái le. tā men mù guāng dōu jí zhōng zài wǒ shēn shàng.]

(All of sudden, people fell silent and looked at me.)

b Absence of “了 [le]” after complements

Some sentences consisting of complements can still indicate the finished actions without “了 [le]” as they usually require. The reason for that is other constituents, the contexts, or the entire sentences have already expressed this result clearly.

Example 324 有一次我们正吃得高兴，忽然有个人走到我们的房间里来。[yǒu yī cì wǒ men zhèng chī de gāo xìng, hū rán yǒu gè rén zǒu dào wǒ men de fáng jiān lǐ lái.]

(One time, when we were having a meal happily, someone suddenly walked into our house.)

Example 325 当我深夜被朱自冶的铃声惊醒之后，心中便升起一股烦恼。[dāng wǒ shēn yè bèi Zhū Zì yě de líng shēng jǐng xǐng zhī hòu, xīn zhōng biàn shēng qǐ yī gǔ fán nǎo.]

(When I was awakened by Zhu Ziye's call late at night, I became pretty annoyed.)

Example 326 我哥哥上个星期去上海，买回来很多东西。[wǒ gē ge shàng gè xīng qī qù shàng hǎi, mǎi huí lái hěn duō dōng xi.]

(My brother went to Shanghai last week and bought back a lot of things.)

The time words in these examples have already implied the finished actions.

Example 327 朱自冶又拿出一套宜兴紫砂杯。[Zhū Zì yě yòu ná chū yī tào yí xīng zǐ shā bēi.]

(Zhu Ziye took out another set of sand-fired teacups produced in Yi Xing.)

Example 328 一长串油光铮亮的黄包车在酒店门口徐徐停下。[yī cháng chuàn yóu guāng zhēng liàng de huáng bāo chē zài jiǔ diàn mén kǒu xú xú tíng xià.]

(A long line of clean rickshaws stopped slowly at the hotel entrance.)

Example 329 她步态轻盈，一阵轻风似地向吃客们飘来。[tā bù tài qīng yíng, yī pzhèn qīng fēng shì de xiàng chī kè men piāo lái.]

(With her light and graceful pace, she came up to the diners, like a light breeze.)

Example 330 叫花子呼啦一声散开。[jiào huā zi hū lā yī shēng sǎn kāi.]

(The beggars went away immediately.)

Example 331 各种热炒纷纷摆上台面。[gè zhǒng rè chǎo fēn fēn bǎi shàng tái miàn.]

(A variety of hot dishes have been placed on the table.)

Also, the adverbials in the previous examples have already implied the finished actions.

Thus it can be seen that “了 [le]” is not an only choice to express the finished action because other factors can do the same when it is absent. In fact,

the appearance of “了 [le]” plays a role in two aspects. One is to emphasize the expressive effect and the other is to separate a sentence so as to indicate a pause or a certain tone of speaking.

c Position of “了 [le]”

In the sentence consisting of the directional complement, “了 [le]” can stand either in the middle of the verb-complement structure or after it. When it is in the middle, it strengthens the verb before it to emphasize the occurrence of an action.

Example 332 想到这里她的眼泪又涌了上来。[xiǎng dào zhè lǐ tā de yǎn lèi yòu yǒng le shàng lái.]

(Her tears welled up at the thought of it.)

Example 333 我赶紧伸手把他拉了上来。[wǒ gǎn máng shēn shǒu bǎ tā lā le shàng lái.]

(I quickly reached out my hands to pull him up.)

Example 334 这时我们家的狗从外边走了进来，走到我脚边慢慢趴了下去。[zhè shí wǒ men jiā de gǒu cóng wài biān zǒu le jìn lái, zǒu dào wǒ jiǎo biān màn màn pā le xià qù.]

(Then our dog came in from the outside, walked to my feet, and lay down slowly.)

In these examples, the actions of “tearing,” “pulling,” “walking,” and “lying down” are emphasized.

When “了 [le]” comes after the object and the complement, it strengthens the entire sentence to emphasize the appearance of a thing or a state.

Example 335 我进门的时候，她们已经吵起来了。[wǒ jìn mén de shí hòu, tā men yǐ jīng chǎo qǐ lái le.]

(When I entered the room, they were quarreling.)

Here, the state of “quarrelling” is clearly presented by “了 [le].”

The similar examples are as follows.

Example 336 我看见后边的人已经追上来了，于是加快了脚步。[wǒ kàn jiàn hòu biān de rén yǐ jīng zhuī shàng lái le, yú shì jiā kuài le jiǎo bù.]

(I saw that the people behind me had caught up, so I quickened my pace.)

Example 337 天气热起来了，于是我把冬天的衣服都收了起来。[tiān qì rè qǐ lái le, yú shì wǒ bǎ dōng tiān de yī fu dōu shōu le qǐ lái.]

(It was getting hot, so I put away all my winter clothes.)

d Negative form of the directional complement

Its negative form is the same as that of the resultant complement.

Example 338

A: 你把书寄回家去了吗? [nǐ bǎ shū jì huí jiā qù le ma?]

(Have you sent the book home?)

B: 我没寄回家, 寄到系里了。[wǒ méi jì yǎn jiā, jì dào xì lǐ le.]

(I didn't send it home but to the department.)

Example 339 等一会儿吧, 汽车还没有开过来。[děng yī huì er ba, qì chē hái méi yǒu kāi guò lái.]

(Wait for a while, the bus hasn't come yet.)

Example 340 黑板上的字写得太用力, 怎么擦也没擦下去。[hēi bǎn shàng de zì xiě de tài yòng lì, zěn me cā yě méi cā xià qù.]

(The words on the blackboard were too hard to wipe off.)

Example 341 我平时很注意他们的关系, 可是他们的关系这么深这么久了, 我竟然没看出来。[wǒ píng shí hěn zhùyì tā men de guān xi, kě shì tā men de guān xi zhè me shēn zhè me jiǔ le, wǒ jìng rán méi kàn chū lái.]

(I usually had an eye on their relationship. But I never thought they were so close to each other.)

Example 342 我不拿回去她会骂我的。[wǒ bù ná huí qù tā huì mà wǒ de.]

(She'll scold me if I don't take it back.)

Example 343 今天我不做完功课不睡觉。[jīn tiān wǒ bù zuò wán gōng kè bù shuì jiào.]

(I won't go to bed until I finish my homework today.)

“不 [bù]” often stands before the verb in the hypothetical or conditional sentence, such as in the last two examples.

Section three: complements of possibility

Different from resultant complements and directional complements, complements of possibility show the possible or impossible occurrences of result, direction, or situation in the subjective or the objective condition. However, they are closely related in structure. In other words, a complement of possibility may consist of a resultant complement and a directional complement, due to its being classified into the category of complements.

Complements of possibility can be divided into three types.

- 1 A type is “得/不 [dé/bù]+resultant complement/directional complement.”
- 2 B type is “得/不 [dé/bù]+了 [liǎo].”
- 3 C type is “得/不得 [dé/dé bù].”

I. A type of complements of possibility

- 1 Grammatical meanings of A type show the possible/impossible occurrence of a result or direction in the subjective or the objective condition, such as

“吃得饱 [chī de bǎo] (be full),” “吃不饱 [chī bù bǎo] (not enough to eat),”
 “出得来 [chū de lái] (come out),” “出不了 [chū bù lái] (cannot come out).”

Example 1 小明的力气小，举不起这块大石头。[Xiǎo Míng de lì qì xiǎo, jǔ bù qǐ zhè kuài dà shí tou.]

(Xiao Ming is not strong enough to lift this big stone.)

Example 2 我只学了几个月汉语，看不懂“人民日报”。[wǒ zhǐ xué le jǐ gè yuè hàn yǔ, kàn bù dǒng “rén mín rì bào.”]

(I have only learned Chinese for a few months, so I cannot read the “People’s Daily.”)

The occurrences of impossibility in these examples are subjective.

Example 3 前边的人挡着我，看不见黑板上的字。[qián biān de rén dǎng zhe wǒ, kàn bù jiàn hēi bǎn shàng de zì.]

(The people in front blocked my sight and I couldn’t see the words on the blackboard.)

Example 4 教室里很吵，听不清录音。[jiào shì lǐ hěn chǎo, tīng bù qīng lù yīn.]

(It was so noisy in the classroom that I couldn’t hear the recording.)

The occurrences of impossibility in these examples are objective.

A type is different from “能/不能 [néng/bù néng] (can/cannot)” in meaning because the latter refers to permissibility/impermissibility for a certain reason.

Example 5 外面很冷，你又在发烧，不能出去。[wài miàn hěn lěng, nǐ yòu zài fā shāo, bù néng chū qù.]

(It’s very cold outside and you have a fever now, so you can’t go out.)

“不能 [bù néng] (can’t)” here refers to the impermissibility due to that “you have a fever now.” Therefore, it is not correct to say “*外面很冷，你又在发烧，出不去。[wài biān hěn lěng, nǐ yòu zài fā shāo, chū bù qù].”

Example 6 记住，没有我的命令，你不能进来！[jì zhù, méi yǒu wǒ de mìng lìng, nǐ bù néng jìn lái!]

(Remember, you can’t come in without my order!)

“不能 [bù néng] (can’t)” in this example refers to the impermissibility due to “without my order.” Therefore it is not correct to say “*记住，没有我的命令，你进不来！[jì zhù, méi yǒu wǒ de mìng lìng, nǐ jìn bù lái!].”

2 Affirmative and negative forms of A type

The negative form of A type frequently occurs but the affirmative one rarely does, except for in the interrogative sentence. Thus, the occurrence of possibility

is often expressed by “能 [néng] (can)/可以 [kě yǐ] (may)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement.”

Example 7 这种本子很普通，你在商店里能/可以买到。[zhè zhǒng běn zi hěn pǔ tōng, nǐ zài shāng diàn lǐ néng/kě yǐ mǎi dào.]
(This notebook is so ordinary that you can buy it in the store.)

Example 8 他又往前一凑，能听见说说笑笑，却听不清说什么。[tā yòu wǎng qián yī còu, néng tīng jiàn shuō shuō xiào xiào, què tīng bù qīng shuō shén me.]
(Hearing their chatting and laughing, he leaned forward further but couldn't catch the words clearly.)

Example 9 我能学会滑冰，但学不会游泳。[wǒ néng xué huì huá bīng, dàn xué bù huì yóu yǒng.]
(I can learn to skate, but I can't learn to swim.)

The affirmative form of A type is appropriate in the following situations.

- (1) If it appears in a question, it also appears in the answer to it.

Example 10

A: 我的话你们听得懂吗? [wǒ de huà nǐ men tīng de dǒng ma?]

(Do you understand me?)

B: 听得懂。[tīng de dǒng.]

(Yes.)

- (2) It often comes after “大概 [dà gài] (probably),” “也许 [yě xǔ] (maybe),” “说不定 [shuō bù dìng] (perhaps),” to indicate the unlikely occurrence.

Example 11 我去书店看看，你要的书也许买得到。[wǒ qù shū diàn kàn kàn, nǐ yào de shū yě xǔ mǎi de dào.]
(I'll go to the bookstore where I can probably buy the book you want.)

Example 12 你说一遍我听听，说不定我听得懂。[nǐ shuō yī biàn wǒ tīng tīng, shuō bù dìng wǒ tīng de dǒng.]
(Say it again and I might understand.)

- (3) It implies a euphemistic impossibility.

Example 13 他的病不是药治得好的。[tā de bìng bù shì yào zhì de hǎo de.]
(His illness can't be cured by medicine.)

Example 14 这里没有一个人比得上他。[zhè lǐ méi yǒu yī gè rén bǐ de shàng tā.]
(No one here is comparable to him.)

(4) It can imply a meaning related to the negative form.

Example 15 你上哪儿我也找得着! [nǐ shàng nǎ er wǒ yě zhǎo de zhe!]
(Don't think I can't find you.)

Example 16 这个人什么坏事都做得出来! [zhè gè rén shén me huài shì dōu zuò de chū lái!]
(This man can do anything bad!)

Thus it can be seen that the affirmative form of A type is more expressive than “能 [néng] (can)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement,” if “unlikeness,” “euphemistic impossibility,” or “refutation” is implied.

As for “impermissibility,” the negative form of A type is usually adopted rather than “不能 [bù néng] (can't)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement.”

Example 17 吸烟的坏处说不完。[xī yān de hài chù shuō bù wán.]
(The harm of smoking can't be overstated.)

*吸烟的坏处不能说完。[xī yān de hài chù bù néng shuō wán.]

Example 18 银花想不出办法来。[Yín Huā xiǎng bù chū bàn fǎ lái.]
(Yin Hua can't figure out a way.)

*银花不能想出办法来。[Yín Huā bù néng xiǎng chū bàn fǎ lái.]

Sometimes, “不能 [bù néng] (can't)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement” may indicate a different meaning.

Example 19 黑板上的字写得太重, 擦不掉。[hēi bǎn shàng de zì xiě de tài zhòng cā bù diào.]

(The words on the blackboard were too hard to wipe off.)

黑板上的字有人还没抄完, 不能擦掉。[hēi bǎn shàng de zì yǒu rén hái méi chāo wán, bù néng cā diào.]

(The words on the blackboard have not been copied yet, so they can't be erased.)

Example 20 老汉对羊有深厚的感情, 离不开羊群。[lǎo hàn duì yáng yǒu shēn hòu de gǎn qíng, lí bù kāi yáng qún.]

(The old man has a deep affection for sheep and he can't live without his flock.)

Example 21 羊是集体的财产, 她不能离开羊群。[yáng shì jí tǐ de cái chǎn, tā bù néng lí kāi yáng qún.]

(These sheep are the collective property so she cannot discard them.)

If “能 [néng] (can)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement” is used to indicate “opinion” or “view,” it is similar to A type.

Example 22 你不下苦功夫就不能赶上他们。[nǐ bù xià kǔ gōng fū jiù bù néng gǎn shàng tā men.]

(You couldn't catch up with them if you didn't work hard.)

你不下苦功夫就赶不上他们。[nǐ bù xià kǔ gōng fū jiù gǎn bù shàng tā men.]

(You couldn't catch up with them if you didn't work hard.)

Example 23 眼泪不能吓跑敌人，必须和敌人斗争。[yǎn lèi bù néng xià pǎo dí rén, bì xū hé dí rén dòu zhēng.]

(Tears cannot scare away the enemy; we must fight with them.)

眼泪吓不跑敌人，必须和敌人斗争。[yǎn lèi xià bù pǎo dí rén, bì xū hé dí rén dòu zhēng.]

(Tears cannot scare away the enemy; we must fight with them.)

The interrogative sentence is appropriate to both complements of possibility and “能 [néng] (can)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement.”

Example 24 他的话你听得懂吗？[tā de huà nǐ tīng de dǒng ma?]

(Do you understand what he said?)

他的话你听不懂吗？[tā de huà nǐ tīng bù dǒng ma?]

(Can't you understand what he said?)

他的话你听得懂听不懂？[tā de huà nǐ tīng de dǒng tīng bù dǒng?]

(Do you understand what he said?)

他的话你能听懂吗？[tā de huà nǐ néng tīng dǒng ma?]

(Can you understand what he said?)

他的话你能不能听懂？[tā de huà nǐ néng bù néng tīng dǒng?]

(Can you understand what he said?)

In short, the negative form of A type is frequently adopted to indicate the occurrence of impossibility; “能 [néng] (can)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement” is often used for the occurrence of possibility. Thus it can be seen that the affirmative form of A type is seldom used; there is no one-to-one correspondence between the affirmative form and the negative form of A type.

3 Idiomaticity of A type

Some complements in A type don't have the corresponding resultant or directional complements, such as “*来及” [lái jí]” or “*对起 [duì qǐ].” They are closely connected to the preceding verbs to form the idiomatic structures, such as “对不起 [duì bù qǐ] (sorry),” “靠不住 [kào bú zhù] (unreliable).” These idiomatic complements have a small quantity in Chinese and they are as follows.

“禁得/不住 [jìn de/bù zhù] (bear/be unable to bear),” “经得/不住 [jīng de/bù zhù] (bear/be unable to bear),” “靠得/不住 [kào de/bù zhù] (reliable/unreliable),” “划得/不来 [huá de/bù lái] (worthwhile/not worthwhile),” “合得/不来 [hé de/bù lái] (get along well/be unable to get along well),” “说得/不拢 [shuō de/bù lǒng] (get along well/be unable to get along well),” “经得/不起 [jīng de/bù qǐ] (bear/be unable to bear).”

Comparatively speaking, the idiomatic complements of A type are more frequently used than the affirmative complements of A type.

4 Structural features of the sentence consisting of A type

- (1) The words that the complements of A type come after are mainly monosyllabic verbs frequently used in the spoken language. If both share the same meaning, the monosyllabic verb is usually chosen, such as “吐不出来 [tǔ bù chū lái] (be unable to vomit)” instead of “呕吐不出来 [ǒu tǔ bù chū lái] (be unable to vomit),” “考不好 [kǎo bù hǎo] (do bad on the exam)” instead of “考试不好 [kǎo shì bù hǎo] (do badly on the exam).” Some verbs in the written style cannot take complements of possibility.

The following verbs selected from *Three Thousand Common Words in Mandarin (First Draft)*, cannot take complements of possibility.

a Disyllabic verbs of verb-complements

取得 [qǔ dé] (acquire), 获得 [huò dé] (acquire), 使得 [shǐ de] (make), 免得 [miǎn dé] (exempt), 觉得 [jué de] (feel), 晓得 [xiǎo de] (know), 认为 [rèn wéi] (think), 成为 [chéng wéi] (become), 延长 [yán cháng] (extend), 扩大 [kuò dà] (expand).

b Verbs referring to psychological activities

感动 [gǎn dòng] (move), 佩服 [pèi fú] (admire), 喜欢 [xǐ huān] (like), 讨厌 [tǎo yàn] (hate), 抱怨 [bào yuàn] (complain), 想 [xiǎng] (miss), 误会 [wù huì] (misunderstand), 怕 [pà] (fear), 心疼 [xīn téng] (love), 着急 [zhāo jí] (worry), 懂 [dǒng] (understand), 知道 [zhī dào] (know), 同意 [tóng yì] (agree), 希望 [xī wàng] (wish), 满意 [mǎn yì] (satisfy).

c Volitive verbs

有 [yǒu] (yes), 是 [shì] (yes), 为 [wéi] (yes), 像 [xiàng] (like), 以为 [yǐ wéi] (think), 让 [ràng] (make), 叫 [jiào] (make), 给 [gěi] (give).

d Other verbs

灭 [miè] (extinguish), 断 [duàn] (break), 发生 [fā shēng] (happen), 开始 [kāi shǐ] (start), 出现 [chū xiàn] (appear), 经过 [jīng guò] (pass), 成 [chéng] (succeed), 结果 [jié guǒ] (result), 停止 [tíng zhǐ] (stop), 加入 [jiā rén] (add), 爆发 [bào fā] (erupt), 鼓励 [gǔ lì] (encourage), 称赞 [chēng zàn] (praise), 尊敬 [zūn jìng] (respect), 尊重 [zūn zhòng] (respect), 冲突 [chōng tū] (conflict), 反对 [fǎn duì] (oppose), 俘虏 [fú lǔ] (capture), 允许 [yǔn xǔ] (allow), 通信 [tōng xìn] (communicate), 教学 [jiào xué] (teach), 交际 [jiāo jì] (communicate), 抱歉 [bào qiàn] (sorry), 失去 [shī qù] (lose), 著 [zhù] (play), 游戏 [yóu xì] (play), 拥抱 [yōng bào] (hug), 跟随 [gēn suí] (follow).

A few adjectives can take complements of A type, such as “好不下去了 [hǎo bù xià qù le] (can't be better),” “热不死 [rè bù sǐ] (cannot be dying from the heat),” “红不起来 [hóng bù qǐ lái] (cannot get popular).”

The directional complements of directional meaning and resultant meaning are appropriate to form the complements of possibility; their state meanings are not. For instance, “哭开了 [kū kāi le] (begin to cry)” cannot be changed into “*哭不开 [kū bù kāi]” or “哭起来了 [kū qǐ lái le] (begin to cry)” cannot be changed into “*哭不起来 [kū bù qǐ lái].”

(2) Only non-descriptive adverbials for time, location, scope, or object can come before the verbs followed by complements of possibility.

Example 25 大娘接过药，眼里含着感激的泪水，半天说不出话来。[dà niáng jiē guò yào, yǎn lǐ hán zhe gǎn jī de lèi shuǐ, bàn tiān shuō bù chū huà lái.]

(The old lady took over the medicine, speechless with tears of gratitude in her eyes.)

Example 26 她性格孤僻，和别人谈不上几句就没话了。[tā xìng gé gū pì, hé bié rén tán bù shàng jǐ jù jiù méi huà le.]

(She is unsociable and eccentric, seldom talking with others.)

Example 27 一直到半夜，他还合不上眼。[yī zhí dào bàn yè, tā hái hé bù shàng yǎn.]

(He couldn't fall asleep even at midnight.)

Example 28 一锹挖不出个井，一口吃不成个胖子。[yī qiāo wā bù chū gè jǐng, yī kǒu chī bù chéng gè pàng zi.]

(Rome was not built in one day.)

Usually, the descriptive adverbials for mood or attitude of the doer don't come before verbs. Otherwise, “能 [néng] (can)+verb+resultant complement/directional complement” is required before them.

Example 29 他在哪里呢？他自己也不能正确地回答出来。[tā zài nǎ lǐ ne? tā zì jǐ yě bù néng zhèng què de huí dá chū lái.]

(Even for himself, he couldn't have the answer to where he is.)

*他在哪里呢？他自己也正确地回答不出来。[tā zài nǎ lǐ ne? tā zì jǐ yě zhèng què de huí dá bù chū lái.]

Example 30 你能高高兴兴地做完这件事吗？[ní néng gāo gāo xìng xìng de zuò wán zhè jiàn shì ma?]

(Can you finish it happily?)

*你能高高兴兴地做完这件事吗？[ní néng gāo gāo xìng xìng de zuò wán zhè jiàn shì ma?]

The following two examples differ in meaning.

Example 31 这些书我今天不能全买到。[zhè xiē shū wǒ jīn tiān bù néng quán mǎi dào.]

(I cannot buy all these books today.)

这些书我今天全买不到。[zhè xiē shū wǒ jīn tiān quán mǎi bù dào.]

(I cannot buy any of these books today.)

“全 [quán] (all)” in the first one is restricted in “buy”; in the second one, it is for “cannot buy.”

- (3) Usually, complements of possibility cannot come after the predicate verbs in “把 [bǎ]” sentences or “被 [bèi]” sentences, except for several idiomatic ones.

Example 32 他不明白，为什么自己总被人看不起？[tā bù míng bai, wèi shén me zì jǐ zǒng bèi rén kàn bù qǐ?]

(He didn't understand why he was always looked down upon.)

The first verb of the sentence with serial verbs cannot take the complement of possibility. The following examples are inappropriate in Chinese.

Example 33 *我把这个活干不好。[wǒ bǎ zhè gè huó gàn bù hǎo.]

Example 34 *我把这些练习一小时做得完。[wǒ bǎ zhè xiē liànxí yí xiǎo shí zuò de wán.]

Example 35 *这个杯子被他打不破。[zhè gè bēi zi bèi tā dǎ bù pò.]

- (4) A few degree adverbials can stand in the middle of some complements of possibility, such as “太 [tài] (too),” “大 [dà] (big),” “很 [hěn] (very).”

Example 36 我看不大清楚。[wǒ kàn bù dà qīng chǔ.]

(I can't see clearly.)

Example 37 在别人家里吃饭，我总吃不大饱。[zài bié rén jiā lǐ chī fàn, wǒ zǒng chī bù dà bǎo.]

(I never get enough to eat with other families.)

Example 38 这件事我说不太准。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ shuō bù tài zhǔn.]

(I'm not sure about this matter.)

- (5) Position of object

- a Objects usually come after complements of possibility.

Example 39 我们还是看不清跑道。[wǒ men hái shì kàn bù qīng pǎo dào.]

(We still can't see the runway clearly.)

Example 40 这个口袋装不下六十斤米。[zhè gè kǒu dai zhuāng bù xià liù shí jīn mǐ.]

(This bag cannot hold sixty jin of rice.)

Example 41 商店已经下班了，他买不来东西了。[shāng diàn yǐ jīng xià bān le, tā mǎi bù lái dōng xī le.]

(The shop has closed and he can't buy anything.)

- b Objects can be moved in front of verb-complement phrases, only if the verbs should be repeated before objects.

Example 42 他说话说不明白。[tā shuō huà shuō bù míng bai.]

(He cannot express himself clearly.)

Example 43 汽车弯拐拐不过来。[qì chē wān guǎi guǎi bú guò lái.]

(The car cannot make a turn.)

- c Objects often stand in the middle of complements of possibility consisting of compound directional ones.

Example 44 他激动得说不出话来。[tā jī dòng de shuō bù chū huà lái.]

(He was speechless with excitement.)

Example 45 他的思想总是转不过弯来。[tā de sī xiǎng zǒng shì zhuǎn bú guò wān lái.]

(He is always one-track minded.)

- (6) “能 [néng] (can)” can be added before the affirmative form of A type to strengthen subjective or objective permissibility.

Example 46 这一百多亿根毛竹，流去了井冈山人多少汗水，谁能算得清呢？[zhè yī bǎi duō yì gēn máo zhú, liú qù le jǐng gāng shān rén duō shǎo hàn shuǐ, shuí néng suàn de qīng ne?]

(Who could tell how many efforts the people in Jing Gang Mountains had paid for these 10 billion moso bamboo?)

Example 47 你别说，我能猜得出来。[nǐ bié shuō, wǒ néng cāi de chū lái.]

(Don't tell me and I can guess.)

“不能 [bù néng] (cannot)” cannot come before the negative form of A type because a double-negative form indicates affirmation in Chinese. Besides, “不能 [bù néng] (cannot)” is polysemous, which tends to cause ambiguity.

Example 48 你完不成这个任务。[nǐ wán bù chéng zhè gè rèn wù.]

(You can't complete this task.) (negation)

你不能完不成这个任务。[nǐ bù néng wán bù chéng zhè gè rèn wù.]

(You have to finish the task.) (affirmation)

Example 49 这句话他听不懂。[zhè jù huà tā tīng bù dǒng.]

(He didn't understand this sentence.) (negation)

这句话他不能听不懂。[zhè jù huà tā bù néng tīng bù dǒng.]
(He should understand this sentence.) (affirmation)

II. *B type of complements of possibility*

1 Grammatical meanings of B type

B type is formed by “得 [de]/不 [bù/bú]+了 [liǎo].” “了 [liǎo]” originally means “finish” or “end” but “得 [de]/不 [bù/bú]+了 [liǎo]” still indicates the similar resultant meaning when it appears after some verbs. “了 [le]” as the dynamic auxiliary word also means “finish” or “end” when it comes after some verbs.

Example 50 这个西瓜太大，咱们俩吃不了。[zhè gè xī guā tài dà, zán men liǎ chī bù liǎo.]
(This watermelon is too big for both of us to finish.)

Example 51 这件事我总也忘不了。[zhè jiàn shì wǒ zǒng yě wàng bù liǎo.]
(I will never forget this matter.)

In the last examples, what “不+了 [bù liǎo]” indicates is the same as that of A type, therefore it can be categorized into A Type.

“了 [liǎo]” in “得 [de]/不 [bù/bú]+了 [liǎo]” doesn't originally indicate a resultant meaning; “得/不了 [de/bù liǎo]” as a whole shows an impossible/possible occurrence of a certain action or change in the subjective or objective condition.

Example 52 钻机没有水就动不了。[zuàn jī méi yǒu shuǐ jiù dòng bù liǎo.]
(The drill can't turn without water.) (objective impermissibility)

Example 53 今天下雨，去不了颐和园了。[jīn tiān xià yǔ, qù bù liǎo yí hé yuán le.]
(It's raining and we can't go to the Summer Palace.) (objective impermissibility)

Example 54 你这么大年纪了，连山上的草都拔不了，怎么能搬走这两座大山呢？[nǐ zhè me dà nián jì le, lián shān shàng de cǎo dōu bá bù liǎo, zěn me néng bān zǒu zhè liǎng zuò dà shān ne?]
(You were too old to pull out the grass on the mountain. How could you move these two mountains?) (subjective impermissibility)

Example 55 今天阿里病了，上不了课了。[jīn tiān Ā Lǐ bìng le, shàng bù liǎo kè le.]
(A Li is ill and can't go to class today.) (subjective impermissibility)

“得/不了 [de/bù liǎo]” can also indicate an estimate of a certain situation.

Example 56 我看小刘比小陈大不了几岁。[wǒ kàn Xiǎo Liú bǐ Xiǎo Chén dà bù liǎo jǐ suì.]
(I don't think Xiao Liu is much older than Xiao Chen.)

Example 57 敌人是兔子的尾巴，长不了。[dí rén shì tù zi de wěi ba, zhǎng bù liǎo.]

(The enemy won't last long.)

Only “能 [néng] (can)” is qualified for permissibility/impermissibility due to a certain reason.

Example 58 一个人不能去，会掉在沟里！[yī gè rén bù néng qù, huì diào zài gōu lǐ!]

(Don't go alone, you will fall in the ditch!)

*一个人去不了，会掉在沟里！[yī gè rén qù bù liǎo, huì diào zài gōu lǐ!]

Example 59 你的要求是错误的，我不能答应。[nǐ de yāo qiú shì cuò wù de, wǒ bù néng dā yìng.]

(Your request is wrong, and I cannot agree.)

*你的要求是错误的，我答应不了！[nǐ de yāo qiú shì cuò wù de, wǒ dā yìng bù liǎo!]

The negative form of B type is mainly used in the declarative sentence; “能 [néng] (can)” is frequently adopted to indicate affirmation.

Example 60 二哥，属老虎的才能干这种事，属耗子的干不了。[èr gē, shǔ lǎo hǔ de cái néng gàn zhè zhǒng shì, shǔ hào zi de gàn bù liǎo.]

(Brother, the people who born in the year of tiger can do this; the people born in the year of mouse can't.)

Example 61 今天晚上我能去，阿里去不了。[jīn tiān wǎn shàng wǒ néng qù, Ā Lǐ qù bù liǎo.]

(I can go tonight, but A Li cannot.)

B type is common in the spoken language; “能/不能 [néng/bù néng] (can/cannot)+verb,” along with A type or other forms, is more popular in the written language or the formal situation.

2 Differences between B type and A type

Although they function similarly in showing impossible/possible occurrence in the subjective or objective condition, A type is often related to a result or direction and B type has no such the relation.

Example 62 今天晚上我有事，看不完这本书了。[jīn tiān wǎn shàng wǒ yǒu shì, kàn bù wán zhè běn shū le.]

(I have something else to do tonight so I can't finish this book.) (A type)

今天晚上我有事，看不了这本书了。[jīn tiān wǎn shàng wǒ yǒu shì, kàn bù liǎo zhè běn shū le.]

(I have something else to do tonight so I have no time to read this book.)

(B type)

3 Structural features of sentences consisting of B type

Generally speaking, the two types share many things in structure, except for two points.

- (1) Compared to A type, B type can connect a wider range of verbs and adjectives, including some verbs in the verb-complement form, such as “扩大 [kuò dà] (enlarge),” “延长 [yán cháng] (extend),” “埋没 [mái mò] (bury),” “提高 [tí gāo] (improve),” and some verbs with adverbials in the front or complements in the rear.

Example 63 我们这里埋没不了人材。 [wǒ men zhè lǐ mái mò bù liǎo rén cái.]

(We don't miss real talents.)

Example 64 他这个人，早来不了。 [tā zhè gè rén, zǎo lái bù liǎo.]

(He can't come early.)

Example 65 这些土地是我们的，谁也抢不了去！ [zhè xiē tǔ dì shì wǒ men de, shuí yě qiǎng bù liǎo qù!]

(These lands are ours, and no one can grab them!)

The wide use of B type is due to its popularity in the spoken language. Thus, B type cannot connect those verbs unpopular in the spoken language, such as “逾 [yú] (exceed),” “著 [zhù] (write),” “恭候 [gōng hòu] (await),” “寻 [xún] (seek)”; some causatives, such as “使 [shǐ] (make),” “让 [ràng] (make),” “叫 [jiào] (make)”; or volitive verbs.

The adjectives that B type cannot take include the two groups. Group one consists of some adjectives unpopular in the spoken language. They are as follows.

肮脏 [āng zāng] (dirty), 错误 [cuò wù] (wrong), 丑陋 [chǒu lòu] (ugly), 细腻 [xì nì] (fine), 衰败 [shuāi bài] (decay), 高大 [gāo dà] (high).

Group two consists of non-predicate adjectives. They are as follows.

男 [nán] (male), 女 [nǚ] (female), 雌 [cí] (female), 雄 [xióng] (male), 正 [zhèng] (upright), 副 [fù] (deputy), 横 [héng] (horizontal), 竖 [shù] (vertical), 夹 [jiā] (press), 大型 [dà xíng] (large-sized), 初级 [chū jí] (primary), 多项 [duō xiàng] (multiple), 个别 [gè bié] (individual), 共同 [gòng tóng] (common), 主要 [zhǔ yào] (main), 新生 [xīn shēng] (new-born), 慢性 [màn xìng] (chronic), 新式 [xīn shì] (new style), 四方 [sì fāng] (quartet), 万能 [wàn néng] (universal), 天然 [tiān rán] (natural), 人为 [rén wéi] (man-made), 袖珍 [xiù zhēn] (pocket), 高频 [gāo pín] (high frequency).

- (2) No degree adverbials can stand in the middle of complements of B type.

III. C type of complements of possibility

C type is formed by “得/不得 [dé/bù dé]” coming after verbs or adjectives, such as “吃不得 [chī bù dé] (not good to eat),” “去不得 [qù bù dé] (shouldn’t go),” “急不得 [jí bù dé] (shouldn’t worry).” This indicates two meanings, based on how they are further divided into C1 type and C2 type.

1 C1 type

C1 indicates impossible/possible occurrence of an action, similar to the meaning of B type.

Example 66 三仙姑羞得只顾擦汗，再也开不得口。[sān xiān gū xiū de zhǐ gù cā hàn, zài yě kāi bù dé kǒu.]

(San Xian Gu felt so ashamed that she just wiped her sweat and kept silent.)

Example 67 他倒在太师椅上，半天动弹不得。[tā dào zài tài shī yǐ shàng, bàn tiān dòng tan bù dé.]

(He fell into his armchair and couldn’t move.)

C1 doesn’t often occur in modern Chinese; therefore, “能/不能 [néng/bù néng] (can/cannot)+verb” or B type is often used.

Example 68 我没有时间，不能去了。[wǒ méi yǒu shí jiān, bù néng qù le.]

(I have no time to go.)

我没有时间，去不了。[wǒ méi yǒu shí jiān, qù bù liǎo.]

(I have no time to go.)

*我没有时间，去不得了。[wǒ méi yǒu shí jiān, qù bù de le.]

Some complements in C1 are of idiomaticity. They are commonly used in modern Chinese, such as “恨不得 [hèn bù dé] (very anxious to),” “怪不得 [guài bù dé] (no wonder),” “顾不得 [gù bù dé] (unable to charge),” “巴不得 [bā bù dé] (look forward to),” “算不得 [suàn bù dé] (unable to regard as)” in the negative form, and “舍得/不得 [shě dé/bù dé] (be willing/unwilling to),” “值得/不得 [zhí dé/bù dé] (be worthy/unworthy of),” “记得/不得 [jì dé/bù dé] (remember/don’t remember)” in the negative as well as affirmation forms.

2 C2 type

C2 can come after verbs or adjectives to indicate “should do” due to a certain reason.

Example 69 凉水浇不得。[liáng shuǐ jiāo bù dé.]

(You shouldn’t water it with cold water.)

Example 70 这个人你可小看不得。[zhè gè rén nǐ kě xiǎo kàn bù dé.]

(You shouldn’t underestimate this man.)

Example 71 那推针的手，轻不得、重不得、慢不得、快不得。[nà tuī zhēn de shǒu, qīng bù dé, zhòng bù dé, màn bù dé, kuài bù dé.]
(The acupuncture therapy needs accurate skills.)

Example 72 那寿木盖子是四川漆！不能碰，碰不得！[nà shòu mù gài zi shì sì chuān qī! bù néng pèng, pèng bù dé!]
(The coffin cover was painted with Sichuan lacquer! Don't touch it!)

C2 is not qualified for impermissibility.

Example 73 没有我的命令你不能走！[méi yǒu wǒ de mìng lìng nǐ bù néng zǒu.]
(You can't leave without my order!)
*没有我的命令你走不得。[méi yǒu wǒ de mìng lìng nǐ zǒu bù dé。]

Except for being used in the interrogative sentence, C2 usually appears in the negative form to indicate “expostulating” or “reminding,” so as to avoid the negative impact of an action or situation conveyed by verbs or adjectives in front of C2. Such use only occurs in the spoken language.

The following are two structural features of sentences consisting of C2.

- (1) The verbs or adjectives before C2 are mainly monosyllabic. The verbs that cannot take C2 are as follows.
 - a Those unpopular in the spoken language
 - b Those uncontrolled by doers of action: 醒 [xǐng] (wake up), 传染 [chuán rǎn] (infect), 长 [cháng] (long), 度过 [dù guò] (spend), 遇 [yù] (meet), 吃惊 [chī jīng] (surprise), 觉悟 [jué wù] (awareness), 爆发 [bào fā] (burst)
 - c 是 [shì] (yes), 像 [xiàng] (like), 为 [wéi] (for), 以为 [yǐ wéi] (think) and volitive verbs

The adjectives that can take C2 are limited in number. They mainly include those that can be controlled by people as well as those popular in the spoken language.

大 [dà] (large), 小 [xiǎo] (small), 高 [gāo] (high), 低 [dī] (low), 长 [cháng] (long), 短 [duǎn] (short), 粗 [cū] (thick), 细 [xì] (thin), 宽 [kuān] (wide), 窄 [zhǎi] (narrow), 厚 [hòu] (thick), 薄 [báo] (thin), 满 [mǎn] (full), 空 [kōng] (empty), 多 [duō] (more), 少 [shǎo] (less), 偏 [piān] (partial), 歪 [wāi] (squat), 斜 [xié] (oblique), 弯 [wān] (curved), 深 [shēn] (deep), 浅 [qiǎn] (shallow), 重 [zhòng] (heavy), 轻 [qīng] (light), 快 [kuài] (fast), 慢 [màn] (slow), 迟 [chí] (late), 浓 [nóng] (thick), 淡 [dàn] (light), 密 [mì] (dense), 稀 [xī] (thin), 软 [ruǎn] (soft), 硬 [yìng] (hard), 紧 [jǐn] (tight), 松 [sōng] (loose), 乱 [luàn] (chaotic), 稳 [wěn] (steady), 错 [cuò] (wrong), 怪 [guài] (strange), 贵 [guì] (expensive), 贱 [jiàn] (awkward), 便宜 [pián yí] (cheap), 密切 [mì qiè] (close), 统一 [tǒng yī] (unified), 简单 [jiǎn dān] (simple), 复

杂 [fù zá] (complicated), 难 [nán] (difficult), 容易 [róng yì] (easy), 热 [rè] (hot), 冷 [lěng] (cold), 凉 [liáng] (cool), 甜 [tián] (sweet), 酸 [suān] (sour), 辣 [là] (spicy), 咸 [xián] (salty), 饿 [è] (hungry), 累 [lèi] (tired), 闲 [xián] (leisure), 慌 [huāng] (panic), 胖 [pàng] (fat), 美 [měi] (beautiful), 骄傲 [jiāo ào] (proud), 糊涂 [hú tú] (confused), 灵活 [líng huó] (flexible), 老实 [lǎo shí] (honest), 谦虚 [qiān xū] (modest), 粗鲁 [cū lǔ] (rude), 冒失 [mào shī] (rash), 粗心 [cū xīn] (careless), 大意 [dà yì] (careless), 随便 [suí biàn] (casual), 认真 [rèn zhēn] (serious), 马虎 [mǎ hǔ] (sloppy), 麻痹 [má bì] (paralyzed), 厉害 [lì hài] (powerful), 紧张 [jǐn zhāng] (tense), 急 [jí] (anxious), 客气 [kè qì] (polite), 文明 [wén míng] (civilized), 严 [yán] (strict), 活泼 [huó pō] (lively), 顽固 [wán gù] (stubborn), 疲沓 [pí ta] (exhausted), 固执 [gù zhí] (stubborn), 热情 [rè qíng] (enthusiastic), 大方 [dà fāng] (generous), 小气 [xiǎo qì] (stingy), 自私 [zì sī] (selfish), 激烈 [jī liè] (fierce), 懒 [lǎn] (lazy), 勉强 [miǎn qiáng] (stubborn), 顽皮 [wán pí] (naughty), 高兴 [gāo xìng] (happy), 恼 [nǎo] (annoying), 亲热 [qīn rè] (affectionate), 兴奋 [xīng fèn] (excited), 保守 [bǎo shǒu] (conservative), 积极 [jī jí] (positive), 消极 [xiāo jí] (negative), 悲观 [bēi guān] (pessimistic).

- (2) The verbs after C type seldom take objects, except for some in the simple structure, such as “开不得口 [kāi bù dé kǒu] (be hard to speak out),” “怨不得他 [yuàn bù dé tā] (shouldn't blame him).” If the recipient appears in the sentence, it is often moved ahead of the verb to function as the subject.

Example 74 你那犹犹豫豫的老毛病可犯不得! [nǐ nà yóu yóu yù yù de lǎo máo bìng kě fàn bu dé!]

(You shouldn't fall into your old habit of hesitation.)

*可犯不得你那犹犹豫豫的老毛病。[kě fàn bù de nǐ nà yóu yóu yù yù de lǎo máo bìng.]

Section four: modal complements

Modal complements refer to those connected with verbs by “得 [de]” to indicate a resultant state of an action. Those connected by “个 [gè],” “得个 [de gè]” also belong to modal complements. Some adjectives can take modal complements.

Modal complements are very complex in structure, semantic orientation as well as expressive function. It is important in describing the result of an action.

I. Semantic orientation of modal complements

Similar to resultant complements, they don't point to verbs all the time.

1 Modal complements with semantic orientation to verbs

Functioned by adjectives (phrases), they describe, evaluate, or judge actions. Usually, “很 [hěn] (very)” is required to come before them to indicate a weak degree.

Example 1 为了备课, 李老师每天睡得很晚。[wèi le bèi kè, Lǐ lǎo shī měi tiān shuì de hěn wǎn.]

(In order to prepare for class, Prof. Li goes to bed very late every day.)

Example 2 这场友谊赛非常精彩, 运动员都打得很好。[zhè chǎng yǒu yì sài fēi cháng jīng cǎi, yùn dòng yuán dōu dǎ de hěn hǎo.]

(The friendly match was wonderful and the players played very well.)

The adjectives can function alone as modal complements, only if they are used in a contrastive sentence.

Example 3 我们一起学英语, 他学得好, 我学得不好。[wǒ men yī qǐ xué yīng yǔ, tā xué de hǎo, wǒ xué de bù hǎo.]

(We learn English together; he does well but I don't.)

Example 4 我从前唱得好, 现在嗓子不行了, 唱不好了。[wǒ cóng qián chàng de hǎo, xiàn zài sǎng zi bù xíng le, chàng bù hǎo le.]

(I used to sing, but now I have a bad voice and can't sing well.)

Degree adverbials can also come before adjectives.

Example 5 太阳出来有一人高了, 伙计们睡得正香。[tài yáng chū lái yǒu yī rén gāo le, huǒ jì men shuì de zhèng xiāng.]

(The sun has risen and the guys are still sleeping soundly.)

Example 6 他说得非常对, 我完全同意。[tā shuō de fēi cháng duì, wǒ wán quán tóng yì.]

(He is absolutely right and I totally agree with him.)

They can pose the question to themselves.

Example 7 老师的问题他回答得对不对? [lǎo shī de wèn tí tā huí dá de duì bù duì.]

(Did he answer the teacher's question correctly?)

Example 8 他唱得好吗? [tā chàng de hǎo ma?]

(Does he sing well?)

Example 9 你今天起得是不是很晚? [nǐ jīn tiān qǐ de shì bù shì hěn wǎn?]

(Did you get up late today?)

Their affirmative form is common and the negative form also occurs.

Example 10 我唱得不好, 请大家原谅。[wǒ chàng de bù hǎo, qǐng dà jiā yuán liàng.]

(Please forgive me for my poor singing.)

If objects after verbs appear with no definite meanings, these verbs should be repeated.

Example 11 他唱歌唱得很好。[tā chàng gē chàng dé hěn hǎo.]

(He sings very well.)

Example 12 小李写汉字写得很清楚。[Xiǎo Lǐ xiě hàn zì xiě de hěn qīng chǔ.]

(Xiao Li can write Chinese characters well.)

Example 13 玛丽说汉语说得比我流利。[Mǎ lì shuō hàn yǔ shuō de bǐ wǒ liú lì.]

(Mary speaks Chinese more fluently than I do.)

Example 14 我妹妹说话说得很快，外国人听起来很困难。[wǒ mèi mei shuō huà shuō de hěn kuài, wài guó rén tīng qǐ lái hěn kùn nán.]

(My younger sister speaks Chinese quickly so the foreigners have difficulty understanding her.)

Example 15 他抽烟抽得很多。[tā chōu yān chōu de hěn duō.]

(He smokes a lot.)

Such repetition usually indicates a habitual action but not a particular one. The first verb in such repetition can be absent.

Example 16 他歌唱得很好。[tā gē chàng de hěn hǎo.]

(He sings well.)

Example 17 小李的汉字写得很清楚。[Xiǎo Lǐ de hàn zì xiě de hěn qīng chǔ.]

(Xiao Li can write Chinese characters well.)

Example 18 玛丽汉语说得比我流利。[Mǎ lì hàn yǔ shuō de bǐ wǒ liú lì.]

(Mary speaks Chinese more fluently than I do.)

2 Modal complements with semantic orientation to recipients or doers of action

The predicate verbs or adjectives in the sentences consisting of such complements usually indicate certain reasons with the complements after “得 [de]” as results. When the headword of predicate is an adjective, the complement usually describes the doer of action as the subject; when the headword is a verb, the complement often describes the recipient of action or both sometimes. A large number of words can function as the complements, including adjectives (phrases), verbs (phrases), noun phrases, fixed phrases, and compound phrases. Therefore, the sentences containing such complements take up a majority in modern Chinese.

Example 19 敌人气得大喊：“你小小年纪，难道不怕死吗？”[dí rén qì de dà hǎn: “nǐ xiǎo xiǎo nián jì, nán dào bù pà sǐ ma?”]

(The enemy shouted angrily: “You are so young, aren’t you afraid to die?”)

In fact, the modal complement of this type contains more than one subject-predicate structure or verb-object structure. The last example consists of two

subject-object structures, namely “敌人气 [dí rén qì] (the enemy angrily)” and “敌人大喊 [dí rén dà hǎn] (the enemy shouted).” “气 [qì] (angry)” is the reason and “大喊 [dà hǎn] (shout)” is the result as well as the state of “气 [qì] (angry).”

Example 20 听了这句话，他的脸胀得通红。[tīng le zhè jù huà, tā de liǎn zhàng de tōng hóng.]

(After hearing this, his face was flushed.)

Example 21 嗓子眼儿干得直冒烟儿。[sǎng zi yǎn er gān de zhí mào yān er.]

(My throat is pretty dry.)

Example 22 王进喜听了这个消息高兴得跳了起来。[Wáng Jìn xǐ tīng le zhè ge xiāo xī gāo xìng dé tiào le qǐ lái.]

(Wang Jinxi jumped with joy when he heard the news.)

Example 23 老大娘高兴得见人就说：“合作医疗真是好啊！”[lǎo dà niáng gāo xìng de jiàn rén jiù shuō: “hé zuò yī liáo zhēn shì hǎo a!”]

(The old lady was very happy to tell anyone she met that the cooperative medical care here was really good.)

Example 24 我看他忙得一点空也没有，心里很难过。[wǒ kàn tā máng de yī diǎn kòng yě méi yǒu, xīn lǐ hěn nán guò.]

(I feel sorry to see that he is too busy to have a rest.)

Example 25 老纪听得入了迷。[Lǎo Jì tīng de rù le mí.]

(Lao Ji was totally fascinated at the opera.)

In the last example, “入了迷 [rù le mí] (fascinated)” is the modal complement consisting of a verb-object structure. Another similar example is as follows.

Example 26 我看书看得忘了吃饭。[wǒ kàn shū kàn de wàng le chī fàn.]

(I was so fascinated at reading that I forgot to have a meal.)

Sometimes, non-action verbs such as “生 [shēng] (grow),” “长 [zhǎng] (grow),” don't indicate the reason when functioning as predicates. Their complements can also refer to the states of doers.

Example 27 此人生得细长高粱秆个子，鸡蛋脸。[cǐ rén shēng de xì cháng gāo liáng gǎn gè zi, jī dàn liǎn.]

(The man is thin and tall, with an oval face.)

Example 28 这个小女孩长得很漂亮。[zhè ge xiǎo nǚ hái zhǎng de hěn piào liàng.]

(This little girl is very pretty.)

The objects after verbs require the predicate verbs to be repeated when the modal complements point to doers or recipients of action.

Example 29 他走路走得满身大汗。[tā zǒu lù zǒu de mǎn shēn dà hàn.]

(He sweated heavily as he walked.)

Example 30 小明听故事听得忘了吃饭。[Xiǎo Míng tīng gù shì tīng de wàng le chī fàn.]

(Xiao Ming forgot to have a meal when he was fascinated listening to the story.)

- 3 When a subject-predicate phrase functions as a modal complement, its inside predicate narrates its inside subject.

Example 31 铁锤一下一下准确地落到钢钎上，打得石屑飞溅，火星四溅。[tiě chuí yī xià yī xià zhǔn què de luò dào gāng qiān shàng, dǎ de shí xiè fēi bèng, huǒ hàn sì jiàn.]

(The hammer fell on the drilling steel with great accuracy, sparks flying off the stone chippings everywhere.)

In this example, “飞溅 [fēi bèng] (flying off)” narrates “石屑 [shí xiè] (stone chippings); “四溅 [sì jiàn] (flying off everywhere)” narrates “火星 [huǒ xīng] (sparks).”

Example 32 呼啸的大风卷起地上的灰沙，直吹得我头昏眼花。[hū xiào de dà fēng juǎn qǐ dì shàng de huī shā, zhí chuī de wǒ tóu hūn yǎn huā.]

(The howling wind whipped up the dust and made me feel dizzy.)

Example 33 在进军的路上，打得敌人望风而逃。[zài jìn jūn de lù shàng, dǎ de dí rén wàng fēng ér táo.]

(On the march, the enemy ran away at the rumor of our approach.)

Example 34 看慌得你那个样子，快把心收收办正事好不好？[Kàn huāng dé nǐ nà gè yang zi, kuài bǎ xīn shōu shōu bàn zhèng shì hǎo bù hǎo?]

(Don't be so panicked like that! Calm down to work, O.K.?)

Example 35 这一番话听得我凄然而又悚然。[zhè yī fān huà tīng de wǒ qī rán ér yòu sǒng rán.]

(I was shocked and saddened by these words.)

Example 36 这双鞋穿得底都快透了，可是帮儿还很好。[zhè shuāng xié chuān de dǐ dōu kuài tòu le, kě shì bāng er hái hěn hǎo.]

(The soles of the shoes are almost worn out, but the uppers are still in good condition.)

Example 37 小明写字写得铅笔尖都秃了。[Xiǎo Míng xiě zì xiě de qiān bǐ jiān dōu tū le.]

(Xiao Ming almost wore out the pencil in practicing Chinese characters.)

These examples reflect a very complex relation among subjects and predicate verbs of the sentences and the subjects inside modal complements. In Example 31 and Example 32, the sentence subjects are the doers of action; the subjects inside modal complements are the recipients of action conveyed by the predicate verbs. In Example 35, the sentence subject is also the subject of the modal complement and functions as the doer. In Example 34, the headword of the predicate is

an adjective and it describes the sentence subject that is also the subject of the complement. In Example 36, the subject of the complement belongs to that of the entire sentence. In Example 37, the subject of the complement indicates the tool involved by the predicate verb. Generally speaking, all these sentences can be changed into “把 [bǎ]” sentences, such as “大风把我吹得头昏眼花。[dà fēng bǎ wǒ chuī de tóu hūn yǎn huā.] (The strong wind made me feel dizzy.)”

The modal complements with semantic orientation to doers or recipients of action indicate concrete or particular actions, which is quite different from those with semantic orientation to verbs.

II. *Structural features of sentences consisting of modal complements*

- 1 Only “得 [de]” can stand between the modal complement and the headword of predicate.
- 2 The features of verbs and adjectives followed by modal complements are as follows.

(1) Verbs and adjectives that can take modal complements

- a Common verbs can take modal complements describing actions.
- b Most monosyllabic verbs can take modal complements pointing to doers or recipients, such as “打 [dǎ] (beat),” “吹 [chuī] (blow),” “说 [shuō] (speak).” A few disyllabic verbs are included and they are mainly action verbs, such as “收拾 [shōu shì] (put in order),” “打扮 [dǎ ban] (dressing up),” “糟蹋 [zāo tà] (waste),” “整理 [zhěng lǐ] (clear up),” “安排 [ān pái] (arrange),” “打扫 [dǎ sǎo] (clean).”
- c Monosyllabic adjectives and many disyllabic ones can take modal complements that describe states of doers. They include:

聪明 [cōng míng] (smart), 老练 [lǎo liàn] (experienced), 糊涂 [hú tu] (confused), 热闹 [rè nao] (lively), 激动 [jī dòng] (excited), 高兴 [gāo xìng] (happy), 凉快 [liáng kuai] (cool), 舒服 [shū fu] (comfortable), 紧张 [jǐn zhāng] (tension), 严肃 [yán sù] (serious).

Besides, this type of adjective also takes the subject-predicate phrase as their modal complements.

- d The adjectives for degree or image cannot take modal complements of any type. They include:

冰凉 [bīng liáng] (cold), 漆黑 [qī hēi] (pitch black), 雪白 [xuě bái] (snowy white), 金黄 [jīn huáng] (golden), 笔直 [bǐ zhí] (straight), 草绿 [cǎo lǜ] (grass green), 鹅黄 [é huáng] (light yellow), 逼真 [bī zhēn] (life-like), 稀烂 [xī làn] (mashed), 滚圆 [gǔn yuán] (round), 碧绿 [bì lǜ] (dark green), 狂热

[kuáng rè] (fanatic), 杰出 [jié chū] (outstanding), 红彤彤 [hóng tōng tōng] (glowing red), 黑咕隆咚 [hēi gū lóng dōng] (very dark), 稀里糊涂 [xī li hú tú] (muddle-headed).

(2) Verbs and adjectives that take modal complements cannot be repeated.

The modal complement is the focus of the entire sentence as well as the center of the predicate, usually with a pause after “得 [de].” According to the grammar rules of Chinese, a sentence only requires one center, so such a repetition is not allowed.

(3) Modal complements are descriptive, so a descriptive adverbial is not permitted to appear in a sentence at the same time. Therefore, the following sentences are not correct.

Example 38 *他高高兴兴地说得很快。[tā gāo gāo xìng xìng de shuō de hěn kuài.]

*我慢慢地摔得很疼。[wǒ màn màn de shuāi de hěn téng.]

*大爷急不可待地说得很激动。[dà yé jí bù kě dài de shuō de hěn jī dòng.]

(4) All of verbs described by modal complements should refer to finished actions.

3 Structural features of modal complements

The negative form is only qualified for the complements with semantic orientation to verbs.

Example 39 小刚唱歌唱得不好。[Xiǎo Gāng chàng gē chàng de bù hǎo.]
(Xiao Gang is not good at singing.)

Example 40 这个字写得不对。[zhè ge zì xiě de bù duì.]
(It is a wrong word.)

Such complements can be posed with the affirmative-negative question.

The descriptive functions of complements are often used in the affirmative form.

Example 41 我没把那本书看得很旧。[wǒ méi bǎ nà běn shū kàn de hěn jiù.]

(That book was not worn out by my reading.)

*我把那本书看得没旧。[wǒ bǎ nà běn shū kàn de méi jiù.]

Example 42 他急得站了起来。[tā jí de zhàn le qǐ lái.]

(He stood up in a hurry.)

*他急得不坐了。[tā jí de bú zuò le.]

Sometimes, negative adverbs are allowed to appear with complements and they function together to describe doers or recipients of action.

Example 43 大风吹得他睁不开眼睛。[dà fēng chuī de tā zhēng bù kāi yǎn jīng.]

(He can't open his eyes because of the strong wind.)

Example 44 王刚被训斥得不说话了。[Wáng Gāng bèi xùn chì de bù shuō huà le.]

(Wang Gang didn't speak anymore because of the reprimand.)

Such complements are seldom posed by the question. Therefore, the following sentences are incorrect or unusual.

Example 45 *大风吹得他睁得开眼睛睁不开眼睛? [dà fēng chuī de tā zhēng de kāi yǎn jīng zhēng bù kāi yǎn jīng?]

Example 46 *王刚被训斥得不说话了? [wáng gāng bèi xùn chì de bù shuō huà le?]

III. *Expressive functions of modal complements*

As the semantic focus as well as the predicate center, a modal complement should be used to describe or evaluate an action.

Example 47 这件事他干得不错! [zhè jiàn shì tā gàn de bù cuò!]

(He did a good job!)

In this example, the semantic focus is “不错 [bù cuò] (good).” If it is changed into “这件事他干不错。[zhè jiàn shì tā gàn bù cuò.],” it means “he is the right person to do it,” which is different from the original meaning.

Example 48 今天我起得很早。[jīn tiān wǒ qǐ de hěn zǎo.]

(I got up very early today.)

*今天我起很早。[jīn tiān wǒ qǐ hěn zǎo.]

Example 49 他写中国字写得很好。[tā xiě zhōng guó zì xiě de hěn hǎo.]

(He can write Chinese characters very well.)

*他写中国字很好。[tā xiě zhōng guó zì hěn hǎo.]

In Chinese, some sentences with verb-object phrases as subjects are acceptable. These sentences can be changed into the ones consisting of modal complements.

Example 50 我说话很快。[wǒ shuō huà hěn kuài.]

(I speak very quickly.) (verb-object phrase as subject)

我说话说得很快。[wǒ shuō huà shuō de hěn kuài.]

(I speak very quickly) (modal complement)

Example 51 他走路很慢。[yě zǒu lù hěn màn.]

(He walks very slowly.) (verb-object phrase as subject)

他走路走得很慢。[tā zǒu lù zǒu de hěn màn.]

(He walks very slowly.) (model complement)

Example 52 姐姐每天睡觉很早。[jiě jie měi tiān shuì jiào hěn zǎo.]

(My elder sister goes to bed early every day.) (verb-object phrase as subject)

姐姐每天睡觉睡得很早。[jiě jie měi tiān shuì jiào shuì de hěn zǎo.]

(My elder sister goes to bed very early every day.) (model complement)

Modal complements mainly describe actions or states, so “他高兴得跳起来了。[tā gāo xìng de tiào qǐ lái le.] (He jumped with joy.)” can express how happy he is. “他因为很高兴，所以跳起来了。[tā yīn wèi hěn gāo xìng, suǒ yǐ tiào qǐ lái le.] (He jumped because he was very happy.)” is also acceptable but it does not sound idiomatic in Chinese. Therefore, a modal complement is the most appropriate choice.

IV. Comparison between modal complements and resultant complements

- 1 In structure, monosyllabic adjectives or verbs mainly function as resultant complements; modal complements have more than one syllable.
- 2 All resultant complements indicate passive meanings; modal complements don't always do so.

Example 53 听了这个消息，李冰急得到处找人打听消息。[tīng le zhè gè xiāo xī, Lǐ Bīng jí de dào chù zhǎo rén dǎ tīng xiāo xī.]

(After hearing this news, Li Bing was anxious to get more information about it.)

Example 54 妹妹不叫他跳了，说他跳得不好看，还说音乐声音太吵，他听了以后，气得把音乐声音拧得更大，跳得更起劲了。[mèi mei bú jiào tā tiào le, shuō tā tiào de bù hǎo kàn, hái shuō yīn yuè shēng yīn tài chǎo, tā tīng le yǐ hòu, qì de bǎ yīn yuè shēng yīn nǐng de gèng dà, tiào de gèng qǐ jìn le.]

(The younger sister asked him to stop dancing because of his poor performance and the noisy music. After hearing it, he got more angry, and turned on the music louder and danced more vigorously.)

Thus it can be seen that a modal complement can indicate positive actions sometimes.

V. Omitted forms of modal complements

In some sentences, verbs or adjectives only take the structural auxiliary word “得 [de]” without other constituents. “瞧 [qiáo] (look)” and “看[kàn] (look)” often come before their subjects.

Example 55 孩子，看你那鞋烂得，把这双鞋穿上。[hái zi, kàn nǐ nà xié làn de, bǎ zhè shuāng xié chuān shàng.]

(Kid, your shoes are worn out. Put on this pair.)

Example 56 看他累得。[kàn tā lèi de.]

(Look, how tired he is.)

Example 57 你瞧小英美得。[nǐ qiáo Xiǎo Yīng měi de.]

(Look, how happy Xiao Ying is.)

Actually, these examples have omitted their modal complements after “得 [de],” such as “这个样子 [zhè gè yàng zi] (like this),” “那个样子 [nà gè yàng zi] (like that).” With the help of the context, these omitted words are not necessary to be spoken out. Such an omission often occurs in the spoken language.

The following examples also contain the omitted modal complements.

Example 58 他两眼通红，是哭的。[tā liǎng yǎn tōng hóng, shì kū de.]

(His eyes were red from crying.)

Example 59 我手上起了一个大泡，是开水烫的。[wǒ shǒu shàng qǐ le yī gè dà pào, shì kāi shuǐ tàng de.]

(The big blister on my hand resulted from the boiled water.)

VI. *Modal complements connected by “个 [gè]”*

The modal complements connected by “个 [gè]” are simple in form and meaning, compared to those connected by “得 [de].” Such complements can be divided into two types.

- 1 The complements of affirmative form mainly describe doers or recipients of action. They can be functioned by adjectives (phrases), verbs (phrases), onomatopoeic words, and fixed phrases.

Example 60 在游泳池里，孩子们又是游泳，又是打水仗，玩了个痛快。[zài yóu yǒng chí lǐ, hái zǐ men yòu shì yóu yǒng, yòu shì dǎ shuǐ zhàng, wán le gè tòng kuài.]

(In the swimming pool, the children enjoyed swimming and having a water fight.)

Example 61 大厅里打了个稀里哗啦，花瓶粉碎，碟儿碗儿稀烂，桌椅板凳东倒西歪。[dà tīng lǐ dǎ le gè xī lǐ huá la, huā píng fěn suì, dié er wǎn er xī làn, zhuō yǐ bǎn dèng dōng dǎo xī wāi.]

(Everything in the hall was broken: the vases and the dishes were smashed; the tables, chairs, and benches were lying all over the ground.)

Example 62 这会儿，又半路上拔气门芯，把我弄个不上不下的，多别扭。[zhè huì er, yòu bàn lù shàng bá qì mén xīn, bǎ wǒ nòng gè bú shàng bú xià de, duō biè niu.]

(Then, the valve core of my bike was stolen, which really put me in a dilemma.)

Example 63 民兵们把敌人打了个落花流水。[mín bīng men bǎ dí rén dǎ le gè luò huā liú shuǐ.]
(The militia has beaten the enemy to pieces.)

Comparatively speaking, the modal complements connected by “个 [gè]” are more oral and even exaggerative. Besides, “了 [le]” often comes before “个 [gè],” which also differs from those connected by “得 [de].”

- 2 The modal complements of the negative form mainly indicate “continuously” and describe or explain actions.

Example 64 妈妈见了高兴得笑个不停。[mā ma jiàn le gāo xìng de xiào gè bú zhù.]
(Mother was so happy that she couldn't help laughing.)

Example 65 女孩子们待在一起总断不了笑声，瞧，她们手不停嘴也不停，说个没完。[nǚ hái zi men dāi zài yī qǐ zǒng duàn bù liǎo xiào shēng, qiáo, tā men shǒu bù tíng zuǐ yě bù tíng, shuō gè méi wán.]
(Girls never stop laughing when they stay together. Look, they keep talking and dancing on and on.)

Example 66 不知为什么，马玫瑰几乎失声惊叫起来，心儿“怦怦”跳个不停。[bù zhī wèi shén me, Mǎ Méi guī jī hū shī shēng jīng jiào qǐ lái, xīn er “pēng pēng” tiào gè bú zhù.]
(For some reason, Ma Meigui almost screamed and her heart was beating fast.)

The two types in these examples are required to come after verbs.

VII. Modal complements connected by “得个 [de gè]”

They just have the affirmative form and share similarities with those connected by “个 [gè]” in function and structure.

Example 67 其结果，把几千年封建地主的特权，打得个落花流水。[qí jié guǒ, bǎ jǐ qiān nián fēng jiàn dì zhǔ de tè quán, dǎ de gè luò huā liú shuǐ.]
(As a result, the privilege of feudal landlords that lasted thousands of years has been beaten to pieces.)

Example 68 访问的，研究的，谈文学的，侦探思想的，要做序题签的，请演说的，闹得个不亦乐乎。[fǎng wèn de, yán jiū de, tán wén xué de, zhēn tàn sī xiǎng de, yào zuò xù tí qiān de, qǐng yǎn shuō de, nào de gè bú yì lè hū.]
(Many people got together for various purposes, such as to interview, to research or discuss literature and detective theory, to ask for the book preface, or to make speeches, and so on.)

These complements often appear in literary works.

Section five: degree complements

As its name implies, a degree complement semantically indicates degree, connected by “得 [de]” or without “得 [de].” It used to be categorized as a modal complement but now it is re-categorized as an independent type for the sake of its own features.

I. Degree complements without “得 [de]”

Degree complements without “得 [de]” refer to those that directly follow adjectives or some verbs to indicate degree. The common degree complements include the adverb “极 [jí] (extremely),” the verbs “透 [tòu] (penetrate),” “死 [sǐ] (die),” “坏 [huài] (ruin),” “多 [duō] (more),” and others, such as “远 [yuǎn] (far),” “着了 [zháo le],” “去了 [qù le].”

Similar to degree adverbs, they are required to connect adjectives or the verbs indicating emotions, feelings, psychological activities, or states.

Example 1 那天正下大雪，跑了三十多里山路，我累极了。[nà tiān zhèng xià dà xuě, pǎo le sān shí duō lǐ shān lù, wǒ lèi jí le.]
(It was snowing heavily that day, and I was very tired after walking more than 30 miles.)

Example 2 跨上断桥，桥头荷花迎风摆动，像在迎接游人，真是可爱极了。[kuà shàng duàn qiáo, qiáo tóu hé huā yíng fēng bǎi dòng, xiàng zài yíng jiē yóu rén, zhēn shì kě ài jí le.]
(Standing on the bridge on West Lake, I saw the lovely lotuses swaying in the breeze, seemingly to welcome the visitors.)

Example 3 考试结束了，我们高兴极了。[kǎo shì jié shù le, wǒ men gāo xìng jí le.]
(We were very excited because the exam was over.)

Example 4 这本书我喜欢极了。[zhè běn shū wǒ xǐ huān jí le.]
(I like this book very much.)

Example 5 有吃的吗，我饿极了。[yǒu chī de ma, wǒ è jí le.]
(Do you have any food? I'm very hungry.)

“极 [jí] (extremely)” can be used after the verb “像 [xiàng] (resemble).”

Example 6 他们父子俩像极了。[tā men fù zǐ liǎ xiàng jí le.]
(The son closely resembled his father.)

“多 [duō] (more)” only comes after adjectives.

Example 7 我们想，这里的条件虽然简陋，但比白求恩大夫当年战场上的条件强多了。[wǒ men xiǎng, zhè lǐ de tiáo jiàn suī rán jiǎn lòu, dàn bǐ Bái qiú ēn dài fu dāng nián zhàn chǎng shàng de tiáo jiàn qiáng duō le.]

(We thought that the conditions, though simple and crude, were much better than those of the battlefield where Dr. Bethune once worked.)

Example 8 这儿的天气比北方好多了。[zhè er de tiān qì bǐ běi fāng hǎo duō le.]

(The weather here is much better than that in the north.)

Example 9 昨天暖和，今天冷多了。[zuó tiān nuǎn hé, jīn tiān lěng duō le.]
(It was warm yesterday, but much colder today.)

“远 [yuǎn] (far)” only comes after “差 [chà] (bad).”

Example 10 小李的技术差远了。[Xiǎo Lǐ de jì shù chà yuǎn le.]
(Xiao Li's technique is far from perfect.)

“着了 [zháo le]” is the typical Beijing dialect.

Example 11 哎呀，我昨天晚上—出门，一条大狗就朝我扑过来了，可吓着了我了。[āi ya, wǒ zuó tiān wǎn shàng yī chū mén, yī tiáo dà gǒu jiù cháo wǒ pū guò lái le, kě xià zhe le wǒ le.]

(Oh! As soon as I went out last night, a big dog rushed at me, which scared me a lot.)

“Adjective+去了 [qù le]” is the typical Beijing dialect, too.

Example 12 那个地方远了去了，走路走不到。[nà gè dì fāng yuǎn le qù le, zǒu lù zǒu bù dào.]

(The place is too far to reach on foot.)

Example 13 我们老家好吃的东西多了去了。[wǒ men lǎo jiā hào chī de dōng xī duō le qù le.]

(There are a lot of delicious foods in our hometown.)

More or less, degree complements have still kept their lexical meanings, which influences the adjectives or verbs before them. For instance, “极 [jí] (extremely)” and “多 [duō] (more)” indicate both the positive meaning and passive meaning; “死 [sǐ] (die),” “坏 [huài] (bad)” mainly indicate the passive meaning but the positive meaning, sometimes; “透 [tòu] (penetrate)” only indicates the passive meaning.

In addition, “坏 [huài] (bad),” “死 [sǐ] (die),” “透 [tòu] (penetrate),” “远 [yuǎn] (far),” “多 [duō] (more)” can function as resultant complements; if so, they won't indicate “degree” any more.

Example 14 我的衣服叫雨淋透了。[wǒ de yī fu jiào yǔ lín tòu le.]

(My clothes are drenched in the rain.) (result complement)

这个人坏透了。[zhè gè rén huài tòu le.]

(This man is a really bad guy.) (degree complement)

Example 15 把收音机搞坏了。[bǎ shōu yīn jī gǎo huài le.]

(The radio was broken.) (result complement)

今天我气坏了，干什么事都不顺利。[jīn tiān wǒ qì huài le, gàn shén me shì dōu bú shùn lì.]

(I was very depressed because nothing went well today.) (degree complement)

Example 16 这盆花干死了。[zhè pén huā gān sǐ le.]

(The potted plant dried out and died.) (result complement)

这件事真把人急死了。[zhè jiàn shì zhēn bǎ rén jí sǐ le.]

(I was extremely worried about it.) (degree complement)

The structural features of the complements without “得 [de]” are as follows.

- 1 “了 [le]” is required to stand at the end of sentence.
- 2 “了 [le],” “过 [guò],” or other constituents cannot stand in the middle of the verb-complement structure, except for “远了 [yuǎn le],” “去了 [qù le].”
- 3 With “极 [jí] (extremely)” as the degree complement, predicate verbs should be repeated when taking objects.

Example 17 他想孩子想极了。[tā xiǎng hái zi xiǎng jí le.]

(He missed his child extremely.)

Example 18 小明像爸爸像极了。[Xiǎo Míng xiàng bà ba xiàng jí le.]

(Xiao Ming closely resembled his father .)

With “透 [tòu] (penetrate)” as the degree complement, predicate verbs can be but need not be repeated when taking objects.

Example 19 他们恨透了那个姓周的。[tā men hèn tòu le nà gè xìng Zhōu de.]

(They hated the man surnamed Zhou very much.)

Example 20 他们恨姓周的恨透了。[tā men hèn xìng Zhōu de hèn tòu le.]

(They hated the man surnamed Zhou very much.)

With “死 [sǐ] (die)” or “坏 [huài] (bad)” as the degree complement, predicate verbs usually do not need to be repeated when taking objects. If the object is the doer, the predicate verb cannot be repeated.

Example 21 这件事乐坏了我了。[zhè jiàn shì lè huài le wǒ le.]

(I’m really tickled pink about it.)

*这件事乐我乐坏了。[zhè jiàn shì lè wǒ lè huài le.]

- 4 “透 [tòu] (penetrate),” “死 [sǐ] (die),” “坏 [huài] (bad),” “着了 [zháo le]” can be used in “把 [bǎ]” sentences; “极 [jí] (extremely),” “多 [duō] (more),” “adjective+去了 [qù le]” cannot.

II. Degree complements connected by “得 [de]”

They mainly include adverbs in the following:

很 [hěn] (very), 慌 [huāng] (panic), 多 [duō] (more), 不得了 [bù dé liǎo] (terrible), 要死 [yào sǐ] (really), 要命 [yào mìng] (really), 不行 [bù xíng] (cannot), 可以 [kě yǐ] (can), 邪乎 [xié hu] (extraordinarily), 够呛 [gòu qiàng] (really), 够受的 [gòu shòu de] (sufficient), 厉害 [lì hài] (severe).

When functioning as degree complements, they change their basic meanings more or less to imply “a high degree.”

“得很 [de hěn]” can come after a wide range of adjectives and verbs to describe bad/good things, psychological activities, or feelings.

Example 22 我们这儿原料多得很，已经加工不过来了，你们不要再运了。[wǒ men zhè er yuán liào duō de hěn, yǐ jīng jiā gōng bú guò lái le, nǐ men bù yào zài yùn le.]

(We have more raw materials than we can process. Don't transport them any more.)

Example 23 他为大家办事辛苦得很，你应该体谅他。[tā wèi dà jiā bàn shì xīn kǔ de hěn, nǐ yīng gāi tǐ liàng tā.]

(He worked hard for everyone, so you should be considerate toward him.)

Example 24

A: 你想家吗? [nǐ xiǎng jiā ma?]

(Are you homesick?)

B: 想得很。[xiǎng de hěn.]

(Very much.)

Example 25 今天他中了彩票，高兴得很。[jīn tiān tā zhòng le cǎi piào, gāo xìng de hěn.]

(He won the lottery today and was very happy.)

“得慌 [de huāng]” may show a high or low degree with “有点儿 [yǒu diǎn er] (a bit)” in front of it. It mainly comes after the verbs indicating bad feelings, in which “慌 [huāng]” should be pronounced slightly.

Example 26 这件衣服怎么这么扎得慌，哦，原来有一根针。[zhè jiàn yī fu zěn me zhè me zhā de huāng, òu, yuán lái yǒu yī gēn zhēn.]

(Why do I feel something pricking me in this dress? Oh, it is a needle.)

Example 27 郑书记，坐我的车可颠得慌啊。[Zhèng shū jì, zuò wǒ de chē kě diān de huāng a.]

(Secretary Zheng, this ride might feel bumpy in my car.)

Example 28 我觉得有点儿累得慌，歇会儿吧。[Wǒ jué de yǒu diǎn er lèi dé huāng, xiē huì er ba.]

(I feel a bit tired and want to have a rest.)

“要命 [yào mìng] (really)” and “要死 [yào sǐ] (really)” indicate a high degree and often come after the derogatory verbs for psychological activities or feelings. Sometimes, they may follow commendatory adjectives.

Example 29 他们俩好得要命，一会儿也离不开。[tā men liǎ hǎo de yào mìng, yī huì er yě lí bù kāi.]

(They have such a good relationship that they can't be separated for a moment.)

Example 30 听见这个消息他高兴得要死，恨不得马上就见到她。[tīng jiàn zhè gè xiāo xī tā gāo xìng de yào sǐ, hèn bù dé mǎ shàng jiù jiàn dào tā.]

(Hearing this news, he is so happy that he can't wait to see her right away.)

“要命 [yào mìng] (really)” and “要死 [yào sǐ] (really)” are oral phrases, and they are frequently substituted with “得很 [de hěn] (really)” and “极了 [jí le] (extremely)” in the formal situation.

Example 31 我渴得要命，快给我一点水喝。[wǒ kě de yào mìng, kuài gěi wǒ yī diǎn shuǐ hē.]

(I am terribly thirsty. Give me some water.)

Example 32 啊呀，我累得要命，你让我歇一会吧。[ā ya, wǒ lèi de yào mìng, nǐ ràng wǒ xiē yī huì ba.]

(Ah, I'm so tired. Let me have a rest.)

Example 33 外边热得要死，别出去了。[wài biān rè de yào sǐ, bié chū qù le.]

(It's so hot outside. Don't go out.)

Example 34 那儿有什么好玩的？那么远，去一趟累得要死，我不去。[nà ér yǒu shén me hǎo wán de? nà me yuǎn, qù yī tàng lèi dé yào sǐ, wǒ bú qù.]

(What's the fun there? It is too far from here. I would be exhausted if I went.)

“不得了 [bù de le] (terrible)” and “什么似的 [shén me sì de]” are oral phrases to show a higher degree, “不得了 [bù dé liǎo] (terrible)” can come after adjectives or verbs for psychological activities or feelings; “什么似的 [shén me shì de]” frequently follows adjectives.

Example 35 他想念你想得不得了，你快去看看他吧。[tā xiǎng nǐ xiǎng de bù dé liǎo, nǐ kuài qù kàn kàn tā ba.]

(He missed you terribly. Go and visit him.)

Example 36 那个地方夏天热得不得了，我可不去。[nà gè dì fang xià tiān rè de bù dé liǎo, wǒ kě bú qù.]

(That place is terribly hot in summer, so I won't go there.)

Example 37 见到女儿她高兴得什么似的。[jiàn dào nǚ ér tā gāo xìng de shén me shì de.]

(She was very happy to see her daughter.)

Both “不行 [bù xíng] (cannot)” and “可以 [kě yǐ] (can)” indicate a very high degree in oral expressions. The former mainly comes after the adjectives or verbs for psychological activities or feelings; the latter sometimes implies a sense of sarcasm after certain derogatory adjectives, to show the speaker’s evaluation. These adjectives are as follows:

坏 [huài] (bad), 滑 [huá] (slip), 笨 [bèn] (stupid), 淘气 [táo qì] (naughty), 顽皮 [wán pí] (naughty), 丑 [chǒu] (ugly), 懒 [lǎn] (lazy), 酸 [suān] (acid).

Example 38 他儿子刚才竟骂起他来了，他气得不行，嚷着非把儿子打死不可。[tā ér zi gāng cái jìng mà qǐ tā lái le, tā qì de bù xíng, rǎng zhe fēi bǎ ér zi dǎ sǐ bù kě.]

(His son had just scolded him, which made him so angry that he shouted he would kill his son.)

Example 39 我晕得不行，快扶我一把。[wǒ yūn de bù xíng, kuài fú wǒ yī bǎ.]

(I feel terribly dizzy. Hold me up, please.)

Example 40 他这个人真懒得可以，看他的房间，简直没法下脚。[tā zhè gè rén zhēn lǎn de kě yǐ, kàn tā de fáng jiān, jiǎn zhí méi fǎ xià jiǎo.]

(He’s very lazy. What a mess in his room!)

Example 41 你这个人笨得可以，这么容易的题，给你讲了五遍，还不懂！[nǐ zhè gè rén bèn de kě yǐ, zhè me róng yì de tí, gěi nǐ jiǎng le wǔ biàn, hái bù dǒng!]

(You are terribly stupid. I’ve explained this easy question five times but you still cannot understand it.)

“厉害 [lì hài] (severe),” “够受的 [gòu shòu de] (enough)” and “够呛 [gòu qiàng] (really)” are oral expressions for a very high degree. All of them indicate “hard to stand.” “邪乎 [xié hū] (extraordinarily)” means the same with “厉害 [lì hai] (severe),” as the typical dialect in Northern China.

Example 42 今天的路不好，又坐一辆小车，颠得够受的。[jīn tiān de lù bù hǎo, yòu zuò yī liàng xiǎo chē, diān de gòu shòu de.]

(It was really uncomfortable to sit in such a small car driving over the bumpy road.)

Example 43 刚才这个辣椒把我辣得够呛，眼泪都出来了。[gāng cái zhè gè là jiāo bǎ wǒ là de gòu qiàng, yǎn lèi dōu chū lái le.]

(The pepper was so hot that tears came to my eyes.)

Example 44 你快来看看我这儿怎么了，疼得厉害。[nǐ kuài lái kàn kàn wǒ zhè er zěn me le, téng de lì hài.]

(Come and check what's wrong with me. I feel terribly hurt.)

Example 45 其实他的病一点也不重，就是叫得邪乎。[qí shí tā de bìng yī diǎn yě bù zhòng, jiù shì jiào de xié hu.]

(In fact, he was not seriously ill, but he screamed badly.)

“多 [duō] (more)” is used to show a very high degree after adjectives. And “多得多 [duō de duō] (much more)” indicates a much higher degree, compared to “多 [duō] (more).”

Example 46 这个电影比上次看的那个好得多。[zhè gè diàn yǐng bǐ shàng cì kàn de nà gè hǎo de duō.]

(This movie is much better than the one I saw last time.)

Example 47 我比他高得多得多。[wǒ bǐ tā gāo de duō de duō.]

(I am much taller than him.)

Section six: numeral-quantifier complements

They refer to the numeral-quantifier constituents for actions or changes. Different from those complements mentioned in the previous sections, they are neither related to action results nor formed with predicates of verbs or adjectives, which is why they are named pseudo-objects.

Numeral-quantifier complements are divided into three types: verb-quantifier complements, time-quantifier complements, and complement of numeral-quantifier comparison.

I. *Verb-quantifier complements*

1 Meanings of verb-quantifier complements

They are served by verb-quantifier words to indicate quantity or a number of actions or behaviors.

Example 1 这本书你看过几遍了？[zhè běn shū nǐ kàn guò jǐ biàn le?]

(How many times have you read this book?)

Example 2 请等一下。[qǐng děng yī xià.]

(Please wait a moment.)

Example 3 大叔，咱们是不是一块儿到卧虎岭去一趟？[dà shū, zán men shì bù shì yī kuài er dào wò hǔ líng qù yī tàng?]

(Uncle, shall we go to Wu Hu Ling together?)

Verb-quantifier complements can follow certain adjectives.

Example 4 灯亮了一下，又灭了。[dēng liàng le yī xià, yòu miè le.]

(The light was turned on for once and then turned off.)

Example 5 这朵花开始红了一阵子，后来变白了。[zhè duǒ huā kāi shǐ hóng le yī zhèn zi, hòu lái biàn bái le.]

(The flower became red for a while, and then turned white.)

2 Structural features of sentences consisting of verb-quantifier complements

- (1) “了 [de]” and “过 [guò]” as the dynamic auxiliary words can stand in the middle of a verb-quantifier complement and the headword of the predicate.

Example 6 老师傅把头轻轻地点了一下。[lǎo shī fu bǎ tóu qīng qīng dì diǎn le yī xià.]

(The master worker nodded his head gently.)

Example 7 来北京后我去过两次天安门。[lái běi jīng hòu wǒ qù guò liǎng cì tiān ān mén.]

(I have been to Tiananmen twice after arriving in Beijing.)

(2) Positions of object

When both the verb-quantifier complement and object simultaneously appear after the predicate verb, the object may come after or before the complement, which is decided by the following factors.

a Properties of nouns as object

The object comes after the complement when it indicates a general or abstract thing.

Example 8 阿华师傅与站长交换了一下意见，矛盾消除了。[Ā Huá shī fu yǔ zhàn zhǎng jiāo huàn le yī xià yì jiàn, máo dùn xiāo chú le.]

(The master worker A Hua exchanged views with the stationmaster; after that their contradictions were eliminated.)

Example 9 劳驾，请给我找一下26楼101号房间。[Láo jià, qǐng gěi wǒ zhǎo yī xià 26 lóu 101 hào fáng jiān.]

(Excuse me, I want to speak to Room 101 on the 26th floor.)

Example 10 我想用一下你的电话，可以吗？[wǒ xiǎng yòng yī xià nǐ de diàn huà, kě yǐ ma?]

(Excuse me, may I use your phone?)

Example 11 会五点开，他怕迟到，赶紧看了一眼桌子上的表，还好，才四点半。[huì wǔ diǎn kāi, tā pà chí dào, gǎn jīn kàn le yī yǎn zhuō shàng de biǎo, hái hǎo, cái sì diǎn bàn.]

(The meeting started at five o'clock. Afraid of being late, he took a quick look at the watch on the table, which just said four thirty.)

Example 12 请问，我可以借一下这本书吗？[qǐng wèn, wǒ kě yǐ jiè yī xià zhè běn shū ma?]

(Excuse me, can I borrow this book?)

In these examples, all the objects cannot stand before the complements.

Sometimes, the object may come before the complement in the comparative sentence.

Example 13 上个月, 我作为组长给组里的人做了不少工作, 跟小张交换意见三次, 跟小李谈话两次, 给小赵打电话五次。[shàng gè yuè, wǒ zuò wéi zǔ zhǎng gěi zǔ lǐ de rén zuò le bú shǎo gōng zuò, gēn Xiǎo Zhāng jiāo huàn yì jiàn sān cì, gēn Xiǎo Lǐ tán huà liǎng cì, gěi Xiǎo Zhào dǎ diàn huà wǔ cì.]

(Last month, as a team leader, I did a lot of work for the team members: exchanging views with Xiao Zhang three times, talking with Xiao Li twice, and making five calls to Xiao Zhao.)

The object may come before or after the complement when it indicates a definite person, animal, or place.

Example 14 昨天我找过两次老师, 他都不在。[zuó tiān wǒ zhǎo guò liǎng cì lǎo shī, tā dōu bú zài.]

(I tried to call on the teacher twice yesterday, but he was not there.)

昨天我找过老师两次, 他都不在。[zuó tiān wǒ zhǎo guò lǎo shī liǎng cì, tā dōu bú zài.]

(I tried to call on the teacher twice yesterday, but he was not there.)

Example 15 刚才我喊了小李两回, 他都不答应。[gāng cái wǒ hǎn le Xiǎo Lǐ liǎng huí, tā dōu bú dá yīng.]

(I called Xiao Li twice just now but he didn't respond.)

刚才我喊了两回小李, 他都不答应。[gāng cái wǒ hǎn le liǎng huí Xiǎo Lǐ, tā dōu bú dá yīng.]

(I called Xiao Li twice just now but he didn't respond.)

Example 16 小马去年来过北京一次, 但住的时间不长。[Xiǎo Mǎ qù nián lái guò běi jīng yī cì, dàn zhù de shí jiān bú cháng.]

(Xiao Ma came to Beijing once last year, but he didn't stay long.)

小马去年来过一次北京, 但住的时间不长。[Xiǎo Mǎ qù nián lái guò yī cì běi jīng, dàn zhù de shí jiān bù cháng.]

(Xiao Ma came to Beijing once last year, but he didn't stay long.)

Example 17 老人白了儿子一眼, 不说话了。[lǎo rén bái le ér zǐ yī yǎn, bù shuō huà le.]

(The old man took a contemptuous glance at his son and said nothing.)

老人白了一眼儿子, 不说话了。[lǎo rén bái le yī yǎn ér zǐ, bù shuō huà le.]

(The old man took a contemptuous glance at his son and said nothing.)

Example 18 以前我去过两次纽约, 但是时间都不长。[yǐ qián wǒ qù guò liǎng cì niǔ yuē, dàn shì shí jiān dōu bù cháng.]

(I had been to New York twice before, but neither trip lasted long.)

以前我去过纽约两次，但是时间都不长。[yǐ qián wǒ qù guò niǔ yuē liǎng cì, dàn shí shí jiān dōu bù cháng.]

(The old man took a contemptuous glance at his son and said nothing.)

The object only comes before the complement when it is a pronoun or verb-quantifier word such as “刀 [dāo] (knife),” “脚 [jiǎo] (foot),” “拳 [quán] (fist),” or “巴掌 [bā zhǎng] (palm).”

Example 19 小刚狠狠踢了狗一脚就跑开了。[Xiǎo Gāng hěn hěn tī le gǒu yī jiǎo jiù pǎo kāi le.]

(Xiao Gang kicked the dog hard and ran away.)

Example 20 他从后面砍了鬼子一刀。[tā cóng hòu miàn kǎn le guǐ zǐ yī dāo.]

(He cut the enemy in the back.)

Example 21 没想到他竟打了我一拳。[méi xiǎng dào tā jìng dǎ le wǒ yī quán.]

(I didn't expect him to punch me.)

Example 22 你打他一巴掌他就不闹了。[nǐ dǎ tā yī bā zhǎng tā jiù bù nào le.]

(He won't make any noise anymore, if you give him a slap.)

Example 23 这个人过去骗过我一回，所以我不相信他。[zhè gè rén guò qù piàn guò wǒ yī huí, suǒ yǐ wǒ bù xiāng xìn tā.]

(This man once lied to me, so I wouldn't trust him anymore.)

The objects in these examples cannot be put after the complements.

b Finished actions in the discourse

The object for the known information usually comes before the complement. Otherwise it comes after the complement.

Example 24 “爸爸回来了！”孩子高兴地喊。老李看了孩子一眼，没说话。[“bà bà huí lái le!” hái zi gāo xìng de hǎn. lǎo lǐ kàn le hái zi yī yǎn, méi shuō huà.]

(“Daddy is back!” cried the child happily. However, Lao Li looked at the child and said nothing.) (known information)

Example 25 陈科长走进来的时候，看见小李和小赵正在打扑克，他拍了小李一下，不高兴地走进自己的办公室。[Chén kē zhǎng zǒu jìn lái de shí hòu, kàn jiàn Xiǎo Lǐ hé Xiǎo Zhào zhèng zài dǎ pū kè, tā pāi le Xiǎo Lǐ yī xià, bù gāo xìng de zǒu jìn zì jǐ de bàn gōng shì.]

(When Mr. Chen, the section manager, came in, he saw Xiao Li and Xiao Zhao playing poker. He patted Xiao Li and entered his office unhappily.) (known information)

Example 26 他想明天去医院看一次老李。[tā xiǎng míng tiān qù yī yuàn kàn yī cì Lǎo Lǐ.]

(He wants to go to the hospital to see Lao Li tomorrow.) (new information)

Example 27 你看一眼老师，他在做什么呢？[nǐ kàn yī yǎn lǎo shī, tā zài zuò shén me ne?]

(Go and see what the teacher is doing.)

(3) Negative adverbs before verb-quantifier complements

Few negative adverbs are used before verb-quantifier complements because there is no need to talk about “quantity” for an unfinished action. However, when the speaker wants to clarify him- or herself, “没 [méi] (no)” can be used to negate the verb-quantifier word.

Example 28

A: 你去过两次上海吧？[nǐ qù guò liǎng cì shàng hǎi ba?]

(Have you been to Shanghai twice?)

B: 上海这个地方我只去过一次，没去过两次。[shàng hǎi zhè gè dì fāng wǒ zhǐ qù guò yī cì, méi qù guò liǎng cì.]

(Only once, not twice.)

Example 29

A: 这个电影你已经看了两遍了吧？[zhè gè diàn yǐng nǐ yǐ jīng kàn le liǎng biàn le ba?]

(Did you watch this movie twice?)

B: 这个电影我只看过一遍，没看过两遍。[zhè gè diàn yǐng wǒ zhǐ kàn guò yī biàn, méi kàn guò liǎng biàn.]

(Only once, not twice.)

“不 [bù/bù] (not)” can be used before verb in the conditional sentence.

Example 30 这个人碰几回钉子是不会虚心的。[zhè gè rén bú pèng jǐ huí dīng zǐ shì bú huì xū xīn de.]

(This man won't be modest until he meets difficulties.)

Example 31 你不尝一口，怎么知道汤的味道？[nǐ bù cháng yī kǒu, zěn me zhī dào tāng de wèi dào?]

(How do you know the taste of the soup if you don't take a sip?)

(4) Adverbs restricting quantity of verb-quantifier word

These adverbs often come before verbs.

Example 32 我才打了你两下你就受不了啦？[wǒ cái dǎ le nǐ liǎng xià nǐ jiù shòu bú le lā?]

(I just hit you lightly several times, and you couldn't stand it?)

Example 33 今年我总共去过两次长城。[jīn nián wǒ zǒng gòng qù guò liǎng cì cháng chéng.]

(I have been to the Great Wall twice this year.)

Some adverbs can also come before the verb-quantifier complement.

Example 34 这篇文章我读了整整三遍，还是不大懂。[zhè piān wén zhāng wǒ dú le zhěng zhěng sān biàn, hái shì bú dà dǒng.]

(I have read this article three times, but I still don't understand it.)

A low frequency of occurrence can be expressed in the following way.

Example 35 这篇课文我没看几遍就会背了。[zhè piān kè wén wǒ méi kàn jǐ biàn jiù huì bèi le.]

(I can recite this text just after reading it several times.)

这篇课文我看了没几遍就会背了。[zhè piān kè wén wǒ kàn le méi jǐ biàn jiù huì bèi le.]

(I can recite this text just after reading it several times.)

Example 36 颐和园我没去过几次。[yí hé yuán wǒ méi qù guò jǐ cì.]

(I have just been to the Summer Palace several times.)

颐和园我去了没几次。[yí hé yuán wǒ qù le méi jǐ cì.]

(I have just been to the Summer Palace several times.)

In the the aforementioned examples, “没 [méi] (no)” connects verb-quantifier words to indicate “less” together, only allowing indefinite numerals to appear in the middle, such as “几 [jǐ] (several),” “多少 [duō shǎo] (several).” Usually, “没 [méi] (no)” comes before the verb no matter whether the dynamic auxiliary word “过 [guò]” appears or not after the predicate verb; and “没 [méi] (no)” comes after the verb when “了 [le]” appears after the predicate verb.

II. Time-quantifier complements

They are used after verbs to indicate the duration of an action or state.

Time can be shown by time-point and time-section. Time-point refers to every point in the linear process of time from the past, the present, and then to the future. Each point indicates the concrete time, such as “the year of 1999,” “the 21st century,” or even “48 seconds 25 minutes past three on the afternoon of December, 21, 1998.” A time-section refers to a period of time and it can be timed by the units of century, year, month, day, or even minute and second. Only a time-section can function as the time-quantifier complement and it indicates the following meanings.

1 To indicate the duration of an action or state

It only follows the verb conveying a continuous or repeating action or the adjective describing a continuous state.

Example 37 他在路上走了整整三天。[tā zài lù shàng zǒu le zhěng zhěng sān tiān.]

(He has walked for three days.)

Example 38 同志，你等一会儿。[tóng zhì, nǐ děng děng yī huì er.]

(Comrade, wait a moment, please.)

Example 39 朝也等，暮也等，等了漫长的二十年。[cháo yě děng, mù yě děng, děng le màn zhǎng de èr shí nián.]

(I have been waiting day by day for twenty years.)

Example 40 宴会进行了几个小时？[yàn huì jìn xíng le jǐ gè xiǎo shí?]

(How many hours did the party last?)

Example 41 阿华师傅站在我背后看了一会儿。[Ā Huá shī fu zhàn zài wǒ bèi hòu kàn le yī huì er.]

(The master worker A Hua stood behind me and kept watching for a while.)

The verb-object phrase can function as the time-quantifier complement to indicate an occurrence instead of a concrete action. The verb conveys a continuous action and the complement its duration.

Example 42 他当大夫十几年了，从来没有出过事故。[tā dāng dài fū shí jǐ nián le, cóng lái méi yǒu chū guò shì gù.]

(He has been a doctor for more than ten years and has never had a medical negligence suit.)

Example 43 我们开展这项活动很久了，积累了不少经验。[wǒ men kāi zhǎn zhè xiàng huó dòng hěn jiǔ le, jī lèi le bú shǎo jīng yàn.]

(We have carried out this activity for a long time so we have gained a lot of experience.)

Example 44 你服这种药已经三个月了，效果怎么样？[nǐ fú zhè zhǒng yào yǐ jīng sān gè yuè le, xiào guǒ zěn me yang?]

(You've had this medicine for three months. How about its effect?)

The repeated verb can emphasize the duration of action.

Example 45 我当大夫当了十几年了，都当烦了。[wǒ dāng dài fū dāng le shí jǐ nián le, dōu dāng fán le.]

(I've been a doctor for more than ten years, and I'm tired of it.)

Example 46 你们开展这项活动开展这么久了，有什么经验吗？[nǐ men kāi zhǎn zhè xiàng huó dòng kāi zhǎn le zhè me jiǔ, yǒu shí me jīng yàn ma?]

(Since you have carried out this activity for a long time, have you gained any experience from it?)

Example 47 我服这种药服了三个月了，不觉得有什么效果。[wǒ fú zhè zhǒng yào fú le sān gè yuè le, bú jué dé yǒu shí me xiào guǒ.]

(I've taken this medicine for three months, but I don't think it is effective.)

The sentences with the time-quantifier complements have the following features in structure.

- (1) The dynamic auxiliary words “了 [le]” and “过 [guò]” can follow predicate verbs or adjectives.
- (2) The position of the object depends on the situation.

If the action conveyed by verb occurred at the first time, the predicate verb is required to repeat to clarify the object. In this situation, the object comes after the first verb and the complement the repeated verb.

Example 48 我们坐车坐了四十多分钟。[wǒ men zuò chē zuò le sì shí duō fēn zhōng.]

(We had a trip by car for more than 40 minutes.)

Example 49 老李听报告听了一下午。[Lǎo Lǐ tīng bào gào tīng le yī xià wǔ.]
(Lao Li listened to the report all afternoon.)

Example 50 刚才我找小刘找了半天。[gāng cái wǒ zhǎo Xiǎo Liú zhǎo le bàn tiān.]

(I looked for Xiao Liu for a long time.)

Example 51 我喊你喊了有十分钟了。[wǒ hǎn nǐ hǎn le yǒu shí fēn zhōng le.]
(I've been shouting at you for ten minutes.)

If the object has been clearly mentioned in the previous context, it is not necessary to repeat the verb and the object can have two positions.

- a When the object indicates a general or abstract thing, it usually comes after the complement, with “的 [de]” in the middle to indicate a long duration. But in the sentence “接着他汇报了一年的工作情况。[jiē zhe tā huì bào le yī nián de gōng zuò qíng kuàng.] (Then he reported the work of last year.),” the time word is the attribute rather than the complement.

Example 52 我今天写了二十分钟(的)汉字。[wǒ jīn tiān xiě le èr shí fēn zhōng (de) hàn zì.]

(I practiced writing Chinese characters for twenty minutes today.)

Example 53 为了这件事，我们开了两个晚上的会。[wéi le zhè jiàn shì, wǒ men kāi le liǎng gè wǎn shàng de huì.]

(For this issue, we had meetings for two nights.)

Example 54 我们今年上了将近二百天(的)课。[wǒ men jīn nián shàng le jiāng jìn èr bǎi tiān (de) kè.]

(We have had almost two hundred lessons this year.)

Example 55 小明打了一下午的球。[Xiǎo Míng dǎ le yī xià wǔ de qiú.]

(Xiao Ming played with the ball all the afternoon.)

Example 56 昨天我们看了一天的电影。[zuó tiān wǒ men kàn le yī tiān de diàn yǐng.]

(We watched movies all day yesterday.)

- b When the object indicates a person or is functioned by a pronoun, it usually comes before the complement.

Example 57 是啊，我替小刘一天。[shì a, wǒ tì Xiǎo Liú yī tiān.]

(Yes, I'll take over a day for Xiao Liu.)

Example 58 我跟师傅这么多年，学到了不少东西。[wǒ gēn shī fù zhè me duō nián, xué dào le bú shǎo dōng xī.]

(I've learned a lot from my master worker over the years.)

Example 59 小马等了你一个小时。[Xiǎo Mǎ děng le nǐ yī gè xiǎo shí.]

(Xiao Ma has waited for you for an hour.)

Example 60 你观察老师这么多年，有什么发现？[nǐ guān chá lǎo shī zhè me duō nián, yǒu shén me fā xiàn?]

(What have you found when you have been observing the teacher for so many years?)

If the complement is limited to some indefinite quantifiers, such as “一会儿 [yī huì er] (a little while) or “半天 [bàn tiān] (quite a while),” the object can appear either before or after it.

Example 61 你等小刘一会儿吧。[nǐ děng xiǎo liú yī huì er ba.]

(Wait for Xiao Liu for a little while.)

你等一会儿小刘吧。[nǐ děng yī huì er Xiǎo Liú ba.]

(Wait for Xiao Liu for a little while.)

Example 62 我叫了半天李英她也不答应。[wǒ jiào le bàn tiān Lǐ Yīng tā yě bú dá yīng.]

(I shouted for Li Ying for quite a while but she didn't respond.)

我叫了李英半天她也不答应。[wǒ jiào le Lǐ Yīng bàn tiān tā yě bù dā yīng.]

(I shouted for Li Ying for quite a while but she didn't respond.)

Example 63 我陪一会儿老师。[wǒ péi yī huì er lǎo shī.]

(I will accompany the teacher for a while.)

我陪老师一会儿。[wǒ péi lǎo shī yī huì er.]

(I will accompany the teacher for a while.)

(3) The use of adverbs

The adverbs that restrict the quantity of a complement mainly appear before verbs, and sometimes they come before complements.

Example 64 我整整学了三年中文。[wǒ zhěng zhěng xué le sān nián zhōng wén.]

(I have learned Chinese for three years.)

我学中文整整三年了。[wǒ xué zhōng wén zhěng zhěng sān nián le.]
(I have learned Chinese for three years.)

Example 65 我们才走了半个小时你就累了? [wǒ men cái zǒu le bàn gè xiǎo shí nǐ jiù lèi le?]

(Are you tired only after half an hour of walking?)

我们走了才半个小时你就累了? [wǒ men zǒu le cái bàn gè xiǎo shí nǐ jiù lèi le?]

(Are you tired only after half an hour of walking?)

Example 66 小马已经等你一个小时了。[Xiǎo Mǎ yǐ jīng děng nǐ yī gè xiǎo shí le.]

(Xiao Ma has been waiting for you for an hour.)

小马等你已经一个小时了。[Xiǎo Mǎ děng nǐ yī jīng yī gè xiǎo shí le.]

(Xiao Ma has been waiting for you for an hour.)

Some adverbs only appear before the verb, such as “只 [zhǐ] (only)” and “就 [jiù] (only).”

Example 67 我只休息了一天，没休息两天。[wǒ zhǐ xiū xī le yī tiān, méi xiū xī liǎng tiān.]

(I only had one day off, not two.)

In the this example, “没 [méi] (no)” indicates refutation and it can stand either before a verb or before a complement. More similar examples are as follows.

Example 68 我说了没几分钟话就被他打断了。[wǒ shuō le méi jǐ fēn zhōng huà jiù bèi tā dǎ duàn le.]

(He interrupted me after my talking for only a few minutes.)

我没说几分钟话就被他打断了。[wǒ méi shuō jǐ fēn zhōng huà jiù bèi tā dǎ duàn le.]

(He interrupted me after my talking for only a few minutes.)

The negative adverb “不 [bù] (not)” usually appears in the conditional or hypothetical sentence.

Example 69 你干了这么长时间了，不休息一会儿不行。[nǐ gàn le zhè me zhǎng shí jiǎn le, bù xiū xī yī huì ér bù xíng.]

(You've been working quite a long time and you have to take a rest.)

- To indicate a long period of time from the beginning or the end of action to the time of speaking or a concrete moment

Such time-quantifier complements mainly follow the verbs that indicate “ending” or the verbs that can also take resultant complements or directional complements.

Example 70 他走/离开了三天了。[tā zǒu/lí kāi le sān tiān le.]
(He has been away for three days.)

Example 71 我来北京两年了。[wǒ lái běi jīng liǎng nián le.]
(I have been in Beijing for two years.)

Example 72 我们已经认识十年了。[wǒ men yǐ jīng rèn shí shí nián le.]
(We have known each other for ten years.)

Example 73 小王和小李结婚才一年多。[Xiǎo Wáng hé Xiǎo Lǐ jié hūn cái yī nián duō.]
(Xiao Wang and Xiao Li have been married just over one year.)

Example 74 姐姐回来一个小时了。[jiě jiě huí lái yī gè xiǎo shí le.]
(My sister has been back for an hour.)

The sentences with verb-quantifier complements have the following features in structure.

- (1) If the predicate verb takes an object, the dynamic auxiliary word “了 [le]” or “过 [guò]” cannot stand between them.
- (2) The words that restrict the quantity of complements usually stand before them.

Example 75 我们相识还不到一年。[wǒ men xiāng shí hái bú dào yī nián.]
(We have known each other less than one year.)

Example 76 小高毕业快十年了。[Xiǎo Gāo bì yè kuài shí nián le.]
(Xiao Gao graduated nearly ten years ago.)

Example 77 你离家才一天就想家了？[nǐ lí jiā cái yī tiān jiù xiǎng jiā le?]
(Are you homesick after being away from your family for only one day?)

Example 78 我回到国内整整五年了。[wǒ huí dào guó nèi zhěng zhěng wǔ nián le.]
(I've been back in China for five years.)

“没/不 [méi/bù/bù] (no/not) . . .” usually comes before the complement to indicate a small quantity.

Example 79 小明中学毕业没几天。别听他吹牛。[Xiǎo Míng zhōng xué bì yè méi jǐ tiān. bié tīng tā chuī niú.]
(Xiao Ming just graduated from middle school only a few days ago. Don't be confused by his boasting.)

Example 80 我们认识没几天就要好了。[wǒ men rèn shí méi jǐ tiān jiù yào hǎo le.]
(We got along well only after knowing each other for a few days.)

“没 [méi] (no)” can be put before the verb.

Example 81 他们没认识几天就结婚了。[tā men méi rèn shí jǐ tiān jiù jié hūn le.]

(They got married only after knowing each other for a few days.)

“已经 [yǐ jīng] (already)” can be put either before or after the predicate verb.

Example 82 我来北京已经快两年了。[wǒ lái běi jīng yǐ jīng kuài liǎng nián le.]

(I have been in Beijing for almost two years.)

我已经来北京快两年了。[wǒ yǐ jīng lái běi jīng kuài liǎng nián le.]

(I have been in Beijing for almost two years.)

- (3) The object stands in the middle of the predicate verb and the complement.

Example 83 他妹妹考上大学已经三年了。[tā mèi mèi kǎo shàng dà xué yǐ jīng sān nián le.]

(It has been three years since his younger sister was admitted to university.)

Example 84 我认识老李很长时间了。[wǒ rèn shí Lǎo Lǐ hěn cháng shí jiān le.]

(I have known Lao Li for a long time.)

- 3 To indicate the time interval between two actions

In other words, the complement indicates the time interval between two actions.

Example 85 你吃完饭半小时再吃药。[nǐ chī wán fàn bàn xiǎo shí zài chī yào.]

(Take your medicine half an hour after the meal.)

Example 86 我起床后十分钟开始听广播。[wǒ qǐ chuáng hòu shí fēn zhōng kāi shǐ tīng guǎng bō.]

(I started listening to the radio ten minutes after I got up.)

Example 87 今天下午学习一小时再打球。[jīn tiān xià wǔ xué xí yī xiǎo shí zài dǎ qiú.]

(We played a ball game after a one-hour lesson this afternoon.)

Example 88 大会开始不久他就发了言。[dà huì kāi shǐ bú jiǔ tā jiù fā le yán.]

(He started to speak shortly after the meeting began.)

- 4 To indicate a time difference compared to a standard time

Example 89 他每天早到十分钟。[tā měi tiān zǎo dào shí fēn zhōng.]

(He arrives ten minutes early every day.)

Example 90 这趟车晚点两分钟。[zhè tàng chē wǎn diǎn liǎng fēn zhōng.]
(This train was two minutes late.)

Example 91 小马今天迟到五分钟。[xiǎo mǎ jīn tiān chí dào wǔ fēn zhōng.]
(Xiao Ma was five minutes late today.)

Usually, “早 [zǎo] (early),” “晚 [wǎn] (late),” or “迟 [chí] (late)” comes before the verb in the sentence.

III. *Numeral-quantifier complements of comparison*

Noun quantifiers after adjectives indicate quantity difference by comparison.

Example 92 虽然敌人的武器比我们强许多倍，但我们还是打赢了。[suī rán dí rén de wǔ qì bǐ wǒ men qiáng xǔ duō bèi, dàn wǒ men hái shì dǎ yíng le.]
(Although the enemy's weapons were much more advanced than ours, we still won.)

Example 93 这个班的学生比那个班多二十个。[zhè gè bān de xué shēng bǐ nà gè bān duō èr shí gè.]
(There are twenty more students in this class than in that one.)

Example 94 从学校到机场比到火车站远五公里。[cóng xué xiào dào jī chǎng bǐ dào huǒ chē zhàn yuǎn wǔ gōng lǐ.]
(It takes five more miles from the school to the airport than to the train station.)

Example 95 他比我大两岁。[tā bǐ wǒ dà liǎng suì.]
(He is two years older than me.)

Example 96 我大他一岁。[wǒ dà tā yī suì.]
(I'm one year older than him.)

It should be noticed that the noun quantifier after the verb only functions as the object rather than the complement.

Example 97 这个月的产量比上个月提高了两倍。[zhè gè yuè de chǎn liàng bǐ shàng gè yuè tí gāo le liǎng bèi.]
(The output this month is three times as much as that of last month.)

Example 98 今年的学生比去年增加了一百名。[jīn nián de xué shēng bǐ qù nián zēng jiā le yī bǎi míng.]
(There are 100 more students this year than last year.)

Section seven: prepositional phrases as complements

Frequently used in the written language, the prepositional phrases formed by “于 [yú] (at),” “向 [xiàng] (for),” “自 [zì] (from)” function as complements after verbs or adjectives.

I. Prepositional phrases formed by “于 [yú] (at)” as complements

Prepositional phrases formed by “于 [yú] (at)” as complement indicate time, location, source, target, goal, cause, or comparison.

Example 1 鲁迅生于一八八一年。[Lǚ Xùn shēng yú yī bā bā yī nián.]

(Lu Xun was born in 1881.) (time)

Example 2 鲁迅一八八一年生于绍兴。[Lǚ Xùn yī bā bā yī nián shēng yú shào xīng.]

(Lu Xun was born in Shaoxing in 1881.) (place)

Example 3 一切真知来源于实践。[yī qiē zhēn zhī lái yuán yú shí jiàn.]

(Real knowledge comes from practice.) (source)

Example 4 他决心献身于教育事业。[tā jué xīn xiàn shēn yú jiào yù shì yè.]

(He is determined to devote himself to the cause of education.) (object)

Example 5 最近他正忙于写文章。[zui jìn tā zhèng máng yú xiě wén.]

(He has been busy writing an article recently.) (reason)

Example 6 领导不能落后于形势，落后于群众，否则工作必将被动。[lǐng dǎo bù néng luò hòu yú xíng shì, luò hòu yú qún zhòng, fǒu zé gōng zuò bì jiāng bèi dòng.]

(Leaders must not turn a deaf ear to the situation nor to the masses; otherwise their work will be passive.) (comparison)

II. Prepositional phrases formed by “向 [xiàng] (for)” as complements

They indicate direction.

Example 7 有了它，船就可以避开各种危险，安全地驶向目的地。[yǒu le tā, chuán jiù kě yǐ bì kāi gè zhǒng wēi xiǎn ān quán dì shǐ xiàng mù dì dì.]

(With it, ships can avoid different dangers and sail safely to their destinations.)

Example 8 “大爷!”她欢快地叫了一声，扑向田大爷。[“dà yé!” tā huān kuài de jiào le yī shēng, pū xiàng Tián dà yé.]

(“Grandpa!” she shouted cheerfully and rushed to Grandpa Tian.)

Example 9 我们要从胜利走向胜利。[wǒ men yào cóng shèng lì zǒu xiàng shèng lì.]

(We should advance from victory to victory.)

Example 10 它们滑下溪水，转入大河，流进赣江，挤上火车，走向天南海北。[tā men huá xià xī shuǐ, zhuǎn rù dà hé, liú jìn gàn jiāng, jǐ shàng huǒ chē, zǒu xiàng tiān nán hǎi běi.]

(They slid down along the stream to the Ganjiang River; then they were sent by train all over the country.)

III. *Prepositional phrases formed by “自 [zì] (from)” as complements*

They indicate location or “coming from a location.”

Example 11 我们都是来自五湖四海,为了一个共同的革命目标走到一起来了。[wǒ men dōu shì lái zì wú hú sì hǎi, wèi le yī gè gòng tóng de gé mìng mù biāo zǒu dào yī qǐ lái le.]

(We come together from all over the country for a common revolutionary goal.)

Example 12 这是发自内心的喜悦。[zhè shì fā zì nèi xīn de xǐ yuè.]
(It is joy from the bottom of the heart.)

Example 13 这句话引自“马恩全集”。[zhè jù huà yǐn zì Mǎ Ēn quán jí.]
(This sentence is quoted from *Collected Works of Marx and Engels*.)

IV. *Structural features of sentences containing prepositional phrases as complements*

- 1 The prepositional phrases formed by “于 [yú] (at)” can be used after verbs or adjectives; those formed by “向 [xiàng] (for)” or “自 [zì] (from)” only after verbs.
- 2 The dynamic auxiliary words “了 [le]” and “过 [guò]” cannot appear between predicate verbs and prepositions, but “向 [xiàng] (for)” can be followed by “了 [le].”
- 3 The pause should be put after the preposition.
- 4 The verb followed by a prepositional phrase as complement cannot take the object or other complements any more.

Section eight: comparison between complements and adverbials

The modifiers before predicate verbs or adjectives function as adverbials and those constituents after them as complements, but in fact, many of them can function as both. Therefore, this section will discuss their meanings or structural features when they play different roles.

I. *Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by adjectives*

- 1 Monosyllabic adjectives

Comparatively speaking, monosyllabic adjectives can function as complements more freely than as adverbials due to various restrictions to their relation with verbs.

- (1) Some monosyllabic adjectives function as adverbials in imperative sentences to indicate command, advice, or urgency but they cannot function alone as complements.

Example 1 早去早回! [zǎo qù zǎo huí!]

(Go early and return early!)

*去早回早! [qù zǎo huí zǎo!]

Example 2 多吃点儿菜! [duō chī diǎn er cài!]

(Eat more vegetables!)

*吃菜(吃)多点儿! [chī cài (chī) duō diǎn ér!]

Example 3 少说几句吧! [shǎo shuō jǐ jù ba!]

(Take care of your mouth!)

*说少几句吧! [shuō shǎo jǐ jù ba!]

Some monosyllabic adjectives can function as adverbials and modal complements at the same time but they indicate different meanings.

Example 4 快走! [kuài zǒu!]

(Go, immediately!) (leave early)

走快点儿! [zǒu kuài diǎn er!]

(Speed up your walking!) (increase the speed)

走快了! [zǒu kuài le!]

(Slow down your walking!) (decrease the speed)

- (2) For those monosyllabic adjectives, such as “早 [zǎo] (early),” “晚 [wǎn] (late),” “多 [duō] (more),” “少 [shǎo] (few/little),” they can function as adverbials as well as resultant complements and modal complements. In this case, they all indicate a failure to a certain standard.

Example 5 他晚来了几天。[tā wǎn lái le jǐ tiān.]

(He arrived a few days late.)

Example 6 他今天来晚了。[tā jīn tiān lái wǎn le.]

(He was late today.)

Example 7 他今天来得很晚。[tā jīn tiān lái de hěn wǎn.]

(He arrived very late today.)

Example 8 这个孩子今天多说了几句话。[zhè gè hái zi jīn tiān: duō shuō le jǐ jù huà.]

(The child said a few more words today.)

Example 9 这个孩子今天话说得多了。[zhè gè hái zi jīn tiān huà shuō duō le.]

(This child spoke more today.)

Example 10 这个孩子今天话说得多了一点儿。[zhè gè hái zi jīn tiān huà shuō de duō le yī diǎn er.](The child spoke a little more today.)

Thus it can be seen from these examples: when the adjectives function as adverbials, the verbs are often followed by the complements or the objects, to indicate quantity; when the adjectives function as resultant complements, “了 [le]” usually

stands at the end of sentence; when the adjectives function as modal complements, the modifiers may come before them or “一点儿 [yī diǎn ér] (a little),” “些 [xiē] (a little)” after them to indicate degree.

The following monosyllabic adjectives can function as either resultant complements or modal complements, indicating a failure to a certain standard. However, they cannot function as adverbials before verbs in the sentence.

大 [dà] (large), 小 [xiǎo] (small), 高 [gāo] (high), 低 [dī] (low), 深 [shēn] (deep), 浅 [qiǎn] (shallow), 肥 [féi] (fat), 瘦 [shòu] (thin), 厚 [hòu] (thick), 薄 [báo] (thin), 宽 [kuān] (wide), 窄 [zhǎi] (narrow), 长 [zhǎng] (long), 短 [duǎn] (short), 咸 [xián] (salty), 淡 [dàn] (light), 粗 [cū] (thick), 细 [xì] (thin), 重 [zhòng] (heavy), 轻 [qīng] (light).

Example 11 这双鞋做大了。 [zhè shuāng xié zuò dà le.]

(This pair of shoes is larger than the right size)

这双鞋做得太大。 [zhè shuāng xié zuò dé tài dà.]

(This pair of shoes is too big.)

*大做了一双鞋。 [dà zuò le yī shuāng xié.]

Example 12 衣服买短了。 [yī fú mǎi duǎn le.]

(The clothes are smaller than my size.)

衣服买得短得一点儿。 [yī fú mǎi de duǎn de yī diǎn er.]

(The clothes are a little smaller.)

*短买了一件衣服。 [duǎn mǎi le yī jiàn yī fu.]

2 Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by disyllabic adjectives, overlapped adjectives, adjective phrases, or fixed phrases

- (1) The disyllabic adjectives indicate result when functioning as resultant complements, or describe actions and states of doers as adverbials. However, most of them cannot function as both at the same time without changing their meanings.

Example 13 明明激动地写了两个大字。 [Míng Míng jī dòng de xiě le liǎng gè dà zì.]

(Ming Ming excitedly wrote down two large characters.) (the doer)

*明明写激动。 [míng míng xiě jī dòng.]

Example 14 小梅高兴地说。 [xiǎo méi gāo xìng de shuō.]

(Xiao Mei spoke happily.) (the doer)

*小梅说高兴。 [Xiǎo Méi shuō gāo xìng.]

Example 15 老师傅仔细地把机器检查了一遍。 [lǎo shī fù zǎi xì de bǎ jī qì jiǎn chá le yī biàn.]

(The master craftsman examined the machine carefully.) (the action)

*老师傅把机器检查仔细。 [lǎo shī fù bǎ jī qì jiǎn chá zǐ xì.]

Example 16 敌人的阴谋彻底暴露了。 [dí rén de yīn móu chè dǐ bào lù le.]

(The enemy's plot has been completely exposed.) (the action)

Several disyllabic adjectives can function as both at the same time to describe actions; however, when functioning as adverbials, they require other constituents to follow predicate verbs.

Example 17 黑板上的字我看清楚了。[hēi bǎn shàng de zì wǒ kàn qīng chǔ le.]

(I can see clearly the words on the blackboard.)

我清楚地看见黑板上有两个字。[wǒ qīng chǔ de kàn jiàn hēi bǎn shàng yǒu liǎng gè zì.]

(I can see clearly two words on the blackboard.)

Example 18 我听清楚了。[wǒ tīng qīng chǔ le.]

(I heard it clearly.)

*我清楚地听了。[wǒ qīng chǔ de tīng le.]

The overlapped adjectives, adjective phrases, or fixed adjectives cannot function as resultant complements.

- (2) The adjectives of the aforementioned types can be considered as the semantic center of predicate of the entire sentence when functioning as modal complements; the verbs will become the semantic center of the entire sentence when the adjectives function as adverbials.

Example 19 运动员战士站得笔直，非常精神。[yùn dòng yuán zhàn shì zhàn de bǐ zhí, fēi cháng jīng shén.]

(The athletes stood straight in high spirits.)

运动员战士笔直地站着，一动也不动。[yùn dòng yuán zhàn shì bǐ zhí de zhàn zhe, yī dòng yě bú dòng.]

(The athletes stood straight and motionless.)

In the previous example, the semantic center of the first sentence is “笔直 [bǐ zhí] (straight)” that describes the posture of the athletes; the semantic center of the second sentence is “运动员在站着 [yùn dòng yuán zhàn zhe] (the athletes stood),” in which “站 [zhàn] (stand)” is described by “笔直 [bǐ zhí] (straight).”

Example 20 “听明白了！”孩子们回答得很响亮。[“tīng míng bái le!” hái zǐ men huí dá de hěn xiǎng liàng.]

(“Understand!” the children replied loudly.)

孩子们响亮地回答：“听明白了！”[hái zǐ men xiǎng liàng de huí dá: “tīng míng bái le!”]

(The children replied loudly: “Understand!”)

Example 21 这几天不断有急诊病人，所以医生们工作得很紧张。[zhè jǐ tiān bù duàn yǒu jí zhěn bìng rén, suǒ yǐ yī shēng men gōng zuò de hěn jǐn zhāng.]

(Many emergency cases happened these days, so the doctors were very occupied with them.)

手术室里，医生们紧张地工作着。[shǒu shù shì lǐ, yī shēng men jǐn zhāng de gōng zuò zhe.]

(In the operating room, the doctors were working at high pressure.)

Example 22 李老师昨天睡得很晚，今天精神不太好。[lǐ lǎo shī zuó tiān shuì de hěn wǎn, jīn tiān jīng shén bú tài hǎo.]

(Prof. Li went to bed very late yesterday so he didn't feel well today.)

为了赶一篇文章，李老师昨天很晚才睡。[wèi le gǎn yī piān wén zhāng, lǐ lǎo shī zuó tiān hěn wǎn cái shuì.]

(In order to finish an article in time, Prof. Li stayed up late yesterday.)

Most adjectives (phrases), overlapped adjectives, or fixed phrases as adverbials cannot function as modal complements of the same verb to describe the doers.

Example 23 他醉醺醺地走着。[tā zuì xūn xūn de zǒu zhe.]

(He walked drunkenly.)

*他走得醉醺醺的。[tā zǒu de zuì xūn xūn de.]

Example 24 他急急忙忙地跑进教室。[tā jí jí máng máng de pǎo jìn jiào shì.]

(He ran into the classroom in a hurry.)

*他跑得急急忙忙的。[tā pǎo de jí jí máng máng de.]

Although some special adjectives can function as both, they differ in meaning.

Example 25 姑娘高兴地唱着。[gū niáng gāo xìng de chàng zhe.]

(The girl was singing happily.) (to describe “singing”)

姑娘唱得很高兴。[gū niáng chàng dé hěn gāo xìng.]

(The girl felt happy in singing.) (to explain the reason for “feeling happy”)

Example 26 老大爷激动地说 . . . [lǎo dà yé jī dòng de shuō . . .]

(The old man said with excitement . . .) (to describe “saying”)

老大爷说得很激动。[lǎo dà yé shuō de hěn jī dòng.]

(The old man felt very excited in speaking.) (to explain the reason for “feeling excited”)

Thus it can be seen from the examples: when functioning as adverbials, the adjectives describe states of doers in action; as complements, they show causality between predicate verbs and complements.

II. Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by adverbs

The degree adverbs “很 [hěn] (very),” “极 [jí] (extremely)” can function as both adverbials and complements.

- 1 “很 [hěn] (very)” as the complement indicates a higher degree, compared to what it means as the adverbial.

Example 27 今天红红很高兴。[jīn tiān Hóng Hóng hěn gāo xìng.]

(Hong Hong was quite happy today.)

今天红红高兴得很。[jīn tiān Hóng Hóng gāo xìng de hěn.]

(Hong Hong was very happy today.)

Example 28 这件衣服我很喜欢。[zhè jiàn yī fú wǒ hěn xǐ huān.]

(I quite like this dress.)

这件衣服我喜欢得很。[zhè jiàn yī fu wǒ xǐ huān de hěn.]

(I like this dress very much.)

- 2 “极 [jí] (extremely)” seldom functions as an adverbial in the spoken language but it does in the written language to indicate the same degree as what it indicates as the complement.

Example 29 此书极好。[cǐ shū jí hǎo.]

(This book is wonderful.)

Example 30 这本书好极了。[zhè běn shū hǎo jí le.]

(This book is wonderful.)

III. Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by time words

Generally speaking, the words for a time section can function as both with different meanings. As adverbials, they usually indicate the accomplishment or occurrence of an action or situation; as complements, they often indicate the duration of an action.

Example 31 他两天看了一本书。[tā liǎng tiān kàn le yī běn shū.]

(He has read a book in two days.)

这本书他看了两天还没看完。[zhè běn shū tā kàn le liǎng tiān hái méi kàn wán.]

(He hasn't finished the book in two days.)

In this example, “两天 [liǎng tiān] (two days)” in the first sentence means “the total reading time”; “两天 [liǎng tiān] (two days)” in the second one indicates “the duration of reading.” Another similar example is as follows.

Example 32 阿里一个小时就把作业写完了。[Ā Lǐ yī gè xiǎo shí jiù bǎ zuò yè xiě wán le.]

(A Li finished the homework in an hour.)

阿里写作业写了一个小时了。

[Ā Lǐ xiě zuò yè xiě le yī gè xiǎo shí le.]

(A Li has been doing his homework for an hour.)

Sometimes, time words also mean “regularly” when functioning as adverbials; they cannot indicate the same meaning when functioning as complements.

Example 33 小梅两天去一次少年宫。[Xiǎo Méi liǎng tiān qù yī cì shào nián gōng.]

(Xiao Mei goes to the children's palace once every two days.)

Example 34 高老师一个月写一篇文章。[Gāo lǎo shī yī gè yuè xiě yī piān wén zhāng.]

(Prof. Gao writes an article once a month.)

The words for a time section can function as adverbials in the negative sentence but they cannot function as complements in such a sentence.

Example 35 我和弟弟十年没有见面了。[wǒ hé dì dì shí nián méi yǒu jiàn miàn le.]

(My younger brother and I have not met each other for ten years.)

Example 36 他们俩好得不得了，一天不见都不行。[tā men liǎng hǎo de bú dé liǎo, yī tiān bú jiàn dōu bù xíng.]

(They have such a close relation that they can't be separated from each other even for a day.)

IV. Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by verb-quantifier words

As adverbials, verb-quantifier words usually indicate the number of times to finish an action; as complements, they often indicate the number of times to continue an action.

Example 37 武松三拳就把老虎打死了。[Wǔ Sōng sān quán jiù bǎ lǎo hǔ dǎ sǐ le.]

(Wu Song killed the tiger with three punches.)

武松打了老虎三拳。[Wǔ Sōng dǎ le lǎo hǔ sān quán.]

(Wu Song punched the tiger three times.)

Example 38 敌人一脚把门踢开。[dí rén yī jiǎo bǎ mén tī kāi.]

(The enemy kicked the door open.)

敌人踢了门一脚，没踢开。[dí rén tī le mén yī jiǎo, méi tī kāi.]

(The enemy failed to kick the door open.)

The overlapped verb-quantifier words only function as adverbials.

V. Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by phrases indicating location

- 1 As a prepositional phrase before the verb, “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” indicates location or space when functioning as the adverbial. When it comes after a verb, it functions as the resultant complement, in which “在 [zài] (at/in)” is a verb with the noun followed as the object. Their differences in meaning are as follows.

“在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” indicates the location for an action when functioning as the adverbial before the transitive verb. Usually, the doer of action is at this location but sometimes it isn't.

Example 39 我在黑板上写字。[wǒ zài hēi bǎn shàng xiě zì.]
(I write on the blackboard.)

Example 40 阿里在本子上画画。[Ā Lǐ zài běn zǐ shàng huà huà.]
(A Li draws on the book.)

Example 41 我在五道口食堂吃饺子。[wǒ zài wǔ dào kǒu shí táng chī jiǎo zi.]
(I eat dumplings in Wu Dao Kou cafeteria.)

Example 42 小明在院子里踢球。[Xiǎo Míng zài yuàn zǐ lǐ tī qiú.]
(Xiao Ming plays in the yard.)

Example 43 谢利在北京语言大学学习中文。[Xiè Lì zài běi jīng yǔ yán dà xué xué xí zhōng wén.]
(Xie Li learns Chinese in Beijing Language and Culture University.)

After the transitive verb, “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” indicates the result or “the recipient is in a location.”

Example 44 老师把生词写在黑板上。[lǎo shī bǎ shēng cí xiě zài hēi bǎn shàng.]
(The teacher wrote the new words on the blackboard.)

Example 45 小李把画儿画在本子上。[Xiǎo Lǐ bǎ huà er huà zài běn zǐ shàng.]
(Xiao Li drew the picture on the book.)

Example 46 小朋友们都把这件事记在心里。[xiǎo péng yǒu men dōu bǎ zhè jiàn shì jì zài xīn lǐ.]
(All the children kept it in their minds.)

In this case, “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” only functions as the complement but not as the adverbial.

Example 47 把箭射在靶子上。[bǎ jiàn shè zài bǎ zǐ shàng.]
(Shoot the arrow at the target.)

*在靶子上射箭。[zài bǎ zǐ shàng shè jiàn.]

Example 48 他把手绢扔在地上。[tā bǎ shǒu juàn rēng zài dì shàng.]
(He dropped his handkerchief on the ground.)

*他在地上扔手绢。[tā zài dì shàng rēng shǒu juàn.]

Sometimes, the result conveyed by “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” is not obvious enough or very similar to what it expresses as the adverbial before the verb.

Example 49 小明睡在床上。[Xiǎo Míng shuì zài chuáng shàng.]
(Xiao Ming is sleeping in bed.)

Example 50 李老师住在北大。[Lǐ lǎo shī zhù zài běi dà.]
(Prof. Li lives in Peking University.)

Example 51 一轮红日出现在东方。[yī lún hóng rì chū xiàn zài dōng fāng.]
(A red sun was rising from the east.)

Therefore, “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” in the previous examples also indicates the location where an action happens. They can be put before the verb as the adverbial.

Example 52 小明在床上睡。[Xiǎo Míng zài chuáng shàng shuì.]
(Xiao Ming is sleeping in bed.)

Example 53 李老师在北大住。[Lǐ lǎo shī zài běi dà zhù.]
(Prof. Li lives in Peking University.)

Example 54 一轮红日在东方出现。[yī lún hóng rì zài dōng fāng chū xiàn.]
(A red sun was rising from the east.)

However, the verbs qualified for these two cases are very limited, except for the aforementioned verbs. Although the two cases indicate the similar meanings, they emphasize them differently. The former focuses on location and the latter focuses on action.

Sometimes, a minor change may make more verbs qualified in these two cases.

Example 55 我躺在床上，望着天花板。[wǒ tǎng zài chuáng shàng, wàng zhe tiān huā bǎn.]

(I was lying in bed, staring at the ceiling.)

我在床上躺着想心事。[wǒ zài chuáng shàng tǎng zhe xiǎng xīn shì.]

(I was lying in bed, thinking about something.)

Example 56 他走进房间，坐在了沙发上。[tā zǒu jìn fáng jiān, zuò zài le shā fā shàng.]

(He entered the room and sat on the sofa.)

他在沙发上坐着看电视。[tā zài shā fā shàng zuò zhe kàn diàn shì.]

(He was watching TV on the sofa.)

In these examples, the verbs with “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” in the front requires “着 [zhe]” to follow. Such verbs mainly refer to body postures, such as “躺 [tǎng] (lie),” “站 [zhàn] (stand),” “立 [lì] (stand),” “坐 [zuò] (sit),” “跪 [guì] (kneel),” “蹲 [dūn] (squat),” “卧 [wò] (lie),” “靠 [kào] (lean),” “趴 [pā] (lie prone),” “顶 [dǐng] (carry on the head).” Or, they include those intransitive verbs for the state of things, such as “飘 [piāo] (float),” “浮 [fú] (float),” “悬 [xuán] (hang).” Here, “verb+着 [zhe]” indicates a static state or posture; “verb+在 [zài] (at/in)+locational word” means a static state as well as an action. When both are for a static state, the former comparatively implies a dynamic sense.

There are a few intransitive verbs that can come before or after “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun.” However, “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” after the predicate verb is only limited in the parallel sentence.

Example 57 小明生在东北，长在东北。[Xiǎo Míng shēng zài dōng běi, zhǎng zài dōng běi.]

(Xiao Ming was born and grew up in northeast China.)

Example 58 我们劳动在一起、生活在一起、工作在一起。[wǒ men láo dòng zài yī qǐ, shēng huó zài yī qǐ, gōng zuò zài yī qǐ.]

(We labor together, live together, and work together.)

In the non-parallel sentence, “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” only comes before the verb.

Example 59 赵老师在北大工作。[Zhào lǎo shī zài běi dà gōng zuò.]

(Prof. Zhao works at Peking University.)

*赵老师工作在北大。[Zhào lǎo shī gōng zuò zài běi dà.]

*我长在东北。[wǒ zhǎng zài dōng běi.]

*我在东北长。[wǒ zài dōng běi zhǎng.]

Why does “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” have different meanings when appearing before or after the verb? The reason is that the occurrence time decides the word order in Chinese. When “在 [zài] (at/in)+noun” appears before the verb to indicate the location where an action happens, it means that the location is supposed to appear earlier than the action. For instance, in “我在黑板上写字。[wǒ zài hēi bǎn shàng xiě zì.] (I write on the blackboard.),” “I” is supposed to appear first in front of “the blackboard” and then “I begin to write on it.”

- 2 When “到 [dào] (arrive)+noun” comes before the verb in the sentence with serial verbs, “到 [dào] (arrive)+noun” doesn’t function as an adverbial. “到 [dào] (arrive)” is considered as the first verb and the second verb as the purpose of “到 [dào] (arrive)+noun.”

Example 60 阿里到王府井买书去了。[Ā Lǐ dào wáng fǔ jǐng mǎi shū qù le.]

(A Li went to Wang Fu Jing to buy a book.)

Example 61 我到清华看朋友。[wǒ dào qīng huá kàn péng yǒu.]

(I went to Tsinghua to see my friends.)

When “到 [dào] (arrive)+noun” comes after the verb, “到 [dào] (arrive)” is considered as the resultant complement with the noun as its locational object. “到 [dào] (arrive)+noun” indicates the location of the doer.

Example 62 十一点，王刚把女朋友送到了宿舍。[shí yī diǎn, Wáng Gāng bǎ nǚ péng yǒu sòng dào le sù shè.]

(At eleven o’clock, Wang Gang sent his girlfriend to her dormitory.)

Example 63 你把书放到书包里。[nǐ bǎ shū fàng dào shū bāo lǐ.]

(Put the book in your schoolbag.)

Similarly, “到 [dào] (arrive)+noun” before the verb indicates an action happening earlier.

Example 64 我到清华看朋友。[wǒ dào qīng huá kàn péng yǒu.]
(I went to Tsinghua to see my friends.)

In this example, the action of visiting friends goes after the action of arriving in Tsinghua.

VI. Comparison between adverbials and complements being functioned by the words as action objects

“给 [gěi] (give)+noun” comes before the verb as the adverbial to indicate the recipient of an action.

Example 65 我给姐姐写了一封信。[wǒ gěi jiě jiě xiě le yī fēng xìn.]
(I wrote a letter to my elder sister.)

Example 66 小明给弟弟寄了五十块钱。[Xiǎo Míng gěi dì dì jì le wǔ shí kuài qián.]
(Xiao Ming sent his brother 50 yuan.)

Example 67 小红给妈妈开门。[Xiǎo Hóng gěi mā mā kāi mén.]
(Xiao Hong opened the door for her mother.)

Example 68 阿里，你给我把照相机修理一下。[Ā Lǐ, nǐ gěi wǒ bǎ zhào xiàng jī xiū lǐ yī xià.]
(A Li, please fix the camera for me.)

When “给 [gěi] (give)+noun” comes after the verb, “给 [gěi]” functions as the resultant complement, introducing the target of action and the noun as doer.

Example 69 我寄给布朗先生一本书。[wǒ jì gěi Bù lǎng xiān shēng yī běn shū.]
(I sent a book to Mr. Brown.)

Example 70 阿里把词典借给谢利了。[Ā Lǐ bǎ cí diǎn jiè gěi xiè lì le.]
(A Li lent the dictionary to Shelly.)

The position of “给 [gěi] (give)+noun” is decided by the semantic relation between “给 [gěi]” and the verb. When “给 [gěi]” introduces the target served by the verb, “给 [gěi] (give)+noun” comes before “给 [gěi]” as the adverbial.

Example 71 老师给学生讲课文。[lǎo shī gěi xué shēng jiǎng kè wén.]
(The teacher lectured to the students.)

*老师讲给学生课文。[lǎo shī jiǎng gěi xué shēng kè wén.]

Example 72 大家给马车闪出一条路。[dà jiā gěi mǎ chē shǎn chū yī tiáo lù.]
(Everyone made way for the carriage.)

*大家闪给马车一条路。[dà jiā shǎn gěi mǎ chē yī tiáo lù.]

When “给 [gěi] (give)+noun” introduces the target accepted by the verb, it comes after verb and functions as complement. In this case, the verb indicates “giving.”

Example 73 老师交给我一把钥匙。[lǎo shī jiāo gěi wǒ yī bǎ yào shí.]
(The teacher gave me a key.)

*老师给我交一把钥匙。[lǎo shī gěi wǒ jiāo yī bǎ yào shí.]

Example 74 这笔钱我分给你一半。[zhè bǐ qián wǒ fēn gěi nǐ yī bàn.]
(I will give you half of the money.)

*这笔钱我给你分一半。[zhè bǐ qián wǒ gěi nǐ fēn yī bàn.]

Verbs for “giving” belong to a closed category and they mainly include the words in the following.

送 [sòng] (send), 卖 [mài] (sell), 还 [hái] (return), 递 [dì] (deliver), 付 [fù] (pay), 赏 [shǎng] (reward), 嫁 [jià] (marry), 交 [jiāo] (pay), 分 [fēn] (divide), 输 [shū] (lose), 赔 [péi] (pay), 补 [bǔ] (make up), 发 [fā] (send), 赠 [zèng] (donate), 赐 [cì] (give), 献 [xiàn] (offer), 奖 [jiǎng] (award), 传 [chuan] (pass), 捎 [shāo] (bring), 寄 [jì] (send), 汇 [huì] (remit), 带 [dài] (bring), 留 [liú] (stay), 找(钱) [zhǎo (qián)] (give change), 借 [jiè] (lend), 租 [zū] (rent), 换 [huàn] (change), 扔 [rēng] (throw), 踢 [tī] (kick), 移交 [yí jiāo] (hand over), 介绍 [jiè shào] (introduce), 推荐 [tuī jiàn] (recommend), 分配 [fēn pèi] (distribute), 归还 [guī hái] (return), 发放 [fā fāng] (provide), 交还 [jiāo hái] (return), 过继 [guò jì] (adopt), 赠送 [zèng sòng] (give), 转卖 [zhuǎn mài] (resell), 转送 [zhuǎn sòng] (transfer), 转交 [zhuǎn jiāo] (transfer), 转告 [zhuǎn gào] (tell), 告诉 [gào sù] (tell), 教 [jiào] (teach).

Some verbs can indicate “giving” in a certain context, such as “写 [xiě] (write),” “打(电话) [dǎ (diàn huà)] (make a call),” “舀 [yǎo] (ladle).”

When the predicate verb indicates “manufacturing” or “gaining,” 给 [gěi] (give)+noun” usually appears before it.

Example 75 妈妈给孩子缝一件衣服。[Mā mā gěi hái zi fēng yī jiàn yī fú.]
(Mother sewed a dress for the child.)

Example 76 我给妹妹买了一本小说。[wǒ gěi mèi mèi mǎi le yī běn xiǎo shuō.]

(I bought a novel for my younger sister.)

*我买给妹妹一本小说。[wǒ mǎi gěi mèi mèi yī běn xiǎo shuō.]

Verbs for “manufacturing” belong to an open category and they include the following words:

做 [zuò] (do), 炒 [chǎo] (fry), 缝 [fēng] (stitch), 搞 [gǎo] (do), 打 [dǎ] (knit), 刻 [kè] (engrave), 画 [huà] (draw), 写 [xiě] (write), 抄 [chāo] (copy), 沏 [qī] (infuse).

Verbs for “gaining” belong to a closed category, mainly including the following words:

买 [mǎi] (buy), 偷 [tōu] (steal), 抢 [qiǎng] (rob), 骗 [piàn] (lie), 娶 [qǔ] (marry), 赢 [yíng] (win), 赚 [zhuàn] (earn), 扣 [kòu] (deduct), 拐 [guǎi] (kidnap), 收 [shōu] (receive), 要 [yào] (ask), 叫 [jiào] (order), 借 [jiè] (depend), 换 [huàn] (exchange), 租 [zū] (employ).

Only a few verbs for “giving” or “manufacturing” function as predicate verbs and “给 [gěi] (give)+noun” can appear both before and after them. These verbs are as follows:

寄 [jì] (send), 汇 [huì] (remit), 舀 [yǎo] (scoop), 留 [liú] (keep), 带 [dài] (take), 捎 [shāo] (bring), 让 [ràng] (let), 写 [xiě] (write), 打 [dǎ] (call), 换 [huàn] (exchange), 发 [fā] (send), 推荐 [tuī jiàn] (recommend), 介绍 [jiè shào] (introduce).

Example 77 这五十块钱你寄给他。 [zhè wǔ shí kuài qián nǐ jì gěi tā.]

(You remit him this fifty dollars.)

你给他寄五十块钱。 [nǐ gěi tā jì wǔ shí kuài qián.]

(You remit him fifty dollars.)

Example 78 我们把小李写的一本书推荐给出版社了。 [wǒ men bǎ Xiǎo Lǐ xiě de yī běn shū tuī jiàn gěi chū bǎn shè le.]

(We recommended a book written by Xiao Li to the publisher.)

我们给出版社推荐了一本书。 [wǒ men gěi chū bǎn shè tuī jiàn le yī běn shū.]

(We recommended a book to the publisher.)

Before the verb, “给 [gěi] (give)+noun” highlights the action; after the verb, it stresses the recipient.

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6 Double references and parentheses

Section one: double references

I. Definition of double references

When two words of the same importance function as the same constituent, referring to the same person or thing in a sentence, they are called double reference. They are different from other constituents, such as subject, predicate, object, attribute, adverbial, and complement.

Example 1 这位是我们的班长老王。 [zhè wèi shì wǒ men de bān zhǎng Lǎo Wáng.]
(This is Lao Wang, our monitor.)

In this example, “我们的班长 [wǒ men de bān zhǎng] (our monitor)” and “老王 [lǎo wáng] (Lao Wang)” refer to the same person and both function as the object of “是 [shì] (is)” as the double reference in the sentence. The absence of either of them doesn’t influence the entire sentence. Therefore, this example can be changed into “这位是我们的班长。 [zhè wèi shì wǒ men de bān zhǎng.] (This is our monitor.)” or “这位是老王。 [zhè wèi shì Lǎo Wáng.] (This is Lao Wang).”

II. Types of double references

There are three types of double references.

1 Overlapped double reference

It consists of two or more than two overlapped nouns, pronouns, or noun phrases to refer to the same person or thing. Based on its function, it can be subdivided into three types.

(1) To modify

It means that the front part of a double reference explains or interprets the rear part from different aspects, such as relation, position, status, or purpose. The rear

part expresses the definite message about a person or thing; and the front part modifies it.

Example 2 最小的弟弟周同义在幼儿园。[zui xiǎo de dì dì Zhōu Tóng yì zài yòu ér yuán.]

(The youngest brother, Zhou Tongyi, is in kindergarten.)

Example 3 解放军战士谢刚回北京看母亲去了。[jiě fàng jūn zhàn shì Xiè Gāng huí běi jīng kàn mǔ qīn qù le.]

(Xie Gang, a PLA man, went back to Beijing to see his mother.)

Example 4 他把祝贺女儿生日的礼物一个塑料小熊猫放在桌子上了。[tā bǎ zhù hè nǚ ér shēng rì de lǐ wù yī gè sù liào xiǎo xióng māo fàng zài zhuō zi shàng le.]

(He put a plastic panda, his daughter's birthday present, on the table.)

The front part possesses a function similar to an attribute, but actually it cannot be connected with the rear part by the structural auxiliary word “的 [de].”

(2) To explain

It means that the rear part of a double reference explains the front part from different aspects, such as position, status, or relation. The front part expresses the definite message and the rear part explains it. Sometimes, both can be paused in the spoken language or be separated by comma, dash, or colon in the written language, for the sake of strengthening the explanation.

Example 5 人们望望我，又望望阿华师傅和站长。[rén men wàng wàng wǒ, yòu wàng wàng Ā Huá shī fù hé zhàn zhǎng.]

(People look at me and then look at the master worker A Hua and the stationmaster.)

Example 6 李仁洁先生微笑点头，似乎表示赞许。[Lǐ Rén jié xiān shēng wēi xiào diǎn tóu, sì hū biǎo shì zàn xǔ.]

(Mr. Li Renjie smiled and nodded as if he approved.)

Example 7 桥上用藏文和汉文写着“团结桥”几个大字。[qiáo shàng yòng zàng wén hé hàn wén xiě zhe “tuán jié qiáo” jǐ gè dà zì.]

(Three words, “Tuan Jie Bridge,” are written on the bridge in both Tibetan and Chinese.)

Example 8 穿过登山路上的最后一道石坊—南天门，就到了泰山顶部。[chuān guò dēng shān lù shàng de zuì hòu yī dào shí fāng—nán tiān mén, jiù dào le tài shān dǐng bù.]

(Pass through the last stone archway, Nan Tian Men, and you will reach the top of Mount Tai.)

(3) To possess both functions

Usually, this type of double reference consists of three words, the middle part of which expresses the definite message. The front part modifies what the rear part explains.

Example 9 老船工阿福给我们介绍了许多在海上战胜风浪的经验。[lǎo chuán gōng Ā Fú gěi wǒ men jiè shào le xǔ duō zài hǎi shàng zhàn shèng fēng làng de jīng yàn.]

(A Fu, a veteran shipman, told us many experiences of overcoming storms at sea.)

Example 10 我最敬佩的老师黄守信老先生与世长辞了。[wǒ zuì jìng pèi de lǎo shī Huáng Shǒu xìn lǎo xiān shēng yǔ shì cháng cí le.]

(My most admirable teacher, Huang Shouxin, departed from us forever.)

Example 11 咱们祖孙三代本不是一家人哪! [zán men zǔ sūn sān dài běn bú shì yī jiā rén nǎ!]

(Our three successive generations don't come from one family!)

Example 12 你们师徒俩好好聊聊吧! [nǐ men shī tú liǎ hǎo hǎo liáo liáo ba!]

(Have a good talk between you and your master worker!)

The aforementioned overlapped double references are phrases of association, possessing the following two features.

- a Its constituents should refer to the same thing or person, such as “阿福 [Ā Fú] (A Fu)” and “师傅 [shī fù] (the master worker).” However, there is no double reference in “校长、主任都参加了这次会议。[xiào zhǎng, zhǔ rèn dōu cān jiā le zhè cì huì yì.] (Both the principal and the director attended the meeting.)” “校长 [xiào zhǎng] (the principal)” and “主任 [zhǔ rèn] (the director)” refer to two persons in different positions, although they function as the subjects together.
- b It should be composed of the constituents of association, such as, “团结桥 [tuán jié qiáo] (Tuan Jie Bridge)” referring to “几个大字 [jǐ gè dà zì] (three words).” However in “今天下午两点开会。[jīn tiān xià wǔ liǎng diǎn kāi huì.] (The meeting will be held at two this afternoon.)” “今天 [jīn tiān] (today)” restricts “下午两点 [xià wǔ liǎng diǎn] (two o'clock).” They are not a double reference.

The overlapped double reference is mainly used to indicate the way of addressing the title of a position or the number of people. It is widely used because it sounds not only polite and respectful, but also brief and vivid. This is the majority of double references in use.

Example 13 老羊工冯常福把羊群赶到山窝里去避雨了。[lǎo yáng gōng Féng Cháng fú bǎ yáng qún gǎn dào shān wō lǐ qù bì yǔ le.]
(Feng Changfu, an old shepherd, drove the sheep to the mountain cave to shelter from the rain.)

Example 14 你们艺术家们是怕人打扰的。[nǐ men yì shù jiā men shì pà rén dǎ rǎo de.]
(You artists are afraid of being disturbed.)

Example 15 这不是贺先生您提到了这儿吗？[Zhè bù shì Hè xiān shēng nín tí dào le zhè er ma?]
(Isn't this the place that you, Mr. He, mentioned?)

Example 16 李强主治大夫的意思是暂不动手术。[Lǐ Qiáng zhǔ zhì dài fū de yì si shì zàn bú dòng shǒu shù.]
(The attending doctor, Li Qiang, proposed delaying the surgery temporarily.)

Example 17 你这小伙子胆子真大，这样的独木桥你也敢走过去。[nǐ zhè xiǎo huǒ zi dǎn zi zhēn dà, zhè yàng de dú mù qiáo nǐ yě gǎn zǒu guò qù.]
(You, guy, are so brave that you dare to walk on a single-log bridge.)

2 Double reference consisting of “word/phrase+pronoun”

As its name implies, it consists of a word or phrase and a pronoun, separated by comma. The front part can function as a subject, attribute, or object, and expresses a full name or title for a thing or person; the rear part repeats it by a pronoun.

Example 18 我们的老船长，他是一个有丰富实践经验的老水手。[wǒ men de lǎo chuán zhǎng, tā shì yī gè yǒu fēng fù shí jiàn jīng yàn de lǎo shuǐ shǒu.]
(He, our old captain, is an old sailor with rich practical experience.)

Example 19 商品这个东西，千百万人，天天看它，用它，但是熟视无睹。[shāng pǐn zhè gè dōng xī, qiān bǎi wàn rén, tiān tiān kàn tā, yòng tā, dàn shì shú shì wú dǔ.]
(These daily commodities are too commonly used to be noticed by people.)

The front part is often highlighted. Due to the length of the front part, the pronoun is chosen as the rear part to shorten the distance between the subject and predicate, for the sake of brief and clear expression.

If the two parts don't refer to the same constituent, they cannot form a double reference.

Example 20 我要找的那个同志已经回家了，他是两点走的。[wǒ yào zhǎo de nà gè tóng zhì yǐ jīng huí jiā le, tā shì liǎng diǎn zǒu de.]
(That comrade I was looking for had gone home; he left at two o'clock.)

Example 21 我刚才买了一支毛笔，那是安徽产的。[wǒ gāng cái mǎi le yī zhī máo bǐ, nà shì ān huī chǎn de.]
(I bought a brush pen just now and it was made in Anhui.)

In the examples, both “那个同志 [nà gè tóng zhì] (that comrade)” functions as the subject of the first clause; “他 [tā] (he)” function as the subject of the second clause. “一支毛笔 [yī zhī máo bǐ] (a calligraphy brush)” functions as the object of the first clause; “那 [nà] (that)” functions as the subject of the second clause.

Sometimes, the comma between the two parts can be absent because both of them are simple in structure.

Example 22 你姓陈，我姓李，你爹他姓张。[nǐ xìng Chén, wǒ xìng Lǐ, nǐ diē tā xìng Zhāng.]
(Your surname is Chen; my surname is Li, and your father’s surname is Zhang.)

Example 23 我母亲七十大寿那天，我哥哥、嫂子他们都来给她祝寿了。[wǒ mǔ qīn qī shí dà shòu nà tiān, wǒ gē gē, sǎo zǐ tā men dōu lái gěi tā zhù shòu le.]
(On the day of my mother’s 70th birthday, my brother and sister-in-law came to celebrate her birthday.)

In Example 23, “他们 [tā men] (they)” also includes other relatives, besides “哥哥、嫂子 [gē gē, sǎo zǐ] (my brother and sister-in-law).” Such use often occurs in the spoken language and the third personal pronoun is frequently chosen to refer to the front noun indicating name, position, or title of relatives. For instance, “李中他们 [Lǐ Zhōng tā men] (they, including Li Zhong),” “主任他们 [zhǔ rèn tā men] (the director and them),” “哥哥他们 [gē gē tā men] (the elder brother and them).”

3 Double reference consisting of “portion and whole”

It has two forms: one is “portion+whole” and the other is “whole+portion.”

(1) “portion+whole”

The front part narrates different portions; the rear part summarizes them by adding a numeral-quantifier phrase or demonstrative pronoun in front.

Example 24 那位老水手的可贵之处，是在实践中具体地分析了石兽、流水、河沙三者的性质及其相互关系。[nà wèi lǎo shuǐ shǒu de kě guì zhī chù, shì zài shí jiàn zhōng jù tǐ de fēn xī le shí shòu, liú shuǐ, hé shā sān zhě de xìng zhì jí qí xiāng hù guān xì.]
(What the old sailor has achieved is that he made a practical analysis of the properties about stone beasts, running water, and river sand, as well as the co-relation among them.)

Example 25 会上选出了李立、张英、杨述三位同学为班委委员。[huì shàng xuǎn chū le Lǐ Lì, Zhāng Yīng, Yáng Shù sān wèi tóng xué wéi bān wěi wěi yuán.]

(At the meeting, three students, Li Li, Zhang Ying, and Yang Shu, were elected as members of the class committee.)

Example 26 太阳光的光谱是由红、橙、黄、绿、蓝、靛、紫七种颜色组成的。[tài yáng guāng de guāng pǔ shì yóu hóng, chéng, huáng, lǜ, lán, diàn, zǐ qī zhǒng yán sè zǔ chéng de.]

(The spectrum of sunlight is composed of seven colors: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and purple.)

Example 27 这本书已翻译成英文、法文、德文、日文、意大利文和西班牙文六种文字，在国内外公开发行。[zhè běn shū yǐ fān yì chéng yīng wén, fǎ wén, dé wén, rì wén, yì dà lì wén hé xī bān yá wén liù zhǒng wén zì, zài guó nèi wài gōng kāi fā xíng.]

(The book has been translated into six languages: English, French, German, Japanese, Italian, and Spanish, and has also been published at home and abroad.)

(2) “whole+portion”

The front part summarizes and the rear part further explains. Sometimes, the rear part can function as the subject of a clause.

Example 28 十几年来，他们兄弟二人刻苦自学，掌握了好几种外语：英文、德文、法文和日文。[shí jǐ nián lái, tā men xiōng dì èr rén kè kǔ zì xué, zhǎng wò le hǎo jǐ zhǒng wài yǔ: yīng wén, dé wén, fǎ wén hé rì wén.]

(For more than ten years of hard learning, the two brothers have mastered several foreign languages: English, German, French, and Japanese.)

Example 29 这次来中国旅游，参观访问了不少地方，北京、上海、杭州、桂林和乌鲁木齐等。[zhè cì lái zhōngguó lǚ yóu, cānguān fǎng wèn liǎo bù shǎo dì fāng, běijīng, shànghǎi, hángzhōu, guilín hé wū lǚ mù qí děng.]

(During my trip to China, I visited many places: Beijing, Shanghai, Hangzhou, Guilin, and Urumqi.)

Example 30 我国赠送给日本的两只小熊猫：一只叫康康，一只叫兰兰。[wǒ guó zèng sòng gěi rì běn de liǎng zhī xiǎo xióng māo: yì zhī jiào kāng kāng, yì zhī jiào lán lán.]

(The Chinese government donated two little pandas to Japan: one is named Kang Kang and the other is named Lan Lan.)

Example 31 一些身佩军刀的官兵，有的在船弦上漫步，有的坐在船篷上昂首眺望，神态威武而又安闲。[yī xiē shēn pèi jūn dāo de guān bīng, yǒu de zài chuán xián shàng màn bù, yǒu de zuò zài chuán péng shàng shàng áng shǒu tiào wàng, shén tài wēi wǔ ér yòu ān xián.]

(A mighty and peaceful scene was presented by the officers and soldiers on the ship with their sabers: some of them strolled on the bow of the ship, and some sat on the ship canopy and looked toward the distance.)

The “whole+portion” form is different from the compound sentence containing two clauses because its “portion” cannot stand alone as a clause.

Example 32 奶奶家养的菊花有好几种颜色：白的、黄的、粉的、水绿的和藕荷色的。[nǎi nǎi jiā yǎng de jú huā yǒu hǎo jǐ zhǒng yán sè: bái de, huáng de, fěn de, shuǐ lǜ de hé ǒu hé sè de.]

(Grandma's chrysanthemums have several colors: white, yellow, pink, aqua green, and pale pinkish purple.)

Example 33 她的三个哥哥：大哥是外科医生，二哥是火车司机，三哥是中学老师。[tā de sān gè gē gē: dà gē shì wài kē yī shēng, èr gē shì huǒ chē sī jī, sān gē shì zhōng xué lǎo shī.]

(She has three brothers: the elder brother is a surgeon, the second brother is a train driver, and the third brother is a middle school teacher.)

Example 34 这个专业的录取标准有三个：一个是考试成绩，一个是身体素质，一个是心理素质。[zhè gè zhuān yè de lù qǔ biāo zhǔn yǒu sān gè: yī gè shì kǎo shì chéng jì, yī gè shì shēn tǐ sù zhì, yī gè shì xīn lǐ sù zhì.]

(Three admission criteria for this major are as follows: the first is the test score, the second is the physical quality, and the third is the psychological quality.)

Example 35 父亲的朋友送给我们两缸莲花，一缸是红的，一缸是白的，都摆在院子里。[fù qīn de péng yǒu sòng gěi wǒ men liǎng gāng lián huā, yī gāng shì hóng de, yī gāng shì bái de, dōu bǎi zài yuàn zǐ lǐ.]

(My father's friend gave us the lotus planting in two big pots, in one of which were red flowers and in the other of which are white ones. We placed them in the yard.)

In these examples, the first two sentences are simple sentences; the rest of the sentences are compound sentences containing two clauses.

The overlapped double reference is also named the contiguous double reference; the double reference consisting of “protein and whole” is regarded as a non-contiguous one by some people. For the latter, some take the front part as the main subject and the rear part as the sub-subject.

Example 36 春节，这是我国人民相沿成习的盛大节日。[chūn jié, zhè shì wǒ guó rén mín xiāng yán chéng xí de shèng dà jié rì.]

(Spring Festival, a great festival in China, is celebrated as a traditional custom in which the people can learn from each other.)

In this example, “春节 [chūn jié] (Spring Festival)” is the main subject and “这 [zhè] (this)” is the sub-subject. Sometimes, the main subject is also regarded as the topic.

Section two: parentheses

I. *Definition of parentheses*

A parenthesis is a special and independent constituent, different from others, such as a subject, predicate, object, attribute, adverbial, or complement in the aspects of structure and tone. It can be put at the head, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence.

Example 1 总而言之，要学好一门外语，非下苦功不可。[zǒng ér yán zhī, yào xué hǎo yī mén wài yǔ, fēi xià kǔ gōng bú kě.]

(All in all, to learn a foreign language well, one must work hard.)

Example 2 这件事，依我说，就算了吧。[zhè jiàn shì, yī wǒ shuō, jiù suàn le ba.]

(For this, my opinion is to let it go.)

Example 3 这藤野先生，据说是穿衣服太模糊了。[zhè Téng yě xiān shēng, jù shuō shì chuān yī fú tài mó hú le.]

(It was said that Mr. Fujino was careless about his clothes.)

In the last examples, the underlined parts are all parentheses. Although they are unnecessary in sentence structure, they still help the semantic expression.

II. *Functions of parentheses*

1 Expressive function

It helps the semantic expression. That is to say that with or without it, what the sentence expresses differs.

Example 4 据说，井冈山的毛竹有一千多万根。[jù shuō, jīng gāng shān de máo zhú yǒu yī qiān duō wàn gēn.]

(It is said that there are more than 10 million bamboo plants in the Jing Gang Mountains.)

Here, “据说 [jù shuō] (it is said)” indicates “they say,” but without it, the sentence expresses a fact.

2 Coherence

It can connect sentences together and helps form a paragraph or a text.

Example 5 他为企业多赚了十万元，满以为自己会受到表扬。哪里想到，总经理听完他的汇报，生气地说：“王科长，咱们的企业的信誉才

值十万元，是不是太便宜了！[tā wéi qǐ yè duō zuàn le shí wàn yuán, mǎn yǐ wéi zi jǐ huì shòu dào biǎo yang. nǎ lǐ xiǎng dào, zǒng jīng lǐ tīng wán tā de huì bào, shēng qì dì shuō: Wáng kē zhǎng, zán men de qǐ yè de xīn yù cái zhǐ shì wàn yuán, shì bú shì tài pián yí le!]

(He had made an extra 100,000 yuan for the company and he thought he would be praised for it. Out of his expectation, after his report, the general manager said angrily: "Section Chief Wang, do you think the credibility of our company is only worth of 100,000 yuan? Don't you think it is too cheap!")

In this example, “哪里想到 [nǎ lǐ xiǎng dào] (out of his expectation)” connects the sentences before and after it together.

III. Common parentheses

The meanings expressed by parentheses are as follows:

- 1 To express an idea, opinion, or attitude of the speaker

The commonly used parentheses include:

我看 [wǒ kàn] (I see), 我想 [wǒ xiǎng] (I think), 不瞒你说 [bù mán nǐ shuō] (to tell you the truth), 说实在的 [shuō shí zài de] (to tell the truth), 说真的 [shuō zhēn de] (to be frank), 依我看 [yī wǒ kàn] (in my opinion), 依我说 [yī wǒ shuō] (according to my words), 依我之见 [yī wǒ zhī jiàn] (in my opinion).

Example 6 这个消息，我看，不可靠。[zhè gè xiāo xī, wǒ kàn, bù kě kào.]

(This news, according to my opinion, is not reliable.)

Example 7 这些诗集，我想，你们都读过了吧。[zhè xiē shī jí, wǒ xiǎng, nǐ men dōu dú guò le ba.]

(For these poems, I think, you have read all of them.)

Example 8 依我看嘛，各位的争论都是多余的。[yī wǒ kàn ma, gè wèi de zhēng lùn dōu shì duō yú de.]

(In my opinion, all your arguments are superfluous.)

Example 9 不瞒你们说，我也挺想去看这场球赛的，可是重任在身啊。[bù mán nǐ men shuō, wǒ yě tǐng xiǎng qù kàn zhè chǎng qiú sài de, kě shì zhòng rèn zài shēn ā.]

(To tell you the truth, I really want to watch this game, but I have got a lot to do.)

Example 10 说实在的，我没有心思去参加这样的活动。[shuō shí zài de, wǒ méi yǒu xīn sī qù cān jiā zhè yàng de huó dòng.]

(To be honest, I have no willingness to participate in such an event.)

2 To express a guess or an estimate of the speaker

The commonly used parentheses include:

看起来 [kàn qǐ lái] (it seems), 想来 [xiǎng lái] (it may be assumed), 看样子 [kàn yàng zi] (it looks as if), 充其量 [chōng qí liàng] (at best), 少说 [shǎo shuō] (at least), 说不定 [shuō bú dìng] (maybe).

Example 11 看来, 光靠文凭学历找工作也是不行的。[kàn lái, guāng kào wén píng xué lì zhǎo gōng zuò yě shì bú xíng de.]
(It seems that a diploma alone is not enough in job-seeking.)

Example 12 看来, 大学生必须提高自身的能力和素质。[kàn lái, dà xué shēng bì xū tí gāo zì shēn de néng lì hé sù zhì.]
(It seems that college students must improve their abilities and qualities.)

Example 13 命运啊, 乐极了会生悲, 苦尽了会甘来, 看来, 苍天是公正的。[mìng yùn ā, lè jí le huì shēng bēi, kǔ jìn le huì gān lái, kàn lái, cāng tiān shì gōng zhèng de.]
(This is the fate: too much pleasure will bring about sadness; all sufferings have their reward. It seems that God is just.)

Example 14 这个主意, 想来又是李小朋出的。[zhè gè zhǔ yì, xiǎng lái yòu shì Lǐ Xiǎo péng chū de.]
(I think this idea came from Li Xiaopeng again.)

Example 15 看样子, 你们还都没有弄懂。[kàn yàng zi, nǐ men hái dōu méi yǒu nòng dǒng.]
(It looks as if you still don't understand.)

3 To express unexpectedness

The commonly used parentheses include:

不想 [bú xiǎng] (unexpectedly), 谁知 [shuí zhī] (who knows), 谁知道 [shuí zhī dào] (who knows), 谁料到 [shuí liào dào] (unexpectedly), 不料 [bú liào] (unexpectedly), 哪想到 [nǎ xiǎng dào] (unexpectedly).

Example 16 谁知道阿Q采用怒目主义之后, 未庄的闲人便愈喜欢跟他开玩笑。[shuí zhī dào Ā Q cǎi yòng nù mù zhǔ yì zhī hòu, wèi zhuāng de xián rén biàn yù xǐ huān gēn tā kāi wán xiào.]
(Who knew that Ah Q's strategy of "fierce stare" would attract more people of Wei Village to joke with him?)

Example 17 谁想, 刚搬来半个月, 家里又遇到了一个更头疼的问题。[shuí xiǎng, gāng bān lái bàn gè yuè, jiā lǐ yòu yù dào le yī gè gèng tóu téng de wèn tí.]
(Who knew that the family would encounter a more troublesome problem half a month after moving here?)

Example 18 后来因为被雨淋了一场，又加上长途行军的疲劳，不想在准备通过最艰苦的草地的時候，我又犯病了。[hòu lái yīn wèi bèi yǔ lín le yī chǎng, yòu jiā shàng cháng tú xíng jūn de pí láo, bù xiǎng zài zhǔn bèi tōng guò zuì jiān kǔ de cǎo dì de shí hòu, wǒ yòu fàn bìng le]
(Later, I was unexpectedly sick again when I was about to pass the grassland, from being caught in the rain and the fatigue of long-distance marching.)

4 To draw attention

The commonly used parentheses include:

你看 [nǐ kàn] (you see), 你听 [nǐ tīng] (you listen), 你想 [nǐ xiǎng] (you think), 你想想 [nǐ xiǎng xiǎng] (you think), 请看 [qǐng kàn] (look), 你说 [nǐ shuō] (you say).

Example 19 你看，这里的城墙大约有七米高，五米到六米厚。[nǐ kàn, zhè lǐ de chéng qiáng dà yuē yǒu qī mǐ gāo, wǔ mǐ dào liù mǐ hòu.]
(You see, the walls here are about seven meters high and five to six meters thick.)

Example 20 你说说，他这样做对吗？[nǐ shuō shuō, tā zhè yàng zuò duì ma?]
(Tell me, did he do the right thing?)

Example 21 您想，这一大家子的人，我没有看见就走，心里痛快吗？[nín xiǎng, zhè yī dà jiā zǐ de rén, wǒ méi yǒu kàn jiàn jiù zǒu, xīn lǐ tòng kuài ma?]
(You know, I won't feel good if I leave without seeing this family.)

5 To express the source of news

The commonly used parentheses include:

据说 [jù shuō] (it is said), 听说 [tīng shuō] (it is said), 据传 [jù chuán] (it is said), 传说 [chuán shuō] (it is said), 相传 [xiāng chuán] (it is said), 据报道 [jù bào dào] (it is reported), 据调查 [jù diào chá] (according to investigation), 据记载 [jù jì zǎi] (according to the record), 说是 [shuō shì] (it is said).

Example 22 据传来的消息，知道革命党虽然进了城，倒还没有什么大异样。[jù chuán lái de xiāo xī, zhī dào gé mìng dǎng suī rán jìn le chéng, dào hái méi yǒu shí me dà yì yang.]
(It was said that the arrival of the Revolutionary Party didn't disturb the people's life in the town.)

Example 23 抓阄这个古老的习俗，据史载，时兴于魏晋南北朝。[zhuā jiū zhè gè gǔ lǎo de xí sú, jù shǐ zǎi, shí xīng yú wèi jìn nán běi cháo.]
(According to historical records, the ancient custom of drawing lots was popular in the Wei, Jin, Southern, and Northern Dynasties.)

Example 24 对于高山反应, 据说, 身体弱的比身体强壮的更容易适应, 女性比男性适应得快。[duì yú gāo shān fǎn yīng, jù shuō, shēn tǐ ruò de bǐ shēn tǐ qiáng zhuàng de gèng róng yì shì yīng, nǚ xìng bǐ nán xìng shì yīng dé kuài.]

(For altitude reaction, it is said that the weak body adapts faster than the strong body; and the female adapts faster than the male.)

Example 25 苏州园林据说有一百多处, 我到过不过十多处。[sū zhōu yuán lín jù shuō yǒu yī bǎi duō chù, wǒ dào guò bú guò shí duō chù.]

(It is said that there are more than one hundred gardens in Suzhou, but I only have visited more than ten of them.)

Example 26 据统计, 这里的人大部分都不是本地人。[jù tǒng jì, zhè lǐ de rén dà bù fēn dōu bú shì běn dì rén.]

(According to statistics, most of the people here are not local.)

6 To give an example

The commonly used parentheses include:

例如 [lì rú] (for example), 比如 [bǐ rú] (such as), 就是说 [jiù shì shuō] (that is to say).

Example 27 这儿有许多群众组织。比如: 读书会、世界语学会、新文字研究会、人民武装自卫会。[zhè er yǒu xǔ duō qún zhòng zǔ zhī. bǐ rú: dú shū huì, shì jiè yǔ xué huì, xīn wén zì yán jiū huì, rén mín wǔ zhuāng zì wèi huì.]

(There are many mass organizations here. For example, Reading Club, Esperanto Society, New Literature Research Association, People's Armed Self-Defense Association.)

Example 28 干什么事情都得细心, 比如养蚕吧, 不细心, 行吗? [gàn shí me shì qíng dōu dé xì xīn, bǐ rú yǎng cán ba, bú xì xīn, xíng ma?]

(You have to be serious no matter what you do. Take silkworm breeding for example, you cannot be too careful.)

Example 29 有的栏目, 比如“备注”就不一定非填不可。[yǒu de lán mù, bǐ rú “bèi zhù” jiù bù yī dìng fēi tián bù kě.]

(Some columns, such as “note,” are unnecessary to fill in.)

Example 30 有人这样说, 结婚前要睁大眼睛仔细瞧, 结婚后就要睁一只眼闭一只眼, 不就是说, 婚前要多看看对方的短处, 婚后要多想想对方的长处。[yǒu rén zhè yàng shuō, jié hūn qián yào zhēng dà yǎn jīng zǐ xì qiáo, jié hūn hòu jiù yào zhēng yī zhī yǎn bì yī zhī yǎn, bú jiù shì shuō, hūn qián yào duō kàn kàn duì fāng de duǎn chù, hūn hòu yào duō xiǎng xiǎng duì fāng de chǎng chù.]

(Some people say that you have to keep your eyes open before you get married, and turn a blind eye after it. That is to say, you have to observe

the shortcomings of the other side before marriage and think more about his/her strengths after marriage.)

Example 31 曾有统计显示, 世界上每小时就有五万个婴儿出生, 也就是说, 每天地球上就要多出十二万人。[céng yǒu tǒng jì xiǎn shì, shì jiè shàng měi xiǎo shí jiù yǒu wǔ qiān gè yīng ér chū shēng, yě jiù shì shuō, měi tiān dì qiú shàng jiù yào duō chū shí èr wàn rén.]

(According to the statistics, it is said that 5,000 babies are born per hour in the world. That is to say, 120,000 people are born every day.)

7 To express summary

The commonly used parentheses include:

总之 [zǒng zhī] (in short), 总而言之 [zǒng ér yán zhī] (all in all).

Example 32 总的来说, 这部电影从剧本到银幕是成功的。[zǒng de lái shuō, zhè bù diàn yǐng cóng jù běn dào yín mù shì chéng gōng de.]

(In short, this film is a success from script to screen.)

Example 33 总之, 她的职业是搭桥、结缘、牵线、拴疙瘩。[zǒng zhī, tā de zhí yè shì dā qiáo, jié yuán, qiān xiàn, shuān gē dá.]

(In short, her occupation is to offer matchmaking services.)

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