Grammaticalization of the Cantonese double object verb [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 給
in typological and areal perspectives

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Abstract
This paper examines five syntactic functions performed by the double object verb [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 給 (meaning ‘to give’) in the Cantonese dialects: (a) Indirect object marker; (b) beneficiary marker; (c) causative verb; (d) passive marker; and (e) instrument marker. It will, through cross-linguistic and cross-dialectal comparison, show how these functions are related to the double object verb as a result of grammaticalization which involves a number of semantic and cognitive processes such as desemanticization, decategorialization, and semantic-pragmatic inferencing. The grammaticalization paths and the chronological development of these functions of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 給 will also be examined on the basis of synchronic and diachronic data on Cantonese. Finally, the polyfunctionality of give found in some non-Sinitic languages spoken in China and the Southeast Asian linguistic area will be discussed from an areal perspective.

Keywords: double object verb, grammaticalization, areal linguistics, Southeast Asian linguistic area

1. Introduction
The prototypical syntactic construction in which the morpheme give occurs is the double object construction or ditransitive construction (雙賓句 shua\textsuperscript{ngbi\textsuperscript{nju\textsuperscript{}}} ) which involves three arguments: Subject, indirect object and direct object. It is also noted that there are other syntactic constructions such as benefactive construction and causative construction closely related to the double object verb give (Newman (1996) and Malchukov, Haspelmath and Comrie (2010)). These observations thus led Newman (1996:vii) to claim that the double object verb give is “experientially basic and semantically complex” [italics original].

Similar observations are also found in the Cantonese dialects in which the
morpheme [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 performs a number of syntactic functions apart from being a
double object verb. These functions are (a) indirect object marker; (b) beneficiary
marker; (c) causative verb; (d) passive marker and (e) instrument marker. However,
previous studies on Cantonese [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 focus mainly on the double object
construction, particularly on the relative word order of the direct object and the
indirect object (see, for example, Cheung 1972/2007, Peyraube 1981, Matthews and
however has been paid to the various syntactic functions performed by [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀
though there have been a number of studies on the syntactic functions of give in other
dialects such as Modern Standard Chinese in Zhu (1979) which focuses only on the
functions of indirect object marker and beneficiary marker and the Southern Min
dialects (see Cheng (1974), Cheng et al (1999), Chappell (2000), Chappell and
Peyraube (2006)). This paper will examine the relationship between [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 and
the five syntactic functions mentioned above in terms of grammaticalization, which is
defined by Heine and Kuteva (2002:2) as “the development [of morphemes] from
lexical to grammatical forms and from grammatical to even more grammatical forms”.
Our analysis in section 3 will show that these various functions of [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 do not
take on one single grammaticalization path, as proposed by Chappell and Peyraube
(2006) for the Southern Min dialects. Other notable features of grammaticalization
such as (a) desemanticization/bleaching; (b) decategorialization and (c) semantic-pragmatic
inferencing observed in the case of [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 will also be
discussed (Traugott and König 1991, Harris and Campbell 1995, Hopper and
Traugott 1997, Heine 2003). Finally, the grammaticalization process of [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀
will also be compared with other Chinese dialects and languages, especially those
spoken in the Southeast Asian linguistic area from typological and areal perspectives.

One of the main features of grammaticalization is that it usually takes a long time
to complete (Hopper and Traugott 1997). Thus, we might see that some morphemes
are in the mid-way of the process such that these morphemes can still function as
content words in some contexts. On the other hand, some morphemes have completed
the grammaticalization process and no more core lexical meaning is retained. These
two situations can be best exemplified by the words ba`把 and be\textsuperscript{35}被 in Modern
Standard Chinese respectively. Ba`把 in Modern Standard Chinese is mainly used as
a disposal marker, as in the sentence wo`ba`be\textsuperscript{35}zi da`po\textsuperscript{35}le 我把杯子打破了 ‘I
broke the cup’. At the same time, ba`把 is still a verb in the phrases such as ba`
gua\textsuperscript{n}把關 ‘to guard a pass’, ba`zhe me\textsuperscript{35}把著門 ‘guarding the door’ and ba`
"chi"把持 ‘to control or to dominate’. "Be" 被 was originally a verb meaning ‘to cover, to suffer’ and was later grammaticalized into a passive marker (see, for example, Wang (1996) and Zhang (2005) on the grammaticalization of "be" 被). After grammaticalization, the verbal properties of "be" 被, such as taking the aspect markers "le" 了, "zhe" 著 and "guo" 過, were lost. In the present study, we argue that the causative function of [pei³⁵]畀 discussed in section 2.3 is still a main verb and serves as a source of one of the two grammaticalization paths for [pei³⁵]畀. For the other four functions, they are considered function words or grammatical markers because they cannot take on aspect markers. In other words, [pei³⁵]畀 has been decategorialized in these constructions and “lost its status as an independent word and most other verbal properties” (Heine 2003:580).

Another feature of grammaticalization is related to frequency which, according to Bybee (2003:602) is “a primary contributor to the [grammaticalization] process, an active force in instigating the changes that occur in grammaticization”. There are two aspects related to the notion of frequency.²

The first one is related to the relative usage frequencies between the morpheme participating in the grammaticalization process and other members of the same word family. Chin’s (2009) survey on the double object verbs found in early Cantonese textual materials (a total of 44 items) published from 1828 to 1970 shows that [pei³⁵]畀 was the most frequently used double object verb (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Double Object Verb</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. [pei³⁵]畀 ‘to give’</td>
<td>999</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. [wa²²]話 ‘to tell’</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. [sù·³³]送 ‘to give as a gift’</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. [ts⁵³]借 ‘to lend’</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. [mai²²]賣 ‘to sell’</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. [ta³⁵ tin²² wa²²-³⁵]打電話 ‘to call someone by phone’</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. [tsi³³]賜 ‘to bestow’</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. [k³³·³⁵]講 ‘to tell’</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. [tai²²]遞 ‘to pass’</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. [kets³³]寄 ‘to mail’</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>1571</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Frequency distribution of the top 10 double object verbs in early Cantonese textual materials

² Haiman (1994) uses the notion ritualization to describe the repeating use of a particular syntactic pattern.
Table 1 shows that nearly two-thirds of the double object verbs found in the early Cantonese corpus are [pei$_{35}$]畀. Furthermore, Hopper and Traugott (1997) observe that it is usually hypernyms or generic terms rather than specific terms that are more prone to be grammaticalized. For example, the future tense marker in English can be rendered by the morpheme go as in the sentence It is going to rain tomorrow. Go, when compared with other verbs also describing physical movement such as walk, run, jog, denotes a physical proceeding without any specific details such as manner or speed. Bybee, Perkins and Pagliuca (1994) thus claim that “it is lexical items of [the] degree of generality … that enter into grammaticization”. When compared with the other nine high frequency double object verbs such as [s$\dddot{u}$33]送 ‘to give as a gift’, [mai$^{22}$]卖 ‘to sell’ and [ts$^{33}$]借 ‘to lend’ in Table 1, [pei$_{35}$]畀 is the one which does not have specific and rich meanings and this feature thus makes it a suitable candidate to be grammaticalized.

Besides the frequency of the morpheme in question, Bybee (2003:602) also stresses that it is equally important to focus on the construction in which the particular lexical item(s) being grammaticalized. One of the key features of [pei$_{35}$]畀 is that it is a 3-place predicate subcategorizing two syntactic objects. The syntactic pattern of the double object construction involving [pei$_{35}$]畀 is formulated in (1) and an example from Hong Kong Cantonese is given in (2):

(1)  NP$_1$畀 NP$_2$ NP$_3$

(2) 我畀本書你
n$^{35}$ pei$_{35}$ pun$_{35}$ sy$^{55}$ nei$_{13}$
I     give CL$^3$ book you
‘I give a book to you.’

As the name suggests, a double object construction has two syntactic objects: **Direct Object** (represented by NP$_2$, i.e. [pun$^{35}$ sy$^{55}$ 本書 ‘CL-book’]) and **Indirect Object** (represented by NP$_3$, i.e. [nei$^{13}$ 你 ‘you’]) which have the semantic roles of THING and RECIPIENT respectively.\(^4\)

It is important to note that in Cantonese two types of double object construction

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\(^4\) Some linguists also use the term THEME or PATIENT for the semantic role of the direct object. Here, we follow Haspelmath (2005), Malchukov, Haspelmath and Comrie (2010) and use the term THING.
with different syntactic realization are identified. In (2), the direct object precedes the indirect object. This type of double object construction is called the give-type construction. Other verbs belonging to the give-type double object construction include [sʊŋ33] 送 ‘to give as a gift’, [tʃɪŋ22] 送 ‘to pass’, [mɑi22] 卖 ‘to sell’. For more examples, see Zhu (1979:82). The second type has the indirect object preceding the direct object such as [ŋu13 t’eu55 tsɔ35 k’ɔy13 sam55 mɛn55] 我偷佢三文 ‘I stole three dollars from him’. This type is called the deprive-type double object construction. Other deprive verbs include [fʊŋ2] 罰 ‘to fine’, [tsɔ35] 捱 ‘to snatch’. The relative order of the two objects in the give-type double object construction is one of the key typological differences between the Northern and the Southern Chinese dialects (except Min) (Hashimoto 1976, 1985, Yue-Hashimoto 1993, Liu 2001, Chin 2009).

As our discussion goes, we will see that the various grammatical functions performed by [peɪ35] 畀 also require three arguments (though not all are necessarily noun phrases) and the prototypical double object construction NP1 畀 NP2 NP3 thus serves as a good source for the grammaticalization process.

In addition to syntax, semantics also plays a significant role in the polyfunctionality of [peɪ35] 畀. Hopper and Traugott (1997) claim that in grammaticalization, the semantic content of a morpheme is weakened or bleached which results in “an increase in the polysemy of a form” (p.96). Newman (1993:433) argues that lexical items, after grammaticalization, usually perform more than one grammatical function and appear in more than one type of syntactic construction.

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5 There are cases in which the indirect object precedes the direct object, such as when the direct object is exceptionally long. This phenomenon is known as Heavy End Shift (Hawkins 1994, Matthews and Yip 1994, Wasow 2002). Peyraube (1981) notes that some native Hong Kong Cantonese speakers also used the pattern with the indirect object preceding the direct object such as [ŋo:ŋ hɛi3 kɛi5h yɑ’t bu5 su5] 我畀佢一本本書 ‘I gave him/her a book’ and [ŋo:ŋ sung be5 nɛi5h ni5 bu5 su5] 我畀畀你呢本書 ‘I give you this book’ (p.36-38, with Peyraube’s original transcriptions). Chin (2009), on the basis of an extensive sociolinguistic investigation of 40 native Hong Kong Cantonese speakers with different social backgrounds, argues that the use of this pattern can be attributed to the increasing language contact between Hong Kong Cantonese and Modern Standard Chinese or Putonghua, in which the indirect object precedes the direct object in the give-type double object construction.

6 We do not consider the following verbs from Zhu’s list double-object verbs because they do not necessarily subcategorize an indirect object (i.e. recipient): tsi3 踢 ‘to kick’, reŋ3 扔 ‘to throw’, jia4 擡 ‘to pick with chopsticks’, ya5 o4 尋 ‘to ladle out’, li4 留 ‘to leave’, da3 帶 ‘to bring’. In fact, the classification of a verb as a double object verb is sometimes debatable. For example, Chin (2010b) finds that, based on corpus data on Modern Standard Chinese, there is a significance difference, in terms of frequency, in taking an indirect object on the surface structure for some double object verbs such as ma3 實 ‘to sell’, di3 違 ‘to pass’, and jie5 借 ‘to lend’. The percentages of taking indirect objects for these three verbs on the surface structure are 11.2%, 75% and 61.1% respectively.

7 Some but not all Min dialects use the northern strategy (i.e. the indirect object precedes the direct object). For example, the Xiamen 海門 dialect has 周的送林的一雙鞋 ‘Zhou gave Lin a pair of shoes’ (Zhou and Ouyang 1998:390-391), Suixi 松溪 in Leizhou peninsula (雷州半島) has 我先給汝三個銀 ‘I gave you three dollars first’ (Yue-Hashimoto 1985:358), Fuzhou 福州 has 依爸乞我蜀把 鋼筆 ‘My father gave me a pen’ (Chen 1998:203-204).
These items cannot be treated as homonymies but polysemies involving elaboration of the core meaning of the morpheme concerned. We will show that the various functions of [pei₃⁵]畀 can be linked to the cognitive attribute causation. The study on the interrelationship of different functions derived from the same morpheme is one of the main tasks in Cognitive Linguistics (see, for example, Langacker 1987, Croft and Cruse 2004, Lakoff 1990).

2. The Cantonese double object verb [pei₃⁵]畀 and its associated syntactic functions

Altogether, five syntactic functions of [pei₃⁵]畀 are found in Cantonese. Unless stated otherwise, our discussion is based on the examples drawn from the Cantonese dialect spoken in Hong Kong (also known as Hong Kong Cantonese). When necessary, data from other Cantonese dialects will be used for comparison and discussion.

2.1 An indirect object marker

An indirect object marker precedes the indirect object in a give-type double object construction and has the function of introducing the indirect object. The syntactic pattern is: NP₁ V₁ [+GIVE] NP₂畀NP₃. An example is given in (3).

(3) 我交咗本書畀張三
ŋ13 kau55 tsoŋ35 pun55 sy55 pei₃⁵ tsœŋ55 sam55
I pass ASP CL book give Zhang San
‘I passed a book to Zhang San’

(3) is a double object sentence with [kau55]交 ‘to pass’ as the main verb. The indirect object [tsœŋ55 sam55]張三 ‘Zhang San’ is preceded by [pei₃⁵]畀.

2.1.1 Is [pei₃⁵]畀 before the indirect object a verb?

The equivalent to (3) in English is I passed a book to Zhang San. The indirect object ‘Zhang San’ is preceded by to which is unambiguously a preposition. However, there have been divergent views on the grammatical category of the morpheme before the indirect object in Chinese (i.e. [pei₃⁵]畀 in (3)). Yue-Hashimoto (1971), Peyraube (1981), Li and Thompson (1981) and Tang (1998) among others treat it as a preposition. Huang and Ahrens (1999), on the contrary, argue that the morpheme in question is a verb and they treat (3) as a serial verb construction with the structure of NP₁ V₁ NP₂ V₂ NP₃ in which [pei₃⁵]畀 is V₂. Newman (1996:211) comments that it is sometimes difficult to determine if the structure is a serial verb construction or a verb phrase followed by a prepositional phrase. In our analysis, we argue that, on the
basis of the following three observations, the morpheme [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 has been grammaticalized from the double object verb [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀. In other words, [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 preceding the indirect object is regarded as a preposition.

(a) In a serial verb construction, there is no sub-categorization relationship, neither syntactic nor semantic, between the two verb phrases. It is thus not ungrammatical for a sentence to have only V\textsubscript{1} NP\textsubscript{2} but without V\textsubscript{2} NP\textsubscript{3} or vice versa. Consider (4) below:

(4) 我買郵票寄信
ŋɔ\textsuperscript{13} mai\textsuperscript{13} jue\textsuperscript{11} p’iu\textsuperscript{33} kei\textsuperscript{33} sɵn\textsuperscript{33}
‘I bought a stamp to send a letter’

(4) is a serial verb construction with the verb phrases [mai\textsuperscript{13} jue\textsuperscript{12} p’iu\textsuperscript{33}]買郵票 ‘to buy a stamp’ and [kei\textsuperscript{33} sɵn\textsuperscript{33}]寄信 ‘to send a letter’. Leaving out any of these two verb phrases does not make the sentence ungrammatical. However, omitting the畀-NP\textsubscript{3} constituent in a double object sentence results in ungrammaticality. Thus, [ŋɔ\textsuperscript{13} kau\textsuperscript{55} pun\textsuperscript{35} sy\textsuperscript{55}]我交本書 ‘I passed a book’ sounds incomplete and even ungrammatical. In other words, the畀-NP\textsubscript{3} phrase is an obligatory constituent in a double object sentence.

(b) It is observed that in many Chinese dialects the morpheme preceding the indirect object is always the double object verb give in the respective dialects. These include 撥 in the Wu dialects, 分 in the Hakka dialects, 互/乞 in the Min dialects (for more details, see Chin (2009, 2010a)). There is no case in which other double object verbs (such as jia\textsuperscript{0} 交 ‘to pass’, so\textsuperscript{ŋ}to ‘to give as a gift’, di\textsuperscript{□}递 ‘to pass’, ji\textsuperscript{□}寄 ‘to send’, jie\textsuperscript{□}借 ‘to lend’, etc.) precede the indirect object.

(c) The third feature can be illustrated by Modern Standard Chinese in which there is more than one syntactic pattern for the give-type double object construction, such as wo’ so\textsuperscript{ŋ}to ge ‘i ta\textsuperscript{□} yi\textsuperscript{□} be’n shu\textsuperscript{□}我送給他一本書, wo’ ge ‘i ta\textsuperscript{□} so\textsuperscript{ŋ}to yi\textsuperscript{□} be’n shu\textsuperscript{□}我給他送一本書 (meaning ‘I gave him a book’). In these patterns, ge ‘i 汲 always precedes the indirect object regardless of the position (pre-verbal or post-verbal) of the indirect object. This shows that there is a close relationship between the indirect object and the morpheme give preceding it in a double object construction in Chinese.

Thus, [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 is better treated as a grammaticalized word (i.e. a preposition) with the function of introducing the indirect object in a give-type double object construction while the deprive-type double object construction does not require an indirect object marker. As we will see, there are other usages of [pei\textsuperscript{35}]畀 as a
preposition. To distinguish them easily and clearly, we will refer to them with their functional roles. For this particular function of [pei35]畀 in the double object construction, we call it an **Indirect Object Marker** 間接賓語標記. It is also noted that in Cantonese, the indirect object marker [pei35]畀 can be omitted especially when the main verb is [pei35]畀 and the direct object is short (Matthews and Yip 1994, Chin 2009, 2010c).

### 2.1.2 Relationship between *give* and the indirect object marker function

After discussing the grammatical status of [pei35]畀 preceding the indirect object in a double object construction, it is then relevant to ask how the double object verb acquires the indirect object marker function. Schematically, a double object sentence is used to describe an action involving a transfer of a thing from the giver to the recipient. The action can be divided into two parts: (a) The giver intends to give a thing and (b) the thing is transferred to the recipient. The first part is encoded by the main verb of the double object sentence. Different double object verbs describe various types of giving: to pass, to give as a gift, to send, to lend, to bestow, etc. The second part of the action depicts the movement of the thing to the recipient and the schema is the same for all kinds of giving. Thus, only one single morpheme is needed to encode this part of the action and this function is best taken up by the core member of the double object verb family: *give*. Figure 1 shows the schematic representation of the action of giving.

![Figure 1: Schematic representation of the action of giving](image)

### 2.2 A beneficiary marker

The second function of [pei35]畀 is found in the syntactic construction called *beneficiary construction*. It is noted that the beneficiary construction shares the same surface structure with the double object construction: NP1 V NP2畀NP3. Consider (5) below:

(5) 我織咗件冷衫畀你
The major difference between a double object construction and a beneficiary construction is that the main verb in the former has the inherent [+GIVE] feature and subcategorizes two syntactic objects. In a beneficiary construction, the main verb is monotransitive which subcategorizes only one object (i.e. the semantic feature is [-GIVE]). In other words, the畀-NP₃ phrase is not an obligatory constituent in a beneficiary construction. For example, in (5), knitting a sweater does not necessarily require giving it to another person. Thus, these two syntactic constructions should be distinguished and they are represented by the following two formulae where the parentheses indicate that the constituents inside are optional:

\[
\begin{align*}
(6) \text{Double object:} & \quad V_{+\text{GIVE}} + NP₂ + \text{畀}\{\text{indirect object marker}\} + NP₃ \\
(7) \text{Benefactive:} & \quad V_{-\text{GIVE}} + NP₂ + \text{畀}\{\text{benefactive marker}\} + NP₃)
\end{align*}
\]

Syntactically, [pei³⁵]畀 is a grammaticalized morpheme and is thus a preposition. In terms of function, it introduces the beneficiary encoded by NP₃ and is called a beneficiary marker. It is also considered a marker because there is no other double object verbs that can replace [pei³⁵]畀 in this construction. In other words, [pei³⁵]畀 in the benefactive construction and the double object construction are two different types of grammatical markers.

It is not difficult to understand why the beneficiary marker and the indirect object marker are performed by the same morpheme. As noted by Kittlæ (2005), the semantic roles of recipient and beneficiary are common such that they “usually benefit from the events they are parts of” (p.269). These two actions are closely related and it is thus not unusual for a language to use the same morpheme, such as give, to mark these two semantic roles.

The beneficiary marker and the indirect object marker are found in the constructions involving three arguments which are realized by noun phrases. In the following, we discuss three additional functions of [pei³⁵]畀 which involve a different syntactic pattern. In particular, one of the noun phrases is replaced by a verb phrase. This can be seen as an extension of [pei³⁵]畀 whereby the requirement on the syntactic arguments is relaxed such that all three arguments need not be noun phrases. These three functions of [pei³⁵]畀 share the same syntactic pattern:

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8 Rice and Kabata (2007) also find that some languages use the same case marker such as allative for the semantic roles of beneficiary and recipient.
2.3 A causative verb

The third function of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] is a causative verb and the construction where it occurs is the causative construction which describes a situation involving two events: (a) causing event and (b) caused event (Comrie 1976, Shibatani 1976, Talmy 1976, Kemmer and Verhagen 1994, Song 1996, 2001). The causing event refers to the situation that the causer (NP\textsubscript{1}) exerts some force on the causee (NP\textsubscript{2}) to carry out another action and the caused event describes the situation that the action carried out by the causee might affect another entity (i.e. an affectee, the noun phrase in the embedded VP) or that the causee himself undergoes a change of state.

Following Song’s (2005a, 2005b) classification, the causative construction can be divided into two sub-types: periphrastic and non-periphrastic (which is also known as morphological causative). The causative verb function played by [pei\textsuperscript{35}] in Cantonese belongs to the periphrastic type because the causing event and the caused event are expressed in different clauses while for the non-periphrastic type, the causing and the caused events are expressed by morphological devices or case marking (Song 2005a, 2005b).

An example of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] functioning as a causative verb is shown in (9) below.

(9) 我畀佢打籃球
\[.\text{I} \text{ give} \text{ s/he} \text{ hit} \text{ basket ball}\]

‘I let him/her play basketball.’

It is noted that in Cantonese, [pei\textsuperscript{35}] does not express the causative meaning ‘I CAUSE him/her to play basketball’. Instead (9) expresses the meaning of permissiveness: ‘I let him/her play basketball’.

In terms of semantic, permission is also considered a subtype of causation which involves “the removal by the causer of a conceived barrier that was preventing the causee from carrying out or undergoing the effected event” (Kemmer and Verhagen 1994:120). Matisoff (1991:427) describes this as a permissive-causative function. Furthermore, the relationship between give and causative (as well as permissiveness) is found to be close.\textsuperscript{9} Kemmer and Verhagen (1994:115) claim that “causatives of

\textsuperscript{9} One reviewer points out that in English, sentences having give do not necessarily involve the intent or causation by the agents, such as He gave me a headache / the noise gave me a headache. In Cantonese, we do not have this kind of usage of [pei\textsuperscript{35}]. To express this meaning of non-agentive causative, the causative verb [l\textsuperscript{k} \text{ to cause}] or [kau\textsuperscript{35} \text{搞} to make (a mess of)] is used:
transitive predicates ... are seen as modeled on simple **three-participant clauses**” [my emphasis]. The three participants with the semantic roles of *causer, causee* and *affectee*, correspond to NP₁, NP₂ and NP₃ in the formula NP₁畀NP₂V(NP₃) respectively. Kemmer and Verhagen (1994:128-129) further argue that the use of *give* as a causative marker/verb shows that “the participants of the causative structure are recurrently seen as analogous to the participants of a ditransitive clause [i.e. double object construction]” because double object verbs also “involve the idea of an agent causing an entity to come into possession of something” [my emphasis].

Newman (2005:158) thus claims that causative is “a grammaticalized extension of ‘give’”. Lai (2001), in her studies of the polygrammaticalization of BUN in the Hakka dialects, also argues that the meaning of the transfer “can be easily extended from a noun phrase [i.e. the thing] to a verb phrase [i.e. the caused event]” (p.146). Precisely, what Lai claims is that “the meaning of giving someone something is transferred into giving someone the permission to do something” (ibid.). It is also noted that in his earlier cross-linguistic studies on the syntax of causative constructions, Comrie (1976) finds that the causees of causatives of transitives tend to be morphologically marked as dative.

In view of the close relationship between the double object verb and the causative construction (with the permissive meaning), it is thus not surprising to find *畀* in Cantonese also functioning as a causative verb. The syntactic patterns of the causative construction and the double object construction are formulated in (10) and (11) respectively:

(10) NP₁[causer]畀NP₂[causee][VNP₃[affectee]] [caused event]
(11) NP₁[giver]畀NP₂[thing]NP₃[recipient]

Notice that in our analysis, *畀* in a permissive construction is treated as a verb instead of a preposition (i.e. a causative *verb* but not a causative *marker*) because it can still take aspect markers, such as [.::kau[l]33 kau35 tstå5] hou33 tci35 he33] 我畀佢/佢搞/佢令到我好頭痛 ‘I let him/her watch movies’ where [tsstå5] 吃 is a perfective aspect marker.

### 2.4 A passive marker

[k‘yú13 l].kau33 tou13 hou13 t’su11 t’u.35] 佢搞/佢令到我好頭痛 ‘S/he gave me a headache’.

10 Kemmer and Verhagen (1994:129) also discuss the close relationship, in terms of semantic attributes such as animacy and experience-like properties, between the causee in a causative construction and the recipient in a double object construction.

11 Comrie (1976) includes examples from languages of different families, such as Hindi, Persian, French, Dutch, Turkish, Georgian and Tagalog.
The fourth function of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 當 is found in the passive construction whose pattern is identical to the causative construction: NP\textsubscript{1} 當 NP\textsubscript{2} VP. We argue that, semantically speaking, the passive construction is closely related to the causative construction. (12) is a passive sentence in Hong Kong Cantonese.

(12) 我 當 阿 媽 鬧

ŋ\textsuperscript{13} pei\textsuperscript{35} a\textsuperscript{33} ma\textsuperscript{55} nau\textsuperscript{22}

I give PRF mother scold

‘I was scolded by my mother.’

Although (12) has the same surface structure NP\textsubscript{1} 當 NP\textsubscript{2} VP with the causative construction, it is usually interpreted as a passive sentence although it is not totally impossible to interpret the sentence with the causative meaning in some specific contexts: ‘I let my mother scold (me)’. In a passive sentence, NP\textsubscript{2} is regarded as the agent of the action (VP) and NP\textsubscript{1} is the patient. Thus, [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 當 is considered an agent marker (or a passive marker in general).

It is also noted that in Cantonese, the passive marker [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 當 has a close pronunciation with another passive marker [pei\textsuperscript{22}] 被 (mainly used in written Chinese).\textsuperscript{13} The two morphemes however differ in the tone in Cantonese: The former has a high-rising tone (\textipa{yi\textsuperscript{nsh}a\textsuperscript{ng} 陰上}) while the latter has a mid-low level tone (\textipa{ya\textsuperscript{ngqu} 陽去}). Matthews and Yip (1994:150) claim that “the usual spoken form be\textsuperscript{郷} [i.e. 當] originates as beih [i.e. 被] with a changed tone”. In other words, they argue that the passive marker in colloquial Cantonese is [pei\textsuperscript{22}] 被 instead of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 當. However, we do not support their claim because of the following two reasons.\textsuperscript{14}

(a) According to Chin’s (2009) survey on the usage of give across the Chinese dialects, the passive marker in many dialects is identical to the double object verb give in the respective dialects. It is just a coincidence that the pronunciation of the passive marker in colloquial Cantonese (i.e. [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 當) is close to [pei\textsuperscript{22}] 被.

(b) For those passive sentences using the marker be\textsuperscript{郷} 被, the agents can be left out, such as Zha\textsuperscript{ng} Sa\textsuperscript{n} be\textsuperscript{郷} da\textsuperscript{郷} le 張三被打死了 ‘Zhang San was beaten’. On the

\textsuperscript{12} The use of give to express the passive meaning is also found in other languages, such as some dialects of Malay (Yap and Iwasaki 2003:425).

Duit kita habis bagi orang curi
money our finish give someone steal
‘our money completely give/let someone steal’

According to Yap and Iwasaki (2003), younger speakers of these Malay dialects have begun to use the passive prefix di-.

\textsuperscript{13} Matthews and Yip (2001:269) notice that [pei\textsuperscript{22}] 被 is now also used in spoken Cantonese, especially in high register contexts such as news reports: [keoi\textsuperscript{5} zung\textsuperscript{1} jyu\textsuperscript{1} be\textsuperscript{6} sik\textsuperscript{1} fong\textsuperscript{3}] (with their transcriptions) 佢終於被釋放 ‘S/he was released eventually’.

\textsuperscript{14} See also Cheung (1996:133) for a similar comment on their claim.
contrary, in Cantonese, the agent cannot be elided after the passive marker.\textsuperscript{15} If the passive marker in Cantonese is [pei\textsuperscript{22}] 被, then we need to explain why the omission of the agent in Cantonese passive sentences results in ungrammaticality.

In the following, we discuss how the passive marker function of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 被 is related to the causative function of [pei\textsuperscript{35}] 被. Let us first examine the relationship between causative and passive constructions in Modern Standard Chinese.\textsuperscript{16}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{Causative reading:} ‘I let him beat my head’
  \item \textbf{Passive reading:} ‘My head was beaten (and then injured) by him’
\end{itemize}

Jiang (2000:231-232) and Jiang (2003:215) claim that the passive meaning is obtained from the surface causative pattern when (a) the verb phrase after the causative verb \textit{ra\textsuperscript{2}} (i.e. \textit{da\textsuperscript{3}sha\textsuperscript{2}ng} 打傷) is transitive and carries the meaning of passive (\textit{sho\textsuperscript{2}udo\textsuperscript{2}ng} 受動); (b) the noun phrase before \textit{ra\textsuperscript{2}ng} 讓 (i.e. \textit{wo\textsuperscript{1}} 我) carries the semantic role of patient. In other words, their analyses claim that there is a switch of the semantic role of the subject from an agent to a patient. However, they have not explained why there is such a switch of the semantic role, and why and how the verb is interpreted with the passive sense.

When we compare the two readings in (13), we can see some subtle differences in meaning. For the causative reading, the causer (i.e. \textit{wo\textsuperscript{1}} 我 ‘I’) has the intention to instigate the action of beating to be carried out by the causee (i.e. \textit{ta\textsuperscript{1}} 他 ‘he’). For the passive reading, the subject of the sentence has no control on the action of beating. Instead, the subject suffers from beating. The choice of the passive and the causative meanings for (13) is thus determined by semantics as well as pragmatics instead of syntax. This kind of dual-interpretation of the NP\textsubscript{1} 被 NP\textsubscript{2} VP pattern is also found in Cantonese, as shown in (14).

(14) 我 被 隻 狗 食 晒 啲 飯

15 This syntactic feature is commonly found in many Southern dialects. See Zhan (1981).
16 The same also applies to other causative verbs such as \textit{jia\textsuperscript{2}o} 叫/教 in Modern Standard Chinese. Notice that in Modern Standard Chinese, the double object verb \textit{ge\textsuperscript{2}i} 给 can also be used as a causative verb such as \textit{ni\textsuperscript{2} na\textsuperscript{2} be\textsuperscript{1}n sho\textsuperscript{2}ge\textsuperscript{2}i ka\textsuperscript{2}n bu\textsuperscript{2}ge\textsuperscript{2}i ka\textsuperscript{2}n} 你那本書給不給看 ‘Do you let people read your book?’ (Lu\textsuperscript{2} 1993:196) though it is less productive. Furthermore, although \textit{ge\textsuperscript{2}i} 给 can be used as a passive marker in Modern Standard Chinese, such as \textit{Zha\textsuperscript{2}ng Sa\textsuperscript{2}n ge\textsuperscript{2}i sha\textsuperscript{2}le} 張三給殺了 ‘Zhang San was killed’, it has been reported that \textit{ge\textsuperscript{2}i} 给 is not used as a passive marker in the Greater Beijing Mandarin (北京官話) and the Ji\textsuperscript{2}-Lu Mandarin dialects (冀魯官話) of the Shandong area (Chirkova 2008).
The crucial difference between the causative and the passive readings is on the semantic judgment of the second action [s\[k\] \(1^{33}\) sai \(35^{35}\) ti \(55^{22}\) ] 食晒啲飯，‘eat up the rice’. If this action is not favored by the subject of the sentence, the passive reading is obtained. Otherwise, the sentence carries the causative meaning.

The close relationship between causative and passive can also be found in other languages which use either periphrastic (such as German) or non-periphrastic (such as Japanese) strategies for the causative construction.

In German, sentences containing the causative verb lassen ‘let, make’ with an inanimate subject can receive a passive reading. Compare (15) and (16) (Haspelmath 1990:46-47).

(15) Nesrin laßt sich fotografieren
   ‘Nesrin has herself photographed’

(16) Das Fahrrad läßt sich reparieren
   ‘The bike can be repaired / is repairable’

In Japanese, a passive sentence can be interpreted as a causative sentence (Washio 1993:49).

(17) John-ga Mary-ni kami-o kir-are-ta
   John-NOM Mary-BY hair-ACC cut-PASSIVE-PAST
   ‘John, had his\[i,j\] hair cut by Mary’

According to Washio (1993), the hair in (17) can belong to either John or someone else. For the former, the sentence has a passive reading. For the latter, the sentence is a causative construction with the meaning 'John made Mary cut someone’s hair’.

In view of the semantic difference between the causative and the passive constructions, Yap and Iwasaki (2003) claim that causative or permissive sentences obtain the passive reading when the permission becomes an unwilling one whereby the causer has no control over but suffers from the action carried out by the causee. This could explain why the passive construction is always associated with adversative and unfavorable events or situations, which is one of the major characteristics of the
passive construction in Chinese. \(^{17}\) Zhang (2006:139) holds a similar view and claims that the causative meaning first derives the meaning of involuntary permission 非自願允讓 which further extends to acquire the passive meaning. The route of the development is shown in (18) (Zhang 2006:141).

(18) Causative/permisive > involuntary permisive > passive

To sum up, NP\(_1\) in the structure NP\(_1\) 為 NP\(_2\) VP can be either a causer (in a causative construction) or a patient (in a passive construction) and the selection between these two semantic roles depends on contextual and pragmatic factors, as claimed by Newman (1996:197).

2.5 An instrument marker

The fifth function of [pei\(^{35}\) 為] in Cantonese which, to my best knowledge, has not been discussed in the literature. In her comparative study of the syntactic constructions involving [pei\(^{35}\) 為] and ge’i 給, Wong (2009) claims that [pei\(^{35}\) 為] in the phrase [pei\(^{35}\) sem\(^{55}\) kei\(^{55}\)] 為心機 ‘to use one’s heart’ does not belong to any usage she finds for [pei\(^{35}\) 為], namely (a) an indirect object marker; (b) a passive marker; and (c) a verb meaning ‘to allow’.\(^{18}\) As for the usage of [pei\(^{35}\) 為] in this set phrase, Wong claims that “no such usage of Mandarin ge’i 給 was detected” (p.74). We argue that [pei\(^{35}\) 為] in [pei\(^{35}\) sem\(^{55}\) kei\(^{55}\)] 為心機 has a different function, which is seldom reported in previous studies on the double object verb give. Consider the following two Cantonese sentences.

(19) 為 個 袋 包 住 隻 雞,

peī\(^{35}\) k '\^{33} ti\^{22-35} pau\^{55} tsy\^{22} ts'k\^{3} k'i\^{55}
give CL bag wrap SUF CL chicken

跟住 擠 入 雪櫃
k'n\^{55} tsy\^{22} ts'i\^{55} j'p\^{1} syt'k'i\^{22}
then put into fridge

‘Use a bag to wrap the chicken and then put it into the fridge’

(20) 首先 為 水 洗 乾淨 隻 雞,

17 Wang (1996) claims that due to the influence of western languages in the late 19\(^{th}\) and early 20\(^{th}\) centuries, the passive construction in Chinese can now be used to describe desirable and favorable events such as ta’he lij re’in za’n le 他被人讚了 ‘He was praised’. The passive sentence [k'\^{13} y\^{13} pei\(^{35}\) lou\^{13} pan\^{35} tsan\^{33}] 佢畀老闆讚 ‘S/he was praised by the boss’ is also acceptable in contemporary Cantonese.

18 Wong (2009) does not discuss the beneficiary marker function in the paper.
The above two sentences were provided by a 65-year-old Hong Kong Cantonese speaker when he was asked to demonstrate how to prepare a dish. The noun phrase after [pei³⁵]畀 is inanimate and is thus neither a recipient, a beneficiary, a causee nor an agent. In other words, [pei³⁵]畀 is neither an indirect object marker, a beneficiary marker, a causative verb nor a passive marker. The semantic role of the noun phrases after [pei³⁵]畀 in the above two sentences is instrument. According to my own observation as a native speaker of Cantonese, this function of [pei³⁵]畀 is not very productive among the young speakers but was commonly found in early Cantonese, as reflected by the dialect materials compiled between the 19th century and early 20th century. Some examples from these dialect materials are given below.

(21) 俾水洗米

‘Take water and wash the rice’ Bonney (1853:54)

(22) 我見佢畀棍打一箇細仔

‘I saw him beating a boy with a stick’ Stedman and Lee (1888:145)

(23) 呢的藥材俾水嚟開

‘Dilute this medicine with water’ Fulton (1888:21)

(24) 先先要俾石共坭，整一條路

In my own speech, I use the verb [jʊŋ²²]用 ‘to use’ to introduce the instrument. In Zhan and Cheung’s (1988:443) survey of 31 Cantonese dialects in the Pearl River Delta region, the morphemes used to introduce instruments are [jʊŋ²²]用 and [səi³⁵]使.

For more details on the rise and fall of this usage of [pei³⁵]畀 in Cantonese during the one and half centuries, see chapter 4 of Chin (2009).

No phonetic transcription is provided in this work.
first need give stone and mud make one CL road

‘First of all a road has to be made with stones and earth’ Ball (1912:148)

(25) 俾的梳打嘈嘈的柏布喇
pei ti shoh ta lai sha p ti *t’oi po la
give CL soda come boil CL table cloth SFP

‘Put in some soda when you boil the table cloth’ Belt and Hoh (1936:69)

In some Cantonese dialects, such as Taishan 台山 of the Siyi 四邑 area, the use of the double object verb [pei] to introduce instruments is still productive, as shown in the following examples.22

(26) 心機讀書
dei55 im33-kei33 uk32-ii33
give heart study

‘Study hard’

(27) 條繩綁個狗
dei55 hiu11 a-11 pṣ.55 kui33 kau55
give CL string tie CL dog

‘Tie up the dog with a string’

(28) 筷管夾餸
dei55 fai33-tu55 kap3 ṃu.33-21
give chopsticks clip dish

‘Clip the dish with chopsticks’

(29) 衫衫一件凍水洗
ken32 am33-21 dei55 u.33-33 ui55 ai55
CL shirt give cold water wash

‘Wash the shirt with cold water’

In modern Hong Kong Cantonese, this function of [pei] 當 is only found in the crystallized expression [pei səm55 kei55] 當心機 ‘to use one’s heart’.23

The use of the double object verb give to introduce instruments is seldom reported in other Chinese dialects.24 It is also not cross-linguistically attested. In

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22 This is based on my fieldwork conducted in early 2008 with a 90-year-old female speaker who has been residing in Seattle for more than 60 years. She mainly speaks the Taishan dialect and some English. According to her 42-year-old daughter-in-law who also speaks the same dialect, [ dei] 使 ‘to use’ is also used in addition to [pei]. See also Yue-Hashimoto (2005).

23 It is interesting to note that the equivalents of this expression in Modern Standard Chinese also use the instrumental verb ‘to use’, such as hua 花 and yo 葉 in hua xi/ji 花心機 and yo xi/ŋ 用心 respectively.

24 In some dialects such as the Han’ko’u 漢口 dialect (of Southwestern Mandarin) in Hu‘be’i
Heine and Kuteva’s grammaticalization lexicon (2002:332), the major sources of instrument markers are verbs of taking and comitative markers. It is thus relevant to examine how this function is related to give.

A double object construction depicts a three-participant event. When viewing an action involving an instrument, we also obtain a three-participant event. According to Stolz (2001:171), “[p]rototypical situations involving instrumentals require three participants, viz. an agent – the one who deploys the instrument -, the instrument itself, and a patient”. The major difference between the two constructions is that in the action of giving, the thing is received by an animate object (realized by a noun phrase) while in the action involving an instrument, the instrument is used to carry out another action (realized by a verb phrase). Syntactically, the two constructions are formulated in (30) and (31). Again, we can see that the surface structure with [pei\(^{35}\)] 當 as an instrument marker is identical to the ones with [pei\(^{35}\)] 當 as a causative verb and a passive marker.

(30) **GIVING:** \[ NP_1 + 當 + NP_2 + NP_3 \]

(31) **INSTRUMENTAL:** \[ NP_1 + 當 + NP_2 + VP \]

It is also noted that in many non-European languages, there is a syncretism of the markers for the instrument and the agent (see, for example, Nilsen (1973)). Stolz (2001:170) thus claims that the syncretism is not a random process and there must be “some reason for the empirical fact that certain categories combine more easily in syncretism than others do”. The common feature shared by both the agent and the instrument is *causation*. The agent deliberately *causes* and instigates an action while

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25 In English, the former can sometimes be found in recipes such as “it’s possible but to *take* yeast/sourdough instead of baking soda is not common”. The latter can be exemplified by the preposition *with* as in “I eat *with* chopsticks”. It is also noted that some Chinese dialects (especially those of the Central dialect group *a* la Norman (1988)) have the double object verbs expressed by morphemes meaning ‘to take’ such as *na* 拿 and *ba* 把, which are also used to mark instruments. The former can be found in the Hakka dialects of Da 當 大余, Na 南 ka 賣 南康, A 安 yu 安遠, Yu 于都, Lo 龍 ngna 見南, Qu 全南, Di 定南 in the Jiangxi province (Li and Chang 1992, Liu 1999). The latter can be found in some Ga 樂 and Xia 象 dialects such as Na 南 cha 賣 南昌 (Wei and Chen 1998), Li 梁 chua 長沙 (Li 1991), Yi 益陽 (Cui 1998) and Sha 邵陽 (Chu 1998). This has led to the discussion on the alignment (such as the relative word order of the two objects) and sources of double object verbs in some Chinese dialects, especially the Central and the Southern ones (see more details in Zhang 2011).
the instrument can be considered an assistant to *cause* the subsequent action to take place. In their analysis of the double object verb *hoo* in the Southern Min dialects, Cheng et al (1999) argue that the various functions of *hoo* is related to the semantic attribute of *causative* which has been claimed to be one of the key universal cognitive concepts in human minds (Lakoff 1990:55).

3. Grammaticalization paths of [pei₃⁵]畀

The above sections have shown how the core double object verb [pei₃⁵]畀 in Cantonese is grammaticalized to derive a number of syntactic functions. We have also seen that two different syntactic patterns are involved in the grammaticalization process: NP₁畀NP₂NP₃ and NP₁畀NP₂VP. The question we want to raise is whether the process took on only one or more than one grammaticalization path? Furthermore, what might be the relative chronology of these functions of [pei₃⁵]畀?

Chappell and Peyraube (2006:982) propose two independent grammaticalization paths for the double object verb *give* in the Southern Min dialects:

(32) *Give > dative marker*²⁶

(33) *Give > causative > passive marker*

This proposal for two grammaticalization paths is an illustration of polygrammaticalization suggested by Lai (2001). The major difference between Chappell and Peyraube’s (2006) study and ours reported here is that the instrument marker and the beneficiary marker functions were not discussed in the Min dialects.

We have examined the close relationship between the indirect object/beneficiary markers and the double object verb *give* when the serial verb construction is taken into consideration. Thus, we claim that these two markers developed directly from the main verb [pei₃⁵]畀. In terms of their relative chronology, Takashima and Yue-Hashimoto (2000) and Chin (2009, 2010c) find that in the 19th century, the indirect object marker was dominantly performed by the directional verb [k₃₃]过得‘to cross’ which was later replaced by [pei₃⁵]畀. For the beneficiary marker, it was always [pei₃⁵]畀.²⁷ The chronological development of these two markers is shown in (34).

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²⁶ Chappell and Peyraube (2006) use the notion dative marker instead of indirect object marker.

²⁷ Chin (2010a) argues that the main verb in a double object construction carries the inherent [+GIVE] meaning. The indirect object marker thus needs not be a verb with the [+GIVE] meaning and the directional verb [k₃₃]过得 is sufficient to denote the meaning of transfer. On the contrary, the main verb in the beneficiary construction does not have the inherent [+GIVE] meaning. The beneficiary marker then has to be a morpheme with the [+GIVE] meaning to denote the meaning of transfer. Thus, [pei₃⁵]畀 has always been the preferred marker for the beneficiary.
(34) Give > beneficiary marker > indirect object marker

We follow Chappell and Peyraube’s (2006) proposal that the causative and the passive marker functions of \( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 take on a different grammaticalization path. The instrument marker function also follows this path because these three functions share the same syntactic pattern \( \text{NP}_1 \text{ 看 NP}_2 \text{ VP} \). Chronologically speaking, the instrument marker function developed before the passive marker function, as shown in (35) below:

(35) Give > causative > instrument marker > passive marker

There are two reasons to support our proposal for this chronological development:

(a) On the basis of the early Cantonese materials, Chin (2010d) finds that in the 19\(^{th}\) century Cantonese, the passive marker was performed more frequently by \( \text{pei}^{22} \) 被 than \( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 while within the same period, the instrument marker function of \( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 was prevalent.

(b) Give carries the semantic attribute of ‘to cause’ and the subjects of the sentences are the entities that have the ability and volition to cause something to happen. This is particularly clear in causative sentences and sentences involving instruments as discussed above. The entities realized as the subjects in the passive sentences, on the contrary, lack the control and they are in fact adversely affected. The lack of this causative attribute indicates that \( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 has been desemanticized or bleached out in the construction such that the verb originally “requiring typically human subject referents … was extended to contexts involving inanimate subjects” (Heine 2003:580). Table 2 lists the semantic attributes of the subjects in these three

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28 One reviewer pointed out that, on the basis of the Fuzhou dialect reported by Chen (2006), the instrument marker could be related to the beneficiary marker function. However we do not agree with this proposal because the beneficiary marker function and the instrument marker function in Cantonese, unlike the Fuzhou dialect, share different surface structures (\( \text{NP}_1 \text{ 看 NP}_2 \text{ VP} \) for the former and \( \text{NP}_1 \text{ 看 NP}_2 \text{ VP} \) for the latter). In the Fuzhou dialect (Chen 2006:233), both functions are found in the same surface pattern: \( \text{NP}_1 \text{ 看 NP}_2 \text{ VP} \) where 看 is the marker. Furthermore, Chin (2010d) observes that there is potential ambiguity between the two constructions in Cantonese due to their identical surface structure. For example, the sentence 佢俾我大石塞住個龍口 [k\(^{13}\) y\(^{13}\) tei\(^{35}\) ts\(_{23}\) u\(^{35}\) pei\(^{35}\) k\(_{23}\)a\(_{23}\) t\(_{23}\) s\(_{23}\) k\(_{23}\) s\(_{23}\) y\(_{23}\) l\(_{23}\) l\(_{23}\) h\(_{23}\) u\(_{23}\) ] allows two readings: “They blocked the den with a big rock” ([\( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 as an instrument marker] and “They were blocked by the big rock at the den” ([\( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 as a passive marker]).

29 Chin (2010d) argues that \( \text{pei}^{22} \) 被 cannot be simply taken as the passive marker borrowed from the written language. Instead it was a form actively used in the colloquial dialect at that time. He also claims that the disappearance of the instrument marker function and the rise of the passive marker function (after the beginning of the 20\(^{th}\) century) played by \( \text{pei}^{35} \) 看 might be due to the ambiguity arising from their identical surface structures which could impose extra cognitive burden for the interlocutors in processing the utterances (see the sentence in footnote 28 above).
constructions in terms of animacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Causative construction</th>
<th>Construction involving instrument</th>
<th>Passive construction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>[+animate]</td>
<td>[+animate]</td>
<td>[±animate]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Semantic attribute of the subjects in terms of animacy in the three constructions involving [pei]$^{35}$ 父

The passive construction has relaxed the semantic requirement on the subject (NP₁) in terms of animacy and this suggests that the passive marker function of [pei]$^{35}$ 父 might have developed later than the other two functions.

This proposed chronological sequence also fits in the semantic-pragmatic change scheme put forth by Traugott and König (1991). In particular, tendencies I and III in their scheme are relevant to our discussion (p.208-209, with my emphasis):

(a) **Semantic-pragmatic tendency I**: Meanings based on the external described situation → meanings based on the internal (evaluative/perceptual/cognitive) situation;

(b) **Semantic-pragmatic tendency III**: Meanings tend to become increasingly situated in the speaker’s subjective belief-state/attitude toward the situation.

Tendency I is related to the “shift from a concrete, physical situation to reference to a cognitive, perceptual situation” (p.208), which can account for the use of give as a causative verb because what is given to the recipient is not a concrete object but an abstract one, such as permission or a right. Tendency III illustrates the grammaticalization of [pei]$^{35}$ 父 into a passive marker which is concerned with the speakers’ subjective perception toward the situation(s) s/he wants to describe. For example, the passive meaning in Chinese is usually associated with unfavorable situations.

The developmental paths of the five grammatical functions of [pei]$^{35}$ 父 and their relative chronology are diagrammatized in Figure 2.
This is the pre-published version.

Figure 2: Grammaticalization paths and relative chronology of the various syntactic functions of Cantonese [pei³⁵] 當

The vertical distances among the functions (stemming from the same node) in Figure 2 indicate the chronology of their development on the basis of our analysis from both diachronic and synchronic data on Cantonese. For example, the indirect object marker is placed below the beneficiary marker, meaning that it developed later than the beneficiary marker. By the same token, the instrument marker predated the passive marker.

Among the various functions of [pei³⁵] 當, the passive marker usage is the farthest from the double object verb. It is also interesting to note that this function is acquired later than the other functions by Hong Kong Cantonese children (Wong 2004).

4. Grammaticalization of give in an areal perspective

Besides the Chinese language, some neighboring non-Sinitic languages are also found to have the double object verb give performing different syntactic functions. For example, give in Thai can function as an indirect object marker, a causative verb and a beneficiary marker (Diller 2001, Thepkanjana and Uehara 2008). These languages are spoken in the region known as the Southeast Asian linguistic area, which is “home to more than a thousand languages, belonging to five major language families: Austronesian, Austroasiatic, Tibeto-Burman, Tai-Kadai, and Hmong-Mien” (Matisoff 1992:44). These genetically unrelated languages are found to share some linguistic features due to borrowing as a result of their prolonged and extensive language contact (cf. Thomason 2001, Heine and Kuteva 2005, Aikhenvald 2006).

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30 Wong’s (2004) study does not include the instrument marker function of [pei³⁵] 當.
31 There are opposing views arguing that some of these languages such as Thai and Chinese are
On the basis of examples drawn from the Lahu language of the Tibeto-Burman group, as well as Vietnamese, Chinese and Miao Yao, Matisoff (1991) argues that the use of the double object verb as a causative verb and a beneficiary marker is one of the areal linguistic features in the Southeast Asian linguistic area. Notice that Matisoff does not mention the use of *give* as a passive marker in these languages and we will address this issue later in this section.\(^{32}\) Consider the following sentences from Thai, Vietnamese and Lao.

**A. Thai** (Yates and Tryon (1970:442-444))

(36) chuāj riak thīksīi haːj pho´m
please call taxi for I
‘Please call a taxi for me’ ([haːj] as a beneficiary marker)

(37) khaːw anuːjaː at haːj pho´m rian phaa´sathaj
he give I study Thai
‘He allows me to study Thai’ ([haːj] as a causative verb)

The passive marker in Thai is [t̥ːk].

**B. Vietnamese** (Thompson (1965:232 and 332))

(38) c[l]uːn c[ə]c toːh] haː] m  lam n c[ə]m
please give me two pastries
‘Please give me two pastries’ ([c[ə]m] as a double object verb)

(39) c[ə]c toːh] viêt t[ə]c
she write letter give me
‘She wrote a letter to/for me’ ([c[ə]c] as an indirect object marker or a beneficiary marker)

(40) c[l]uːn c[ə]c toːh] viêt t[ə]c m iet
please write letter let me know
‘Please write a letter to let me know’ ([c[ə]c] as a causative verb)

The passive marker in Vietnamese is [c[l]i] (meaning ‘to suffer, to undergo’), [z[ə]] (meaning ‘to be caused, to be effected by’ which supports the close relationship between causative and passive meanings) or [z[ə]w.o.k] (meaning ‘to receive, to obtain’) but not [c[ə]] (Thompson 1965:228-229).

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\(^{32}\) Yap and Iwasaki (2003:433) survey the grammaticalization of *give* in some Southeast Asian languages including Vietnamese, Thai, Malay, Akan and Khmer. They find that the passive marker function of *give* is not found in these non-Sinitic languages.

(41) caw4 haj5 khoòj5 haa5-loòj4 kiip5
   2SG give 1SG five-hundred kip
   ‘You gave me 500 kip’ ([haj] as a double object verb)

(42) khoòj5 sìØ song1 lot1-cak2 haj5 phòòl
   1SG IRR send CT.VEHICLE-motorcycle give father
   ‘I’m going to deliver the motorcycle to Dad’ ([haj] as an indirect object marker)

(43) man2 haj5 noòj4 paj3 talaat5
   he give Noi go market
   ‘He let/made Noi go to the market’ ([haj] as a causative verb)

In Lao, the passive marker is [thuùk] with the meaning of ‘strike, come into contact with’.

To explain why these non-Sinitic languages in the linguistic area, unlike most of the Southern Chinese dialects, have not yet developed the passive usage for the verb give, Hashimoto (1988) claims that the development of give to the passive usage might be “an autonomous development” (p.350) in the Southern Chinese dialects.

According to Chin’s (2009) survey on the multiple usage of give in the non-Sinitic languages spoken in China, 10 out of 31 languages (from three language families) are found to use the double object verb give as the passive marker. These languages include (1) Pu̍a la仆拉語 and Ka̍zhuo卡卓語 of the Tibeto-Burman group; (2) Da̍i傣語, Zwuan壯語 of Lo̍ngzhóu龍州, Mo莫話, Cu村語, Mu̍ila木佬語 and Bu̍ya布央語 of the Kam-Tai family; (3) She畬語 and Mia’n勉語 of the Miao-Yao family. This observation might suggest that these non-Sinitic languages have borrowed the mechanism of developing the passive marker usage from the causative usage of give. This kind of borrowing is proposed by Heine and Kuteva (2002, 2003, 2005) as contact-induced grammaticalization. Such a borrowing of a syntactic mechanism in fact is not uncommon in the linguistic area. In his study of the post-verbal usage of acquire in some Southeast Asian languages, Enfield (2001:287) claims that it is the “functional application – not the form – that is shared” among the languages coming into close contact [italics original]. In this regard, the passive marker usage of give in these non-Sinitic languages can be considered an additional areal feature possibly originated from the Southern Chinese dialects.

5. Concluding remarks
This paper examines the grammaticalization process of the double object verb
[pei³⁵]畀 in the Cantonese dialects. It has shown that some but not all of the syntactic functions are cross-linguistically attested. These include the indirect object marker, the beneficiary marker and the causative verb. On the other hand, the functions of the instrument marker and the passive marker are not commonly found in other languages but we have demonstrated how these functions can be correlated with the double object verb [pei³⁵]畀. We have also proposed the relative chronology and grammaticalization paths of these syntactic functions on the basis of synchronic and diachronic data from Cantonese.

From a broader perspective, the grammaticalization of give into an indirect object marker, a causative verb and a beneficiary marker can be regarded as one of the areal features in the Southeast Asian linguistic area (Matisoff 1991). At the same time, we also note that some non-Sinitic languages spoken in China have begun to use give as the passive marker possibly due to syntactic borrowing upon their prolonged and extensive contact with the Southern Chinese dialects, which have fully developed this syntactic function of give.33

The comparison of the grammaticalization of give in Cantonese with other Chinese dialects as well as other genetically unrelated languages allows us to observe the similarities and the diversities in Cantonese grammar and in its development.

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33 Some recent studies on the syntax of languages in the mainland Southeast Asia under the notion of areal linguistics and language contact include Sybesma’s (2008) comparative study of post-verbal ‘can’ (to acquire) in Zhuang (壯語), Cantonese, Vietnamese and Lao, Enfield’s (2001) study on the polyfunctionality of the verb acquire and Bisang’s (1996, 1999) examination of the grammaticalization process of nouns and verbs as well as classifiers (see also Gerner and Bisang (2010)), Kwok’s (2010) study on the two typologically distinct word order patterns of the verb-complement construction: Verb-Complement-Object and Verb-Object-Complement in the Cantonese dialect and Zhuang language in Nanning (南寧) of Guangxi (廣西), Wu’s (2008) study on the origin of the neutral question in the languages spoken in Southern China.
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從語言類型學和區域語言學角度探討粵語雙賓動詞「畀」的語法化現象

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本文探討粵語雙賓動詞「畀」的五種語法功能：(1) 間接賓語標記；(2) 受益者標記；(3) 使役動詞；(4) 被動標記；(5) 工具標記。透過跨方言和跨語言比較，本文指出以上語法功能是雙賓動詞語法化產生的結果。此外，本文利用早期和當代粵方言材料，構擬這五種語法功能的發展時序。最後，本文從區域語言學角度，把有關的語法化現象跟中國大陸和鄰近地區(特別是東南亞語言區域)非漢語語言比較，歸納當中涉及的一些語言演變機制。

關鍵詞：雙賓動詞，語法化，區域語言學，東南亞語言區域