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Verb Concatenation in Vietnamese

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#### 1.0 Introduction.

In his book, <u>The Grammar of Lahu</u>, James A. Matisoff shows that Lahu, a Tibeto-Burman language of the Loloish group, is "remarkable for the apparent ease with which two or more verbs may be strung together or concatenated by simple juxtaposition to form complex verbal nuclei (1973:199). He calls these serial verb constructions "verb concatenations." In each concatenation there must be a head verb or  $V_h$ . Other verbs which occur either to the head's left, or to its right, or which flank the head on both sides, are called <u>versatile verbs</u>. Those which occur before the  $V_h$  are <u>pre-head versatiles</u> ( $_VV$ ); those which come after the  $V_h$  are <u>post-head versatiles</u> ( $v_v$ ). Versatile verbs stand in a subordinate relationship to the head, both syntactically and semantically.

This phenomenon is not restricted to Lahu alone. Barbara Abbott (1972) has shown that Vietnamese also has some kind of versatile verbs. Although she is on the right track in her approach, it is inevitable that there exist some misunderstandings in her analysis, as she herself modestly admits. It is the purpose of this paper to revise Abbott's survey. On syntactic grounds, her classification of versatile verbs is reshuffled. And at various suitable points, comparisons are made between the Labor and Vietnamese verb-concatenation systems. In spite of this ambitious intention, the present survey is by no means as comprehensive as I would wish. Although I am a native speaker of Vietnamese, I feel I should check my intuitions with many other speakers and assemble more data in order to buttress my analysis.

Before going on to the Vietnamese versatile verb system, it is worth restating the criteria for versatile verbhood as detailed by Matisoff. I have followed Matisoff's approach and outline in this paper. In order to qualify for versatile verbhood, a verb must meet the following requirements: (1) it must be a true verb -- either stative or non-stative -capable of occurring alone as the only verb in its VP; (2) it must be characterized as having the property of "juxtapository productivity;" that is, it must be capable of concatenating with a large number of other verbs in a subordinate relationship to them.

While the first requirement is purely syntactic, the second may be said to be syntactic-semantic.

Matisoff mentions that verb concatenation in Lahu provides the kind of information that other languages (like English) can only convey through "a formally disparate array of subordinating devices: complementary infinitives, -ing complements, modal auxiliaries, adverbs, prepositional phrases, even whole subordinate clauses" (1973:200 ff). This is also true of Vietnamese. However, unlike in Lahu, I have not been able to find in Vietnamese any kind of verb concatenation which conveys the same information as subordinate clauses do in English. Figure 1 shows the gamut<sup>1</sup> of English subordinating devices versus Vietnamese juxtaposition.

### 2.0 <u>Non-versatile types of verbal constructions</u>, <u>multiverbal</u> <u>and otherwise</u>.

Not every verbal syntagma in Vietnamese constitutes a true versatile concatenation. There are a number of other construc-

#### Figure 1. <u>The gamut of English subordinating</u> <u>devices vs. Vietnamese juxtaposition.</u>

<u>Complementary</u> <u>Infinitives</u> :	-ing Complements:	Adverbs:
khó đọc 'hard to read' bất đầu đọc 'begin to read'	bận đọc 'busy reading' chán đọc 'bored read-	đọc lại 'read again'
	ing'	vírt đi
Modal Auxiliaries:	Prepositional Phrases:	'throw away'
phải đọc 'must read' nên đọc 'should read'	đọc cho 'read for' đọc nhầm 'read in error	T

tion types which resemble versatile concatenations on the surface. In general, these are easily distinguishable from true versatile concatenations. However, natural languages do not always operate according to strict, airtight rules. Thus there exist cases which are problematic. In 2.1-2.5 we present an account of these other non-versatile constructions, most of which (2.2-2.5) are multiverbal.

2.1  $\underline{V + P_v}$  and  $\underline{P_v + V}$  sequences. Verb particles  $(\underline{P_v})$  are bound morphemes which occur either before or after verbs and "serve to elucidate the meaning of the verb in a variety of ways, conveying notions of aspect, directionality, subjective attitudes toward the verbal event, etc." (Matisoff, 1973:315). Although some of the verb particles are quite comparable to versatile verbs semantically, they do not meet the requirements for verbhood syntactically. Thus, sequences of  $V + P_v$  and  $P_v + V$ are not really "multiverbal" at all.

Verb particles are divided into pre-verb particles and postverb particles. The former occur before their verb, the latter after. Some of the pre-verb particles are:

<u>rất</u>	'very' <u>Cô</u>	<u>ăy rất đẹp</u> 1 2 3	'She is ' l	very beaut 2 3	iful.'
hơi	'slightly'	$\frac{\text{Tôi}}{1} \frac{\text{hơi}}{2} \frac{\text{hiểu}}{3}$	anh 'I u 4 1	nderstand 3	you slightly.' 4 2
		<u>Cái nầy hơi n</u> 1 2 3	<u>hồ</u> 'Thi: 4 2	s thing is l	rather small.' 3 4

[Rat may occur only before stative verbs, while hoi can precede both stative and non-stative verbs.]

So far, I can find only two postererb particles.<sup>2</sup> They are: <u>thay</u> 'mildly exclamatory'  $\frac{2au-4c}{1}$  thay phân  $\frac{dan-ba}{3}$ ! 'How painful is the lot of women!' 2 1 3 4 <u>luôn</u> 'directly, all at once'  $\frac{Ban}{1}$   $\frac{t\delta_1}{2}$   $\frac{b_1}{3}$   $\frac{dau}{4}$   $\frac{di}{5}$   $\frac{luôn}{6}$   $\frac{nha}{7}$  thur the second second

2.2 False concatenations.<sup>3</sup>

It is quite often observed that a series of verbs which appear in juxtaposition on the surface really belong to separate underlying VP's, or even to separate underlying sentences. Such verbs are said to be in "false concatenation."

2.21 <u>False concatenations and và-deletion</u>. This is the case involving conjoined VP's in a single sentence where the verbs represent a series of temporally consecutive actions. Consider the following examples:

- (1)  $\underline{\text{quay lai}}^4$  'turn around' and <u>nhìn</u> 'look': <u>Hồng quay lại nhìn con chó</u> 'Hong turned around and looked 1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 at the dog.'
- (2) <u>bi đau</u> 'get sick' and <u>dī nhà thương</u> 'go to the hospital': <u>Ban tôi bị đau đi nhà thương rồi</u> 'My friend got sick and <u>1 2 3 4 5 6 2 1 3</u> went to the hospital already.'
- (3) <u>ngồi</u> 'sit' and <u>nhai</u> 'chew': <u>Bà ta ngồi im-lặng nhai trầu</u> 'She sat quietly and chewed <u>1</u> 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 betel\_nut.'

(4) ở 'live, be at' and <u>đến</u> 'come': <u>Anh ở đâu 3 đến</u>? 'Where đid you come from?' (Where did you 1 live and come?)

In these cases it is always grammatical to insert the conjunction  $\underline{va}$  'and' between each pair of verbs in the series. Furthermore, this insertion does not alter the meaning of the sentence. We may thus posit the presence of  $\underline{va}$  in the underlying structure of these sentences, with a  $\underline{va}$ -deletion rule applying optionally. However, in the case of sentences (4) and (5) this rule must apply obligatorily.

In contrast with this, if  $\underline{va}$  were to be introduced into a true versatile concatenation, the sentence would either be ungrammatical, or else would have a radically different meaning. Thus,

(6)  $\underline{d\hat{e}}$  'easy' (v) + thương 'love' (v) >  $\underline{d\hat{e}}$  thương 'lovely', but

(7)  $\star \underline{de}^{\prime} \underline{va} \underline{thurding}$  means 'be easy and love', which does not make sense at all.

In the following concatenation, <u>va</u> may be inserted between the  $V_h$  and the  $V_v$ , but at the cost of changing the meaning:

(8) <u>ngoi</u> 'sit' ( $V_h$ ) and <u>im-läng</u> 'be silent' >

ngồi im-lặng 'sit quietly',

#### but

(9) <u>ngồi và im-lặng</u> means 'sit and keep silent.'
 Thus (9) is not a versatile concatenation. While a versatile
 concatenation forms a semantic unit, a false concatenation does not.

2.22 <u>False concatenations arising from embedded structures</u>. Sometimes verbs come to stand in juxtaposition as the result of a process of deletion in an embedded sentence. In Vietnamese there is a small group of transitive verbs which sometimes require a sentential object. These verbs include: <u>muon</u> 'want', <u>bi</u> 'undergo something unpleasant', <u>dupc</u> 'obtain', <u>thích</u> 'like', <u>chiu</u> 'endure', <u>thấy</u> 'see', <u>xin</u> 'ask for', <u>thữ</u> 'try.' There may be a few more. The normal underlying structure which takes these verbs is (10)  $VP \rightarrow V - NP$ , and the sentence containing them has the tree: (11) S



Some examples:

(12) <u>Tổi muốn một trái cam</u>  $\frac{12}{1}$  <u>Tổi muốn một trái cam</u> 'I want an orange.' 1 2 3 (13)  $\underline{C\hat{o}}_{1} \underbrace{\hat{a}y}_{2} \underline{thich}_{2} \underline{ao}_{3} \underline{dep}_{4}$ 'She likes beautiful dresses.' 3 (14) <u>Tổi thấy một chiếc xế hơi đồ</u>  $\frac{1}{2}$ 'I saw a red car.' 2 3 5 (15)  $\frac{\partial nq}{\partial nq}$   $\frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$   $\frac{binh}{\partial t}$ 'He has a disease.' 2 (16) <u>Anh chiu cái đồng-hồ này không?</u> 1 2 clf 3 4 gst 'Do you take (like) this watch?' (17) <u>Sáng nay tôi</u> <u>dược thơ nhà</u> 'I got letters from home 5 6 this morning.' (18) Ai xin thuốc lá? 'Who asks for cigarettes?' (19) <u>Anh</u> thừ món này chưa? 'Have you tried this dish 2 3 yet?'

The objects in (12)-(19) are all true, "natural" NP's. However, these verbs may also take sentential objects. Thus a sentence like (21) has an underlying structure as in (20) [next page].

If the subject NP of the embedded  $S_2$  is identical with the subject NP of the matrix  $S_1$ , the equi-NP deletion rule applies. As a result we get false concatenations, as in (22)-(24):



Instead we have (28)-(30):

(28) <u>Tôi được đi Mỹ</u>. (29) <u>Nó chịu làm việc</u>.

(30) Sao anh không xin đối đi?

The equi-NP deletion rule must also apply when the object NP of the embedded  $S_2$  is identical with the subject NP<sub>1</sub> of the matrix  $S_1$ . Thus a sentence like (32) has an underlying structure as in (31) [next page].

Vietnamese also permits the deletion of the subject  $NP_2$  of the embedded S<sub>2</sub> under certain conditions, even when  $NP_2$  is not coreferential with  $NP_1$ , as in (33) and (34).



(32)  $\frac{\text{Tôi}}{1} \frac{\text{durge}}{2} \frac{\text{thầy}}{3} \frac{\text{khen}}{4}$  'I got praised by the teacher.'

(33) <u>Tôi được khen</u> 'I got praised.'

(34) <u>Ông Kennedy bi ám-sát</u> 'Mr. Kennedy got assassinated.'

In (33) and (34), two different NP-deletion rules have applied, the equi-NP deletion (obligatory), and the deletion of the subject of the lower sentence (optional). The latter deletion is performed when the emphasis is on the action or event rather than on who creates or instigates it, and in these cases the best English translation often has a passive verb.

All these NP-deletion rules can leave us with verbs in false concatenation.

2.3 <u>Resultative</u> complements  $(C_r)$ .

Like Lahu, Chinese, and Thai, Vietnamese has an important type of binomial verbal construction which consists of a main verb followed by a secondary verb of resultative meaning. This resultative verb serves to indicate the successful or non-successful completion of the action of the main verb. There are two types of resultative verbs: general and specific.

General resultative verbs are those which have a quite general meaning and can occur after large numbers of main verbs. These may be classified as a subtype of the post-head versatile verbs (section 4.1 below). The  $V_v \frac{dv\sigma c}{v}$  'be able to  $V_h$ ' is typical: làm  $dv\sigma c$  'able to do', <u>nói  $dv\sigma c$ </u> 'able to speak', <u>khá  $dv\sigma c$ </u> 'able to be better', <u>an dugc</u> 'able to eat.' The English translations' may be a bit misleading here. In fact the  $V_v \frac{dugc}{v}$ means 'V<sub>h</sub> so that the action is obtained.' Other  $V_v$ 's of this kind include <u>het</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> do that the action is completed', <u>xong</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> so that the action is over', <u>roi</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> so that the action is perfected.' Also in this category of general resultative  $V_v$ 's are <u>quantifying stative</u> verbs (<u>it</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to a small amount', <u>nhiều</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to a large amount', <u>vùa</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to the right amount'), <u>qualifying stative</u> verbs (<u>giði</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to a skilful degree', <u>dờ</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to an unsatisfactory degree', <u>hay</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to a satisfactory degree), and <u>temporal</u> <u>stative</u> verbs (<u>sóm</u> 'V<sub>b</sub> early', <u>trế</u> or <u>muôn</u> 'V<sub>b</sub> late').

Specific resultative verbs are those which may occur only after a single verb, or a group of verbs which share certain common semantic features. Thus, thấy 'see' appears only after verbs of sense perception, like <u>xem</u> 'look at', <u>ngữi</u> 'smell', <u>nghe</u> 'hear', <u>sờ</u> 'touch', etc. <u>Sạch</u> 'be clean' appears only after verbs like <u>rừa</u> 'wash', <u>gội</u> 'wash the hair', <u>giặt</u> 'wash clothes', <u>guết</u> 'sweep', <u>lau</u> 'clean', <u>chùi</u> 'wipe', etc. Resultative verbs of this type are not "juxtapositorily productive" and may be excluded from versatile verbhood. Matisoff characterizes them as "resultative complements" (C<sub>r</sub>) [1973:207-209].

At first glance,  $V_h + C_r$  sequences look like a type of lexical compound. However, they have different syntactic behavior. In questions with the auxiliary <u>c6</u>, <u>c6</u> always occurs before the first element of a true compound, while it of en intervenes between the  $V_h$  and a  $C_r$ . Under negation, the adverb <u>không</u> 'not' must always precede the first element of a true compound; with  $V_h + C_r$  sequences, on the other hand, the negative morpheme may either precede the  $V_h$  or intervene between  $V_h$  and  $C_r$ . Thus:

(35 <b>a</b> )	Anh <u>có</u> nghe được không?	'Can you hear?'
(35b)	Anh nghe <u>có</u> được không?	'id.'
(36a)	Anh <u>có</u> xem th <b>ấ</b> y không?	'Do you see (it)?'
(36Ъ)	Anh x <b>em <u>có</u> thấy k</b> hông?	'id.'
(37 <b>a)</b>	Nó giặt <u>không</u> sạch	'He did not wash (it) clean.'
(37b)	Nó <u>không</u> giặt sạch	'id.'

(38a)	Tôi làm <u>không</u> xong	'I did not finish doing (it).'
(38Ъ)	Tôi <u>không</u> làm xong	'id.'

Occasionally a negative resultative construction is split into two VP's by the insertion of the conjunction <u>ma</u> 'but.' In this case the adverb <u>không</u> must follow <u>ma</u> and precede the  $C_r$ :

(39)	<u>Nó ăn mà không hết</u>	'He ate (it) but did not finish (it).'
(40)	<u>Tôi lau mà không sạch</u>	'I cleaned (it) but(it) did not get clean.'

We may also observe that with respect to negation, as well as in questions with the auxiliary <u>có</u>, versatile verb concatenations behave in much the same manner as lexical compounds (see next section). This is because versatile concatenations and lexical compounds both form integrated semantic units.

#### 2.4 Lexical compounds.

Thompson distinguished two types of lexical compounds, "idiom compounds" and "syntactic compounds" (1965:126). Only syntactic compounds are relevant to our discussion here. Vietnamese syntactic compounds consist of two free verbs: <u>hoc</u> 'learn' + <u>tâp</u> 'practice' > <u>hoc-tâp</u> 'study and practice'; <u>ăn</u> 'eat' + <u>&</u> 'live' > <u>ăn-&</u> 'live, behave.' In general, these lexical compounds are different from versatile verb concatenations in that the former are sequences of two conjoined elements which vield single syntactic categories and which render new semantic units, while the latter are endocentric constructions in which the V<sub>h</sub> is the head and the versatile verbs are attributives.

Syntactic lexical compounds in Vietnamese are of two types, generalizing compounds and reinforcing compounds.<sup>6</sup> According to Thompson, generalizing compounds are composed of "bases denoting different items of reality; the forms have the general meaning 'these two items and other similar ones, making up a general class'" (1965:128). Thus, <u>mua</u> 'buy' + <u>bán</u> 'sell' > <u>mua-bán</u> 'do shopping'; <u>chải</u> 'comb, brush' + <u>chuốc</u> 'polish' > <u>chải-chuốc</u> 'take great pains with one's appearance.'

Reinforcing compounds contain "two components usually denoting identical or very similar items of reality. The resulting forms often have a more figurative or abstract reference than either of their bases." (Thompson, 1965:130). Some examples:

<u>sợ</u> 'be afraid' + <u>hoằng</u> 'be panic-stricken' > <u>sợ-hoằng</u> 'be terrified'; <u>ghi</u> 'record' + <u>chép</u> 'copy' > <u>ghi-chép</u> 'write down, transcribe'; <u>tấn</u> 'advance' + <u>tới</u> 'reach' > <u>tấn-tới</u> 'make progress.'

As shown in these examples, compounds are written with a hyphen between their components and "acquire the status of unitary lexical items" (Matisoff 1973:209). As in Lahu, lexical compounds in Vietnamese are exclusively binomial. However, unlike the vast majority of Lahu lexical compounds, Vietnamese compounds may fairly frequently have the order of their components reversed. This is the case more often with reinforcing compounds than with generalizing compounds. Thus, one may say so-holng or hoang-sg 'be terrified'; chon-lya or lya-chon 'select' (both chon and lya mean 'choose'). As we see, the permutation of the elements of a lexical compound does not change the combined mean-In sharp contrast to this, when a versatile verb and the  $V_{\rm b}$ ing. exchange their positions, this carries with it a change of meaning. An obvious case is the concatenation of the V, lam 'do, work' and the versatile verb <u>lai</u> 'again'. Thus, <u>làm lai</u> means 're-do', while lai lam means 'do again (in the sense that the action has been stopped and is now resumed). '

# 2.5 "Idiomatic" concatenations.<sup>7</sup>

The distinction between lexical compounds and versatile concatenations is not always crystal clear. Particularly hard to classify are concatenations with the  $\sqrt{V \frac{a}{an}}$  'eat; earn one's living by  $V_h$ 'ing.' On the one hand we have "idiomatic" sequences like <u>an cap</u> 'steal, earn one's living by stealing', <u>an cupp</u> 'loot', <u>an may</u> 'beg, live by begging', <u>an bam</u> 'live at someone else's expense', <u>an hai</u> 'feed on', etc. As the translations indicate, these sequences denote actions which are usually illegal, deplorable, or "low-class." However, in other series of verbs we can find another meaning of <u>an</u> which is much closer to its "literal" main-verb meaning, 'eat': <u>an uong</u> 'eat and drink', <u>làm ăn</u> 'earn one's livelihood', <u>an chơi</u> 'lead a life of pleasures' ("eat and play"), etc. It is clear that in one sense these are all true versatile concatenations. (<u>An</u> is quite "juxtapositorily productive.") Yet many of these sequences are like compounds in that (a) specialization or "lexicalization" of meaning has occurred; or (b) they are so high-frequency that they are felt to form tight semantic units. Furthermore, the possible partners of <u>ăn</u>, though numerous, are restricted to a relatively narrow semantic range (verbs of eating, earning a living, etc.).<sup>8</sup>

Let us now proceed to a discussion of the inner workings of the three genuine types of versatile concatenations. Using Matisoff's terms, I will label them <u>pre-head</u> ( $_{v}^{C}$ ), <u>post-head</u> ( $_{v}^{C}$ ), and <u>fore-and-aft</u> ( $_{v}^{C}$ ) <u>concatenations</u> (Matisoff, 1973:211).

### 3.1 Pre-head concatenations.

A pre-head concatenation  $\binom{V}{V}$  is one which contains one or more pre-head versatile verbs (but no post-head versatiles). In this investigation, 23 pre-head versatile verbs  $\binom{V}{V}$  were found. I suspect there are more, but for the moment let us content ourselves with this figure.<sup>9</sup> These  $\sqrt{V}$ 's may be roughly divided into seven groups, according to their syntactic and semantic behavior. Both types of criteria are necessary for a meaningful classification. The syntactic properties of these verb-classes will be discussed below in the section on "multi-versatile prehead concatenations" (3.2).<sup>10</sup>

3.11 Group I consists of two verbs expressing the degree or intensity of  $V_h$  ing:

$\frac{\text{chi}}{(41)}  \frac{\text{Tôi}}{1}  \frac{\text{chi}}{2}  \frac{\text{có}}{3}  \frac{\text{hai}}{4}  \frac{\text{dòng}}{5}$	'I have only two piastres.' 1 3 2 4 5
<u>thật</u> 'really V <sub>h</sub> ' (42) <u>Vấn-đề nầy thật khó</u> 1 2 3 4	'This topic is really difficult.' 2 l 3 4
(43) <u>Anh ấy thật muốn đi</u>	'He really wants to go.' 1 2 3 4

3.12 Group II has only one verb, which expresses the repetition of  $\boldsymbol{V}_{h}$  'ing:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{1ai} & V_h & again' \\ (44) & \underline{C\delta} & \underline{ay} & \underline{1ai} & \underline{kh\deltac} & & \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & & 1 & 3 & 2 \end{array}$$

3.13 Group III is made up of verbs which express the temporal aspect of V<sub>h</sub>'ing. There are seven verbs in this group: <u>săn-sàng</u> 'be ready to V<sub>b</sub>'  $(45) \quad \underline{\text{Anh}}_{1} \quad \underline{\underline{san}}_{2} \quad \underline{\underline{san}}_{3} \quad \underline{\underline{di}}_{4} \quad \underline{\underline{chva}}_{2}^{2}$ 'Are you ready to go yet?' 2 1 4  $\underline{gan}$  'be about to  $V_{h}$ '  $(46) \quad \underline{C\hat{o}}_{1} \quad \underline{\hat{ay}}_{2} \quad \underline{\hat{ah}}_{3} \quad \underline{ra}_{3} \quad \underline{truong}$ 'She is about to graduate.' 1 2 3 <u>mới</u> and <u>vừa</u> 'have just V<sub>h</sub>'ed' (47) <u>Tôi mới biết hôm qua</u>  $\frac{1}{2}$  <u>3</u> 'I just knew (it) yesterday.' 1 2 3 'Mr. Nixon has just held a  $(48) \quad \frac{\partial ng}{1} \underbrace{\text{Nixon } \underline{v v a}}_{2} \underbrace{\text{hop } \underline{b a o}}_{3}$ 3 press conference.' [These two verbs are usually interchangeable when they function as V's, though as main verbs  $\underline{m\sigma_i}$  means 'be new' and  $\underline{vua}$  'be 'moderate.' To express the emphatic idea of recentness of V 'ing, combinations of these two verbs may be used. Thus, 'I've just seen him.' 1 2 3 4 (49)  $\frac{\text{Tôi}}{1} \frac{\text{vừa}}{2} \frac{\text{mới}}{3} \frac{\text{thấy nó}}{4}$ (50)  $\frac{N\delta}{1} \frac{m\sigma i}{2} \frac{v v a}{3} \frac{chay}{4}$ 'He's just run out.' ] 1 2 3 4 <u>hay</u> 'usually  $V_h$ ; often  $V_h$ ' 'I usually go to bed early.' (51)  $\underline{\text{Tôi}}_{1} \underline{\text{hay}}_{2} \underline{\text{di}}_{3} \underline{\text{ngu}}_{4} \underline{\text{sóm}}_{4}$ (52)  $\frac{C\hat{o}}{1}$   $\frac{Lan}{2}$   $\frac{hay}{2}$   $\frac{kh\acute{o}c}{3}$ 'Miss Lan often weeps.' 1 2 3 thường 'normally  $V_h$ ; often  $V_h$ '  $\frac{\partial_{ng}}{1} \frac{\delta y}{2} \frac{\delta y}{2} \frac{\delta y}{3} \frac{\delta y}{4} \frac{\delta y}{5} \frac{\delta y}{5}$ (53) 'He normally stays home 1 3 2 in the afternoons.' 5 (54) <u>Tôi</u> thường <u>đi</u> Sàigòn 'I often go to Saigon.' 1 2 3 [To express an emphatically frequent action, the combination thuong hay is often used:  $\frac{\text{Anh}_{1}}{1} \frac{\text{Tâm}_{2}}{1} \frac{\text{thường}_{2}}{2} \frac{\text{den}_{1}}{3} \frac{\text{nhà}_{2}}{4} \frac{c_{0}}{5} \frac{\text{Hồng}_{1}}{6}$ 'Tam often comes to (55) 1 2 3 Miss Hong's house.' 5 6 4

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$$\frac{c\dot{v}}{1} \text{ (continue to } V_h; \text{ go ahead and } V_h' \\
(56) \frac{Anh}{1} \frac{c\dot{v}}{2} \frac{\dot{\sigma}}{3} \frac{d\dot{s}}{4} \\
(57) \frac{Anh}{1} \frac{c\dot{v}}{2} \frac{1}{3} \frac{viec}{4} \frac{d\dot{s}}{5} \\
(58) \frac{Ai}{4} \frac{d\dot{a}m}{5} \frac{th\dot{a}ch-th\dot{v}c}{5} \frac{chin-phl}{2}; \\
(58) \frac{Ai}{4} \frac{d\dot{a}m}{5} \frac{th\dot{a}ch-th\dot{v}c}{5} \frac{chin-phl}{2}; \\
(59) \frac{Anh}{1} \frac{d\dot{a}m}{2} \frac{dmdc}{4} \frac{hoc-b\dot{n}m}{2}; \\
(59) \frac{Anh}{1} \frac{d\dot{a}m}{2} \frac{dmdc}{3} \frac{hoc-b\dot{n}m}{4}; \\
(60) \frac{\partial_{ng}}{n_{1}} \frac{Mixon}{2} \frac{n\dot{a}}{3} \frac{t\dot{a}}{6} \\
(61) \frac{Ph\dot{a}i}{2} \frac{D\dot{a}}{3} \frac{d\dot{a}}{4} \\
(62) \frac{T\dot{a}}{3} \frac{cha}{4} \\
(63) \frac{\partial_{ng}}{n_{1}} \frac{Sich}{2} \frac{ngu\dot{b}i}{2}; \\
\frac{D\dot{a}n}{4} \\
(63) \frac{\partial_{ng}}{3} \frac{Sich}{2} \frac{D\dot{a}}{3} \\
\frac{D\dot{a}}{4} \\
(63) \frac{\partial_{ng}}{3} \frac{Sich}{2} \frac{D\dot{a}}{3} \\
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(63) \frac{\partial_{ng}}{1} \frac{Sich}{2} \frac{D\dot{a}}{3} \\
\frac{D\dot{a}}{4} \\
\frac{D\dot{a}}{5} \\
\frac{D\dot{a}}{6} \\
(7) \\
(7) \\
(64) \frac{Chilu}{2} \frac{na}{3} \frac{w\dot{c}}{3} \\
\frac{Mac}{4} \\
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3.16 Group VI consists of verbs which express <u>manner</u> or <u>quantity</u> of the action mentioned in the  $V_h$ :

 $\begin{array}{c} \underline{d\underline{e}} & \text{'be easy to } V_{h}' \\ (65) & \underline{\partial}\underline{nq} & \underline{a}\underline{y} & \underline{d}\underline{\tilde{e}} & \underline{n}\underline{\delta}\underline{i} & \underline{g}\underline{i}\underline{\hat{q}}\underline{n} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \underline{k}\underline{h}\underline{\delta} & \text{'be difficult to } V_{h}' \\ (66) & \underline{B}\underline{a} & \underline{\tilde{a}}\underline{y} & \underline{k}\underline{h}\underline{\delta} & \underline{c}\underline{h}\underline{i}\underline{u} & \underline{l}\underline{\tilde{a}}\underline{m} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \underline{k}\underline{h}\underline{\delta} & \text{'be difficult to } V_{h}' \\ (66) & \underline{B}\underline{a} & \underline{\tilde{a}}\underline{y} & \underline{k}\underline{h}\underline{\delta} & \underline{c}\underline{h}\underline{i}\underline{u} & \underline{l}\underline{\tilde{a}}\underline{m} \\ 1 & 4 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \underline{i}\underline{t} & \mathbf{i}V_{h} \\ (67) & \underline{T}\underline{\delta}\underline{i} & \underline{i}\underline{t} & \underline{n}\underline{q}\underline{u} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \underline{i}\underline{t} & \underline{r}\underline{\delta}\underline{i} & \underline{i}\underline{t} & \underline{n}\underline{q}\underline{u} \\ (68) & \underline{T}\underline{\delta}\underline{i} & \underline{i}\underline{t} & \underline{c}\underline{d}\underline{i} & \underline{c}\underline{h}\underline{\sigma}\underline{i} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \underline{i} & \underline{i} & \underline{i} & \underline{i} & \underline{i} \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \end{array}$ 

3.17 Group VII includes three important verbs of motion:

 $\frac{di}{(69)} \frac{Anh}{1} \frac{di}{2} \frac{tham}{3} \frac{bac-si}{4} \frac{chua}{5}$  'Have you gone to see a doctor yet?'  $\frac{di}{4} \frac{di}{5} \frac{di}{4} \frac{di}{5} \frac{di}{4} \frac{di}{5} \frac{d$ 

 $\frac{\underline{d\acute{en}}}{(70)} \text{ and } \frac{\underline{t\acute{oi}}}{1} \text{ 'come to } V_{h}'$   $(70) \underline{Anh} \underline{d\acute{en}} \underline{thǎm} \underline{em} \underline{m\acute{ot}} \underline{chiều} \underline{mua} \text{ 'I came to see you one}$  1 2 3 4 5 rainy afternoon.' 7 6

[As main verbs, <u>den</u> means 'arrive' and <u>toi</u> 'reach.'] 3.18 <u>Binary pre-head concatenations</u>.

Any of the  $_{\rm V}$ V's listed above may occur before V<sub>h</sub>'s to form binary  $_{\rm V}$ C's. One important co-occurrence restriction is that  $_{\rm V}$ V's of Groups III, IV, V, and VII may not concatenate with stative V<sub>h</sub>'s.

These simple binary  $v^{C's}$  are generable by the following rule,<sup>11</sup> where "\$" stands for the verbal nucleus of a VP:

$$(71) \mathcal{G} \rightarrow (v) + v_{h}$$

This rule says that a verbal nucleus " $\beta$ " consists of an obligatory V<sub>h</sub> plus an optional V. Thus, for example, with the V<sub>h</sub> ng $\delta$  'look at' we may have such strings as:

lai ngó 'look at again'; cứ ngó 'go on looking at'; bận ngó

'be busy looking at'; phải ngó 'must look at'; để ngó 'easy to look at', etc.

The versatile orbits as Matisoff states for Lahu (1973: 211), "in a subordinate, modifying relationship to the head on the right."

### 3.2 Multiversatile pre-head concatenations.

Several  $_{\rm V}$ V's may occur in the same sequence before a V<sub>h</sub>. In this case we have a "multiversatile pre-head concatenation." Matisoff (1973:214) has the following optional rules which generate this kind of concatenation:

(72a) 
$$\beta \xrightarrow{opt} v^{V} + \beta$$
  
(72b)  $\beta \xrightarrow{opt} v_{h}$ .

Figure 2 illustrates an expansion of rules (72a) and (72b):

Figure 2. <u>A multiversatile</u> "C.



As in Lahu, each verb or verb-sequence to the right of a given verb is the latter's head. Thus, the  $_{v}V \underline{di}$  is attribute to its head <u>làm</u>: 'go to work.' <u>di làm</u> as a unit is the head of <u>phải</u>: the "going to work" is "necessary." <u>phải di làm</u> in turn is the head of <u>gần</u>: the "necessary going to work" is "about to" be performed. Finally, the sequence <u>gần phải di làm</u> is the head of <u>thật</u>: it is "real" that the "necessary going to work" is

"about to" be performed. The <sub>v</sub>C as a whole means something like "[somebody] is really on the point of having to go to work."

3.3 Syntactic-semantic constraints on "C's.

When more than one  $v^{V}$  occurs in the same concatenation, they must be ordered in conformity with a rule which may be graphically summarized as in Figure 3:

Ļ		ai	L	
I thật chỉ	III gần mới vừa cứ hay thường sần-sàng	IV đám đáng phải nên	VII đị đến tới	v <sub>h</sub>
V mắc, bận, chán				
I thật chỉ	VI dế,	khó, ít		

Figure 3. Pre-head order rule.

Thus, for example, thật can only precede gần, and in turn gần must precede dám, and đi must follow dám. Similarly, chán must precede dến, and khó may be preceded only by chỉ or thật, etc. In general, only one v from any given class may occur in the same concatenation. (Exceptions are <u>mới/vừa</u> and <u>thường/hay</u> which do sometimes co-occur [see (49), (50), (55)].)

At first glance this ordering seems quite arbitrary. However, as pointed out by Matisoff for Lahu (1973:216), there is actually a striking correlation between the syntactic and semantic properties of these verbs: namely, the more abstract  $_VV's$  occur to the left of those which have a more concrete meaning. The abstract modifies, and the concrete is modified. Another principle particular to Vietnamese is that verbs denoting aspects of time precede others.

The verb <u>lai</u> is something of a special case. As Figure 3 shows, although <u>lai</u> is quite abstract in meaning, it may follow any of these  $v^{V's}$  except the most concrete ones (Groups V, VI, VII).<sup>12</sup> Yet the principle of "abstract preceding concrete" is really still operating here. Thus, <u>lai</u> may occur either before or after <u>thât</u>, either before or after <u>mới</u>, and either before or after <u>phải</u>. But it must always precede <u>di</u> (Group VII). As for verbs of Groups V and VI, <u>lai</u> must always precede them.

According to the rule in Figure 3, one may form a concatenation of as many as five  $_{\rm v}$ V's. Yet a study of a short story by a contemporary writer and of a recorded conversation between another Vietnamese student and myself shows that no five-verb  $_{\rm v}$ C's spontaneously occur. Four-verb  $_{\rm v}$ C's are also very rare. The most common types of  $_{\rm v}$ C's are those with two or three verbs (including the V<sub>h</sub>). This may be explained by the fact that certain pairs of  $_{\rm v}$ V's are semantically incompatible -- some combinations are mutually exclusive and others have a low frequency. Thus,  $\underline{vva}$  and <u>dang</u> are mutually exclusive, and <u>thuong phải di</u> is excessively rare.

# 4.1 Post-head concatenations (C,).

It seems that the number of post-head versatiles is approximately the same as the number of pre-head versatiles in Vietnamese. However, this preliminary investigation shows that the  $V_v$ 's can be more neatly grouped than the  $_v$ V's on the basis of distributional and semantic criteria. Like Barbara Abbott (1972:3), I divide the  $V_v$ 's into five groups, though my groupings are quite different, and her  $V_v$ 's include many verbs which I regard as resultative complements, or which fall into the category of "false concatenators."

4.11 Group I consists of directional verbs which Lê Văn Lý calls "directional verbal empty words" ("mots vides verbaux de direction", 1948:211ff), and which I previously labeled "direction and goal prepositions" (Trần Trọng Hải, 1971:11):<sup>13</sup>

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<u>đi</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> away, off' (73) <u>Sao anh xóa đi</u>? 'Why did you erase (it) off?' 1 2 3 4 'Don't throw (it) away!' 1 2 3 (74)  $\frac{\text{Dùng}}{1} \frac{\text{vất}}{2} \frac{\text{di}}{3}$ <u>đến</u> and <u>tới</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> to a place' (75) <u>Chừng nào ống về tới California</u>? 'When will you return 1 2 3 to (reach) California?' <u>lai</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> over to a place; V<sub>h</sub> over again; V<sub>h</sub> back to the original place' [It may be said that <u>lai</u> is the opposite of  $\underline{di}$  'V<sub>h</sub> away.' It expresses the idea of "rapprochement." Compare (76a) and (76b):] 'Bring two chairs here.' 1,2 4 5 3 (76a) Mang lại đầy hai cái ghế 1 2 3 4 clf 5 (76b) <u>Mang hai cái ghế nầy đi</u> 'Take these two chairs away.' 1 2 clf 3 4 5 1 4 2 3 5 4 2 3 5 (77) Anh nói lại! '(You) say (it) again!' (78)  $\underline{\text{Lam}}_{1} \underline{\text{dn}}_{2} \underline{\text{gap}}_{3} \underline{\text{lai}}_{4}$ 'Please (do a favor) fold (it) 1 2 3 back. ' 4  $\underline{v\hat{e}}$  'V<sub>h</sub> back (home)' (79) <u>Khi nào anh đi về Việt-Nam</u>? 'When will you go back to 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 Vietnam?' <u>ra</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> out; V<sub>h</sub> up to the north'  $(80) \frac{M\sigma}{1} \frac{cura}{2} \frac{ra}{3}$ 'Open the door.' 1,3 2 (81)  $\frac{\hat{O}ng}{1} \frac{\text{Thiệu bay } ra}{2} \frac{Ha-nội}{3}$  'Mr. Thieu flew (up) to Hanoi.'  $\frac{v \grave{a} o}{(82)} \quad \frac{v \grave{o}}{1} \quad \frac{v \grave{o}}{2} \quad \frac{t rong}{3} \quad \frac{t h \grave{u} ng}{4} \quad \frac{r \acute{a} c}{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} t}{1} \quad \frac{v \grave{a} o}{2,3} \quad \frac{t rong}{5} \quad \frac{t \dot{u} ng}{4} \quad \frac{r \acute{a} c}{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} t}{1} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{2,3} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{4} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{1} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{2,3} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{4} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{4} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{4} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{5} \quad \frac{v \grave{u} }{$ (83)  $\frac{\text{Tôi}}{1} \frac{\text{chay}}{2} \frac{\text{vào}}{3} \frac{\text{Nam}}{4} \frac{\text{nam}}{5} \frac{1955}{1}$  'I fled (ran) to the South 4 in 1955.' 5 <u>lên</u> 'V<sub>h</sub>up' (84) <u>Vui lên</u>! 'Cheer up!' 1 2

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or benefactive orientation of the main verb. From a case-grammar point of view, these verbs (as well as some of those in Group I above) could be regarded as case-markers.<sup>14</sup>

cho 'Vh to or for someone'

into) a wave of anger throughout the US 4 5 6 7 8 (American nation).' 10 9 <u>thành</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> into' (103) <u>Dùng tài-liệu ấy mà viết thành một bài văn</u> 'Use those 1 2  $\frac{3}{4} \frac{4}{5} \frac{5}{6} \frac{1}{7} \frac{1}{8} \frac{1}{1} \frac{3}{3}$ materials and (in order to) write (up) an 2 4 5 6 7 article.' <u>Nên</u> and <u>thành</u> may be used interchangeably.] <u>mất</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> out of sight' (104) Nó chay mất 'He ran out of sight.'

As the above examples demonstrate, these  $V_v$ 's may be juxtaposed to  $V_h$ 's to form binary post-head concatenations. Like  $_v$ C's,  $C_v$ 's are endocentric constructions with a head which is the  $V_h$ and an attributive which is a versatile verb. Binary post-head concatenations may be generated by the following rule (where ' ' is the verbal nucleus of the VP:

$$(105) \qquad \not\beta \rightarrow v_h + (v_v)^{15}$$

#### 4.21 Multiversatile post-head concatenations.

Several  $V_v$ 's may occur in a sequence after a  $V_h$ . In this case we have a "multiversatile  $C_v$ ." We may devise two optional rules for the generation of this kind of concatenation (Matisoff 1973:239):

(106a)  $\not \beta \xrightarrow{opt} \not \beta + v_v$ (106b)  $\not \beta \xrightarrow{opt} v_h$ .

Applying these two rules we may produce verbal nuclei like the one shown in Figure 4 [next page].

The order of modification here is the mirror-image of what we found in pre-head concatenations. Each verb or sequence of verbs to the left of a given verb in a  $C_v$  is the latter's head. Thus, taking the example in Figure 4, the  $V_v$  <u>xuống</u> modifies its head <u>dem</u>: 'bring down.' <u>Dem xuống</u> as a unit is the head of chung: the 'bringing down' is performed 'together.' <u>Dem xuống</u> chung



is then the head of <u>giùm</u>: the 'bringing down together' is 'for' someone. Finally, the whole string <u>dem xuống chung giùm</u> is the head of <u>thử</u>: the 'bringing down together for (someone)' is performed 'as a try.'

# 4.3 <u>Syntactic-semantic constraints on</u> C<sub>u</sub>'s.

When more than one  $V_V$  occurs in the same concatenation, they must be ordered in conformity with a rule which may be graphically summarized as in Figure 5:

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
h		Gro	up V	

Figure 5. Post-head order rule.

If we consider the semantic properties of each group of  $V_v$ 's, we find that the principle of the "abstract/concrete modificatory continuum" still applies to  $C_v$ 's. That is, the more abstract and general modifies, while the more concrete and specific is modified. Thus, the more abstract a  $V_v$  is, the further to the right it is from the  $V_h$ . As we have seen, Group I contains verbs of direction and is closest to the  $V_h$ .<sup>16</sup> Verbs of Group II are more abstract (effort is more abstract than directionality) than those of Group I, so they follow the latter and precede those of Group III. In some (hopefully non-circular) sense, verbs of Group IV are apparently considered by Vietnamese speakers to be the most abstract of all, and must occur at the end of their verb-string. Verbs of Group V do not tolerate the presence of any other  $V_v$ 's in the same  $C_v$ , and therefore seem to stand outside the abstractness/concreteness spectrum.

Verbs which belong to the same group are usually mutually exclusive. Thus, <u>ra</u> may not co-occur with <u>lên</u> or <u>xuống</u> in the same concatenation. However, a verb which may have alternative degrees of abstractness may co-occur with other verbs of its group. An example is the directional  $V_v$  <u>lại</u> ' $V_h$  over to a place', which belongs to Group I. But in sentence (107),

(107) Ai bảo anh viết ra lại? 'Who told you to write (it) out  

$$1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4 5$$
  
again?',

it occurs after <u>ra</u> 'out'. This is possible because <u>lai</u> in this sentence has a more abstract (non-directional) meaning 'over again' than <u>ra</u> 'out' (directional).<sup>17</sup>

Among the verbs of Group III,  $\underline{giùm}$  and  $\underline{h}\underline{\delta}$  'for someone' are mutually exclusive, but <u>cho</u> 'to someone' may co-occur with either of them. In such cases the benefactive aspect of the action is reinforced:

Since <u>cho</u> means 'give' as a main verb, a pedestrian "deep-structure analysis" of this sentence might be "(you) buy a book and give it to me." But this is not necessarily what the sentence means -the buyer of the book might never give it to you at all, but merely, e.g. send it on to a friend of yours as a gift on your behalf.

When a verb is used versatilely, it tends to acquire a more abstract meaning than when it is functioning as a  $V_h$ . It is a fundamental mistake to try to "reduce" its meaning as a versatile verb to its meaning as a  $V_h$  (though of course the two meanings are <u>related</u> in an obvious way).

As in the case of  $_{V}^{C's}$ , the possible length of a  $C_{V}$  is quite limited in actual speech. That is, one rarely finds a  $C_{V}$  with four  $V_{V}$ 's. The most common  $C_{V}$ 's are those which contain one  $V_{V}$ . Frequency goes down as the number of  $V_{V}$ 's in the sequence goes up.

# 5.0 <u>Versatile verbs</u> occurring in both "C's and C"'s.

There are some versatile verbs which may function either as as a  $_{v}V$  or a  $V_{v}$ . Their number is quite small, however. (This is partly because I have left out of consideration all the stative verbs which are possible candidates for the class of  $V_{v}$ 's, and have tentatively classified them as resultative complements. Although this is far from satisfactory, more time is needed for a thorough investigation in order to decide which stative verbs are in fact  $C_{v}$ 's and which are  $V_{v}$ 's.)

At present, I recognize six versatile verbs which fall into this class. They are listed in Figure 6:

	<u>Meaning</u> as V <sub>h</sub> :	<u>Meaning</u> as v <sup>V:</sup>	<u>Meaning</u> as V <sub>v</sub> :
di đến tới lại	go arrive reach come	go and V <sub>h</sub> come to V <sub>h</sub> come to V <sub>h</sub> V <sub>h</sub> again	$V_h$ away, off $V_h$ to a place $V_h$ to a place $V_h$ over to a place; $V_h$ back to origin; re- $V_h$
<u>nên</u> phải	be appropriate be right, correct	have an obliga- tion to V <sub>h</sub> must V <sub>h</sub>	lead from V <sub>h</sub> into V <sub>h</sub> right up to

Figure 6. <u>Versatile verbs occurring in both</u> "C's and C"'s.

Except for <u>nen</u> and <u>phai</u>, these bi-functional verbs are all verbs of direction. Although they have a different meaning in each position, they may not occur twice in the same concatenation. That is, the same verb may not appear both as a  $_{\rm V}$  and as a  $V_{\rm V}$ modifying the same  $V_{\rm h}$  at the same time. Another observation is that in general their meanings are more abstract in pre-head position than in post-head position. This fact is important in the interpretation of fore-and-aft concatenations [next section].

# 6.1 Fore-and-aft concatenations $(C_y)$ .

We have a fore-and-aft concatenation when versatile verbs appear on both sides of the  $v_h$  in one sequence. These  ${}_vC_v$ 's are already generable by our rules (72a), (106a), and (106b):

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \beta & \rightarrow \ _{v}v + \beta \\ \phi & \rightarrow \ \phi + v_{v} \\ \phi & \rightarrow \ v_{h} \end{array} .$ 

milike in Lahu (Matisoff 1973:248-258), I find that "C"'s in Vietnamese may not be susceptible of alternative interpretations. The principle that "the abstract modifies, and the concrete is modified" still works beautifully. It is noticed that, in general, V's are more abstract than  $V_{v}'s$ . But it seems that in Vietnamese the overall features of the whole class can sometimes override the specific features of single items. Thus, Vietnamese has different numeral classifiers for objects of different shapes. The classifier for the class of round things is viên. It is used with keo 'candy', bi 'marble', etc. We must infer that keo originally referred to 'candy of a round shape.' Today we find candy coming in all shapes and sizes. Yet the classifier for kec still does not change according to the specific shape of any individual piece of candy. We still say viên keo dài 'the long candy' despite the fact that Vietnamese has another classifier for things of long shape.

Similarly, study of the semantic properties of concatena-

tions convinces us that, overall, the class of  $_{v}V$ 's is more abstract than the class of  $V_{v}$ 's. Bearing this in mind, we may conclude that in a  $_{v}C_{v}$  the head is always the  $C_{v}$  on the right. Thus, such a hypothetical  $_{v}C_{v}$  as (109),

(109) Lai thật chân đem xuống thêm thừ, can surely be interpreted as in Figure 7:



Starting from the  $V_h$  we go rightward till the rightmost  $V_v$  is covered, then we go leftward from the  $V_h$ . Thus, the  $V_v \underline{xuong}$ modifies its head <u>dem</u>: 'bring down'. <u>Dem xuong</u> as a unit is the head of <u>thêm</u>: the 'bringing down' is performed 'more'. <u>Dem xuong thêm</u> is in turn the head of <u>thu</u>: the 'bringing down more' is performed 'as a try'. Then the whole  $C_v \underline{dem xuong}$ <u>thêm thu</u> is now the head of the  $_v V \underline{chán}$ : someone is 'tired of' the 'bringing down more as a try'. Now <u>chán dem xuong thêm thu</u> is the head of <u>thật</u>: the 'tiredness of bringing down more as a try' is 'real'. Finally, <u>thật chán dem xuong thêm thu</u> is the head of <u>lại</u>: 'really being tired of trying to bring down more' is 'again' experienced.

In real life, nobody has messages of such complexity to convey spontaneously, and we cannot find such a long  ${}_{v}C_{v}$ . However, the interpretation of the direction of modification would always follow these principles. A few shorter examples will serve to illustrate this point: 270

(110)	$\frac{T\hat{\partial}i}{v} \frac{thường}{v} \frac{phải}{v} \frac{di}{v} \frac{làm}{V_{h}} \frac{giùm}{v} \frac{anh}{v} \frac{Tâm}{v}$
	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
	'I often have to go to work for (instead of) (brother) Tam.' 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
(111)	Anh nên đóng cửa lại 'You should close the door (back to v $v$ $v$ $v$ $1$ $2$ $3$ $41$ $2$ $3$ $4$ $5$ its original position).'
(112)	Anh $\frac{\text{a}y}{\text{b}\hat{q}n} \frac{\text{d}\hat{q}y}{\text{b}\hat{q}n} \frac{\text{th}\hat{e}m}{\text{gi}\hat{\sigma}} \frac{\text{phy}}{\text{phy}}$ 'He's busy teaching more over- v V V 1 2 3 4 6 1 2 3 4 5 6 time.'

# 6.2 Length of "C",'s.

Fore-and-aft concatenations have a quite narrow length range. The maximum number of versatile verbs in a given  $_{v}C_{v}$  is usually four. However, I have observed that in a  $_{v}C_{v}$ ,  $V_{v}$ 's usually outnumber  $_{v}V$ 's.<sup>18</sup> Thus,  $_{v}C_{v}$ 's with one  $_{v}V$  and three  $V_{v}$ 's occur more frequently than  $_{v}C_{v}$ 's with three  $_{v}V$ 's and one  $V_{v}$ . This may be explained by the generalization that the class of  $_{v}V$ 's is more abstract, overall, than the class of  $V_{v}$ 's, and that our minds work faster with concrete items. Is this a problem of competence vs. performance, or the result of "the filtering or winnowing effect" of selectional constraint rules (Matisoff 1973:260)? It is difficult to say. For now we content ourselves with the observation that  $_{v}C_{v}$ 's with one  $_{v}V$  and one  $V_{v}$ , or with one  $_{v}V$  and two  $V_{v}$ 's, are the most common. As in other types of concatenation, frequencies of occurrence of  $_{v}C_{v}$ 's go down as the number of versatile verbs in them goes up.

#### 7.0 Conclusion.

This is only a preliminary investigation, and many potentially fruitful avenues of research remain to be explored.<sup>19</sup> The idea of versatile concatenations was first suggested by Matisoff for a Tibeto-Burman language, Lahu. As I hope this paper has shown, this idea is illuminating for Vietnamese too. I suspect that it also works for many other languages of Southeast Asia.

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1. See Matisoff 1973, p. 201.

2. Thompson (1965:268ff) recognizes them as "postverbs," and includes in this category <u>lay</u> 'by or for oneself' and <u>lai</u> 'repeating.' I exclude these two from the class of postverb part-icles because they meet the requirements for versatile verbhood.

3. This is what Matisoff calls "fortuitous concatenations" (1973:203-207).

4. <u>Quay lai</u> is itself a post-head concatenation, or C. (below 3.2).

5. This kind of construction also exists in Lahu and Thai (Matisoff 1973:203, 549).

6. See Thompson 1965:126-138.

7. Matisoff's term is used here (1973:210).

8. Cf. the parallel behavior of the Lahu verb  $\underline{c\hat{a}}$  'eat;  $V_{h}$  for a living' (Matisoff 1973:210-211).

9. Abbott recognizes 32 of these in her paper. But some of these, as I have shown, turn out to form "false concatenations."

10. If we were making a strictly semantic classification, some of these verbs could be assigned to other groups. Thus,  $\underline{it}$  'V<sub>h</sub> little, V<sub>h</sub> seldom' could be included in Group I (degree or intensity') instead of Group VI; <u>lai</u> 'V<sub>h</sub> again' could be included in Group III (temporal aspect) instead of constituting a class all by itself; <u>dám</u> 'dare to V<sub>h</sub>', <u>dé</u> 'be easy to V<sub>h</sub>', and <u>khó</u> 'be hard to V<sub>h</sub>' could all be included in Group V (psychological involvement<sup>h</sup>), eliminating Group VI entirely; <u>mác</u> 'have to V<sub>h</sub>' could be assigned to Group IV (commitment or obligation), etc.

11. This rule and notation are Matisoff's (1973:211).

12. This juxtapository flexibility enjoyed by <u>lai</u> is very similar to that of Matisoff's class of "post-head variable versatiles", which may intervene at any of several different points in a C, but not before the members of the concrete class of "juxtacapital"  $V_{\rm u}$ 's (1973:221, 240-242). \*\*

13. Several of these verbs  $(\underline{di}, \underline{den}, \underline{toi}, \underline{lai})$  may also function as pre-head versatiles, with different meanings. See 3.17 above and 5.0 below. For the analogy between Group I V,'s in Vietnamese and Matisoff's "juxtacapital V,'s" in Lahu, see note 16.

14. In my paper "Case and verbs in Vietnamese," I posited <u>cho</u> as "dative case marker" and <u>giùm</u> and <u>hô</u> as "benefactive case markers" (1971:11).

15. Matisoff's rule (1973:222).

16. These correspond closely to Matisoff's class of "juxtacapital V's, which are directional in meaning and always occur right next to (juxta-) the verb-head (-capital). [1973:221-225]

\*\*In Vietnamese as in Lahu, the abstract/concrete continuum in  $\underline{C}$ 's is the mirror-image of that in .C's, with the abstracter verbs  $\underline{-}$  occurring to the right of the concreter ones. See below 4.2-4.3.

17. It will be recalled that <u>lai</u> also means 'repetition' when it appears in <u>pre</u>-head position (above 3.12).

18. Sentence (110) is a counterexample to this generalization, since it contains three vV's (<u>throng</u>, <u>phai</u>, and <u>di</u>), but only one V, (<u>giùm</u>).

19. E.g., under what conditions may nouns intervene within a verb concatenation (cf. <u>cba</u> in [111])? What is the best compromise between the prepositional "case-analysis" of verbs like <u>cho</u> 'give; benefactive' (4.13) and their interpretation as serial verbs? Can "abstractness" be defined in a non-circular way, independent of the syntactic ordering properties of the verbs?

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