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## **The Translation of Russian Two-Place Predicates into Mandarin Chinese**

*The papers focuses on argument-coding devices in Mandarin Chinese. Based on a questionnaire that includes 130 two-place predicates, we investigate the patterns of semantic role assignment for non-transitive verbs. Like most languages, Mandarin Chinese has a clearly identifiable class of transitive verbs that stands apart from all other bivalent classes. The valency behavior of non-transitive verbs is less predictable, these verbs differ substantially with respect to their syntactic distribution.*

**Keywords:** *Mandarin Chinese, valency classes, transitivity, bivalent verb, argument-coding*

One of the difficult theoretical problems arising in practice at rendering of a literary text is selection of a language level ensuring adequate — that is, complete and accurate — translation from one language into another. The adequacy problem becomes most acute in case of translation between languages of different grammatical systems, such as Russian and Chinese. This paper proposes findings of a research of verbs, which have two valencies with the focus on non-canonical transitive and non-transitive verbs.

### **1. General Information on Syntax of Two-Place Predicates in Chinese**

For isolating languages, linear order of words plays a special role. Transitivity as a lexical feature of two-place verbs, which is embedded in their dictionary meaning and implies certain pattern of a sentence, has no morphological expression in Chinese verbs: the issue is in rendering of relevant meanings using non-morphological devices available in Chinese — i.e. linear order, function words and special constructions.

In a basic transitive structure, the only device to show relations between words is their syntactic position, wherein the first participant precedes the verb positionally and the second participant follows the predicate, which corresponds with the SVO order in a verbal sentence — thereat, direct object is introduced in the postposition without

any other special arrangement (1). The SOV model, wherein direct object is marked with the preposition 把 *bǎ* and takes the preverbal position (2), is also often used:

- (1) 羊吃嫩草 *Yáng chī nèn cǎo* Овцы едят молодую траву ('Lambs eat young grass')
- (2) 羊把嫩草吃了 *Yáng bǎ nèn cǎo chī le* Овцы едят молодую траву ('Lambs have eaten young grass')

In the postposition to verbs of some actional classes (of activities, occupations), the most typical object or a generic name of all its possible objects (the so-called 'empty or dummy object') may be used as a second argument. Thus, both (3) and (4) denote a type of activity, but if the second argument is not specified and there are no alternatives, the generic object 书 *shū* 'book' is added to the verb, since the postverbal position in Chinese cannot be left unfilled:

- (3) 我教书。 *Wǒ jiāo shū.* — Я преподаю ('I teach')
- (4) 我教他。 *Wǒ jiāo tā.* — Я преподаю ему ('I teach him')

Such units containing a verbal and a nominal component, which often duplicates the meaning of the verb itself or does not introduce anything new into the general semantics, are traditionally referred to as 'separable words' *lǐhécí* (离合词) in sinology. The isomorphism of the semantic and syntactic structure of *lǐhécí* and free word combinations raises certain difficulties in their differentiation, since their specific feature is that components of a separable word in a sentence may be used distantly, being separated from one another by other words, and each may have its own arrangement.

- (5) 游泳 => 游了一会儿泳  
*плыть поплавать немного*  
(‘to swim’) (‘to have a little swim’)
- (6) 帮忙 => 帮忙他 => 帮了他一个大忙  
*bāngmáng bāngmáng tā bāng le tā yī gè dà máng*  
*помогать помогать ему оказал ему большую помощь*  
(‘to assist’) (‘to assist him’) (‘rendered him great assistance’)

Existential sentences having a special linear order different from the basic SVO order — stand alone in Chinese. These sentences are characterized by locative inversion and postverbal position of the main argument. In this syntactic pattern very frequent for Chinese, a semantic type of predicates usually cover such existential meanings as 'to exist/to start existing/to stop existing' (7). These uses are peculiar to posture verbs and verbs of unidirectional motion. In such sentences, not only presence/occurrence/

disappearing of something or somebody is predicated (depending on the aspectual form and the verbal meaning), but also the mode of its existence is specified (8):

- (7) 试验中出现了新问题 *shìyàn zhōng chūxiànlè xīn wèntí* — *В ходе эксперимента обнаружили новые проблемы* (‘In course of the experiment, new problems emerged’)
- (8) 墙上挂着几张画 *Qiáng shàng guàzhe jǐ zhāng huà* — *На стене висит несколько картин* (‘On the wall, there hang several pictures’)

No proper names or other definite NP are possible in this position. Existential sentences have locative inversion, wherein the first argument occurs in the postverbal position, whereas a locative group (noun + locative) usually appears in the beginning of the sentence: 墙上 *qiáng-shàng* — *на стене* (‘on the wall’) in (8), which indicates not the main participant’s location (in space or time), as, for instance, in locative sentences, but the center of a certain systems of relationships, that’s why an animate noun can be used in this function in Mandarin Chinese, when the field of existence is narrowed down to the personal field (9). Such existential sentences are represented by possessive structures *у кого-либо* (‘with somebody’) in Russian, cf.:

- (9) 他死过一个媳妇了 *Tā sǐguò yī gè xífù le* — *У него когда-то умерла жена* (‘His wife once passed away’, *lit.* ‘He once (had) his wife passed away’) (the example is taken from [Yakhontov 1957]).

## 2. Research Data

The Data was gathered as a result of a survey among informants and verified against the Chinese corpus ([http://ccl.pku.edu.cn:8080/ccl\\_corpus/](http://ccl.pku.edu.cn:8080/ccl_corpus/)). During translation of the questionnaire that contained 130 bivalent lexical units with non-standard coding, some Russian stimulus verbs showed several ways of expression or varied government in Chinese — these examples were registered separately.

The research primarily considered two-place verbs; however, since in Chinese the boundaries between the classes of verbs and adjectives does not coincide with Russian, in a number of cases in Chinese material, not a verb, but a word of another part of speech, a combination of several lexemes and etc. corresponded to a stimulus verbal lexeme in Russian. It was possible to translate a part of verbal stimuli into Chinese adequately only with adjectives, which are close to verbs in their grammatical properties in this system. A number of predicates were translated into Chinese periphrastically; thereby, however, the overall valency class of these expressions encompassed the syntactic positions, whose coding was supposed to be analyzed within the project, for example: *отстать* (‘to lag [behind]’) was represented as 落在后面 *luò zài hòumian* — *lit. опуститься позади* (‘to go

down behind'), *пахнуть* ('to smell') was translated as 散发味 *sànfā wèi* — lit. *испускать вкус* ('to emit taste'), *слушаться* ('to obey') as 听话 *tīng huà* — lit. *слушать речь* ('to listen to the speech'), *соглашаться* ('to agree') as 同意意见 *tóngyì yìjiàn* — lit. *согласиться с мнением* ('to agree with an opinion'), *симпатизировать* ('to sympathize') as 有好感 *yǒu hǎogǎn* — lit. *иметь хорошее чувство* ('to have a good feeling').

### 3. Findings

The situation with transitivity and two-place predicates in Mandarin Chinese does not appear to be so univocal. This is due to several factors. First, the linear order is the main attribute of argument coding in sentences with two-place verbs; however, since not only direct object may follow a verb in a Chinese sentence linearly, not every unmarked nominal group following a verb denotes a patientive argument; postverbal position may be occupied by arguments with the most diverse semantic roles. Thus, despite the similarity with the above model, the nominal component 路 *lù* — *путь, дорога* ('way, road') in (10) with the verb 走 *zǒu* — *идти* ('to go') denotes not a Patient, but a participant with another semantic role (namely, a Route), thus expressing spatial and not object relations. That is, the linear order itself relates to the number of fixed devices of coding with some stipulations:

- (10) 为什么我走路，月亮也跟我走？ *Wèishéme wǒ zǒu lù, yuèliàng yě gēn wǒ zǒu* — *Почему, когда я иду по дороге, месяц идет за мной?* ('Why when I walk the moon follows me?')

There are also more complicated cases, when formally coinciding units show absolutely different semantic and syntactic relations between components. Thus, postpositional noun can be adequately analyzed and interpreted only considering its lexical meaning. Cf. uses of the verb 打 *dǎ* — *играть [в игры с мячом]* ('to play [ball games]') in (11):

- (11) 打篮球 *dǎ lánqiú* — *играть в баскетбол* ('to play basketball')  
 打日本队 *dǎ Ribēn duì* — *обыграть сборную Японии* ('to outplay the Japan national team')  
 打奥运会 *dǎ Àoyùnhuì* — *играть на Олимпийских играх* ('to play at the Olympic games')  
 打时间差 *dǎ shíjiānchā* — *обыграть по времени* ('to outplay in time')

The criteria for distinguishing direct and indirect object in Chinese were defined in [Mullie 1932]. They imply that direct object is such object that successfully passes the direct object status test: 1) raising the object with 把 *bǎ* and moving it into the preverbal position in an S把OV structure, 2) the passivizability (with

the preposition 被 *bèi*) and raising the object to the subject position in an O被SV structure, cf. (12a-c):

- (12a) 狗咬了狼 *gǒu yǎo le láng* — Собака укусила волка (‘The dog bit the wolf’)  
 (12b) 狐狸再把手咬了 *húlí zài bǎ shǒu yǎo le* — Лисица снова куснула руку (‘The fox has bitten the hand again’)  
 (12c) 我被疯狗咬了怎么办? *Wǒ bèi fēng gǒu yǎo le zěnmě bàn* — Что мне делать, (если) покусала бешеная собака?! (‘What should I do [if] the rabid dog bit [me]?!’)

In contrast to the basic SVO order, the SOV pattern, wherein direct object in the preposition is marked with the preposition 把 *bǎ*, is not neutral and restricts interpretation of NP as definite.

As noted above, despite the postverbal position, NP often do not represent direct objects, they do not pass diagnostic object tests. This is due to optional use of function words in Mandarin Chinese, which in our case results in ambiguity of direct and indirect object in a sentence. In (13a), the postpositional NP denotes a location-like argument, hence the relevant function word can be added after the verb (13b), cf.:

- (13) *жить в гостинице* (‘to live in a hotel’)  
 (a) 住饭店 *zhù fàndiàn*  
 (b) 住在饭店 *zhù zài fàndiàn*

Despite the formal similarity with free word groups, the possibility to separate components and certain syntactic transformations (expansion, modification), separable words *lǐhécí* also do not pass the object tests, consequently, are not prototypical transitive verbs in Chinese.

The analysis of the data gathered and diagnostic tests performed allowed categorizing as transitive only those predicates, which managed to pass both direct object status tests successfully — the questionnaire contained 48 such predicates. They may be considered to be typical transitive verbs. They are: 扔 *rēng* — *бросать* (‘to throw’); 取 *qǔ* — *взять* (‘to take’); 赢 *yíng* — *выиграть* (‘to win’); 赶 *gǎn* — *гнать* (‘to chase’); 折弯 *zhéwān* — *гнуть* (‘to bend’); 拿着 *názhe* — *держат* (‘to hold’); 赶上 *gǎnshàng* — *догнать* (‘to run down’); 吃 *chī* — *есть* (‘to eat’); 煎 *jiān* — *жарить* (‘to roast’); 等 *děng* — *ждать* (‘to wait’); 忘记 *wàngjì* — *забывать* (‘to forget’); 叫 *jiào* — *звать* (‘to call’); 制造 *zhìzào* — *изготавливать* (‘to manufacture’); 挖苦 *wākǔ* — *издеваться* (‘to maltreat’); 找 *zhǎo* — *искать* (‘to search’); 刷 *shuā* — *красить* (‘to paint’); 咬 *yǎo* — *кусать* (‘to bite’); 捉 *zhuō* — *ловить* (‘to catch’); 折断 *zhéduàn* — *ломать*

(‘to break’); 洗 *xǐ* — *мыть* (‘to wash’); 穿 *chuān* — *надевать* (‘to wear on’); 惩罚 *chéngfá* — *наказывать* (‘to punish’); 攻击 *gōngjí* — *нападать* (‘to attack’); 装满 *zhuāngmǎn* — *наполняться* (‘to fill’); 找到 *zhǎodào* — *находить* (‘to find’); 恨 *hèn* — *ненавидеть* (‘to hate’); 围 *wéi* — *окружать* (‘to surround’); 回答 *huídá* — *отвечать* (‘to answer’); 打开 *dǎkāi* — *открывать* (‘to open’); 耕 *gēng* — *пахать* (‘to plow’); 唱 *chàng* — *петь* (‘to sing’); 写 *xiě* — *писать* (‘to write’); 喝 *hē* — *пить* (‘to drink’); 融化 *rónghuà* — *плавить* (‘to melt’); 铺上 *pùshàng* — *покрывать* (‘to cover’); 记得 *jìde* — *помнить* (‘to remember’); 击中 *jīzhòng* — *попасть* (‘to hit’); 领导 *lǐngdǎo* — *руководить* (‘to direct’); 听 *tīng* — *слушать* (‘to listen’); 听见 *tīngjiàn* — *слышать* (‘to hear’); 丢 *diū* — *терять* (‘to lose’); 杀死 *shāsi* — *убивать* (‘to kill’); 打 *dǎ* — *ударить* (‘to strike’); 吻 *wěn* — *целовать* (‘to kiss’); 读 *dú* — *читать* (‘to read’); 爱上 *àishàng* — *влюбиться* (‘to fall in love’); 羡慕 *xiànmù* — *завидовать* (‘to envy’); 鄙视 *bǐshì* — *презирать* (‘to despise’).

Transitivity of the predicates 怕 *pà* — *бояться* (‘to fear’); 相信 *xiāngxìn* — *верить* (‘to believe’); 看到 *kàndào* — *видеть* (‘to see’); 影响 *yǐngxiǎng* — *влиять* (‘to influence’); 相遇 *xiāngyù* — *встречаться* (‘to meet’); 达到 *dádào* — *достичь* (‘to reach’); 思考 *sīkǎo* — *думать* (‘to think’); 依赖 *yīlài* — *зависеть* (‘to depend’); 认识 *rènshi* — *знать* (‘to know’); 躲避 *duóbì* — *избегать* (‘to avoid’); 有 *yǒu* — *иметь* (‘to have’); 承奉 *chéngfèng* — *льстить* (‘to flatter’); 爱 *ài* — *любить* (‘to love’); 挥 *huī* — *махать* (‘to wave’); 期盼 *qīpàn* — *мечтать* (‘to dream’); 缺 *quē* — *недоставать* (‘to lack’); 恨 *hèn* — *ненавидеть* (‘to hate’); 喜欢 *xǐhuān* — *нравиться* (‘to like’); 需要 *xūyào* — *нуждаться* (‘to need’); 剩下 *shèngxia* — *оставаться* (‘to remain’); 过 *guò* — *пересечь* (‘to cross’); 离开 *líkāi* — *покидать* (‘to leave’); 帮助 *bāngzhù* — *помочь* (‘to help’); 懂 *dǒng* — *понимать* (‘to understand’); 庆幸 *qìngxìng* — *радоваться* (‘to be glad’); 生 *shēng* — *рожать* (‘to give birth’); 想念 *xiǎngniàn* — *скучать* (‘to miss’); 跟着 *gēnzhe* — *следовать* (‘to follow’); 看 *kàn* — *смотреть* (‘to look’); 梦见 *mèngjiàn* — *сниться* (‘to appear in dreams’); 动 *dòng* — *шевелить* (‘to stir’); 尊敬 *zūnjìng* — *уважать* (‘to respect’); 信任 *xìnrèn* — *доверять* (‘to trust’); 可怜 *kělián* — *жалеть* (‘to pity’); 喜爱 *xǐài* — *любить* (‘to love’); 享受 *xiǎngshòu* — *наслаждаться* (‘to enjoy’); 想要 *xiǎngyào* — *хотеть* (‘to wish’) is not prototypical, since, although these predicates may appear in sentences with the basic SVO order, they do not pass the diagnostic object test and do not comply with one of the two criteria (raising with 把 *bǎ* or passivizability with 被 *bèi*), these 37 predicates do not have enough prototypically transitive properties.

Thus, with its 48 transitive verbs out of 130 two-place predicates that accumulate a full set of prototypically transitive properties and a large number of bivalent predicates that do not meet the transitive criterion completely, Mandarin Chinese tend to be a highly transitive language in regard to the ratio of transitives to all bivalent verbs.

Let us consider verbs represented in Chinese as non-transitive ones.

The basic SVO order and no other argument marking are the typical properties of binominative sentences of equivalence with the predicates 值 *zhí* — *стоить* ('to be worth'), 像 *xiàng* — *быть похожим* ('to resemble'), and 配 *pèi* — *подходить* ('to match') — they have a very limited set of syntactic features. In fact, these verbs are copulas linking two NP in sentences of identification or ascribing a particular attribute to the main argument (14):

- (14) 王钢很像他哥哥 *Wáng Gāng hěn xiàng tā gēgē* — Ван Ган похож на своего старшего брата ('Wang Gang resembles his elder brother')

For the stimulus verb *болеть* ('to be sick'), no two-place predicate was found in Chinese, since the existing predicate 痛 *tóng* has only one argument. Therefore, the only possible way to introduce the second participant is to use an adnominal possession; thereby, the attributive marker 的 *de* may be omitted for parts of the body as unalienable entities.

- (15) 王刚(的)头很痛 *Wáng Gāng (de) tóu hěn tóng* — У Ван Гана болит голова ('Wang Gang has a headache')

Apart from the linear order, another argument-coding device in Mandarin Chinese is a great number of function words, which are variously defined by researchers (as auxiliary verbs, co-verbs, prepositions, adpositions, "analytical cases"), and can't be grouped into a single class with homogeneous grammatical features. They are united by verbal origin because of high frequency of verbal serialization in Chinese — therefore, some of these units retain verbal attributes (for example, aspectual affix) and may have more than one possible position in a sentence, but other their properties vary greatly.

The basic set includes prepositions which are functional analogues of Russian cases, which are used to introduce direct and indirect objects into a sentence — thereby, they may express different relations in various contexts.

The preposition 给 *gěi* is usually used for three-place predicate, introducing an indirect object position. Out of the analyzed two-place predicates, two verbs entered this class, namely: 输 *shū* — *проиграть* ('to lose') (16); 挤奶 *jǐnǎi* — *доить* ('to milk'), lit. *собирать молоко* ('to collect milk') — thereby, *доить* ('to milk') in Mandarin Chinese demonstrates the possibility of alternative coding of arguments: positionally and in a special way as an adnominal modifier to an "empty object" in separable words *lǐhéci*, cf. (17a) and (17b):

- (16) 王刚输给杨澜了 *Wáng Gāng shū gěi Yáng Lán le* — Ван Ган проиграл Ян Лань ('Wang Gang lost to Yang Lan')

- (17) (a) 给母牛挤奶 *gěi mǔniú jǐnǎi* — доить корову ('to milk a cow')  
 (b) 挤三次牛奶 *jǐ sān-cì niú nǎi* — доить корову три раза  
 ('to milk a cow thrice')

The instrumental preposition 用 *yòng* prototypically introduces a physical instrument or a means of action performance, offering the Agent's controlled effect on a patientive object (18)

- (18) 用斧头砍断绳缆 *yòng fǔtóu kǎn duàn shénglǎn* — топором обрубить трос ('to cut off the hawser with an axe')

As to our research, the class is represented by the two predicates 割伤 *gēshāng* and 弹 *tán*. The semantics of the Russian verb *порезаться* [*чем-либо*] ('to cut oneself [with something]') does not imply a purposeful action — this is a non-agentive situation, wherein razor, knife, etc. act not as an instrument, but as cause-like argument. In Mandarin Chinese, this meaning is rendered using indirect object introduced by the preposition 用 *yòng* with the transitive verb 割伤 *gēshāng* — *порезать* ('to cut'), whereas the reflexive pronoun 自己 *zìjǐ* in the postposition to the verb (19) shows that the action refers to the same person:

- (19) 王刚用剃刀割伤了自己 *Wáng Gāng yòng tìdāo gēshāng-le zìjǐ* — Ван Ган порезался бритвой ('Wang Gang cut himself with a razor')

The Russian verb *играть* [*на музыкальном инструменте*] ('to play [(on) a musical instrument]') corresponds with 弹 *tán* — *играть* ('to play'), which provides two alternatives: linear position (the basic SVO order with no other dependant-marking) (20a), whereas another choice for the predicate 弹 *tán* — *играть* [*на чем-либо*] ('to play [something]') is to move down the second argument that is marked with the instrumental preposition 用 *yòng*, cf. (20a) and (20b). Such variation is observed in Russian — for example, in contraposition of the accusative and instrumental case, cf. *бросить камень* / *бросить камнем* ('to throw a stone'):

- (20a) 王刚在弹吉他 *Wáng Gāng zài tán jítā* — Ван Ган играет на гитаре ('Wang Gang plays the guitar').  
 (20b) 王刚用钢琴弹了一曲《致爱丽丝》 *Wáng Gāng yòng gāngqín tán-le yī-qǔ "zhì Àilīsī"* — Ван Ган сыграл на фортепьяно «К Элизе» ('Wang Gang has played "Für Elise" on the piano')

Verbs of emotional states and mental activity imply an animate main participant in any language. The stimulus for Chinese predicates of this type, which are represented by verbs of psychoemotional states or adjectives, is introduced using the add-



ressive preposition 对 *dùì*: 满意 *mǎnyì* — *быть довольным* ('to be content'); 发怒 *fānù* — *злиться* ('to be angry'); 惊奇 *jīngqí* — *удивляться* ('to be surprised'); 惊讶 *jīngyǎ* — *поражаться* ('to marvel'); 发脾气 *fā pìqì* — *раздражаться* ('to get irritated'); 生气 *shēngqì* — *злиться* ('to rage'), 思考 *sīkǎo* — *думать* ('to think') (21):

- (21) 王刚对真么贵的礼物很惊奇 *Wáng Gāng duì zhème guì de lǐwù hěn jīngqí* — *Ван Ган удивился столь дорогому подарку.* ('Wang Gang was surprised at such an expensive gift')

A number of experiential predicates represented by separable words *lìhéci* allow alternative marking of the second participant, wherein the stimulus is coded with the preposition 对 *dùì*, but as an adnominal modifier to an 'empty object' in *lìhéci*, cf. (22) and (23):

- (22) 父母对她很生气 *Fùmǔ duì tā hěn shēngqì* — *Родители очень злились на нее* ('Parents were very angry at her')  
 (23) 家里人生她的气 *Jiā-lǐ rén shēng tā de qì* — *В семье на нее злились* ('The family were angry at her in the family')

The verb *говорить* ('to say') corresponds with the Chinese 说 *shuō*, which can be used not only with the preposition 对 *dùì*, but also with 跟 *gēn* — *c* ('with'), 向 *xiàng* — *по направлению к, в сторону* ('toward, to'):

- (24) 王刚对杨澜说: 《一起走吧》 *Wáng Gāng duì Yáng Lán shuō: "Yìqǐ zǒu ba"*  
 (a) 王刚跟杨澜说: 《一起走吧》 *Wáng Gāng gēn Yáng Lán shuō: "Yìqǐ zǒu ba"*  
 (b) 王刚对杨澜说: 《一起走吧》 *Wáng Gāng duì Yáng Lán shuō: "Yìqǐ zǒu ba"*

Some predicates of emotional state with a Stimulus in a sentence, such as Russian verbs *радоваться [чему-либо] / радоваться из-за [чего-либо]* ('to be glad about [something]'), *огорчаться из-за [чего-либо]* ('to be sad about [something]'), *стесняться [чего-либо]* ('to be shy [about something]') and etc. in Chinese are marked with the causal prepositions 因 *yīn* and 因为 *yīnwèi*, they are: 尴尬 *gāngà* — *стесняться* ('to be shy'), 忧愁 *yōuchóu* — *огорчаться* ('to be sad'):

- (25) 王刚因自己的个子而尴尬 *Wáng Gāng yīn zìjǐ de gèzi ér gāngà* — *Ван Ган стесняется своего роста* ('Wang Gang is shy about his height')

Comitative structures represent one of primary device to express plurality of the situation's main participant. In Chinese, this meaning is actualized through the use of

the relevant function words (prepositions and conjunctions): 和 *hé*, 跟 *gēn*, 与 *yǔ*, 同 *tóng*, that are common for the verbs: 相遇 *xiāngyù* — *встречаться* ('to meet'); 吵架 *chǎojià* — *ссориться* ('to quarrel'); 打架 *dǎjià* — *драться* ('to fight'); 相好 *xiānghǎo* — *дружить* ('to be friends'); 谈话 *tánhuà* — *разговаривать* ('to talk'); 混在一起 *hùn zàiyìqǐ* — *смешаться* ('to get mixed'), lit. *мешать вместе* ('to mix together'):

- (26) 王刚跟杨澜在打架 *Wáng Gāng gēn Yáng Lán zài dǎjià* — Ван Ган дерётся с Ян Лань ('Wang Gang is fighting with Yang Lan')

Many predicates of this class are variable in their syntactic properties. Thus, the verb 结识 *jiéshì* — *знакомиться* ('to get acquainted') allows two alternative coding — with a comitative preposition and non-prepositionally with the basic SVO order:

- (27) (a) 和老外结识 *hé lǎowài jiéshì* — *познакомиться с иностранцем* ('to get acquainted with a foreigner')  
(b) 结识了一位新朋友 *jiéshì le yī wèi xīn péngyǒu* — *познакомиться с новым другом* ('to get acquainted with a new friend')

The object, toward which the action is directed or which will be affected by its result or the final point of action, is introduced by the allative preposition 向 *xiàng*. This class is represented by the predicate 开枪 *kāiqiāng* — *стрелять* ('to shoot/fire'):

- (28) 王刚向一只鸟开枪 *Wáng Gāng xiàng yī zhī niǎo kāiqiāng* — Ван Ган выстрелил в птицу ('Wang Gang fired at a bird')

Coding of the second argument with the preposition 向 *xiàng* is also an option for the Chinese verb 说 *shuō* — *говорить* ('to say').

Verbal prepositions expressing spatial and temporal relations in Chinese, namely: the static localization 在 *zài* — *в, на* ('in, on'), 于 *yú* — *в* ('in'), and the dynamic orientation 到 *dào* — *к, в* ('to, into'), 往 *wǎng* — *по направлению к* ('toward') may take not only the preposition to the relevant predicate in a sentence, but also the postposition thereto, localizing the situation in space or setting orientation of a participant's motion. Three predicates from our questionnaire entered this class: 区别 *qūbié* — *отличаться* ('to differ'); 沉 *chén* — *тонуть* ('to drown') (alternative government — with directive prepositions); 粘 *nián* — *прилипать* ('to stick') (alternatively — non-prepositionally with the basic SVO order).

- (29) 中国区别于西方国家 *Zhōngguó qūbié yú xīfāng guójiā* — Китай отличается от западных стран ('China differs from Western countries')

To indicate the direction of motion, Chinese verbs are usually followed by deverbative directional modifiers or directive prepositions introducing the second argument. Chinese modifiers perform various functions, of which primary ones are spatial localization of the situation or indication of motion orientation or aspectual meanings. Functionally, this approximates modifiers to verbal prefixes in Russian; thereby, however, modifiers have another important semantic and syntactic function — namely, they expand the verbal argument frame to introduce yet another participant of the situation, cf. (30a) and (30b):

- (30a) 她会写自己的名字了。 *Tā huì xiě zìjǐ de míngzì le* — Она научилась писать собственное имя ('She learnt to write her name')
- (30b) 把他的名字写进论文。 *Bǎ tā de míngzì xiě-jìn lùnwén* — вписать его имя в диссертацию ('to write down his name in the thesis')

Such government is common to all verbs of motion/movement, and the questionnaire revealed three verbs of this kind: 走进 *zǒujìn* — *входить* ('to enter'); 走出 *zǒuchū* — *выходить* ('to exit'); 碰到 *pèngdào* — *дотронуться* ('to touch'):

- (31) 王钢走进了房间 *Wáng Gāng zǒujìn le fángjiān* — Ван Ган вошёл в комнату ('Wang Gang entered the room')

Modifiers specifying the result of an action that can be added to Chinese verbs to form a resultative verbal structure: 完 *wán* — *закончить* ('to finish'), 清楚 *qīngchǔ* — *отчетливый* ('distinct'), 错 *cuò* — *неправильный* ('wrong') and etc. The verb *наполниться* ('to fill') represented in the questionnaire corresponds in Mandarin Chinese with 装满 *zhuāngmǎn* used in existential sentences with inverted linear word order, wherein the first argument is introduced as locative adjunct in the sentence initial position 桶里 *tǒnglǐ* (32):

- (32) 桶里装满了雨水 *Tǒng lǐ zhuāngmǎn le yǔshuǐ* — Ведро наполнилось дождевой водой ('The bucket filled with rainwater')

The verb 铺上 *pùshàng* — *покрывать* ('to cover') from our study also belongs to this class. These two predicates show that the domain of circumstantial relations is also involved in argument-coding in Mandarin Chinese.

#### 4. Conclusions

The analysis of two-place predicates in Mandarin Chinese has revealed two transitive patterns — an unmarked one (relying only on the linear order) and a marked one (with the accusative preposition 把 *bǎ*) — along with a range of non-transitive frames with oblique marking of the verb arguments. The main device that is used for encoding arguments of non-transitive verbs is preposition that can code both spatial

and more abstract semantic relations, but on the whole the distributions of non-transitive verbs tend to have low predictability. Many verbs of emotion and feeling with the same commonly assumed semantic roles (e.g. Experiencer + Stimulus verbs) are coded by the different means (that is with different prepositions or alternatively as an adnominal modifier). In some cases locative adjuncts are used as argument-coding device. To realize the overall complexity of valency class systems in Mandarin Chinese, categorize specific ambiguous verbs and group them into non-overlapping classes with each class characterized by unique combination of devices involved in coding its arguments we need to go far beyond translational equivalents of 130 sentences, that cannot be claimed to be representative of the bivalent verbal lexicon in general, and continue the research using a broader language material.

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### **The Contribution of Sinologists Sutsky and Lukiyanov to the Spreading of the Book of Changes in Russia**

*The Book of Changes was introduced to Russia in the early 20th century. The study of the Book in Russia was inherited by several generations of Russian sinologists. So far there have been a lot of achievements in both translation and research. Two sinologists, Sutsky and Lukiyanov, contributed the most to the spreading of the Book of Changes in Russia.*

**Keywords:** *The Book of Changes; Spreading in Russia, Sutsky, Lukiyanov*

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### **汉学家休茨基与卢基扬诺夫对《易经》俄传的贡献**

关键词: 《易经》, 俄传, 休茨基, 卢基扬诺夫