

Plurality and definiteness in Chengdu Chinese

Jiajuan Xiong and Chu-Ren Huang
Southwestern University of Finance and Economics |
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

The authors identify a plural marker *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese that can apply to both count and mass nouns, encoding plurality as well as definiteness. This post-nominal *-ɛiɛ* differs from the pre-nominal *ɛiɛ*, as the latter is purely plural but not inherently definite. Our analysis shows that the pre-nominal *ɛiɛ* functions as a quantifier, which occupies the [Spec, NumP] position, whereas the suffixal *-ɛiɛ*, by virtue of being a plural marker, is base-generated in the Num⁰ position and move to D⁰ to encode both plurality and definiteness. Moreover, the two *ɛiɛ*s can co-occur in one and the same nominal phrase, exhibiting the DOUBLE DEFINITENESS EFFECT. The syntactic analysis of *ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese, coupled with the study of *di* in Cantonese, has theoretical impacts on nominal phrase structures, in particular, on “plurality” and “definiteness”. First, plural markers in classifier languages contrast with those in number languages, as the former, but not the latter, defies numerical modification. Second, definiteness can be expressed by a non-D element, which may check its [+DEF] feature either by undergoing an upward movement to D (or [Spec, DP]) or by agreeing with the [+DEF] feature of a demonstrative. Third, the DP-NP distinction is strongly supported by our account of Chengdu Chinese.

Keywords: plurality, definiteness, *ɛiɛ*, Chengdu Chinese, *di*, Cantonese

1. Introduction

In this study, we mainly investigate *ɛiɛ* ‘some; PL’ in Chengdu Chinese, including its morphological, semantic and syntactic features. Morphologically speaking, *ɛiɛ* ‘some; PL’ can be a free morpheme as well as a suffix, which are associated with the function of a quantifier and that of a plural marker, respectively. The quantifier *ɛiɛ* ‘some’, as a free morpheme, carries the plural meaning, whereas the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* ‘PL’, in the form of a suffix, encodes both plurality and definiteness.

The data of these two types of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ ‘some; PL’ in Chengdu Chinese are presented in § 2.1 and § 2.2, and their syntactic analyses are shown in § 3.1 and § 3.2, respectively. Syntax-wise, these two types of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ occupy the syntactic positions of [Spec, NumP] and Num⁰, representing a numeral-like quantifier and a plural marker, respectively. Furthermore, we find that, on a par with $\epsilon i \epsilon$ ‘some; PL’ in Chengdu Chinese, *di* ‘some; PL’ in Cantonese exhibits its dual function as a quantifier and as a plural marker, the data of which are presented in § 4.1 and the syntactic analyses of which are illustrated in § 4.2. Both the similarities and the differences between $\epsilon i \epsilon$ ‘some; PL’ in Chengdu Chinese and *di* ‘some; PL’ in Cantonese are summarized in § 4.3. Then, we present the theoretical impacts of this study on nominal phrase structures, in particular, on plurality and definiteness, in § 5.1 and § 5.2. And § 6 concludes this paper.

2. Data presentation

In this section, we shall present the data of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ ‘some; PL’ in Chengdu Chinese. We identify two different uses of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ ‘some; PL’, one being a quantifier and the other a plural marker. These two types of data are presented in § 2.1 and § 2.2, respectively.

2.1 The quantifier $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese

The word $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese can serve as a quantifier to modify nouns, regardless of whether the noun is conceptually countable or not, as exemplified by the countable noun *su* ‘book’ in (1) and the non-countable noun *suei* ‘water’ in (2). Semantically, $\epsilon i \epsilon$ refers to an approximate quantity of ‘some’. Moreover, it is indeterminate between an indefinite and a definite reading, depending on whether a demonstrative is present or not, as shown below.

- (1) a. *i* $\epsilon i \epsilon$ *su* [indefinite]
 one some book
 ‘some books’
- b. *tse* (*i*) $\epsilon i \epsilon$ *su* [definite]
 this one some book
 ‘these books’
- (2) a. *i* $\epsilon i \epsilon$ *suei* [indefinite]
 one some water
 ‘some water; some (bottles of) water’

- b. *nei (i) ɛiɛ suei* [definite]
 that one some water
 ‘the water; those (bottles of) water’

In this study, we do not treat *ɛiɛ* as part of a plural demonstrative, such as *tse-ɛiɛ* ‘this-some; these’ or *nei-ɛiɛ* ‘that-some; those’, on the grounds that the word *i* ‘one; indefinite’ can stand between *tse/nei* and *ɛiɛ*, as shown in (1b) and (2b). If *tse-ɛiɛ* ‘this-some; these’ and *nei-ɛiɛ* ‘that-some; those’ are plural demonstratives, the insertion of *i* ‘one’ may violate the Principle of Lexical Integrity (Anderson 1992). Thus, we take *tse* and *nei* as a proximal and a distal demonstrative, respectively, which are number-neutral. The presence of *ɛiɛ* can enforce a plural reading. Moreover, *ɛiɛ*-encoded plurality does not hinge on individuation, as evidenced by its incompatibility with [numeral + classifier] or [numeral + measure word], as illustrated in (3a–b).

- (3) a. **san ɛiɛ pən su*
 three some CL book
 intended: ‘three books’
 b. **nianɿ ɛiɛ p’in suei*
 two some bottle water
 intended: ‘two bottles of water’

Given this, we analyze *ɛiɛ* ‘some’ as an approximate quantifier, which stands in contrast with numbers in terms of their quantificational functions. In particular, approximate quantification and numerical quantification exhibit complementary distribution. As shown in (3), *ɛiɛ*-induced quantification is applicable to both countable and non-countable nouns, excluding the presence of a classifier or a measure word. By contrast, numerical quantification requires the presence of individual classifiers or measure words, as typical of classifier languages. Furthermore, *ɛiɛ*-induced quantification can coerce non-countable reading out of countable nouns, as illustrated in (4). A similar case is reported to be present in Mandarin Chinese, as cited in (5) from Liao (2011: 207).

- (4) a. *t’a du-go (i) ɛiɛ su.* (Chengdu Chinese)
 he read-ASP one some book
 i. ‘He read some books.’ [count]
 ii. ‘He received some education.’ [mass]
 b. *Tsanʂan ts’ɿ-ne (i) ɛiɛ p’ingo.*
 Zhangsan eat-ASP one some apple
 i. ‘Zhangsan ate some apples.’ [count]
 ii. ‘Zhangsan ate some apple (part).’ [mass]

- (5) a. *ta du-guo yi xie shu.* (Mandarin)
 he read-ASP one some book
 i. ‘He read some books.’ [count]
 ii. ‘He received some education.’ [mass]
- b. *Zhangsan chi-le yi xie pingguo.*
 Zhangsan eat-ASP one some apple
 i. ‘Zhangsan ate some apples.’ [count]
 ii. ‘Zhangsan ate some apple (part).’ [mass]

2.2 The plural marker *-ciε* in Chengdu Chinese

Apart from enforcing an approximate quantification, *ciε* exhibits a special use in Chengdu Chinese, which is noted as [NP-*ciε*]. This usage is not attested in Mandarin, when it comes to the Mandarin counterpart *xie* ‘some’. The plural usage of [NP-*ciε*] is exemplified in (6a–c), indicating that *-ciε* is virtually applicable to all kinds of nouns, regardless of its countability and/or animacy.

- (6) a. *εosən-ciε* [+count, +human, +plural, +definite]
 student-some
 ‘the students’
- b. *su-ciε* [+count, –animate, +plural, +definite]
 book-some
 ‘the books’
- c. *suei-ciε* [–count, –animate, +plural, +definite]
 water-some
 ‘the water’

[NP-*ciε*] encodes both plurality and definiteness. This semantic property sets [NP-*ciε*] apart from bare NPs, with regard to both number and definiteness, as bare NPs in Chinese are underspecified in these two features (Cheng & Sybesma 1999; Yang 2001; Rullmann & You 2006). Before we make a comparison between [NP-*ciε*] and bare nouns, we first examine the syntactic functions that [NP-*ciε*] can perform, as below:

First, [NP-*ciε*] can serve as topics, as shown in (7a–b).

- (7) a. *εosən-ciε, ηo tau zənte.* [+animate]
 student-PL I all know
 ‘I know all the students.’
- b. *su-ciε, ηo tau k’an-uan no.* [–animate]
 book-PL I all read-ASP SFP
 ‘I finish reading those books.’

Second, [NP-*ciɛ*] can function as subjects, as illustrated in (8a–b).

- (8) a. *uaua-ciɛ xən toŋsɿ.* [+animate]
 child-PL very considerate
 ‘The children are considerate.’
- b. *ti-tsən tsɿxəu, faŋtsɿ-ciɛ təu k’ua no.* [-animate]
 earthquake after house-PL all collapse SFP
 ‘After the earthquake, all the houses collapsed.’

Third, [NP-*ciɛ*] can function as post-*ba* objects, as exemplified in (9a–b).

- (9) a. *ŋo pa ɛosən-ciɛ tɕiau pi-ie no.* [+animate]
 I BA student-CL teach graduate SFP
 ‘I taught the students until their graduation.’
- b. *ta pa suei-ciɛ xo-uan no.* [-animate]
 s/he BA water-PL drink-finish SFP
 ‘S/he finished the water.’

Fourth, [NP-*ciɛ*] can be employed as a form of address. This is called the vocative use, which is illustrated in (10).

- (10) *nausɿ-ciɛ, k’ai xuei no!*
 teacher-PL start meeting SFP
 ‘Hello, dear teachers, let us start our meeting!’

[NP-*ciɛ*] is incompatible with some syntactic functions. For example, [NP-*ciɛ*] cannot be licensed in the object position, as evidenced by the unacceptability of (11a–b).

- (11) a. **ŋo zənte ɛosən-ciɛ.* [+animate]
 I know student-CL
 Intended: ‘I know the students.’
- b. **ŋo tɕint’ian mai no su-ciɛ.* [-animate]
 I today buy ASP book-PL
 Intended: ‘I bought the books today.’

The acceptability of (11a–b) can be greatly improved by the addition of a demonstrative, as shown in (12a–b).

- (12) a. *ŋo zənte tse-ciɛ ɛosən-(ciɛ).* [+animate]
 I know this-some student-CL
 ‘I know these students.’
- b. *ŋo tɕint’ian mai no nei-ciɛ su-(ciɛ).* [-animate]
 I today buy ASP that-some book-PL
 ‘I bought those books today.’

(11) and (12) contrast in their grammaticality, even though both [NP-*εiε*] and [DEM + *εiε* + NP-*εiε*] are definite. In fact, the object position also allows indefinite nominal phrases, as shown in the examples of (13a–b).

- (13) a. *ηο zəntε i-εiε εοsən.* [+animate]
 I know one-some student
 ‘I know some students.’
 b. *ηο tεint’ian mai no i-εiε su.* [–animate]
 I today buy ASP one-some book
 ‘I bought some books today.’

The examples of (12) and (13) show that an object position can accommodate both definite and indefinite nominal phrases. However, [NP-*εiε*], which is unambiguously definite, cannot be licensed in the object position.

Upon scrutiny, we further find that [NP-*εiε*] is not completely barred from occurring in the object position. Specifically, in the case of DOUBLE OBJECT CONSTRUCTIONS, as in (14)–(16), [NP-*εiε*] can function as indirect objects, but not as direct objects.

- (14) a. *ηο soη uaua-εiε i-ko t’ankau.* [indirect object]
 I send child-PL one-CL cake
 ‘I sent the children a cake.’
 b. **ηο soη no mama su-εiε.* *[direct object]
 I send ASP mother book-PL
 Intended: ‘I sent the books to my mother.’
- (15) a. *ηο tεiε no naosη-εiε xənto su.* [indirect object]
 I borrow ASP teacher-PL many book
 ‘I borrowed many books from the teachers.’
 b. **ηο tεiε no t’a su-εiε.* *[direct object]
 I borrow ASP s/he book-PL
 Intended: ‘I borrowed the books from him/her.’
- (16) a. *?ηο εiαη mai su ke uaua-εiε.* [indirect object]
 I want buy book to child-PL
 ‘I want to buy some books for the children.’
 b. **ηο εiαη mai su-εiε ke ηο mama.* *[direct object]
 I want buy book-PL to I mother
 Intended: ‘I want to buy the books for my mother.’

The above data show that the licensing condition of [NP-*εiε*] lies in the requirement for definiteness of a syntactic function. Specifically, [NP-*εiε*] can be licensed in a syntactic position which unambiguously requires its nominal phrase to be

definite, such as topic, subject and post-*ba* positions. The object position cannot accommodate [NP-*ciε*], as an object is compatible with both definite and indefinite nominal phrases. This generalization can be further supported by ditransitive cases, given the fact that [NP-*ciε*] can occur in an indirect object position but not in a direct object position. Crucially, an indirect object position obligatorily requires its nominal phrase to be definite, as exemplified in (17a–c), whereas a direct object position prefers an indefinite nominal phrase than a definite nominal phrase, if the latter case is possible at all, as illustrated in (18a–c).

- (17) a. *ŋo soŋ *i/tse-ciε uaua i-ko t'ankau.*
 I send one/this-some child one-CL cake
 'I sent the children a cake.'
 Intended: 'I sent some children a cake.'
- b. *ŋo tciε no *i/tse-ciε naosŋ xənto su.*
 I borrow ASP one/this-some teacher many book
 'I borrowed some books from these teachers.'
 Intended: 'I borrowed some books from some teachers.'
- c. *ŋo ciəŋ mai su kε *i/tse-ciε uaua.*
 I want buy book to one/this-some child
 'I want to buy some books for these children.'
 Intended: 'I want to buy some books for some children.'
- (18) a. *ŋo soŋ no mama i²nei-ciε su.*
 I send ASP mother one/that-some book
 'I sent some/²those books to my mother.'
- b. *ŋo tciε no t'a i²nei-ciε su.*
 I borrow ASP s/he one/that-some book
 'I borrowed some/²those books from him/her.'
- c. *ŋo ciəŋ mai i²nei-ciε su kε ŋo mama.*
 I want buy one/that-some book for I mother
 'I want to buy some/²those books for my mother.'

Furthermore, we find that [NP-*ciε*] can be used neither generically (Krifka 1995; 2003) nor predicatively (Szabolcsi 1983, 1992, 1994; Stowell 1989, 1991; Longobardi 1994; Li 1998, 1999; Tang 2001; Wei 2007). As shown in (19a–b), generic expressions with an exhaustive reading should be expressed by bare nouns, as opposed to [NP-*ciε*]. Likewise, kind-referring expressions with a non-exhaustive reading, as illustrated in (20a–b), allow bare nouns but not [NP-*ciε*].

- (19) a. *εoŋmə-(*ciε) sŋ p'uzu toŋvu.* [generic; exhaustive reading]
 panda-PL be mammal animal
 'Pandas are mammals.'

- b. *εοημθ-(*ειε) ιθου σι τ'ιαυ τ'υει.* [generic; exhaustive reading]
 panda-PL have four CL leg
 'A panda has four legs.'
- (20) a. *κθυ-(*ειε) πι μαυ-(*ειε) τα.* [kind; non-exhaustive reading]
 dog-PL compare cat-CL big
 'Dogs are bigger than cats.'
- b. *συ-(*ειε), ηθ ειχουαν τ'οηχουα.* [kind; non-exhaustive reading]
 book-PL I like fairy tales
 'As for (different types of) books, I like fairy tales.'

However, it seems that another type of generic expressions can be encoded by [NP-ειε] as in (21), even though bare nouns are still preferred, as reported by our informants.

- (21) *εοημθ-(ειε) ειχουαν τς' tsutsi.* [generic; definite]
 panda-PL like eat bamboo
 'Pandas like eating bamboo.'

We argue that this generic reading derives from generalization over a definite set of members. Therefore, it is "genericity out of definiteness", which can be evidenced by its compatibility with *tse/nei* 'this/that', as in (22), which does not change the propositional meaning or truth value of (21).

- (22) *tse/nei ειε εοημθ-(ειε) ειχουαν τς' tsutsi.* [definite]
 this/that some panda-PL like eat bamboo
 'These/those pandas like eating bamboo.'

By contrast, the addition of a demonstrative to the nouns in (19) and (20) would yield weird sentences, as shown in (23) and (24). Even though they are marginally acceptable, they are not propositionally equivalent to (19) and (20).

- (23) a. *??tse/nei ειε εοημθ-(ειε) ση π'υζυ τσηυυ.*
 this/that some panda-CL be mammal animal
 '??These/those pandas are mammals.'
- b. *??tse/nei ειε εοημθ-(ειε) ιθου σι τ'ιαυ τ'υει.*
 this/that some panda-PL have four CL leg
 '??These/those pandas have four legs.'
- (24) a. *??tse/nei ειε κθυ-(ειε) πι tse/nei ειε μαυ-(ειε) τα.*
 this/that some dog-PL compare this/that some cat-CL big
 '??These/those dogs are bigger than these/those cats.'

- b. ^{??}*tse/nei* *εiε* *su-(εiε)*, *ηo* *εixuan* *t'ohxua*.
 this/that some book-PL I like fairy tales
^{??}'As for these/those books, I like fairy tales.'

Given that, (19) and (20) are treated as authentic generic and kind-referring expressions, respectively, both of which defy the use of [NP-*εiε*]. Apart from generic and kind-referring uses, the predicative use is also found to be incompatible with [NP-*εiε*], as exemplified in (25).

- (25) *ηomən nausγ-(^{*}εiε)*, *t'amən isən-(^{*}εiε)*.
 we teacher-PL they doctor-PL
 Intended: 'We are teachers while they are doctors.'

Based on the above data, we summarize the syntactic functions that [NP-*εiε*] can serve, as presented in Table 1. Specifically, [NP-*εiε*] can serve as a topic, a subject, an indirect object and a form of address, as long as the nominal phrase at issue is required to be plural and definite. Therefore, when a topic is kind-referring or when a subject is generic, [NP-*εiε*] is disallowed.

Table 1. The syntactic functions and definiteness of [NP-*εiε*]

Syntactic functions	Topic		Subject		Address	Object	DO	IO
meaning	ref.	kind	ref.	generic	vocative	ref.	ref.	ref.
[NP- <i>εiε</i>]	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓
± DEF	DEF	N/A	DEF	N/A	DEF	DEF/INDEF	?DEF/INDEF	DEF

Next, let us summarize the contexts under which [NP-*εiε*] and bare nouns are interchangeable. As shown in Table 2, ordinary topics, referential subjects and indirect objects allow both, with [NP-*εiε*] being unambiguously plural while NP indeterminate between singular and plural readings. The vocative use clearly prefers [NP-*εiε*], whereas the kind-referring, generic, and indefinite uses opt for bare nouns.

Table 2. [NP-*εiε*] versus NP: Distributional differences

Syntactic positions	Topic		Subject		Address	Object	DO	IO
meaning	ref.	kind	ref.	generic	vocative	ref.	ref.	ref.
NP- <i>εiε</i>	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	✗	✓
DEF	DEF	N/A	DEF	N/A	DEF	N/A	N/A	DEF
Number	PL	N/A	PL	N/A	PL	N/A	N/A	PL
bare nouns	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓
DEF	DEF	N/A	DEF	N/A	N/A	DEF/INDEF	?DEF/INDEF	DEF
Number	SG/PL	N/A	SG/PL	N/A	N/A	SG/PL	SG/PL	SG/PL

The above discussions can be further reduced to feature differences between [NP- $\epsilon i \epsilon$] and bare nouns, in particular, along the lines of number and definiteness. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. [NP- $\epsilon i \epsilon$] versus NP: Feature differences

	Number	Definiteness	Special usage
NP- $\epsilon i \epsilon$	PL	DEF	vocative
bare nouns	PL/SG	DEF/INDEF	generic kind-referring

To conclude this section, we present the semantic and syntactic features of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese, as follows:

- i. The morpheme $\epsilon i \epsilon$ can serve as a quantifier, which applies to both count and mass nouns. It is indeterminate with regard to its (in-)definiteness feature, the interpretation of which depends on the presence or absence of a demonstrative.
- ii. The morpheme $-\epsilon i \epsilon$ can function as a plural marker, which immediately follows a noun to form [NP- $\epsilon i \epsilon$], regardless of its conceptual countability. [NP- $\epsilon i \epsilon$] can be licensed in a syntactic context which requires its nominal phrase to be unambiguously definite.

In § 3 below, we shall conduct a syntactic analysis for these two types of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese.

3. Syntactic analysis of $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese

In this section, we shall analyze the two types of $\epsilon i \epsilon$, viz., the quantifier $\epsilon i \epsilon$ and the plural marker $-\epsilon i \epsilon$, in Chengdu Chinese.

3.1 The quantifier $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese

The quantifier $\epsilon i \epsilon$ in Chengdu Chinese is equivalent to *xie* ‘some’ in Mandarin Chinese. We analyze $\epsilon i \epsilon$ of this usage as a numeral-like quantifier, in the sense that it occupies the syntactic position of [Spec, NumP], which usually accommodates numerals.

According to Iljic (1994; 2001), *xie* ‘some’ in Mandarin Chinese indicates a purely quantitative operation, i.e. extraction of a certain number of entities taken as a whole. Semantically, *xie* ‘some’ expresses a collective meaning. Vinet & Liu

(2008) take *xie* ‘some’ as a marker for indefinite quantity, which triggers plural interpretation. Syntactically, there are two competing analyses for *xie* ‘some’, one as a plural-encoding classifier and the other as a quantity word. In this regard, we concur with Iljic (1994) in that *xie* ‘some’ cannot be treated as a classifier. Our justifications are presented below:

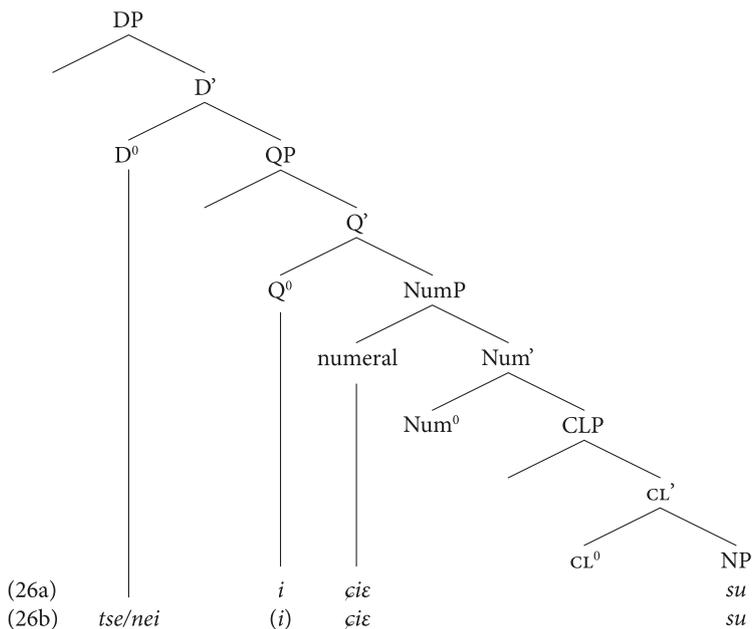
First, the word *εie* ‘some’ never co-occur with numerals other than *i* ‘one’. In line of our analysis, *i* ‘one’ in *i-εie* ‘some’ is not an authentic numeral but an indefinite marker.¹ This analysis is in congruence with Steindl (2010) and Zhang (2013). This being said, the complementary distribution between *εie* ‘some’ and numerals is well-established. On the other hand, the word *εie* ‘some’ can, at least in some Chinese dialects, such as in Shandong dialects, co-occur with a classifier, as exemplified by *yi-xie-ge-ren* ‘one-some-CL-person; some people’. This contrast of collocation indicates that *εie* ‘some’ behaves more like a numeral than a classifier, considering that two words of the same syntactic category compete for the same position and thus exhibit complementary distribution. Second, a classifier, be it of the individual type or of the kind type, may allow modification of size, such as *i-ta-ko-p’ingo* ‘one-big-CL-apple; a big apple’, *i-εiau-p’in-suei* ‘one-small-bottle water; a small bottle of water’ and *i-ta-nuei-sutci* ‘one-big-kind book; a large kind of books’ (Huang & Ahrens 2003; Her 2012a, 2012b; Zhang 2013). However, *εie* ‘some’ does not allow any size-related modification, as evidenced by the unacceptability of **i-ta-εie-su* ‘one-big-some-book; a large number of books’. This syntactic behavior also helps to exclude *εie* ‘some’ from the category of classifiers.

To sum up, the quantity word *εie* syntactically patterns with numerals to occupy the [Spec, NumP] position. For the sake of analysis, we exemplify the nominal phrases containing the quantity word *εie* in (26a–b) and present their syntactic structures in (27).

- (26) a. *i εie su* [indefinite]
 INDEF some book
 ‘some books’
 b. *tse/nei (i) εie su* [definite]
 this/that INDEF some book
 ‘these/those books’

1. The double function of “one” as both a numeral and an indefinite article is also reported in Bengali (Chacon 2011). In Mandarin Chinese, Rullmann & You (2006) makes an association between phonetic stress and their syntactic functions. Specifically, the stressed *yi* ‘one’ functions as a numeral, whereas the unstressed *yi* ‘indefinite’ serves as an indefinite article.

(27) The syntactic analysis of (26a–b):



As illustrated in (27), both DP and QP are referential, the former of which is definite while the latter of which is indefinite. Even with the presence of an indefinite article *i*, its indefiniteness can be overwritten by the overt projection of a D element, e.g. a demonstrative. In this connection, two points need to be clarified, with regard to the indefinite article *i*.

First, the indefinite article *i* may or may not be present in indefinite nominal phrases. This is indeed not an isolated linguistic phenomenon in Chinese. As Lyons (1999) presents, indefinite articles, unlike definite ones, are usually subject to semantic constraints. For example, *a/an* in English and *un/une* in French are limited to singular cases. In the case of Chengdu Chinese, the indefinite marker *i* seems to be confined to nominal phrases containing approximate quantifiers, but excluded from nominal phrases containing [Numeral + Classifier]. This condition for the occurrence of an indefinite article can be further confirmed with another approximate quantifier *tian* 'a small number', which denotes a diminutive quantification. As shown in (28a–b), *tian* 'a small number' neatly patterns with *εiε* 'some', on the grounds that (i) it does not depend on individualization induced by classifiers or container words; (ii) it can give rise to both count and mass interpretations.

- (28) a. *i tian su*
 INDEF bit book
 ‘a small number of books’ [count]
 ‘a small part of book’ [mass]
- b. *tse/nei (i) tian su*
 this/that INDEF bit book
 ‘these/those small number of books’ [count]
 ‘this/that small part of the book’ [mass]

Furthermore, the correlation between the occurrence of the indefinite article *i* and non-individualized plurality can be explained. In the plural-marking languages, such as in English and French, the contrast between singularity and plurality is of grammatical significance. As a consequence, singularity, as an important grammatical feature, can thus serve as a semantic condition to license the occurrence of an indefinite article. By contrast, in the classifier languages, such as in Chengdu Chinese, individualization of nouns is grammatically important, as evidenced by the presence of classifiers or measure words. Likewise, individualization, as a prominent feature, can serve as a semantic condition to affect the distribution of an indefinite article. Specifically, non-individualized plurality, or collective plurality (Iljic 1994), can license an indefinite article in Chinese.

Second, we need to further address the co-occurrence between an indefinite article and a demonstrative, as illustrated in (26b) and (28b). As said earlier, the indefinite meaning enforced by an indefinite article can be overwritten by the presence of a demonstrative. Thus, no semantic clash would arise. In fact, this phenomenon is attested in some other languages, such as in Sinhala, which is one of the official languages spoken in Sri Lanka. As exemplified in (29a–b), with the presence of the demonstrative *mee*, the indefinite marker *-ak* can optionally occur. Crucially, the overall meanings of both (19a) and (19b) are definite, even though our informants report some subtle differences between them. If three different books are mentioned, (29a) is preferred; if three copies of one particular book are referred to, (29b) is more apt.

- (29) Sinhala:²
- a. *mee poth thuna*
 DEM book:PL three
 ‘these three books’
- b. *mee poth thunak*
 DEM book:PL three-INDEF
 ‘these three books’

2. The Sinhala data was collected by the first author through her field work in Sri Lanka.

To summarize, the indefinite article *i* in Chengdu Chinese can apply, when a nominal phrase expresses non-individualized plurality, which is usually enforced by the presence of a numeral-like approximate quantifier, such as *ɛiɛ* ‘some’ and *tian* ‘a little/few’. Therefore, there are a few indefinite set-collocations, such as *i-ɛiɛ* ‘some’ and *i-tian* ‘a small number’, which are semantically in contrast with their definite counterparts *tse/na-ɛiɛ* ‘these/those’ and *tse/na-tian* ‘these/those’. Regardless of the (in-)definiteness, the quantifier *ɛiɛ* occupies the [Spec, NumP] position. This renders *ɛiɛ* syntactically parallel to numerals.

Having provided the syntactic analysis of the approximate quantifier *ɛiɛ*, we proceed to the study of the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese.

3.2 The plural marker *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese

Rijkhoff (1999: 240; 2002: 153) reports that, in some classifier languages, plural markers are usually members of a closed class of quantifiers. Based on our analysis of *ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese, we partially agree with this observation. We concur with Rijkhoff (1999; 2002) in that the quantifier and the plural marker apparently converge on *ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese; however, we differ from Rijkhoff, as we take the quantifier *ɛiɛ* and the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* as two separate morphemes. This view can be supported by the co-occurrence of the two *ɛiɛ*s, as exemplified in (30).

- (30) *tse/nei ɛiɛ ɛosən-ɛiɛ*
 this/that some student-PL
 ‘these/those students’

The example in (30) is of great importance, as it embodies the DOUBLE DEFINITENESS EFFECT (Julien 2005; Roehrs 2009, among others), in the sense that two definite-encoding elements, viz., the demonstrative *tse/nei* ‘this/that’ and the plural marker *-ɛiɛ*, co-occur in one and the same nominal phrase in Chengdu Chinese.

It should also be noted that the quantifier *ɛiɛ* and the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* cannot always co-occur in the same nominal phrase. For example, with the presence of an indefinite article *i* and with the absence of a demonstrative, the co-occurrence of the two *ɛiɛ*s would lead to ungrammaticality, as shown in (31).

- (31) **i ɛiɛ ɛosən-ɛiɛ*
 INDEF some student-PL
 Intended: ‘some students’

The unacceptability of (31) could be explained by semantic clash, as the indefinite article *i* is incompatible with the definite [NP-*ɛiɛ*]. Furthermore, definiteness is only a necessary but not a sufficient condition to license the occurrence of [NP-*ɛiɛ*], as evidenced by the ungrammaticality of (32a–b), which are definite due to the pres-

ence of demonstratives. The ungrammaticality is ascribed to the mutual exclusiveness between the plural marker *-ciε* and classifiers or container words.

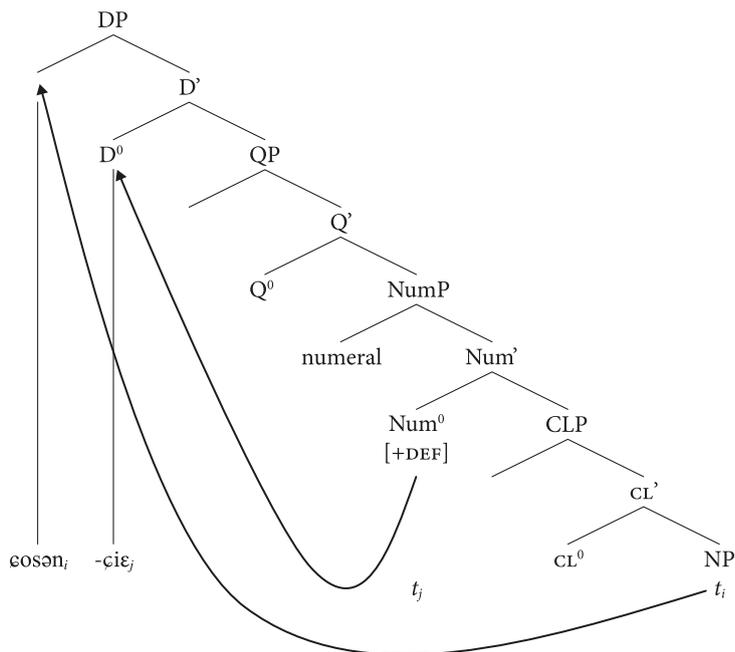
- (32) a. **tse san ko εosən-ciε*
 this three CL student-PL
 Intended: ‘these three students’
 b. **nei niəŋ p’in suei-ciε*
 that two bottle water-PL
 Intended: ‘those two bottles of water’

Based on the above discussions, we summarize the semantic and syntactic features of [NP-*ciε*] in (33).

- (33) The grammatical features of [NP-*ciε*]:
 i. [NP-*ciε*] is plural;
 ii. [NP-*ciε*] is definite;
 iii. [NP-*ciε*] can co-occur with demonstratives. (DOUBLE DEFINITENESS)

We propose that *-ciε*, as a plural marker, occupies the Num⁰ position. Apart from conveying the plural meaning, it also carries the [+DEF] feature. In order to check the [+DEF] feature, *-ciε* undergoes Num⁰-to-D⁰ head movement. This head movement induces another A-bar movement, i.e. NP moves upward to land in the [Spec, DP] position, leading to the linear order of [NP-*ciε*]. The example and its syntactic structure are shown in (34a–b), respectively.

- (34) a. *εosən-ciε*
 student-PL
 ‘the students’

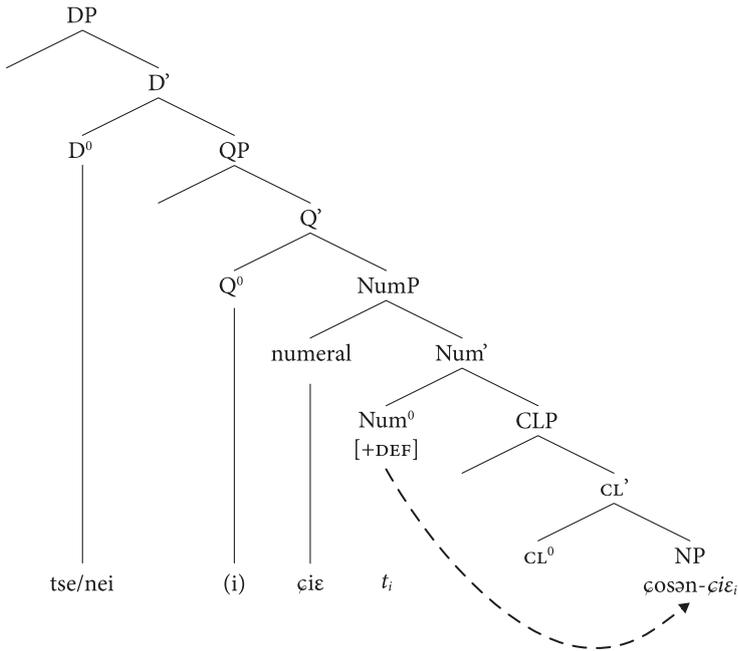
b. The syntactic structure of [NP-*ɛiɛ*]:

Our analysis is congruent with Li's (1999) analysis of the plural marker *-men* in Mandarin Chinese. However, *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese differs from *-men* in Mandarin Chinese in that the former is applicable to all the nouns whereas the latter is restricted to nouns with the [+human] feature.

Having established the syntactic structure of [NP-*ɛiɛ*], we proceed to the phenomenon of DOUBLE DEFINITENESS, viz. the co-occurrence of a demonstrative (*tse* 'this' or *nei* 'that') and a plural marker *ɛiɛ*. Since a demonstrative occupies the D^0 position, its presence would prevent the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* from undergoing Num⁰-to- D^0 head movement to realize the [+DEF] feature. In this case, the [+DEF] feature of *-ɛiɛ* needs to be checked through agreement. Specifically, due to the occupation of the D^0 position by a demonstrative, the definite meaning of a nominal phrase is established. Thus, the [+DEF] feature of the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* is successfully checked through its agreement with the [+DEF] feature at D^0 . This is shown in (35a–b).

- (35) a. *tse/nei ɛiɛ ɛosən-ɛiɛ* (reproduction of 30)
 this/that some student-PL
 'these/those students'

b. The syntactic realization of DOUBLE DEFINITENESS:



Due to the suffixal nature of *-cie* in Chengdu Chinese, it cannot stand alone as a dangling morpheme. Thus, it undergoes a Merging process to be realized on the noun, as shown by the dotted line in (35b). This phenomenon in Chengdu Chinese bears similarities with DOUBLE DEFINITENESS phenomenon in Scandinavian languages, such as in Swedish and Norwegian. For the sake of illustration, we present Roehrs' (2009: 74) example and syntactic analysis of DOUBLE DEFINITENESS in Swedish in (36a–b).

(36) DOUBLE DEFINITENESS in Swedish:

- a. *den gamle mannen*
 the old man-the
 'the old man'

- b. [_{DP} den_i+D [_{AgRP} gamle [_{ArtP} t_i+en_k [_{NP} mann+en_k]]]] (Roehrs 2009: 75)

(35b) and (36b) are similar in that suffixal definite elements, i.e. *-cie* in Chengdu Chinese and *-en* in Swedish, undergo Merging processes to be realized on their respective head nouns. The difference between them lies in the way how D is spelled out. In the case of Chengdu Chinese, a demonstrative is base-generated in D⁰, whereas in Swedish, the free-standing determiner *den* is analyzed to undergo Art⁰-to-D⁰ head movement to encode definiteness. Crucially, in both cases, the definite-encoding suffixal elements cannot be realized on the nouns unless D⁰ is

overtly spelled out. If D^0 is vacant, the suffixal elements must move upward, in one way or another, to check the [+DEF] feature under D^0 or [Spec, DP]. As for Chengdu Chinese, as analyzed in (35b), the suffixal *-ciε* undergoes Num⁰-to- D^0 head movement, which further triggers NP-to-[Spec, DP] movement to give rise to [NP-*ciε*]. With regard to Scandinavian languages, according to Roehrs (2009), the suffixal *-en* and the head noun, as a single syntactic unit, undergoes ArtP-to-[Spec, DP] movement to check the [+DEF] feature. This is shown in (37a–b).

(37) Single definiteness in Norwegian:

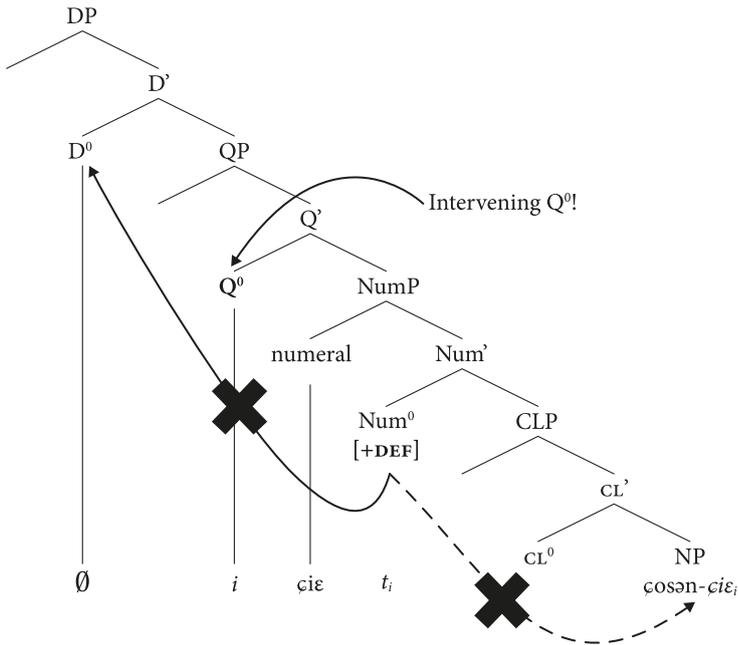
- a. *mannen*
 man-the
 ‘the man’

b. $[_{DP} [_{ArtP} -en_i] [_{NP} mann+en_i]]_j D...t_j]$ (Roehrs 2009:75)

Crucially, the above data point to a fact: a non-D element that carries the [+DEF] feature can successfully check its [+DEF] feature in two ways, viz. it may move upward either to D or to [Spec, DP] to check the [+DEF] feature; alternatively, it may check its [+DEF] feature by means of agreeing with a spelled-out DP. These two mechanisms are associated with single definiteness and DOUBLE DEFINITENESS, respectively. If neither of these two conditions is met, this kind of non-D element with a [+DEF] feature cannot be grammatically realized, as in the case of (38). To facilitate the presentation, we reproduce (31) in (38a) and provide its syntactic analysis in (38b).

- (38) a. **i ciε εosən-ciε*
 INDEF some student-PL
 Intended: ‘some students’

b. The syntactic analysis of (38a):



As shown in (38b), when Q^0 is spelled out by the indefinite article i and D^0 remains vacant, the plural marker $-ciε$ fails to be merged to the noun, because its [+DEF] feature cannot be properly checked. On the one hand, the Num^0 -to- D^0 movement is blocked by the intervening Q^0 ; on the other hand, since D is not spelled out, $-ciε$ cannot check its [+DEF] feature by agreement. So the co-occurrence of two $ciε$ s in (38a) results in ungrammaticality.

To sum up, $ciε$ in Chengdu Chinese instantiates two separate morphemes, an approximate quantifier and a plural marker. This phenomenon is not unique to Chengdu Chinese. In § 4, we shall show that di 'some; PL' in Cantonese is parallel to $ciε$ 'some; PL' in Chengdu Chinese, with regard to the dual functions as well as their syntactic realizations.

4. More on plurality: Syntactic analysis of di in Cantonese

It will be shown that di in Cantonese patterns with $ciε$ in Chengdu Chinese in that they can serve as both an approximate quantifier and a plural marker.

4.1 Data presentation of *di*

The quantifier usage of *di* can be exemplified in (39a–c), regardless of whether the noun is conceptually countable or not. Moreover, *di* is attested as a plural marker in the form of [*di*-NP], as illustrated in (40a–c).³

- (39) a. *jat di hoksaang*
 INDEF some student
 ‘some students’
- b. *jat di syu*
 INDEF some book
 ‘some books’
- c. *jat di seoi*
 INDEF some water
 ‘some water’
- (40) a. *di hoksaang*
 some/PL student
 ‘some students; the students’
- b. *di syu*
 some/PL book
 ‘some books; the books’
- c. *di seoi*
 some/PL water
 ‘some water; the water’

The plural marker *di*- in Cantonese and the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese differ in that *di*- is a prefix whereas *-ɛiɛ* is a suffix. Following Matthews & Yip (2011: 43), prefixes and suffixes are thus called mainly because they cannot occur independently but have to attach to another morpheme. On a par with the pronom-

3. One reviewer suggested that post-adjectival *di*, as exemplified in (i), could be relevant.

(i) *Siu-Yin jigaa hangfuk di.*

Siu-Yin now blissful a_bit

‘Siu-Yin is more blissful now.’

(Matthews & Yip 2011: 189)

The reviewer suggested that there is semantic parallelism between the post-adjectival *di* and the pre-nominal *di*, arguing that they increase the scalar meaning of the modified adjectives and nouns, respectively. Though we do not disagree with the observed similarity, it is not clear if it is strong enough motivation to treat them as one and the same morpheme. It is important to note that both plurality and definiteness are attested in nominal phrases with plural markers in these two varieties of Chinese. Hence, applying Occam’s razor, we choose to focus on how nominal plurality is expressed and further associated with definiteness.

inal suffix *-deih* ‘plural’ as in *ngoh-deih* ‘I-plural; we/us’ and *keuih-deih* ‘s/he-plural; they/them’, *di-* attaches to nouns in a pre-nominal position and should be termed as a nominal prefix for plurality. By contrast, *-ciε* occurs in a post-nominal position and is thus labelled as a suffix in Chengdu Chinese. This morphological contrast is not trivial, as it engenders more differences with regard to these two plural markers. First, since both the plural marker *di-* and the quantifier *di* are pre-nominal, the quantificational expression and the plural expression end up having the same linear order, as evidenced by the fact that [*di*-NP] gives rise to both definite and indefinite readings, as shown in (40). In fact, the indeterminacy with regard to (in-)definiteness has been observed by Matthews & Yip (2011: 115), as they employ both “the” and “some” to translate those non-contextualized *di*-nominal phrases. By contrast, the plural expression [NP-*ciε*] is unambiguously definite, as exemplified in (34a). Second, unlike the co-occurrence of two *ciε*s in one and the same nominal phrase in Chengdu Chinese, with one being pre-nominal and the other post-nominal (c.f. the example of 30), no co-occurrence of two *dis* is attested in Cantonese. The double occurrence of two *ciε*s is a case of DOUBLE DEFINITENESS, which features the presence of two [+DEF] elements, i.e. a demonstrative and a plural marker. In Cantonese, a demonstrative collocates with one single *di*, as shown in (41a–c). This phenomenon, we argue, is due to the pre-nominal feature of the plural marker *di-*. Since both the quantificational *di* and the plural marker *di-* are pre-nominal, their co-occurrence will lead to their immediate adjacency, which is simply out. Therefore, the absence of DOUBLE DEFINITENESS in Cantonese can be explained in two possible ways: first, the quantifier *di* and the plural marker *di-* merge into one single occurrence of *di*; second, the quantifier *di* is selected to encode plurality in order to avoid awkwardness caused by the immediate adjacency of two *dis*.⁴

- (41) a. *ne/gwo di hoksaang*
 this/that some student
 ‘these/those students’
 b. *ne/gwo di syu*
 this/that some book
 ‘these/those books’

4. In the case of (41a–c), if one *di* is selected out of the two *dis*, the selected item should be the quantificational *di*, as opposed to the plural marker *di-*. First, a demonstrative in Cantonese generally requires the presence of a classifier or a quantifier to modify a noun, given that [DEM + N] is not grammatical; second, plural markers in Sinitic languages (e.g. *-men* in Mandarin and *-ciε* in Chengdu Chinese) are optional in the sense that bare nouns can also be plural. Therefore, if there is no merge between two *dis*, we treat *di* in (41a–c) as a quantifier.

- c. *ne/gwo di seoi*
 this/that some water
 ‘this/that water; these/those bottles of water’

The above data of Cantonese *di* will be analyzed in § 4.2 below.

4.2 Data analysis of *di*

As analyzed in § 4.2, *di* in Cantonese can serve as an approximate quantifier as well as a plural marker. The quantifier *di* is exemplified in (39a–c), in which *jat* and *di* are an indefinite article (in Q⁰) and an approximate quantifier (in [Spec, NumP]), respectively. In this regard, they pattern neatly with *i* and *ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese. Moreover, the plural marker *di-* in Cantonese syntactically pattern with the plural marker *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese, in the sense that these two plural markers occupy the Num⁰ position, even though they stand in contrast between a prefix and a suffix in Cantonese and Chengdu Chinese, respectively. This morphological difference, however gives rise to a few semantic contrasts between these two plural markers. Specifically, [*di*-NP] allows both definite and indefinite readings whereas [NP-*ɛiɛ*] is unambiguously definite. We argue that this is just a difference in disguise, as a definite [*di*-NP] and an indefinite [*di*-NP] are associated with two distinct syntactic structures. In particular, a definite [*di*-NP] features a plural marker *di-* while an indefinite one contains a quantifier *di*. Put differently, *di-*, by virtue of serving as a plural marker, is compulsorily definite, exactly as *-men* in Mandarin and *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese behave in this regard. This analysis is summarized in (42).

- (42) Bipartite analysis of *di* in Cantonese:
- i. [*di*-NP] ([+DEF]): *di* is a plural marker
 - ii. [*di* NP] ([-DEF]): *di* is a quantifier

To sum up, Cantonese *di* in [*di* NP] is subject to two competing analyses, i.e. a quantifier analysis versus a plural marker analysis, largely depending on its (in-)definiteness. In particular, a definite [*di*-NP] features a plural marker *di-*. This said, we can unify the plural markers in Cantonese, Chengdu Chinese and Mandarin in that all the attested plural markers carry the [+DEF] feature.

Now we turn to the syntactic analysis of the plural marker *di-* in Cantonese. Given its prefix nature, the syntactic realization is different from that of *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese. There are two possible ways to realize *di-*: on a par with *-ɛiɛ* in Chengdu Chinese, *di-* undergoes Num⁰-to-D⁰ head movement without an accompanying NP movement, due to the fact that *di-* is a prefix. This is shown in (43a).

Alternatively, *di-* is merged on the noun and the whole chunk of [*di*-NP] moves up to [Spec, DP] to check its [+DEF] feature, as illustrated in (43b).

- (43) a. [_{DP} D⁰-*di*-_i [_{QP} Q⁰ [_{NumP} Num⁰-~~*di*~~-_i [_{NP} *syu*]]]]
 b. [_{DP} [_{QP} Q⁰ [_{NumP} Num⁰-*di*- [_{NP} *syu*]]]_i D⁰..._{t_i}]

To conclude this section, we summarize the syntactic and semantic features of *di* in Cantonese, as follows:

- (44) The grammatical features of *di* in Cantonese:
- i. Cantonese *di* can serve as an approximate quantifier as well as a plural marker. The quantifier is a free morpheme and the plural marker takes the form of a prefix.
 - ii. [*di* + NP] in Cantonese allow both definite and indefinite readings. The definite reading comes from the plural marker *di-*, which carries the [+DEF] feature, whereas the indefinite reading may be due to the deletion of the indefinite article *jat* from [*jat di* NP].
 - iii. Cantonese does not exhibit DOUBLE DEFINITENESS EFFECT, as the co-occurrence of two *dis* in one and the same nominal phrase is unacceptable.

4.3 A comparison between *di* and *εiε*

There are similarities between *di* in Cantonese and *εiε* in Chengdu Chinese. First, both of them can serve as approximate quantifiers in the pre-nominal position. As quantifiers, both *di* and *εiε* are indeterminate in their (in-)definiteness, the interpretation of which depends on whether a demonstrative is present or not. Second, both *di* and *εiε* can serve as plural markers, which are necessarily definite in meaning.

The differences between *di* and *εiε* are also evident. First, [*di*-NP] in Cantonese cannot fulfil the vocative function, whereas [NP-*εiε*] in Chengdu Chinese can. Second, due to the prefix-versus-suffix contrast between *di-* and *-εiε* as plural markers, their syntactic realizations may be different: *di-* may undergo a Num⁰-to-D⁰ head movement with NP remaining in-situ; alternatively, [*di*-NP] moves upward to the [Spec, DP] position. By contrast, when *-εiε* undergoes Num⁰-to-D⁰ head movement, it necessarily triggers NP movement to reach the [Spec, DP] position.

Having examined both *εiε* in Chengdu Chinese and *di* in Cantonese, we move on to the discussion of their theoretical impacts in § 5.

5. Theoretical impacts

This study has a bearing on both plurality and definiteness in nominal phrase structures, in terms of syntax as well as semantics. In this section, our discussion will revolve around the two nominal features, i.e. plurality and definiteness, and reveal how this study of *-ciε* in Chengdu Chinese, coupled with the study of its counterpart *di-* in Cantonese, has repercussions on these two features.

5.1 On plurality

Both *-ciε* in Chengdu Chinese and *di-* in Cantonese express plurality, regardless of the mass-count status of nouns. Plurality is usually linked to count-mass distinction and is considered as an operation applicable to count nouns but not to mass nouns (notably in Chierchia 1998). Given this, there is a demand to justify plurality of mass nouns. Rothstein (2017: 85) claims that mass nouns do pluralize. In the literature, plurality of mass nouns has also been attested and reported in both number languages and classifier languages. For example, Heycock & Zamparelli (2005) and Acquaviva (2008) identify a group of necessarily plural mass nouns in English, such as “brains” and “funds”, which take plural markers but defy numerical modifications. Watanabe (2017) convincingly proves the existence of plural mass nouns in Japanese, which bear no plural markers but can be syntactically diagnosed by its (non-)occurrence in the reverse partitive construction. More similar cases have also been reported in Persian (Ghomeshi 2003; Ghaniabadi 2012) and Greek (Tsoulas 2006, 2009; Athanasiadou & Athanasopoulos 2017). The data presented in this study lend clear credence to mass plurality in classifier languages, as plurality of mass nouns in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese, unlike that in Japanese, can take plural markers. Furthermore, the presence of a plural marker in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese excludes numerical modification, regardless of nominal types. In this regard, *ciε-* and *di-*induced plurality in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese pattern neatly with *funds*-type plurality in English (see Heycock & Zamparelli 2005; Acquaviva 2008; Watanabe 2017).

To sum up, plurality in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese does not hinge upon the count-mass distinction, on the grounds that (i) *ciε* and *di* can apply to all kinds of nouns, be they count or mass nouns; (ii) *ciε-* and *di-*induced plurality can give rise to both count and mass readings, regardless of whether the head noun is countable or not. Specifically, when a noun is conceptually countable, [NP-*ciε*] and [*di*-NP] can refer to both multiplicity of items as well as abundance of mass amount, instantiating the functions of counting and measuring (Rothstein 2017). Likewise, when a noun is conceptually uncountable, [NP-*ciε*] and [*di*-NP] can mean both abundance of mass amount and multiplicity of units. In consideration

of these, plurality in this study is not confined to count cases. In particular, following Corbett (2000), Ojeda (2005), Tsoulas (2006), Acquaviva (2008), Alexiadou (2011) and Doron & Müller (2013), to list a few, we take mass plurality into consideration and classify plurality into two main types, as shown in (45).

- (45) Two types of plurality:
- a. unit-based plurality
 - b. amount-based plurality

Unit-based plurality, as the name suggests, depends on division of nouns into units. This division can be inherent, as in the case of so-called count nouns; alternatively, division can be grammatically realized by means of applying classifiers or container words to nouns. Semantically, unit-based plurality refers to multiplicity of units, no matter whether the units are built-in or grammatically-imposed. Moreover, multiplicity is amenable to numeral quantification. Take English as an example: unit-based plurality can be shown by *two books* (multiplicity of built-in units) or *two bottles of water* (multiplicity of container-induced units). By contrast, amount-based plurality emphasizes a substantive amount, which is not based on singularity. We argue that *εiε*- and *di*-induced plurality is of this type, given that they defy numerical modification, no matter whether the head noun is countable or not. Plurality of this kind has been attested in Persian (Ghameshi 2003; Ghaniabadi 2012) and in Greek (Tsoulas 2006, 2009; Athanasiadou & Athanasopoulos 2017) as well.

The distinction between unit-based and amount-based plurality is significant, as the two types of plurality do not rely on a count-mass distinction but can be teased apart by their (in-)compatibility with numerical modification. On the one hand, unit-based plurality can apply to mass nouns, with the assistance of a measure word. On the other hand, amount-based plurality can be imposed on conceptually count nouns, as in the case of *εiε*- and *di*-induced plurality in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese. In order to show the similarities as well as differences between unit-based plurality and amount-based plurality, we present their encoding mechanisms in Table 4, with English, French, Chengdu Chinese (CC), and Cantonese as representative languages.

As shown in Table 4, the two types of plurality are allowed in both number languages (English and French) and classifier languages (Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese), with different encoding mechanisms. Moreover, it is clear that *-εiε* and *di*- are amount-based plural markers, but not unit-based plural markers. This stands in contrast to unit-based plural markers as in English and French. This may be associated with the typological differences between classifier languages and number languages.

Furthermore, we have shown that plural markers in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese necessarily carry the [+DEF] feature. According to our analysis, these

Table 4. Two types of plurality and their encoding mechanisms *

Plurality	Language	Count	Mass
unit plurality	English	[Num + NP _{PL}]	[Num + M/C + NP]
	French	[Num + NP _{PL}]	[Num + M/C + NP]
	CC	[Num + M/C _{PL} + NP]	[Num + M/C + NP]
	Cantonese	[Num + M/C _{PL} + NP]	[Num + M/C + NP]
amount plurality	English	[<i>some</i> + NP _{PL}]	[<i>some</i> + NP]
	French	[<i>quelques</i> + NP _{PL}]	[<i>quelque</i> + NP]**
	CC	[<i>i</i> + <i>εiε</i> + NP]	[<i>i</i> + <i>εiε</i> + NP]
		[NP- <i>εiε</i>]	[NP- <i>εiε</i>]
	Cantonese	[<i>jat</i> + <i>di</i> + NP]	[<i>jat</i> + <i>di</i> + NP]
[<i>di</i> -NP]		[<i>di</i> -NP]	

* Num, CL, M and C in the table represent numeral, classifier, measure words and container words, in that order.

** As pointed out by one of the reviewers, *quelque* 'some' in French can modify singular count nouns, to indicate a certain (person or thing). This same holds true for *some* in English, as in *someone*. However, in this table, we just focus on the cases when *quelque* in French and *some* in English modify mass nouns, but not singular count nouns, as only the former case is quantity-related.

plural markers undergo upward movement to reach the positions of D⁰ or [Spec, DP]. This raising analysis is reminiscent of the classifier-raising for definiteness in Cantonese (see Au Yeung 2005), though classifier-raising is not attested in Chengdu Chinese.

In § 5.2 below, we shall examine how our data contribute to the DP nominal structure, with special regard to two aspects: (i) what are the possible occupants of D in Chengdu Chinese; (ii) whether NP-DP distinction is real in Chengdu Chinese.

5.2 On definiteness

Our study of *-εiε* in Chengdu Chinese, together with that of *di-* in Cantonese, can shed light on the encoding mechanisms of definiteness, or more generally, on the DP theory (Longobardi 1994; Giusti 1995, 1997, 2015; Chierchia 1998; Bošković 2005, 2008). Longobardi (1994) proposes that all the nominal expressions contain both NP and DP, regardless of its definiteness feature. The definite meaning is enforced by an iota *ι*-operator in the D position, which can be realized by a determiner (e.g. *the* in *the book*). Without the presence of a determiner, N-to-D movement can also give rise to a definite reading, as in the case of proper nouns (e.g.

John). Moreover, indefiniteness is considered to reside in the D position as well. Specifically, the existential \exists -operator in the D position, which is usually realized by zero determiners, is taken to be the source for indefinite meanings. In the case of kind-referring expressions, D is also projected, even though the locus of kind-referring reading is N. According to Longobardi (1994), as long as N-to-D movement is properly prevented, kind-referring interpretation can be obtained. In this connection, language can be divided into two categories, depending on the level at which N-to-D movement is carried out. As for the languages in which N-to-D movement is allowed at the syntactic level, in order for a noun to remain in the N position to obtain its kind-referring reading, an expletive article is required to occupy the D position, as exemplified by the obligatory presence of expletive determiners in Italian and French. By contrast, in the languages in which N-to-D movement takes place at the LF level, as in English, an expletive determiner may or may not be present, as evidenced by the fact that both *the dog* and *dogs* in English can give rise to kind-referring readings. To sum up, according to Longobardi (1994), D position is versatile and it can accommodate the following elements:

- (46) The possible D occupants:
- a. definite articles (the iota ι -operator)
 - b. indefinite or null articles (the existential \exists -operator)
 - c. expletive articles (place holder; no substantive meaning)

Crucially, D is considered able to accommodate both definiteness and indefiniteness. In this regard, our data in Chengdu Chinese, as well as the data in Sinhala, pose challenges to this view, because both definite and indefinite markers can co-occur in one and the same nominal phrase, as exemplified in (26b), (28b) and (29b). If both definite and indefinite articles are realized in D, there would arise a clash of semantic features, i.e. a conflict between [+DEF] and [-DEF]. In consideration of this, we propose a nominal phrase structure by positing a DP-QP distinction, with DP taking care of the definite feature while QP the indefinite feature. Both DP and QP are referential, as opposed to NP, which is predicative.

Next, we shall show that the DP-NP distinction is real in Chengdu Chinese. Chierchia (1998) divides languages into NP-type languages, DP-type languages and a mixed type, by resorting to the two features [\pm pred] and [\pm arg]. This is called NOMINAL MAPPING PARAMETER.

- (47) NOMINAL MAPPING PARAMETER:
- a. [-pred, +arg] type: NP
 - b. [+pred, +arg] type: NP and DP
 - c. [+pred, -arg] type: DP

Chierchia (1998) takes Chinese as an NP-type language. However, our study shows that both DP and NP are separately represented in Chengdu Chinese, which can be exemplified by [NP-*ciε*] and bare NPs, respectively.

First, as presented in § 2.2 (c.f. Table 1), [NP-*ciε*] defies kind-referring or generic meanings, whereas bare NPs can express both kind-referring and generic meanings. This contrast, coupled with Longobardi's (1994) view that a kind-referring reading is located in N instead of D, [NP-*ciε*] and bare NPs are analyzed to project DP and NP, respectively. This further corroborates our syntactic analysis of [NP-*ciε*] in § 2.2.

Second, it is bare NPs, but not [NP-*ciε*], that can serve as nominal predicates, as exemplified in (25) in § 2.2. It confirms that bare NPs in Chengdu Chinese can be used for, though not limited to, predicative use. This is characteristic of NP.

The above two points indicate that DP-NP distinction is real in Chengdu Chinese. Therefore, the data in Chengdu Chinese has a theoretical bearing on nominal phrase structures: (i) definiteness and indefiniteness should be encoded at two distinct syntactic layers, as DP and QP; (ii) both DP and NP are projected in (Chengdu) Chinese. In particular, the presence of a plural marker necessarily gives rise to the projection of DP.

6. Concluding remarks

This study examines *ciε* in Chengdu Chinese, which is found to represent two distinct morphemes, viz. a free morpheme *ciε* and a suffix *-ciε*. The first one is a collective plural quantifier, which can collocate with either a demonstrative or an indefinite marker. The second one is a plural marker, which encodes both plurality and definiteness. The dual features of [+PL] and [+DEF] are realized by Num⁰-to-D⁰ movement. Alternatively, the presence of a demonstrative can successfully check the [+DEF] feature of the plural marker *-ciε*, and this phenomenon is dubbed as DOUBLE DEFINITENESS EFFECT in the sense that two definiteness-encoding elements occur in one and the same nominal phrase.

Similarly, *di* in Cantonese shows its dual functions, as a quantifier *di* and as a plural marker *di-*. In addition to the similarities, *ciε* in Chengdu Chinese and *di* in Cantonese exhibit remarkable differences, especially when it comes to their functions as plural markers. First, *-ciε* is a post-nominal whereas *di-* is a pre-nominal. Second, *-ciε* allows DOUBLE DEFINITENESS EFFECT, whereas *di-* does not.

This study has theoretical impacts on both “plurality” and “definiteness”. First, Chinese, as a typical classifier language, is found to be able to have a plural marker, which does not hinge upon a count-mass distinction. Moreover, two types of plu-

rality, viz. the unit-based plurality and the amount-based plurality, have been identified and distinguished. Second, the plural markers in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese carry both plural and definite meanings, indicating that the plural markers should be realized in D (D^0 or [Spec, DP]). Thus, DP is proven to be real in Chengdu Chinese and Cantonese.

Acknowledgements

This research is partially supported by the research grant entitled “A Field-based Study of Sinhala Nominal Phrase Structure” (17XYY020), which is within the category of The National Social Science Fund of China. We would like to thank Katherine Chen and Sophia Lee for their discussions with us regarding the Cantonese data. And we would also like to extend our gratitude to the anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments, which helped us improve the quality of the paper. All errors are ours.

Abbreviations

AgrP	Agreement Phrase	INDEF	indefinite marker
Arg	Argumental or non-argumental	M	Measure word
ArtP	Article Phrase	NP	Noun Phrase
ASP	aspectual marker	Num ₀ /Num	Number (head)
CL	classifier	NumP	Number Phrase
D^0/D	Definiteness (head)	PL	plural
DEF	definite marker	PRED	predicative or non-predicative
DEM	demonstrative	SPEC	specifier (position)
DP	Definiteness Phrase	SFP	sentence final particle

References

- Acquaviva, Paolo. 2008. *Lexical plurals: A morphosemantic approach*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Alexiadou, Artemis. 2011. The aspectual properties of nominalization structures. In Galani, Alexandra & Hicks, Glyn & Tsoulas, George (eds.), *Morphology and its interfaces* (Linguistik Aktuell/Linguistics Today 178), 195–278. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/la.178.11ale>
- Anderson, Stephen R. 1992. *A-morphous morphology* (Cambridge Studies in Linguistics 62). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511586262>

- Athanasiadou, Ifigeneia & Athanasopoulos, Panos. 2017. Plural mass nouns and the construal of individuation: Crosslinguistic evidence from verbal and nonverbal behaviour in labelling and non-labelling contexts. *Cognitive Semantics* 3(1). 62–94. <https://doi.org/10.1163/23526416-00301003>
- Au Yeung, Wai Hoo. 2005. *An interface program for parameterization of classifiers in Chinese*. Hong Kong: The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology. (Doctoral dissertation.) <https://doi.org/10.14711/thesis-b922442>
- Bošković, Željko. 2005. On the locality of left branch extraction and the structure of NP. *Studia Linguistica* 59(1). 1–45. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9582.2005.00118.x>
- Bošković, Željko. 2008. What will you have, DP or NP? In Elfner, Emily & Walkow, Martin (eds.), *NELS 37: Proceedings of the 37th Annual Meeting of the North East Linguistic Society*, vol. 1, 101–114. Amherst: GLSA.
- Chacón, Dustin Alfonso. 2011. Head movement in the Bangla DP. *Journal of South Asian Linguistics* 4(1). 3–25.
- Cheng, L.-S. Lisa & Sybesma, Rint. 1999. Bare and not-so-bare nouns and the structure of NP. *Linguistic Inquiry* 30(4). 509–542. <https://doi.org/10.1162/002438999554192>
- Chierchia, Gennaro. 1998. Reference to kinds across languages. *Natural Language Semantics* 6(4). 339–405. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008324218506>
- Corbett, Greville G. 2000. *Number*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139164344>
- Doron, Edit & Müller, Ana. 2013. The cognitive basis of the mass-count distinction: Evidence from bare nouns. In Cabredo Hofherr, Patricia & Zribi-Hertz, Anne (eds.), *Crosslinguistic studies on noun phrase structure and reference*, 73–101. Leiden: Brill.
- Ghaniabadi, Saad. 2012. Plural marking beyond count nouns. In Massam, Diane (ed.), *Count and mass across languages*, 112–128. Oxford: Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199654277.003.0007>
- Ghomeshi, Jila. 2003. Plural marking, indefiniteness, and the noun phrase. *Studia Linguistica* 57(2). 47–74. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9582.00099>
- Giusti, Giuliana. 1995. A unified structural representation of (abstract) case and article: Evidence from Germanic. In Haider, Hubert & Olsen, Susan & Vikner, Sten (eds.), *Studies in comparative Germanic syntax* (Studies in Natural Language and Linguistic Theory 31), 77–93. Dordrecht: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-015-8416-6_3
- Giusti, Giuliana. 1997. The categorial status of determiners. In Haegeman, Liliane (ed.), *The new comparative syntax*, 95–123. New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Giusti, Giuliana. 2015. *Nominal syntax at the interfaces: A comparative analysis of languages with articles*. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Her, One-Soon. 2012a. Distinguishing classifiers and measure words: A mathematical perspective and implications. *Lingua* 122(14). 1668–1691. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2012.08.012>
- Her, One-Soon. 2012b. Structure of classifiers and measure words: A lexical functional account. *Language and Linguistics* 13(6). 1211–1251.
- Heycock, Caroline & Zamparelli, Roberto. 2005. Friends and colleagues: Plurality, coordination and the structure of DP. *Natural Language Semantics* 13(3). 201–270. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11050-004-2442-z>
- Huang, Chu-Ren & Ahrens, Kathleen. 2003. Individuals, kinds and events: Classifier coercion of nouns. *Language Sciences* 25(4). 353–373. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0388-0001\(02\)00021-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0388-0001(02)00021-9)
- Iljic, Robert. 1994. Quantification in Mandarin Chinese: Two markers of plurality. *Linguistics* 32(1). 91–116. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ling.1994.32.1.91>

- Iljic, Robert. 2001. The problem of the suffix *-men* in Chinese grammar. *Journal of Chinese Linguistics* 29(1). 11–68.
- Julien, Marit. 2005. *Nominal phrases from a Scandinavian perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/la.87>
- Krifka, Manfred. 1995. Common nouns: A contrastive analysis of Chinese and English. In Carlson, Gregory N. & Pelletier, Francis Jeffrey (eds.), *The generic book*, 398–411. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Krifka, Manfred. 2003. Bare NPs: Kind-referring, indefinites, both, or neither? In Young, Robert B. & Zhou, Yuping (eds.), *Proceedings of the 13th Semantics and Linguistic Theory Conference (SALT XIII)*, 180–203. Ithaca: Cornell University.
- Li, Yen-Hui Audrey. 1998. Argument determiner phrases and number phrases. *Linguistic Inquiry* 29(4). 693–702. <https://doi.org/10.1162/ling.1998.29.4.693>
- Li, Yen-Hui Audrey. 1999. Plurality in a classifier language. *Journal of East Asian Linguistics* 8(1). 75–99. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008306431442>
- Liao, Wei-wen Roger. 2011. *The symmetry of syntactic relations*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California. (Doctoral dissertation.)
- Longobardi, Giuseppe. 1994. Reference and proper names: A theory of N-movement in syntax and logical form. *Linguistic Inquiry* 25(4). 609–665.
- Lyons, Christopher. 1999. *Definiteness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511605789>
- Matthews, Stephen & Yip, Virginia. 2011. *Cantonese: A comprehensive grammar*. 2nd edn. London: Routledge.
- Ojeda, Almerindo E. 2005. The paradox of mass plurals. In Mufwene, Salikoko S. & Francis, Elaine J. & Wheeler, Rebecca S. (eds.), *Polymorphous linguistics: Jim McCawley's legacy*, 389–410. Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- Rijkhoff, Jan. 1999. When can a language have adjectives? An implicational universal. In Vogel, Petra M. & Comrie, Bernard (eds.), *Approaches to the typology of word classes*, 217–257. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Rijkhoff, Jan. 2002. *The noun phrase*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780198237822.001.0001>
- Roehrs, Dorian. 2009. *Demonstratives and definite articles as nominal auxiliaries*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/la.140>
- Rothstein, Susan. 2017. *Semantics for counting and measuring: Key topics in semantics and pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9780511734830>
- Rullmann, Hotze & You, Aili. 2006. General number and the semantics and pragmatics of indefinite bare nouns in Mandarin Chinese. In Von Stechow, Klaus & Turner, Ken (eds.), *Where semantics meets pragmatics*, 175–196. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Steindl, Ulrike. 2010. *Grammatical issues in the Chinese classifier system: The case of classifier reduplication*. Vienna: Universität Wien. (Master's thesis.)
- Stowell, Tim. 1989. Subjects, specifiers and X-bar theory. In Baltin, Mark R. & Kroch, Anthony S. (eds.), *Alternative conceptions of phrase structure*, 232–262. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Stowell, Tim. 1991. Determiners in NP and DP. In Leffel, Katherine & Bouchard, Denis (eds.), *Views on phrase structure (Studies in Natural Language and Linguistic Theory 25)*, 37–56. Dordrecht: Kluwer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-011-3196-4_3
- Szabolcsi, Anna. 1983. The possessor that ran away from home. *The Linguistic Review* 3(1). 89–102. <https://doi.org/10.1515/tlir.1983.3.1.89>

- Szabolcsi, Anna. 1992. Combinatory grammar and projection from the lexicon. In Sag, Ivan A. & Szabolcsi, Anna (eds.), *Lexical matters* (CSLI Lecture Notes 24), 241–268. Stanford: CSLI.
- Szabolcsi, Anna. 1994. The noun phrase. In Kiefer, Ferenc & Kiss, Katalin E. (eds.), *The syntactic structure of Hungarian* (Syntax and Semantics 27), 179–274. New York: Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004373174_004
- Tang, Sze-Wing. 2001. Nominal predication and focus anchoring. In Jäger, Gerhard & Strigin, Anatoli & Wilder, Chris & Zhang, Niina (eds.), *Papers on predicative constructions: Proceedings of the Workshop on Secondary Predication* (ZAS Papers in Linguistics 22), 159–172. Berlin: Leibniz-Zentrum Allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft.
- Tsoulas, George. 2006. Plurality of mass nouns and the grammar of number. (Paper presented at the 29th GLOW Colloquium, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, 6–8 April 2006.)
- Tsoulas, George. 2009. On the grammar of number and mass terms in Greek. In Halpert, Clair & Hartman, Jeremy & Hill, David (eds.), *MIT Working Papers in Linguistics: Proceedings of the 2007 Workshop in Greek Syntax and Semantics at MIT*, vol. 57, 333–348. Cambridge: MIT Working Papers in Linguistics.
- Vinet, Marie-Thérèse & Liu, Xiaoyan. 2008. Plurality in Chinese with a restricted class of noun-classifier words. In Clarke, Sarah & Hirayama, Manami & Kim, Kyumin & Suh, Eugenia (eds.), *Toronto Working Papers in Linguistics 28: Proceedings of the International Conference on East Asian Linguistics*, 357–373. Toronto: Toronto Working Papers in Linguistics.
- Watanabe, Akira. 2017. The mass/count distinction in Japanese from the perspective of partitivity. *Glossa: A Journal of General Linguistics* 2(1), 1–26. (Article 98). <https://doi.org/10.5334/gjgl.116>
- Wei, Ting-Chi. 2007. Nominal predicates in Mandarin Chinese. *Taiwan Journal of Linguistics* 5(2), 85–130.
- Yang, Rong. 2001. *Common nouns, classifiers, and quantification in Chinese*. New Brunswick: Rutgers University. (Doctoral dissertation.)
- Zhang, Niina Ning. 2013. *Classifier structures in Mandarin Chinese*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110304992>

Authors' addresses

Jiajuan Xiong (corresponding author)
 School of Foreign Languages for Business
 Southwestern University of Finance and Economics
 C411B Tongbo Building
 No. 555 Liutai Avenue, Wenjiang District
 Chengdu, Sichuan 611130
 China
 jiajuanx@gmail.com

Publication history

Date received: 8 June 2017

Date accepted: 14 October 2018