

Sentence Analysis, Valency, and the Concept of Adject

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Notes

1. I shall not in this article comment on the extension of the theory to include subject and object complement. A brief argument against this to my mind most controversial extension can be found in my article on adjectives and adverbials as valency bearers (Heltoft 1995).

2. Sections 5-7 are English adaptations of the outline also presented in Danish in Heltoft (1996).

The locative argument Ole Tøgeby

Contents:

1. The grammatical terminology and the term *adject*
2. The layers of linguistic description
3. Grammatical constituents of the sentence
4. Relational constituents of the predication
5. Definitions of seven types of predicates and three types of arguments
6. Satellites
7. Conclusion

1. The grammatical terminology and the term *adject*

This article is about the theory of adject, but I will not discuss the substance of the theory. I will only argue that the newly coined term *adject* (Herslund & Sørensen 1993a, b) is a misnomer, and that the name *locative argument* is a much better term, well suited to a consistent theory of the relational constituents of the predication kernel: predicate, arguments and satellites.

The term *adject* is coined by analogy with the terms *subject* and *object* and is in this way meant to be at the same level of abstraction. It is my claim that the theory is not at the same level of abstraction as subject and object, but at the same level as *agent* or DO-argument, and *neutral argument* or BE-argument, and consequently ought to be called the *locative argument* or LOC-argument.

The etymological meaning of the terms *subject* and *object* is from Latin *sub* + *ject* = 'thrown under' and *ob* + *ject* = 'thrown before', and so *adject* should have the meaning *ad* + *ject* = 'thrown to'.

The idea behind the grammatical use of the word *subject* can be seen from the other senses of the word (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, Third Edition. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1992):

1. One who is under the rule of another or others, especially one who owes allegiance to a government or ruler.
2. One concerning which something is said or done: *She is a subject of gossip in the office.*
3. A course or area of study: *Math is her best subject.*

4. A basis for action; a cause.
5. One that experiences or is subjected to something: *They made him the subject of ridicule.*
7. Logic. The term of a proposition about which something is affirmed or denied.
8. Philosophy. a. The essential nature or substance of something as distinguished from its attributes. b. The mind or thinking part as distinguished from the object of thought.

From these definitions it can be seen that the word *subject*, with reference to a linguistic phenomenon, can have many meanings at the same time. There is the grammatical meaning: 'the constituent which is under the rule of the verb'; the semantic meanings: 'the basis for the action; the cause', 'the person that experiences or is subjected to something', and 'substance of something as distinguished from its attributes' and the discourse structure meaning: 'the topic concerning which something is said'.

In the grammatical tradition *subject* has become to mean only:

'the noun, noun phrase, or pronoun that denotes what is described by the predicate and that in some languages, such as English and Danish, can be identified by its characteristic position in simple sentences and in other languages, such as Latin, by inflectional endings'.

The word *object* has according to the dictionary the following meanings not related to grammar:

1. Something perceptible by one or more of the senses, especially by vision or touch; a material thing.
2. A focus of attention, feeling, thought, or action: *an object of contempt.*
3. The purpose, aim, or goal of a specific action or effort: *the object of the game.*
5. Philosophy. Something intelligible or perceptible by the mind.

In these definitions there are again many possible linguistic meanings: grammatical: 'the constituent thrown before the verb'; the semantic meanings: 'the perceived thing' and 'the purpose, aim or goal of the action'; and the discourse meaning: 'focus of attention'. And again the linguistic meaning of *object* has been reduced to:

'a noun, noun phrase or pronoun that is affected by the action of a verb within a sentence and that in some languages, such as English and Danish, can be identified by its characteristic position in simple sentences and in other languages, such as Latin, by inflectional endings'.

The word *adject* can according to the etymology 'thrown to' have many interesting linguistic meanings, among them the meaning 'a word subordinated to the noun within a noun phrase' which is the meaning of the word *adjective*. But this is not the meaning of the new term *adject*.

Following the pattern of *subject* and *object* the grammatical meaning of the word *adject* is likely to be reduced to :

'a noun, noun phrase, or pronoun representing the person or thing to the benefit of whom the object is affected within the sentence and which in some languages, such as English and Danish, can be identified by its characteristic position in simple sentences and in other languages, such as Latin, by inflectional endings'.

That is in fact not what is meant by the word *adject*. What is meant I will show in an exposition of a coherent theory of the relational structure of the predication kernel. Here I will define the concept LOC-argument, which as far as I can see has all of the relevant properties ascribed to the *adject*.

2. Two layers of grammatical description

A distinction between grammatical constituents and relational constituents is defined on the following grounds.

The morphemes of a sentence are classified into **grammatical morphemes** in closed paradigms (columns): endings (verbal, nominal and adjectival), particles, auxiliaries, prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions, and **semantic morphemes** in infinite paradigms: the themes of verbs, nouns and adjectives.

Grammatical constituents are defined by dependency (or grammatical subordination) of only grammatical morphemes and sequential positions. Syntactic constituents are in Danish: the front constituent (F), the verbal constituents: the nonfinite verb (v), infinite verb (V), the nominal constituents: subject (n), object, indirect object or complement (N) and adverbials: attitudinal adverbials (aa) and operator adverbials (oa), relational adverbials (ra), manner adverbials (M) and particle adverbials (p). Verbs are divided into auxiliaries and main verbs, and main verbs are subdivided into intransitive verbs, transitive verbs and ditransitive verbs.

Grammatical structures have three aspects of meaning: informational meaning, interactional meaning and relational meaning. Informational meaning deals with 'the topic', 'the

comment' and 'the focus', 'the presuppositions', 'the implicatures' and 'the aim' of the utterance. Interactional structure deals with the 'illocutionary force indicator', 'attitudes', 'questions' and 'imperatives' of the speech act. Informational structure and interactional structure will not be discussed in this article.

Relational constituents bear the ideational meaning of the predication; they are defined by dependency between grammatical morphemes and semantic morphemes. Relational constituents are: predicates (P), manner adverbials (M), arguments (A) and satellites (S). Predicates are subdivided into monovalent, divalent and trivalent types, and arguments are subdivided into the DO-argument, the BE-argument and the LOC-argument.

Semantic relations, known as selectional rules, hold between the relational constituents of the predication, not between syntactic constituents of the sentence. The argument of the predicate *indgå* 'enter into', 'form' has to be a noun denoting a proposition; it is nonsense or metaphorical to say: *han indgik græsser* 'he entered into the grass'. Selectional rules will not be discussed further in this article.

In the following I will define grammatical constituents of the sentence and subsequently (4-6) the relational constituents of the predication.

3. Grammatical constituents of the sentence

Grammatical relations defined by grammatical dependency (or grammatical subordination) among the grammatical morphemes and by word order are the following:

The **fronted constituent** is in Danish one and only one of the constituents of the sentence (the finite verb, the verb phrase, the subject, the object, the indirect object, the complement or an adverbial). Together with the finite verb it serves as a semantic space builder (TOPIC) which defines the time, place, topics and reality of the semantic space of the sentence. Thus the finite verb in the front position means question or imperative.

The **finite verb** (v) is the verb within the sentence in the present tense, past tense or imperative. In main clauses it is placed in the second position, immediately after the fronted constituent. Together with the subject the finite verb constitutes the sentence as a sentence.

The **main verb** (v or V), which is the last verb occurring in the sentence, is from a syntactical point of view subclassified into four transitivity classes depending on the number of obligatory immediate nominal constituents attached to them and their possibility of passive

constructions (a distinction is made between "straight passive", e.g., *hun ramte bolden* 'she hit the ball' - *bolden blev ramt af hende*, 'the ball was hit by her', and *der-passive*, e.g., *børnene sov* 'the children were sleeping' - *der blev sovet*).

Intransitive verbs combine with one subject and no object and have no straight passives, e.g., *bomben eksploderede* 'the bomb exploded', *børnene sov* 'the children are sleeping', *hun så på ham* 'she looked at him', *hun rejser til Rom* 'she travels to Rome', *hun bor i Paris* 'she lives in Paris', *hun stampede med foden i jorden* 'she stamped the ground with her foot'. **Transitive verbs** combine with one subject, one object and no indirect object and have both active and passive constructions, e.g., *hun så ham* 'she saw him', *hun fyldte reolen med bøger* 'she filled the bookcase with books', *hun fyldte døren i reolen* 'she filled books into the bookcase', *hun lukkede døren op* 'she opened the door'. **Ditransitive verbs** combine with one subject, one object and one indirect object and have passive forms, e.g., *vi ønsker jer en god jul* 'we wish you a merry Christmas', *de kaldte ham Mads* 'they called him Mads', *hun malede porten rød* 'she painted the gate red'. **Copulative verbs** combine with one subject and one subject complement. They do not have a passive forms, e.g., *porten er rød* 'the gate is red', *han er bager* 'he is a baker', *bogen koster 4 kr.* 'the book costs 4 kroner', *festen varede i 3 timer* 'the party lasted 3 hours'.

The **predicate** consists in Danish not only of the auxiliaries and functional verbs plus the main verb, but also of particles, prepositions, adverbs and nouns incorporated in the predicate, e.g.: *ville være kommet* 'would have come', *lukke op* 'open up', *holde op med* 'stop', *tænker på* 'think of', *bo i* 'live in', *trille med* 'roll with', *lægge vægt på* 'attach weight to'. The nominal complements (N), e.g. *Paris*, of such an incorporating predicate as *hun boede i Paris* 'she lived in Paris', cannot be the subject of a passive sentence, e.g. **Paris boedes i af hende* 'Paris was lived in by her', and are consequently not called objects, but **prepositional objects**, although they have the same position.

The **subject** is in Danish the nominal constituent which together with the finite verb constitutes the sentence; the subject and the finite verb are mutually dependent. Neither the verb nor the subject plays by itself the role of the sentence. The subject is in the nominative case if the case is marked. The subject is the noun phrase in the front position or the first noun following the fronted constituent.

The **object** is in Danish the nominal constituent which is subordinated to the (main) verb; this means that the unit of verb and object plays the role of a verb in relation to the subject, the verb can play the role alone, but the noun phrase alone cannot play the role of a verb. The object is in the non-nominative case if the case is marked. The object is positioned in the front position or in the last nominal position in the sentence.

Translations: She looked at him/She saw him/He painted the gate red/The room was by her
filled with books/She filled the room with books/She would have given him the books/She
taught him to write.

4. Relational constituents of the predication

The relational constituents are defined by the dependencies among the grammatical morphemes (the endings and functional word classes), and the semantic morphemes (the themes of the nouns, verbs, adjectives and prepositions). From a semantic point of view the predication consists of a predicational kernel and a number of optional satellites (S) indicating circumstantials (time, place and conditions) of the predicational kernel. The kernel consists of a predicate and one, two or three obligatory arguments (their number dependent on the valency of the predicate). The predicate consists of the predicate and an optional manner adverbial. I shall say no more about the manner adverbials here.

$$\text{predication}[\text{kernel}(\text{P}(\text{A}_{1-3})\text{S})]$$

The relational constituents correspond to the grammatical constituents in the following way:

grammatical constituents of the sentence	relational constituents of the predication
verb phrases: auxiliaries + main verb + particle(s) or preposition(s) + noun + preposition(s) deverbal noun adjective	predicate
nominal sentence constituents: subject direct object indirect object subject complement object complement adverbial constituents: prepositional objects (prepositional complements) adverbs	arguments
adverbials prepositional phrases adverbs subclauses	satellites
manner adverbs	manner adverbials

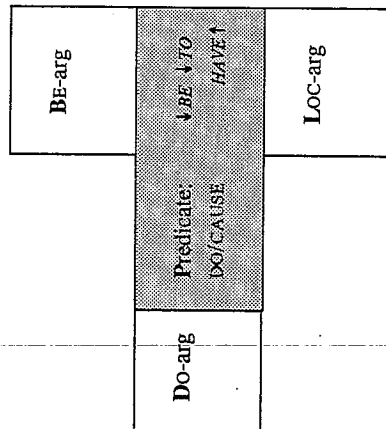
The predicates (which correspond to verb phrases, not to verbs) are subdivided into monovalent, divalent and trivalent predicates, depending on the number of semantically obligatory arguments.

The arguments of the predicational kernel are subcategorized into three types: the **BE-argument** (B), the thing which is referred to as being, becoming or remaining; the **DO-argument** (D), the person or thing referred to as doing or causing something; and the **LOC-argument** (L), the person, thing, concept or place being referred to as where the action is directed to or as having something (for formal definitions see below).

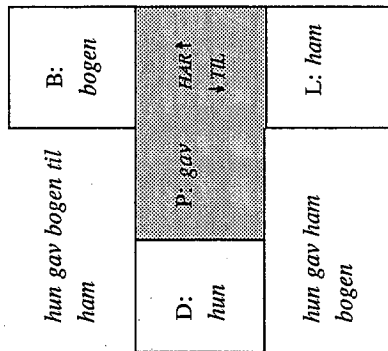
The satellites of the predication are of different types denoting:

TIME, PLACE, DURATION, INSTRUMENT, COMPANION, MATERIAL, AIM, RESULT, CONDITION, CAUSE.

The kernel of the predication (**P(A_{1,3})**), which consists of the predicate and one, two or three arguments, is illustrated by the following diagram:

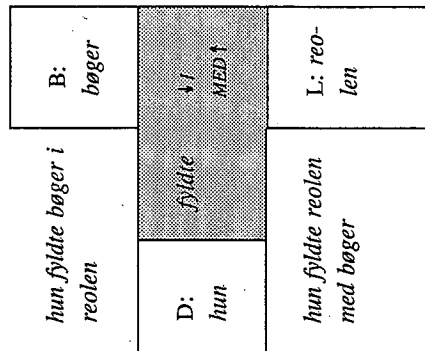


In the case of trivalent predicates, e.g. *hun gav bogen til ham* 'she gave the book to him' = *hun gav ham bogen* 'she gave him the book', the relation 'is' or 'to' holds between the BE-argument (the direct object) and the LOC-argument (the prepositional object), or the relation 'HAS' or 'WITH' holds between the LOC-argument (the indirect object) and the BE-argument (the direct object), and because IS AT and HAS are in fact mirror-image predicates it is the same relation realized in two different ways:



The relations are documented by the possibility of paraphrase: *hun gav ham bogen* = 'hun sørgede for at han fik bogen' (she saw to it that he got the book); *hun gav bogen til ham* = 'hun sørgede for at bogen kom til ham' (she saw to it that the book got to him)

The same trivalent predicates can be realized by constructions with direct object and two different types of prepositional objects: *Hun fyldte bøger i reolen* = 'hun sørgede for at der kom bøger i reolen' (she saw to it that books got into the bookcase) and *hun fyldte reolen med bøger* = 'hun sørgede for at reolen rummede bøger' (she saw to it that the bookcase contained books).



Active and passive sentences are seen as two different realizations of the same divalent relational structure: *hun_D så ham_B* (she saw him) = *han_B blev set (af hende_D)*; (he was seen (by her)).

Divalent structures can be either of the type DO-argument + predicate + BE-argument or of the type DO-argument + predicate + LOC-argument, respectively realized as subject (D) + verb (P) + object (B) or as subject (D) + verb (P) + prepositional object (L), abbreviated: DPB and DPP_L, e.g.: *hun_D så ham_B* = *han_B blev set (af hende_D)*; *hun_D så på ham_L* = *der*

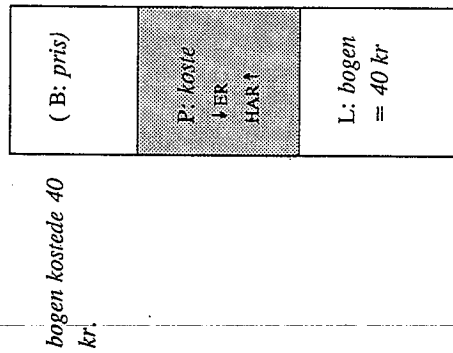
blev (af hende_p) set på ham_i (gloss: there was (by her) looked at him).

In this last case, in which a *der*-passive is possible although the verb is intransitive, it is necessary to assume that the sentence is constructed with an implicit, indefinite (etymological) BE-argument: *hun så på ham* = 'hun lod øjne hvile på ham' (she looked at him/she let her glance dwell on him); *hun rejste til Rom* = 'hun gjorde en rejse til Rom' (she travelled to Rome/she made a journey to Rome). In this way DPpL-constructions are analysed as abbreviated trivalent structures: DP(B)pL.

In the same way the *der*-passive of intransitive verbs is explained by an implicit indefinite etymological prepositional object: *børnene_p sov (på sovesale_i)* (the children slept (in dormitories)) = *der blev (af børnene_p) sovet på sovesale_i*.

Intransitives with no *der*-passive are constructions only with a BE-argument: *bomben_a eksploderede* 'the bomb exploded', *bladene_a faldt* 'the leaves were falling'. In this case we can have active *der*-constructions with implicit LOC-arguments: *der eksploderede bomber_a (på gaden_i)*; *der faldt blade_a (ned_i)*. So it is postulated that there are no true monovalent constructions other than: *det regnede* 'it was raining', *det sneede* 'it was snowing'.

The copulative constructions (in which the predicate has the meaning 'equals') are explained as $L_{\text{subject}} + \text{predicate}_{\text{copula}} + L_{\text{complement}}$ with an implicit etymological BE-argument: *bogen kostede 40 kroner*, 'the book cost 40 kroner' = 'bogen havde en pris på (som var) 40 kr', 'bogens pris var 40 kr'. This type of construction is illustrated by a diagram:



All sentences with a subject predicate are explained in this way: *porten er rød* 'the gate is red' = 'porten har en farve som er rød'; *han er bager* = 'he is a baker', 'han har den profession at være bager'; *bogen vejer 3 kg* = 'the book weight 3 kilos' = 'bogen har en vægt på (som er) 3 kg'; *kroningen fandt sted maj 1523* = 'the coronation took place in May 1523' = 'kroningens tidspunkt var maj 1523'.

5. Definition of seven types of predicates and three types of arguments

The predicates are classified into seven subclasses by cross-classification of the syntactic transitivity of the verbs they are actualized by, and by their own semantic valency. (For convenience the argument types are indicated for each type; they are not part of the definition. The abbreviations are read as follows: P = predicate, p = preposition incorporated in the predicate, D = the DO-argument; B = the BE-argument, L = the LOC-argument.)

valency	monovalent	divalent	trivalent
transitivity			DPLpB DFBpL
intransitives DP(B)(pL) a) no pass. b) <i>der</i> -pass	1a) <i>bomben eksplo- derede</i> 1b) <i>børnene sov</i> (etymological obj)	2) <i>hun så på ham</i> ; <i>hun rejste til Rom</i> <i>hun boede i Paris</i>	3) <i>hun stampede med foden i jorden</i>
transitives DP B/L (pL)/B		4) <i>hun så ham</i>	5a) <i>hun fyldte te reolen med bøger</i> (= vb) 5b) <i>hun fyldte bøger i reolen</i> (= vb) <i>hun malede rødt på porten</i> (= vi) <i>hun gav bogen til ham</i> (= vi)
ditransitives DPLB a) doub. pass. b) sng. pass.			6a) (dbl pas.) <i>vi ønsker jer en god jul</i> 6b) (sng. pas) <i>de kaldte ham Mads</i> <i>hun malede porten rød</i>
copulatives no passives LP(B)L			7) <i>porten er rød</i> ; <i>bogen koster 4 kr</i> ; <i>festen varede i fire timer</i> (= <i>festen havde en varighed på 4 timer</i>)

These seven predicate types are described in the following:

- 1) intransitive: no object; monovalent: no prepositional object
a) no passive: DP
bomben eksploderede - **der eksploderedes (med bomber)*
b) etymological object, *der*-passive: DP - P
børnene sov søvnen - *der blev sovet*

- 2) intransitive: no object; divalent: one prepositional object, *der*-passive: DPpL-PpLpD
hun så på ham 'she looked at him' - *der blev set på ham* - ?*han blev set på*

- 3) intransitive, no object; trivalent: two prepositional objects, *der*-passive: DPpBpL-PpBpL

hun stampede med foden i jorden 'she stamped the ground with her foot' - *der blev stampet med fødderne i jorden*
hun malede med rød på porten 'she painted (with) red on the gate' - *der blev malet med rød på porten*

- 4) transitive: one object; divalent: no prepositional object, straight passive:
 DPB-BPpD
hun så ham - *han blev set af hende* (she saw him/he was seen by her)
hun fældede træet - *træet blev fældet af hende* (she felled the tree/the tree was felled by her)
- 5) transitive: one object; trivalent: one prepositional object; straight passive:
 a) prepositional object with *med*, DPLpB - LPpBpD, no *der*-passive
hun fyldte reolen med bøger 'she filled the bookcase with books' - *reolen blev fyldt med bøger* - *?der blev fyldt reoler med bøger
 b) prepositional object with loc.prep: *til/i/på/fra/før*: DPBpL- BPpLpD, also *der*-passive: PBpLpD
hun fyldte bøgerne i reolen - *bøgerne blev fyldt i reolen* - *der blev fyldt bøger i reolen*
hun underviste ham i at læse 'she taught him reading'; *hun tog bøgerne fra ham* 'she took the books from him'; *hun slettede krydset på porten* 'she erased the cross on the gate'; *hun betalte 20 kr for bogen* 'she paid 20 kr for the book; *hun malede rød på porten*, 'she painted red on the gate'; *hun fortalte ham om ulykken* 'she told him about the accident' - *han blev fortalt om ulykken* - *der blev fortalt ham om ulykken*
- 6) ditransitive: two objects; trivalent: no prepositional objects:
 a) double passive: DPLB - BPLpD or LPBpD
Vi ønsker jer en god jul 'we wish you a merry Christmas' - *I ønskes en god jul* - *en god jul ønskes jer*
hun lærte ham at læse 'she taught him to read' - *han blev (fik) lært at læse* - *det blev lært ham at læse*
 b) object complement - only straight passive: DPLB_{adv}/B_{compl}
hun malede porten rød 'she painted the gate red' - *porten blev malet rød*
- du må kalde mig Mads 'you can call me Mads' - *jeg blev kaldt Mads*
 'I was called Mads'.
- 7) copulative: one complement; pseudo trivalent: no prepositional object, no passive: LPpL
festen varede i 4 timer 'the party lasted 4 hours' - *festen havde en varighed af (som var) 4 timer* - *der varedes i fire timer
bogen koster 4 kr 'the book costs 4 kr.' - *bogen har en pris af (som er) 4 kr.*
 *4 kr: *kostes af bogen*
porten er rød 'the gate is red' - *porten har en farve som er rød* - *der veres rød

The active and passive constructions are illustrated by the following chart:

P = predicate, p = preposition incorporated in the predicate, D = the DO- argument; B = the BE-argument, L = the LOC-argument

	active	passive	
1) intrans. BP	<i>bomben eksploderede;</i>		
DP	<i>børnene sov</i>	<i>der soves (på sovesale)</i>	P
2) intrans. DPpL	<i>hun så på ham</i> <i>hun så på at han kom</i> <i>hun rejste til Rom</i>	<i>der blev set på ham (?af hende)</i> <i>der blev set på at han kom</i> <i>der blev rejst til Rom</i>	PpLpD
3) intrans DPpBpL	<i>hun stampede med foden i jorden</i>	<i>der blev stampet med foden i jorden af hende</i>	PpBpL-pD
4) transitive DPB	<i>hun så ham</i> <i>hun så at han kom</i> <i>han lærte at skrive</i>	<i>han blev set af hende</i> <i>det blev set af hende at han kom</i> <i>han fik lært at skrive</i>	BPpD
5a) transitive DPLpB	<i>hun fyldte værelset med bøger</i> <i>han ramte hende med bolden</i> <i>hun bad ham om at gå</i> <i>hun underviste ham i at skrive</i>	<i>værelset blev af hende fyldt med bøger</i> <i>hun blev ramt af ham med bolden</i> <i>han blev af hende bedt om at gå</i> <i>han blev undervist i at skrive</i>	LPpDpB
5b) transitive DPBpL	<i>hun gav bogen til ham</i> <i>hun fyldte bøger i reolen</i> <i>han trillede bolden ned ad bakken</i> <i>hun malede rød på porten</i>	<i>bogen blev givet til ham af hende</i> <i>bøgerne blev fyldt i reolen</i> <i>bolden blev af ham trillet ned ad bakken</i> <i>det røde blev af hende malet på porten</i> <i>der blev af hende malet rød på porten</i>	BPpLpD
6a) ditransitive DPLB	<i>hun forærede ham bogen</i> <i>hun lærte ham at skrive</i>	<i>bogen blev foræret ham af hende</i> <i>det blev lært ham at skrive</i> _____ <i>han blev foræret bogen af hende</i> <i>han blev lært at skrive</i>	BPLpD _____ LPBpD
6b) ditransitive DPLB	<i>han malede porten rød</i> <i>du må kalde mig Mads</i>	<i>Porten blev malet rød af hende</i> <i>han blev kaldt Mads af dem</i>	LPBpD
7 copulative LPpL	<i>festen varede i 4 timer</i> <i>låsen hører til cyklen</i> <i>bolden trillede ned ad Bakken</i>	<i>bogen tilhører hende; hun hedder Ulla;</i> <i>den kostede 3 kr.; bogen vejer 4 kilo;</i> <i>porten er rød</i>	LPL

The three types of arguments are defined by their syntactic role in relation to the seven types of predicates in the following way:

DO-arguments are subjects of active predicates of type 1 - 6, and optional *af*-prepositional arguments of the passive forms of the same predicates.

BE-arguments are the objects of active predicates of type 4, 5b, 6a and 6b, subjects of the passive predicates of type 4 and 5b, and *med*-prepositional object of active and passive predicates of type 3 and 5a.

LOC-arguments are subjects and complements of predicates of type 7, prepositional objects of predicates of type 2 and 3, subjects of the passive predicates of type 5a and 6b, and possible subjects of the passive form of type 6a.

6. Satellites

The predication consists of a predication kernel and a number of optional satellites (S) indicating circumstantials (time, place and conditions) of the predication kernel. The kernel consists of a predicate and one, two or three obligatory arguments (their number dependent on the valency of the predicate).

$[P(A_1,3)S^n]$

Since both arguments and satellites can be realized as prepositional phrases, it is necessary to distinguish between them on the following grounds:

Arguments are

- semantically obligatory elements in the predication,
- their types are dependent on the type of the predicate, and
- they are, as non-subjects, inside the scope of the negation (the operator adverbial).

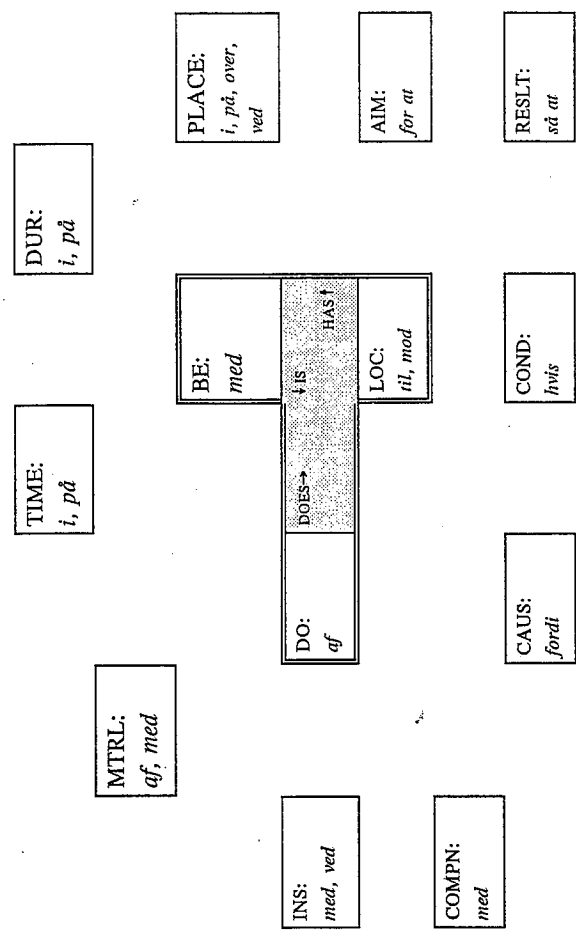
Satellites are

- semantically optional elements in the predication,
- their types are independent of the type of the predicate,
- and they can be both inside and outside the scope of the negation (either the Aposition or the a-position)

The satellites are of different types denoting:

- TIME, PLACE, DURATION, INSTRUMENT, COMPANION, MATERIAL, AIM, RESULT, CONDITION, CAUSE.

The system of satellites and arguments is illustrated in the following diagram:



denotes the predication kernel with one, two or three obligatory and dependent arguments

indicates an optional independent satellite

Examples of satellites:

De_D maledede portene_L rød_B i fredags_{TIME} for at den skulle være pæn_{AIM} (They painted the gate red last Friday in order that it should look nice)

Hun_D ville give ham_L bogen_B hvis han ville læse den_{COND} (She would give him the book if he would read it)

Han_D savede sammen med sin ven_{COMP} træet_B over med den nye sav_{INST} (Together with his friend he sawed through the tree with the new saw)

Hun_D sov i en time_{DUR} før festen_{TIME} så at hun ikke blev træt_{RESULT} (She slept for an hour before the party so that she wouldn't get tired)

Om vinteren_{TIME} parkerer jeg_D i byen_{PLACE} altid min vogn_B i parkeringshus_{LOC} i Italien_{PLACE} (In winter in town I always park my car in a multi-storey car park in Italy)

Notice the following: Some predicates take PLACE-constituent as their LOC-argument: *hun boede i Paris* 'she lived in Paris'; *han parkerede i parkeringshuset* 'He parked in the multi-storey car park'. Some predicates take the DUR-constituent as their LOC-argument: *festen varede i en uge* 'the party lasted a week'. Some arguments take the MATR-constituent as their LOC-argument: *kassens vægge bestod af papir* 'the walls of the box were of paper'.

It is questionable whether the satellites INS, COMP, MATR in all cases can be reduced to arguments of certain predicates. Example: *Søren skar pølsen (over) med kniven* 'Søren cut the salami (in two) with the knife' has the paraphrase: 'Søren håndterede kniven til at skære pølsen til skiver' and could have the analysis: *Søren_{to} skar pølsen₃ (over) med kniven_{to}*

7. Conclusion

Using most of the arguments in support of the concept 'adject', I have shown that the concept 'locative argument' fits perfectly in the theory of the relational structure of predication. The concept of 'locative argument' is on the same level of abstraction as the concepts 'predicate', 'DO-argument' and the 'BE-argument' defined by the cross classification of the transitivity type of the verb and the valency type of the predicate, and not at the same level of abstraction as concepts such as 'subject', 'object', 'indirect object', finite verb and 'main verb' which are defined solely by morphological classification (word classes) and topological order.

Consequently I have nothing against the idea of 'adject'. I only suggest that it be called *locative argument* instead of *adject*.

References

- Herslund, M. & F. Sørensen, ed. 1993 a. *The Nordlex Project. Lexical Studies in the Scandinavian Languages*. LAMBDA 18. Copenhagen Business School.
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Discussion

Michael Herslund and Finn Sørensen

The very title, and tone, of the paper by Lene Schøster (LS) reveals a profound, perhaps even insurmountable, difference in our approaches which threatens to make any discussion futile. Nobody would claim, we believe, that dessert and cheese are not different things. But nobody could deny either that they are, in the three-course menu described, functionally equivalent: they are the alternative manifestations of the last course, just as soup and pâté are certainly not the same thing but nevertheless both "entrées", and thus functionally equivalent. The same reasoning can be applied to grammatical description: however superficially different they are, certain phrases can be seen as alternative manifestations of the same GR. Locatives and datives are of course not the same thing, but their alternating occurrence in the same context, as in French after a verb like *envoyer* 'send', i.e. their paradigmatic equivalence, overrides their syntagmatic difference:

<i>envoyer</i>	{	Locative
		Dative

The fact that e.g. case forms are different - that is the whole point of it - has never stopped anyone from recognising them as different manifestations of the same category, viz. case:

<i>domin</i>	{	-i:
		-o:

Why should exactly the same reasoning be banned from the syntactic description of GRs?

Sometimes case forms are identical (neutralisation):

<i>domin</i>	{	-o: (Dative)
		-o: (Ablative)

just as certain manifestations of paradigmatically equivalent GRs can be identical:

<i>envoyer qn.</i>	{	<i>à Paris</i>
		<i>à sa sœur</i>

The reason why neutralised case forms are nevertheless recognised as different cases is that they are distinguished in other contexts (in other paradigms):

<i>domin</i>	{	-ae (Dative)
		-a: (Ablative)

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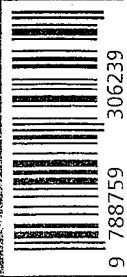
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