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LINKING THE SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC REPRESENTATION OF COMPLEX STRUCTURES WITHIN THE OLD ENGLISH DOMAIN OF SPEECH¹

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1. Introduction: the concept of *lexical template* within the Functional-Lexematic Model

The Functional-Lexematic Model (FLM), developed by Martín Mingorance (1998) and inspired by the principle of *Stepwise Lexical Decomposition* (Dik 1978), has been devised for the purpose of supplying the Functional Grammar (FG) lexicon with the onomasiological classification of lexemes within domains and subdomains, and as a way of reflecting the organisation of our mental lexicon and demonstrating the close relationship between syntax and semantics (Martín Mingorance 1998; Faber and Mairal Usón: 1994, 1997a, 1997b, 1999).

According to the paradigmatic axis of the FLM based on the principles of Lexematics (Coseriu 1978, 1981), the criteria for integrating a given lexeme in a (sub-) domain are based on its lexical decomposition, in such a way that the definition of the lexeme must contain a nuclear word, shared by the group of lexemes that integrate that (sub-)domain, and a set of differentiating features which establish functional oppositions between the lexemes of the (sub-)domain.

The syntagmatic axis of the FLM was initially based on the FG notion of predicate frame. Nevertheless, Cortés Rodríguez and Mairal Usón (2001, forthcoming), Cortés Rodríguez and Pérez Quintero (2001), Faber and Mairal Usón (2000),

Accordingly, these authors suggest the enrichment of FG predicate frames by applying Role and Reference Grammar (RRG) logical structures along with the notion of semantic macroroles instead of the FG inventory of semantic functions, the result being a procedure of lexical representation where meaning description is encapsulated and interacts with the syntactic behaviour of lexical units.²

Thus, lexical templates are designed as a way of including semantic and syntactic information within the same format, reflecting generalisations across lexical classes and reducing the information to be included in lexical entries. Moreover, given the fact that subdomains are considered repositories of linguistic regularities, the authors mentioned above propose that each domain and subdomain should be characterised by a lexical template from which syntactic alternations will be predicted.

In order to construct a *lexical template*, the logical structures developed by Van Valin and LaPolla (1997) within the theoretical frame of RRG will be complemented by the semantic component of the FLM, since logical structures lack the semantic information characteristic of the different lexical (sub-)domains. Thus, "lexical templates conflate both syntactic information (those aspects of the meaning of a word which are grammatically relevant) and semantic information (those aspects which act as distinctive parameters within a whole lexical class) into one unified representation" (Faber and Mairal Usón 2000:7).

2. Role and Reference Grammar logical structures

Within RRG, four classes of verbal predicates are distinguished: states [+static] [telic] [-punctual], activities [-static] [-telic] [-punctual], achievements [-static] [+telic] [+punctual], and accomplishments (or active accomplishments) [-static] [+telic] [-punctual], together with their causative counterparts. This classification of verbal predicates based on their *Aktionsart* will allow for the capture of syntactic phenomena (combinatory possibilities of predicates) and morphological phenomena (transitivity and case assignment) characteristic of the different verbal classes.

These are the lexical representations corresponding to the verbal classes mentioned above (Van Valin and LaPolla 1997: 109):

Verb class	Logical structure	
State	predicate' (x) or (x, y)	
Activity	do'(x, [predicate'(x) or (x, y)])	
Achievement	INGR predicate' (x) or (x, y), or	
	INGR do'(x, [predicate'(x) or (x, y)])	
Accomplishment	BECOME predicate' (x) or (x, y), or	
	BECOME do'(x, [predicate'(x) or (x, y)])	
Active accomplishment	do'(x, [predicate ₁ '(x, (y))]) & BECOME predicate ₂ '(z, x) or (y)	
Causative	α CAUSES β where α , β are LS of any type	

Table 1. Lexical representations for Aktionsart classes

In order to attain the argument structure of a verb, it is necessary to determine firstly its *Aktionsart*, from which its logical structure will be created and along with it its argument structure. Van Valin and LaPolla (1997: 139) propose two general semantic relations, the *Actor* and *Undergoer* macroroles, which are "generalizations across the argument-types found with particular verbs which have significant grammatical consequences".

As the Actor-Undergoer Hierarchy below shows, the Actor macrorole comprises those arguments whose nature is closer to that of an Agent and the Undergoer those arguments closer to a Patient:

ACTOR

UNDERGOER

Arg. of 1st arg. of 2nd arg. of Arg. of state

DO do'(x, ... pred'(x, y) pred'(x, y) pred'(x)

['--' = increasing markedness of realization of argument as macrorole]

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- a. Number: the number of macroroles a verb takes is less than or equal to the number of arguments in its logical structure,
- 1. If a verb has two or more arguments in its LS, it will take two macroroles.
- 2. If a verb has one argument in its LS, it will take one macrorole.
- b. Nature: for verbs which take one macrorole,
- 1. If the verb has an activity predicate in its LS, the macrorole is actor.
- 2. If the verb has no activity predicate in its LS, the macrorole is undergoer.

In RRG, transitivity becomes a semantic notion since the number of semantic macroroles a predicate takes determines it. Thus, those verbs that take two macroroles are transitive, those with one macrorole are intransitive, and those with no macrorole are atransitive. Moreover, *Case assignment rules* are also related to the assignment of macroroles (1997: 359):

- a. Assign nominative case to the highest-ranking macrorole (in terms of the Privileged syntactic argument selection hierarchy).
- b. Assign accusative case to the other macrorole argument.
- c. Assign dative case to non-macrorole arguments (default).

Due to the fact that the grammatical relations between the arguments of a verb are not the same in all languages, RRG introduces the notion of *Privileged Syntactic Argument (PSA)*, which will substitute for that of subject. In order to select the *PSA* in a grammatical construction, Van Valin and LaPolla (1997: 282) suggest the *Privileged Syntactic Argument Selection Hierarchy* below, based on the *Actor-Undergoer Hierarchy*:

arg. of DO > 1^{st} arg. of do' $(x,... > 1^{st}$ arg. of pred' $(x, y) > 2^{nd}$ arg. of pred' (x, y) > arg. of pred' (x, y) > arg. of pred' (x, y) > arg.

According to this hierarchy, the criteria to select the PSA depending on the type of construction are the following:

- a. Syntactically accusative constructions: highest-ranking macrorole is default choice.
- b. Syntactically ergative constructions: lowest-ranking macrorole is default choice.

Therefore, taking into account the *Default Macrorole Assignment Principles*, the *Actor-Undergoer Hierarchy* and the interaction existing between macroroles and grammatical relations, the information to be included in lexical representations will be highly reduced.

3. Linking the syntactic and semantic representation of complex structures within the Old English domain of speech

Based on Van Valin and LaPolla (1997: 116-118), the Old English domain of speech will be represented by the following template:

do'(x, [express.(a) to.(b) in.language.(
$$\gamma$$
)'(x, y)]) ^ [in'(w)] & [BECOME aware.of'(y, z)], where y = β , z = α , [in'(w)] = γ

This template contains the logical structure of an active accomplishment, characterised by the semantic features [-static] [+telic] [-punctual], where a speaker says something to a hearer who becomes aware of it. It shows three internal variables α , β , γ (marked by Greek letters) referring to the content of the expression, to the addressee and to the language used, respectively, and four external variables x, y, z, w, where x refers to the speaker, z to α or the content of the expression, y to β or the hearer, and w to γ or the language used.

The syntactic behaviour of a lexeme will be determined by linking internal and external variables. Internal variables differ from external variables because the latter correspond to external argument positions with a syntactic representation, whereas the former belong to the semantic representation of speech verbs, that is, they function as ontological constants of this verbal class adding a semantic decomposition to the logical structure and giving rise to the *lexical template* for the domain of speech.

As example (1) shows, applying the Default Macrorole Assignment Principles and the Case assignment rules, the variable x takes the macrorole Actor and Nominative case, the variable z takes the macrorole Undergoer and Accusative case, the variable y, a non-macrorole direct core argument, is assigned Dative case, and the variable w will be introduced by the preposition on, functioning as an oblique core argument:

(1) Se mæssepreost sceal secgan sunnandagum and mæssedagum þæs godspelles angyt on englisc þam folce (Æletl (Wulfsige Xa) Bl.8.1)

ight.

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X	Nom	Actor	se massepreost
z	Acc	Undergoer	þæs godspelles angyt
у	Dat		þam folce
w	on + Acc PP		on englisc

ne external variable z can also be syntactically realised by complex structures, the sult of combining the theory of juncture and the theory of nexus. The theory juncture deals with the types of units involved in complex constructions.

- rived from the layered structure of the clause: nuclear, core, or clausal. Thus, e following patterns can be obtained (Van Valin and LaPolla 1997: 442):
 - a. Nuclear juncture [CORE ... [NUC PRED] ... + ... [NUC PRED] ...] [CLAUSE ... [CORE ...] ... + ... [CORE ...] ...] b. Core juncture

 - [SENTENCE ... [CLAUSE ...] ... + ... [CLAUSE ...] ...] c. Clausal juncture

1e theory of nexus, on the other hand, takes into account the type of lationship among the units in complex constructions: coordination, subordination or subordination. The difference between subordinate and nonbordinate junctures lies in the fact that only the former function as arguments the main verb, since they may be clefted and occur as privileged syntactic guments in a passive construction (Van Valin and LaPolla 1997: 461-462):

) John decided that he will go to the party

It was to go to the party that John decided

To go to the party was decided by John

) John told Bill to wash the car

non-subordinate

subordinate

- *It was to wash the car that John told Bill
- *To wash the car was told Bill by John

ie complex structures which combine with the Old English speech verbs are re cosubordination, core coordination, clausal subordination, and sentential infinitive constructions, whereas clausal subordinations will be introduced by a subordinator, in this case hu (Present-day English how):

(4) core cosubordination

Deah hine deofol mid barspere beotige to ofsticianne (Byr M1(Baker/Lapidge) B20.20.1)

"Though the devil threatens to pierce him with a boar-spear"

(5) core coordination

swa us ba halgan apostolas mynegodon to weorbianne urne halend and his ba halgan

(HomS 30 (TristrApp 2) B3.2.30)

"Such as the holy apostles warned us to honour our Christ and his saints"

(6) clausal subordination

Ne mihte se dumba fæder cyban his wife hu se engel his cilde naman gesette (ÆCHom I, 25 B1.1.27)

"The silent father might not tell his wife how the angel set a name for his child" Although Van Valin and LaPolla (1997: 469) question whether a direct discourse construction such as Amy said, "As for Sam, I saw him last week" depends on the speech verb that introduces it, we will assume that the linkage between the two sentences is sentential juncture and the nexus coordination:

(7) sentential coordination

cwæð se halga Effrem to þam arwurþan biscope, Ic bidde þe, arwurða fæder, þæt þu me anes binges ty dige (ÆLS (Basil) B1.3.4)

"The holy Effrem said to the honourable bishop: "I ask you, honourable father, to give me anything""

Core cosubordinations and core coordinations are characterised by sharing an argument with the main verb or core. According to the Theory of obligatory control included in Van Valin and LaPolla (1997: 544), core cosubordinations combine with transitive verbs which have Actor control, whereas core coordinations combine with jussive verbs which have Undergoer control. As a result, these authors state that only in the case of a core cosubordination will a deontic modal operator modify a sequence of cores which denote actions by the same participant (1997: 460). The examples below show the argument functioning as controller in each syntactic construction:

(4) Deah hine deofol mid barspere beotige to ofsticianne (Byr M1(Baker/Lapidge)

(5) swa us pa halgan apostolas mynegodon to weorpianne urne halend and his pa halgan (HomS 30 (TristrApp 2) B3.2.30)

Undergoer-controller: us

In relation to the semantic description of these constructions, the *Interclausal Relations Hierarchy* below will be applied (1997: 481), according to which the different juncture-nexus types may be hierarchically arranged in terms of the tightness of the syntactic link or bond between them:

Strongest		Closest
Nuclear Cosubordination		Causative
		Aspectual
Nuclear Subordination	- William - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -	Psych-Action
1 july 3 july 1		Purposive
Nuclear Coordination		Jussive
Core Cosubordination		Direct Perception
Core Cosubordination	and the second	Propositional Attitude
Core Subordination		Cognition
		Indirect Discourse
Core Coordination		Conditional
Clausal Cosubordination		Simultaneous States of
Clausar Costroordination	787	Affairs
Clausal Subordination	3.00 PM 4.00	Sequential States of Affairs
Clausal Coordination		Unspecified Temporal
		Order (Fig. 1)
Weakest		Loosest
Syntactic Relations	mg/2	Semantic Relations

Table 2. Interclausal Relations Hierarchy

The complex syntactic units which combine with the Old English speech verbs will be realized as follows: core cosubordinations will be linked to the semantic relationship *psych-action* ("a mental disposition regarding a possible action on the

part of a participant in the state of affairs"), core coordinations to *jussive* ("the expression of a command, request or demand"), and clausal subordinations to *indirect discourse* ("an expression of reported speech"). The semantic relationship *direct discourse* will be included to account for the semantic description of sentential coordinations.

Therefore, as Table 3 shows, the syntactic description of complex constructions will result from the combination of the theory of nexus and juncture, whereas their semantic description will be provided by applying the *Interclausal Relations Hierarchy*:

	COMPLEX STRUCTURES			
Syntactic representation		Semantic representation		
Nexus	Juncture	Interclausal Relations Hierarchy		
Core cost	bordination	Psych-action		
Core co	ordination	Jussive		
Clausal subordination		Indirect discourse		
Sentential coordination		Direct discourse		

Table 3. Syntactic and semantic representation of complex structures

Then, the next step will be the inclusion of the syntactic and semantic representation of complex structures in the *lexical templates*: their semantic description will add information about the internal variable α , whereas their syntactic description will complement the external variable z.

Thus, from the *lexical template* that we present below and applying the linking rules the clausal subordination and the sentential coordination in (6) and (7) respectively will be derived as follows:

 $\label{eq:dopole} \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{do}'\ (x, [\mbox{express.}(\alpha).\mbox{to.}(\beta).\mbox{in.language.}(\gamma)'\ (x,y\rangle])\ \&\ [\mbox{BECOME}\\ \mbox{aware.of}'\ (y,z)], \mbox{ where }\ y=\beta,\ z=\alpha\ [\mbox{Indirect discourse}\ /\ \mbox{Direct discourse}]. \end{array}$

x Nom Actor se dumba føder

z [Clausal subordination] Undergoer hu se engel his
cilde naman gesette

v Dat his wife

(7) cwæð se halga Effrem to þam arwurðan biscope, Ic bidde þe, arwurða fæder, þæt þu me anes þinges tyðige (ÆLS (Basil) B1.3.4)

x Nom Actor se halga Effrem

z [Sentential coordination] Ic bidde þe, arwurða fæder, þæt þu me anes þinges tyðige

v to + Dat to þam arwurðan biscope

In (6) the variable x takes the macrorole *Actor* and Nominative case, the variable z takes the macrorole *Undergoer*, and the variable y, a non-macrorole direct core argument, is assigned Dative case. In (7), on the other hand, the variable x takes the macrorole *Actor* and Nominative case, the variable z cannot take the macrorole *Undergoer* since only subordinate junctures are considered arguments of the main core, and the variable y, introduced by the preposition to (Present-day English to), will function as an oblique core argument.

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However, there exist some alternations in relation to the macrorole and case assignment of the variable y, which cannot be explained by the linkage of syntax and semantics and which could be the result of the influence of pragmatic information, as examples (8) and (9), taken from Bosworth and Toller (1973) and Toller and Campbell (1972), show:

(8) Ælc biscop ðone cyning myngige ðæt ealle Godes cyrcan syn wel behworfene (B&T)

"All the bishops warn the king to have all God's churches well prepared"

x Nom Actor alc biscop

z [Clausal subordination] Öæt ealle Godes cyrcan syn wel
behworfene

v Acc Undergoer Öone cyning

(9) He aras and ha gebroðru gespræc: "Gebroðru, miltsige eow God" (T&C) "He stood up and said to the fellowmen: "Fellowmen, God has mercy on you""

x Nom Actor he
z [Sentential coordination] "Gebroðru, miltsige eow God"
y Acc Undergoer þa gebroðru

In these examples the macrorole Undergoer corresponds to the variable y in Accusative case and the variable z will be a non-macrorole direct core argument. We can postulate that the Accusative case associated with the macrorole Undergoer could signal the focal element in these sentences when either the clausal subordination or the sentential coordination is not the focus.

Taking into account the fact that in Old English inflexions were used to establish the relation existing between the elements of a sentence, its use to mark the focal element would not be strange. Accordingly, Van Valin and LaPolla (1997: 211) state that "evidential markers signal focus; that is, the normal placement of an evidential marker in a clause is on the focal element".

Thus, the variable y in these sentences can be considered a marked focal element, as opposed to the clausal subordination and sentential coordination in (6) and (7), being located in the unmarked focus position, which appears to be the final position in the core, as in present-day English.

With respect to examples (4) and (5) corresponding to a core cosubordination and a core coordination, they have been taken from the speech subdomain To say that something bad may happen, where the templates contain the semantic decomposition express.something.bad.may.happen and the logical structure of a causative accomplishment:

do' $(x, [express.something.bad.may.happen.(\alpha).to.(\beta).in.language.(\gamma)' (x, \@O)])$ CAUSE [BECOME aware.of ' (\emptyset, z)], where $\emptyset = \beta, z = \alpha$ [Psych-Action]

(4) Deah hine deofol mid barspere beotige to ofsticianne (Byr Ml(Baker/Lapidge) $B20.20.1)\,$

x Nom Actor deofol
z [Core cosubordination] hine mid barspere to ofsticianne

(5) swa us pa halgan apostolas mynegodon to weorpianne urne halend and his pa halgan (HomS 30 (TristrApp 2) B3.2.30)

x Nom Actor pa halgan apostolas
z [Core coordination] to weorpianne urne halend
and his pa halgan

y Acc Undergoer u

In (4) the template only shows two external variables x and z. Applying the Default Macrorole Assignment Principles and the Case assignment rules, the variable x takes the macrorole Actor and Nominative case and the variable z will be a non-macrorole direct core argument, since only subordinate junctures can take a macrorole. Thus, the Actor will be the controller of the second core.

In (5), on the other hand, the *template* shows three external variables x, y, z, where x takes the macrorole *Actor* and Nominative case, the variable y takes the macrorole *Undergoer* and Accusative case, and the variable z will be syntactically realised by a core coordination. The variable y and *Undergoer*, therefore, will be the controller of the second core.

However, regarding core coordinations, the lexemes beodan and biddan included in the lexical subdomain To say something to somebody so that they will do it³ appear to behave in a different way, since the Undergoer, which functions as controller of the second core, does not take Accusative case but Dative, as the following examples show:

do' (x, [express.something.be.done.(α).to.(β).in.language.(γ)' (x, y)]) CAUSE [BECOME aware.of' (y, z)], where $y = \beta$, $z = \alpha$ [Jussive]

(10) Man bead him ut binnan .v. nihtan (T&C)

"He was ordered to leave the country within five days"

x Nom Actor man
z [Core coordination] ut binnan .v. nihtan
y Dat Undergoer him

(11) He bad him hlafas wyrcan (B&T) "He commanded him to make loaves"

x Nom Actor he
z [Core coordination] hlafas wyrcan
y Dat Undergoer him

Firstly, in (10) the assignment of Dative case to the variable y by the lexeme beodan could be due to the fact that the argument referring to a person appears to take Dative case. Secondly, the lexeme biddan in (11) appears to behave in the same way as beodan when located in the same subdomain, whereas when this lexeme is located in the subdomain To say something in order to get something else the variable y takes Accusative case, as the following example shows:

do' $(x, [express.something.be.obtained.(\alpha).to.(\beta).in.language.(\gamma)' (x, y)])$ CAUSE [BECOME aware.of' (y, z)], where $y = \beta$, $z = \alpha$ [Jussive]

(12) Heo bad hine bliðne (wesan) (T&C)

"He asked him to be kind"

Nom Actor he

z [Core coordination] bliðne (wesan)

y Acc Undergoer hine

4. Concluding remarks

From the above discussion it can be concluded that the notion of *lexical template* has been developed as a way of representing the interaction between syntax and semantics. By linking the internal variables and external argument positions of a *template* the syntactic behaviour of a lexeme can be predicted, although this behaviour can be influenced by pragmatic information or by a lexeme (such as *beodan* or *biddan*) taking a specific grammatical case for one of its arguments.

With respect to the Old English domain of speech, it has been shown how external variables can be syntactically realised by complex structures of four juncture-nexus types, that is, core cosubordinations, core coordinations, clausal subordinations, and sentential coordinations. The semantic description of these syntactic units will be provided by the *Interclausal Relations Hierarchy* and will be included in the *templates* complementing the information about internal variables.

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Notes

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- 2. A first attempt to introduce meaning definitions within logical structures is made in Van Valin and LaPolla (1997; 116-118) in relation to speech verbs.
- 3. The template corresponding to the subdomain *To say something to somebody so that they will do it* presents the semantic decomposition express.something.be.done and the logical structure of a causative accomplishment.
- 4. The template corresponding to the subdomain *To say something in order to get something else* presents the semantic decomposition express something be obtained and the logical structure of a causative accomplishment.

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