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| 7. Sommerschule der DGfS |  |

## Typology 5

## Argument structure and its morphosyntactic representation:

 nominative/accusative, ergative/absolutive, active/inactive, direct/inverse
## 1. Introduction/Definitions

Four clearly distinguished levels of language structure:

- semantics (argument structure, thematic roles/semantic roles)
- morphology (case morphology, agreement morphology)
- syntax (syntactic behaviour in constructions such as raising, control, coordinate clauses)
- discourse (topic, focus; cf. the discourse motivation of ergative and nominative systems in a later handout)

On semantics
(on the semantic status of argument structure and argument roles cf. Dowty 1991, Van Valin \& LaPolla 1997: 82 - 195):

Semantic verb types and semantic roles (Dixon 1994: 7):
(1) SEmANTIC Types

AFFECT, e.g. hit, cut, burn
GIVING, e.g. give, lend, pay
SPEAKING, e.g. talk, tell, order
AtTENTION, e.g. see, hear, watch

Semantic Roles
Agent, Manip (thing manipulated), Target
Donor, Gift, Recipient
Speaker, Addressee, Message
Perceiver, Impression

The above semantic roles can be further reduced to three primitive relations (Dixon 1994: 6; Dixon \& Aikhenvald 1997; on some problems with A, S, O cf. Mithun \& Chafe 1999) or macro roles:

S - argument of intransitive verb
A - actor argument of transitive verb
O - patient/undergoer argument of transitive verb (other abbreviations: $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{U}$ )
On the morphosyntactic realisation of $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{S}$ and O :


| NOM/AKK | ERG/ABS | tripartite system |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| German (3) | Georgian (4)/Dyirbal (5) | Wangkumara (6) |

Nominative/Accusative:
S and A are marked the same way (nominative), O is marked differently (accusative):
(3) German:
a. Der Bauer ${ }_{\text {S=Nом }}$ starb.
,The farmer died. ${ }^{\text {‘ }}$
b. Der Bauer $_{\text {A=Nom }}$ tötete den Hirsch ${ }_{\text {OACC }}$.
,The farmer killed the stag.‘

Ergative/Absolutive:
S and O are marked the same way (absolutive), A is marked differently (ergative):
(4) Georgian (S Caucasian):
a. Glex-i mok5vda.
farmer-ABS die:PFV:3s
,The farmer ${ }_{\text {S=ABS }}$ died. ${ }^{\text {‘ }}$
b.Glex-ma mok5la irem-i.
farmer-ERG kill:PFV:3s stag-ABS
, The farmer ${ }_{A=E R G}$ killed the stag OAABS.
(5) Dyirbal (Australia) (Dixon 1994):
a. Numa-ø banaga- ${ }^{\wedge}$ u.
father:ABS -NONFUT
'Vater ${ }_{S=A B S}$ came back.'
b. yabu-ø Numa-Ngu bura-n.
mother-ABS father-ERG see-NONFUT
${ }^{\prime}$ Father $_{\text {AEERG }}$ saw mother ${ }_{\text {O=ABs }}$,'

Tripartite system:
Each argument ( $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}$ ) is marked differently. $\mathrm{S}=$ nominative, $\mathrm{A}=$ ergative, $\mathrm{O}=$ absolutive . This system usually is limited to some subsystems of a language. According to Blake (1994: 126)
Wangkumara is the only language with a fully developed tripartite system (data from Breen 1976: 338/337):
(6) Wangkumara (Breen 1976: 338/337):
a. Karukaru $n^{T M} i a g u i ̈ u ~ y a n^{T M} t^{T M} a-g a O ̀ a ~ m a k u r-a n r u . ~$
old.man.NOM he.there walk-PRES stick-INST
,The old man $_{s=\text { Nom }}$ walks with a stick. ${ }^{\text {' }}$
b.ka+a-ulu kalka-Na $t^{T M} i t^{T M} i-n^{T M} a n^{T M} a$.
man-ERG hit-PST dog-ABS ,The $\operatorname{man}_{A=E R G}$ hit the [female] $\operatorname{dog}_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ABS}}$.

## 2. Types of argument marking

Nominative/Accusative and ergative/absolutive can be expressed as follows:

- case (cf. examples (3) - (6) above)
- particles or adpositions (cf. § 2.1)
- agreement (cf. § 2.2)
- word order (cf. § 2.3)


### 2.1. Particles or adpositions

(7) Tongan (Austronesian: Polynesian)
a. intransitive verb: absolutive particle
na'e lea 'a e talavou.
PST speak ABS ART young.man
'The young man mass is speaking.'
b. transitive verb:
na'e ta@mate'i 'a e talavou 'e Tolu.
PST kill ABS ART young.man ERG Tolu
'Tolu $\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{ERG}}$ killed the young $\operatorname{man}_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{AB} \text { S }}$.'

### 2.2. Agreement

In a nominative agreement system the verb agrees with the argument in S or A roles. In the case of object agreement, it agrees with the O argument which is either marked by a different set of agreement markers or by the same (or maybe a similar) set of markers which occurs in different slots of the verb paradigm.
2.2.1. Abkhaz (NW Caucasian): Ergative agreement system without case marking:

The morphological structure of the verb in Abkhaz:
(8) I- II + PRÄV- III- KAUS- WURZEL- TAM- FIN

preradical slots

postradical slots

The preradical slots I, II and III are filled by the following agreement affixes (I only present the singular forms):

|  |  | I |  | II | III |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. SG |  | s(') |  | s(') | s/z( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) |
| 2. SG | masc. | w( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) |  | w( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) | w( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) |
|  | fem. | b(') |  | b(') | b( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) |
| 3. SG | human | d( ' $)$ | masc. | $y(')$ | $y\left({ }^{\prime}\right)$ |
|  |  | d( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) | fem. | 1(') | 1(') |
|  | non-human | y(') |  | a//ø | (n) a |

The ergative pattern is reflected by the way in which the slots are associated with S , A and O :
Slot I: the agreement affix refers to $\quad \mathrm{S}$ or O
Slot III: the agreement affix refers to A
(9) a. Intransitive verb:

$$
\mathbf{d}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ca}-\mathrm{yt} "
$$

I.3s[-h]-go-AOR
, $\mathrm{S} / \mathrm{He}_{\mathrm{s}=\mathrm{I}}$ went.‘
b. transitive verb:
d' -z-ba-yt'.
I.3s[-h]-III.1s-see-AOR
, $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{A}=\text { III }}$ saw her/him ${ }_{\mathrm{O}=1}$ '
(10) a-là (ø-)ps '-yt'.

DET-dog I.3s[-h]-die-PRES:FIN
'The dog died'
(11) sa-rà a-là (ø-)z-ba-yt'.

I DET-dog I.3s[-h]-III.1s-see-PRES:FIN
I saw the dog.'
Addendum: The affixes in slot II agree with the benefactive argument of ditransitive verbs and with a large number of non-arguments whose agreement affix is further combined with a roleindicating preverb:
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { sa-rà } & \text { a-là } & \text { à-fa-t fi" } \\ \text { I } & \text { ART-dog } & \text { ART-food }\end{array}$
( $\varnothing$-) à-s-ta-yt'.
$I_{A=I I I}$ give food ${ }_{O=1}$ to the $\operatorname{dog}_{D A T=I I}$,
(13) Axra $\varnothing-y^{\prime}+z^{\prime}$ Ÿ-q'a-s-c' -yt '.

Axra I.3s[-h]-II.3sm+BENEF-PRÄV-III.1s-do-AOR:FIN
' $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{III}}$ did it $_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{I}}$ for $\mathrm{Axra}_{\text {BENEF }}$.
(14) à-c\&'k fi'n $\mathbf{s}^{\prime}-\mathbf{y}^{\prime}+\mathbf{c}-\mathrm{ce}-\mathrm{yt}$ '.

ART-boy I.1s-II.3sm+COMIT -go-AOR:FIN
' $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{SI}}$ went with the boy DAT .II.
2.2.2. Basque: Ergative agreement combined with ergative case marking

Basque verbmorphology is expressed at the auxiliary. The transitive auxiliary which follows the verbal root in a nonfinite form consists of the following components:

|  | Patient | -Tense | -PL.of.patient | -AUX | -PL.for.2.PL | -Actor |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 s | $\mathrm{n}-$ | -a |  | $-\mathbf{u}$ | -t |  |
| 2 s | $\mathrm{~h}-$ | -a |  | $-\mathbf{u}$ | $-\mathrm{k} /-\mathrm{n}$ |  |
| 3 s | $\mathrm{~d}-$ | $-\varnothing$ |  | $-\mathbf{u}$ | $-\varnothing$ |  |
| 1 p | $\mathrm{g}-$ | -a | -it | $-\mathbf{u}$ | -gu |  |
| 2 s (pol) | $\mathrm{z}-$ | -a | -it | $-\mathbf{u}$ |  | -zu |
| 2 p | $\mathrm{z}-$ | -a | -it | $-\mathbf{u}$ | -zte | -zue |
| 3 p | $\mathrm{d}-$ | $-\varnothing$ | -it | $-\mathbf{u}$ |  | -te |

Some explanations:

1. Tense is only expressed by -a if there is a $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ patient ( sg and pl ).
2. The form in -it- is used if the patient is a plural.
3.The form in -zte-only occurs with the $2^{\text {nd }}$ plural. This has to do with the fact that the older form
of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ plural is understood as a polite form of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ singular in modern Basque. For that reason, the $2^{\text {nd }}$ person plural needs an extra plural marker. In the case of $3 p \longrightarrow 2 p$ the agent marker of 3 p (-te) can be omitted: ikusten zaituzte(te) 'they see you (PL)'.

Some examples:
(16) ni-k gizon-a ikusten d-u-t.

I-ERG man-DEF:SG:ABS see ABS:3-AUX-ERG:1s
' $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{ERG}}$ see the $\operatorname{man}_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ABS}}$.'
(17) ni-k gizon-a-k ikusten d-it-u-t.

I-ERG man-DEF-PL:ABS see ABS:3-ABS:PL-AUX-ERG:1s
' $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{ERG}}$ see the men $_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ABS}}$.'
(18) gizon-a-k ni ikusten n-a-u-ø. man-DEF:SG-ERG I:ABS see ABS:1s-PRES-AUX-ERG:3s
, The $\operatorname{man}_{\text {A=ERG }}$ sees $\mathrm{me}_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ABS}}$.
(19) gizon-e-k $\underline{\text { ni }} \quad$ ikusten $\underline{n}$-a-u-te.
man-DEF:PL-ERG I:ABS see ABS:1s-PRES-AUX-ERG:3p
,The men $_{\text {AEERG }}$ see $\mathrm{me}_{\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ABS}} .^{\prime}$
2.2.3. Georgian: Ergative case-marking plus nominative-agreement system:
(20) Georgian:
a. $\quad$ Actor $=3 \mathrm{~s}$, Patient $=3 \mathrm{p}:$

Glex-ma mo-k51-a irem-eb-i.
Farmer-ERG PREV-kill-PFV:3s stag-PL-ABS
,The farmer kills the stag.'
b. Actor $=3 \mathrm{p}$, Patient $=3 \mathrm{~s}$ :

Glex-eb-ma mo-k51-es irem-i.
Farmer-PL-ERG PREV-kill-AOR:3p stag-ABS
,The farmers killed the stag.'
2.2.4. Akhwakh (Kibrik 1985: 309-310)

In Akhwakh, the suffix - do agrees with the nominal class 1 , the suffix -de with the nominal classes 2 and 3. In transitive verbs, agreement is split into two parts. Person agreement with the ERG argument, class agreement with the ABS argument:
(21) a. dene j-eq'a-de
I.2.NOMCL2-came-1SG/CL2/3
, I (fem) came.'
b.dede was\&a íare-do.
I.2.ERG boy.1.ABS beat-1SG/CL1
,I beat the boy.'
c. jas\&oía dene hariga-do.
girl.2.DAT I.1.ABS saw-1SG/CL1
,the girl saw me (masc).'

### 2.3. Word order

Ergative word order: SV/OVA VS/AVO
Nominative word order: SV/AVO VS/OVA
Languages in which ergativity is marked exclusively by word order do not seem to exist. In Päri (West Nilotic), ergative word order is combined with case marking:

SV/OVA: Päri (West-Nilotisch):
(22) a. intransitive verb, $S$ argument is preverbal and in the absolutive:
ùbúr á-túuk ${ }^{\text {ºn }}$
Ubur COMPL-play
'Ubur ${ }_{s}$ is playing.'
b. transitive verb: O in preverbal position, A in postzverbal position plus ERG marking:
jòobi á-kèel ùbúrr-ì.
buffalo COMPL-shoot Ubur-ERG
'Ubur ${ }_{A}$ is shooting the buffalo ${ }_{o}$.'

## 3. Split systems

Most languages are not consistently ergative, that is, the ergative system coexists with the nominative system. There are three types of splits:
1.TAM split: based on the TAM form of the verb.
2. Verb split: based on the semantic properties of the verb
3.NP split: based on the semantic properties of the NP

### 3.1. TAM-split

In Georgian, ergative/absolutive marking is limited to transitive verbs marked by affixes from the aorist group (perfective). In the imperfective (present group), the nominative/accusative system is used:
(23) Georgian, the verb is in the aorist: ERG/ABS
a. c\&em-i kmar-i mo-k5vd-a.
my-ABS husband-ABS PREV-die-AOR:3s
'My husband ${ }_{\text {S=ABS }}$ died.'
$\begin{array}{ccll}\text { b. c\&em-ma } & \text { kmar-ma } & \text { mo-k51-a } & \text { irem-i. } \\ \text { my-ERG } & \text { husband-ERG } & \text { PREV-kill-AOR:3s } & \text { stag-ABS }\end{array}$
'My husband ${ }_{A=E R G}$ killed the $\operatorname{stag}_{0=A B S}$ '
(24) Georgian: the verb is in the present: NOM/ACC
a. c\&em-i kmar-i k5vd-eb-a.
my-NOM husband-NOM die-INTR-PRES:3s
'My husband ${ }_{\text {s }}$ dies.'
b. c\&em-i kmar-i k5l-av-s irem-s.
my-NOM husband-NOM kill-VSuff-PRES:3s stag-ACC
'My husband ${ }_{\text {A=NOM }}$ kills the stag $\mathrm{O}_{\text {=AKK }}$ '

### 3.2. Verb-split

Verbs differ with regard to the degree of their semantic transitivity. This can be reflected by the fact that ERG/ABS marking or NOM/ACC marking occurs only with verbs of higher transitivity. Cf. Tsunoda's (1981) Effectiveness Condition.

| Type | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Meaning | direct <br> effect | perception | pursuit | knowledge | feeling | possession |
| Examples | kill, break <br> hit, shoot | see, look <br> hear, listen, <br> smell | search, <br> wait | know, <br> understand, <br> remember, <br> forget | love, like, <br> want, need | possess |



Avar (NE Caucasian) is a nice illustration to the relevance of effectiveness:
Verb class 1: ,kill‘
(25) c\&anaqan-as: bac" caw-ana.
hunter-ERG wolf:ABS kill-PST
'The hunter killed the wolf.'
Verb class 2: ,see ${ }^{6}$
(26) íns:u-da z\&indargo w-as w-ix-ana.
father-LOC his.own MASC-son MASC-see-PST
'The father saw his son.'
Verb class 3: ,search', ,wait ${ }^{\text { }}$
(with ERG/ABS = "search"; with ABS/APUDESSIVE = "wait")
(27) $\mathrm{c} \& i \quad$ íimaq valáh-ula.
man:ABS child-APUD wait-PRES
'The man is waiting for the child.'
Verb class 4: ,know‘, , understand ${ }^{\text {‘ }}$, ,forget ${ }^{\text {‘ }}$ : LOC/ABS.
Verb class 5: ,love/desire ${ }^{6}$
(28) di-je j-as j-ol"-ula.

I-DAT FEM-girl:ABS FEM-love-PRES
'I love the girl.'
Verb class 6: ,have', ,own'
(29) íns:u-1 j-ac j-ígo.
father-GEN FEM-girl/daughter:ABS FEM-be
'Father has a daughter.'

## 3.3. $N P$-split

The semantic properties of a noun phrase can decide its morphosyntactic behaviour. The morphosyntactic behaviour of arguments depends on the animacy hierarchy (Silverstein 1976):
(30) Animacy hierarchy (Croft 1990: 127)

Person: first/second < third
NP type: pronoun < proper name < common noun
Animacy: $\quad$ human < animate $<$ inanimate
Definiteness: definite < referential < nonreferential (nonspecific)
(31) $1 / 2<3<$ proper names $<$ [+human] [-human/+animate] $<$ [-human/-animate]

The lower the position in the animacy hierarchy the more likely is ergative marking. In Georgian, pronouns of the $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ person are unmarked. Only $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun and all the nouns and proper names have ergative/absolutive marking in the aorist:
(32) Georgian: $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun:
a. Is i-t5ir-a
s/he:ABS MV-cry-AOR:3s
,S/He ${ }_{\mathrm{s}}$ cried.'
b.Man da-c5er-a c5eril-i.
s/he:ERG PREV-write -AOR:3s letter-ABS ,S/He ${ }_{\mathrm{A}}$ wrote a letter ${ }_{\mathrm{o}}$.
(33) Georgian: $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun:
a. s\&en i-t5ir-e.

2s MV-cry -AOR:2s
, You ${ }_{s}$ cried.'
b.s\&en da-c5er-e c5eril-i.

2s PREV-write-AOR:2s letter-ABS
' $\mathrm{You}_{\mathrm{A}}$ wrote a letter $\mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{O}}$.'
In Kalaw Lagaw Ya (Problem 2), we find the following splits:
$2^{\text {nd }}$ person singular: Three different case markers for $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}$ :
(34) a. Ngi pathiz.

2s go:SG
,You went.' (ex. (1))
b.ngitha burum mathaman.

2s pig hit:SG
,You hit the pig.' (ex. (2))
c. garkoez-in ngin mathaman.
man-ERG 2 s hit:SG
,The man hit you.‘ (ex. (3))
$1^{\text {st }}$ person plural: no case marking at al: $\mathrm{S}=\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{O}$
(34) a. Ngoey pathemin.
we go:PL
,We went.‘ (ex. (4))
$\begin{array}{cc}\text { b. Ngoey } \\ \text { we } & \text { burum-al } \\ \text { pig-PL } & \text { mathamoeyn. } \\ \text { hit:PL }\end{array}$ we pig-PL hit:PL
,We hit the pigs.' (ex. (5))
c. Garkoez-in ngoey mathamoeyn.
man-ERG we hit:PL
,The man hit us.، (ex. (6))
Proper names: $\mathrm{S}=\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{NOM}, \mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ACC}$ :
(35) a. Kala
pathiz.
Kala:NOM go:SG
,Kala went.‘ [Kala is a proper name] (ex. (11))
b.Kala burum mathaman.

Kala:NOM pig:ABS hit:SG
,Kala hit the pig.‘ (ex. (12))
c. Garkoez-in Kala-n mathaman.
man-ERG Kala-ACC hit:SG
,The man hit Kala.‘ (ex. (13))
Nouns: $\mathrm{S}=\mathrm{O}=\mathrm{ABS}, \mathrm{A}=\mathrm{ERG}$ :
(36) a. Garkaz pathiz.
man:ABS go:SG
,The man went.‘ (ex. (8))
b. Garkoez-in ngoey mathamoeyn.
man-ERG we hit:PL
,The man hit us.' (ex. (6))
c. ngitha garkaz mathaman.

2s man:ABS hit:SG
,You hit the man.' (ex. (10))

## 4. Morphologic vs. syntactic ergativity

In the majority of the languages of the world, ergativity is only of morphologic nature (case marking, agreement), that is, ergativity has no consequences for syntax. Ijn some languages, ergativity also matters for syntax. The most thorough ergative language is Dyirbal (Australia, Dixon 1972). In this language, all the syntactic processes (the exception being subject marking with imperatives) are based on the ergative pattern.

Possible processes:

- Coordination and $\varnothing$ areguments
- Raising
- Relative-clause formation
- Quantifier floating
- Reflexivisation


### 4.1. Coordination and $\emptyset$ areguments

Point of departure: A transitive event (A and O ) and an intransitive event $(\mathrm{S})$ are coordinated:
I. Intransitive state of affairs:
a. Father ${ }_{s}$ returned.
b. mother ${ }_{s}$ returned
II. Transitive state of affairs:
a. Mother ${ }_{A}$ saw father ${ }_{0}$.
b. Father ${ }_{A}$ saw mother ${ }_{o}$.

In English (and in German) the argument of the second predication within a coordinative construction can be represented by zero if they are $S$ and $A$ :
(37) a. Father returned and $\emptyset_{\mathrm{i}}$ saw mother. [Ia and IIb]

Father $_{S}$ returned and father ${ }_{A}$ saw mother ${ }_{0}$.
b. Mother ${ }_{i}$ returned and $\emptyset_{\mathrm{i}}$ saw father. [Ib and IIa]

Mother ${ }_{s}$ returned and mother ${ }_{A}$ saw father ${ }_{0}$.

Thus, in Englisch (German, Frtench, Russian, ...), S and A are treated alike, that is, they are neutralized in the syntactic position of subject. Since English neutralizes $S$ and A in its syntactically priviledged position of the subject, English is not only morphologically nominative accusative, it is also syntactically nominative accusative. The neutralization of S and A is consistent through all the relevant constructions in English (German). For that reason, we can refer to the subject in English as an $\{\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{A}\}$ pivot. ${ }^{1}$ Pivot is the syntactically priviledged position. It can be further specified by the semantic roles it neutralizes.

A language which is syntactically ergative, has an $\{\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{O}\}$ Pivot, that is, it neutralizes S and O (= absolutive) in its syntactically priviledged position. In Dyirbal, which has an $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ pivot, only the clauses (Ia)/(IIa) and (Ib)/(IIb) can be combined in such a way that one participant is dropped (cf. (40) and (41)). As is shown in (38) and (39) this is not possible in English:
(38) Father returned and mother saw father. [Ia and IIa]

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\mathrm{S} & \mathrm{~A} & \mathrm{O}
\end{array}
$$

(39) Mother returned anmd father saw mother. [Ib and IIb] S A O
(40) Numa banaga-^u yabu-Ngu bura-n. father:ABS return-N.FUTmother-ERG see-N.FUT 'Father returned and was seen by mother.' [Ia and IIa]
(41) yabu banaga-^u Numa-Ngu bura-n.
mother:ABS return-N.FUTfather-ERG see-N.FUT
,Mother returned and was seen by father.'
In English, we can reach the same result through passivization. If we passivize, the combinations of (Ia)/(IIa) in (38) and (Ib)/(IIb) in (39)become grammatical:

| (38`) & father returned andfather & was seen & by mother. \\ & \{S & OPIV & \\ (39`) | Mother returned and mother | was seen | by father. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\{\mathrm{S}$ | O $\}$ PIV |  |
|  |  | A:PP |  |

1 The term pivot goes back to Dixon. In Dixon (1994), only \{S,A\} pivots are called subjects. Role \& Reference Grammar (Van Valin \& LaPolla 1997) only has one single syntactically relevant position, that is, the pivot, no matter what semantic roles are neutralized in that position.

Dyirbal needs a similar diathesis in order to produce the combinations (Ia)/(IIb) and (Ib)/(IIa) that are possible without diathersis in English (cf. 37)). This diathesis, which is a mirror image of the situation in English), is called antipassive. In the antipassive, the A argument gets absolutive marking and thus becomes part of the pivot, whereas the O-argument is moved to the periphery and getsoblique case marking. The verb becomes intransitive.
(A) Non-antipassive

ERG ABS
(B) antipassive

ABS
(37a) from English can thus been translated into Dyirbal as follows:
(42) Numa banaga-nyu bural-Na-nyu yabu-gu.
fatherABS return-N.FUT see-ANTIPASS-N.FUT mother-DAT
'Vater kam zurück und sah Mutter.'

The absolutive pivot $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ in Dyirbal does not depend on case marking. Dyirbal has an NP split, that is, $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ person follow the nominative/accusative pattern (cf. problem 3). Nevertheless, ist syntax is based on $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ :
(43) Dyirbal: coreference within $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ :

Nana banaga-nyu nyurra bura-n.
we:NOM come.back-NONFUT $2 \mathrm{p}:$ NOM see-NONFUT
'We ${ }_{\mathrm{S}}$ came back and you saw $\mathrm{us}_{\mathrm{o}}$.'
(44) Dyirbal: coreference outside of $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ : antipassive:

Nana banaga-nyu bural-Na-nyu nyurra-ngu.
we come.back-NONFUT see-ANTIP-NONFUT 2p-DAT
' $\mathrm{We}_{\mathrm{S}}$ came back and we ${ }_{\mathrm{A}}$ saw you.'
Languages which are only morphologically ergative such as Georgian only have ergative case marking, their pivot is $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{A}\}$ :
(45) Georgian [Ia and IIb] (cf. (37a)):
k5ac-i da-brun-d-a da da-i-nax-a kal-i.
man-ABS PREV-return -MV-AOR:3s and PREV-SV-see-AOR:3s woman-ABS
,The man $_{\mathrm{s}}$ returned and $\emptyset_{\mathrm{A}}$ saw the woman ${ }_{\mathrm{o}}$.

(46)

Georgian [Ib and IIa] (cf. (37b)):
kal-i da-brun-d-a da da-i-nax-a k5ac-i.
woman-ABS PREV-return-MV-AOR:3s and PREV-SV-see-AOR:3s man-ABS
,The woman ${ }_{\mathrm{s}}$ returned and $\emptyset_{\mathrm{A}}$ saw the man ${ }_{0}$.


### 4.2. Relative clause formation

In Dyirbal, the relative clause is marked on the verb which gets a relative suffix instead of a tense suffix. Depending on the case marking of the matrix clause, the relative suffix can occur in the following forms:

| Absolutive: | -Nu |
| :--- | :--- |
| Ergative: | -Nuru |
| Instrumental: | -Nuru |
| Dative: | $\quad$-Nugu |
| Locative: | -Nura |

The relative clause as a whole can occur in front or after the head noun. However, for a relative clause to be grammatical, the head noun must be in the absolutive. If the head noun is in the role of S or O in the relative clause, there is no problem. If it is in another semantic role, an antipassive form must be used which moves the semantic role to be relativised into the $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ pivot:
(47) The head noun is $S$ in the relative clause $=>$ no antipassive! Numa-Ngu yabu-ø [duNgara-Nu- $\varnothing$ ] bur5a-n. father-ERG mother-ABS cry-REL-ABS see-NONFUT ,Father saw mother [who cried] ${ }_{\text {REL }}$.
(48) The head noun is O in the relative clause $=>$ no antipassive!
Numa-ø [yabu-Ngu bur5a-Nu- $\varnothing$ ] duNgara-nyu. father-ABS mother-ERG see-REL-ABS cry-NONFUT 'Father [whom mother saw] ${ }_{\text {REL }}$ cried.'
(49) The head noun is A in the relative clause $\Rightarrow>$ antipassive!

Numa- $\varnothing$ [bur5a-Na-Nu- $\varnothing$ yabu-gu] duNgara-nyu.
father-ABS see-ANTIP-REL-ABS mother-DAT cry-NONFUT
'Father [who saw mother] ${ }_{\text {REL }}$ cried. ${ }^{\text {' }}$
(50) The head noun is an instrumental in the relative clause $=>$ antipassive!
Nadya bala yugu- $\varnothing$ •baNggul ya<a-Ngu bagul dugumbil-gu

I ART:ABS stick-ABS ART:ERG man-ERG ART:DAT woman-DAT
balgal-ma-Nu- $\varnothing$ ] nyiman. hit-ANTIP-REL-ABS take-NONFUT
'I took the stick [with which the man hit the woman] ${ }_{\text {REL }} \cdot{ }^{\text {' }}$

### 4.3. Markedness of pivot choice

From what we have seen in §§ 4.1 and 4.2, syntactically nominative and syntactically ergative languages follow two different hierarchies of pivot choice:
(51) a. Hierarchy of markedness of pivot choice: syntactically accusative languages

$$
\mathrm{A}>\mathrm{O}>\text { others }
$$

b. Hierarchy of markedness of pivot choice: syntactically ergative languages $\mathrm{O}>\mathrm{A}>$ others

### 4.4. Final remark

English and Dyirbal have one thing in common - their pivots are consistent, that is, in each construction of these languages we find the same pivot: $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{A}\}$ in English, $\{\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{O}\}$ in Dyirbal. However, this is not necessarily the case. There are languages in which different constructions have different pivots.
Jacaltec (Mayan) is such a language (for more information cf. Craig 1977, Van Valin \& LaPolla 1997: 285).

## 5. Active/Inactive systems

For the full discussion of possible systems of morphosyntactic argument marking, the S argument needs to be split up into two roles depending on the degree of control $S$ has over the predicate:
$\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{a}}$ - the argument has control over the predicate
$\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{o}}$ - the argument has no control over the predicate

| Sa | So |
| :---: | :---: |
| A | O |

There are two types of active/inactive languages. In one type, each verb is lexically determined as [active] or [inactive]. Dixon (1994: 70-78) describes this type under the term ofSplit-S systems. In the second type, intransitive verbs can take either the markers from the $S_{a} / A$ set or from the $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{o}} / \mathrm{O}$ set, depending on the degree of control of the S argument. This type is called Fluid-S systems by Dixon (1994: 78 - 83). I shall briefly discuss Aceh (Austronesian: West-Indonesian; Sumatra) which has a Fluid-S system with some 30 verbal stems (another language of the Fluid-S type is Tsova-Tush/Batsdbi, NE Caucasian; Holisky 1988).

Aceh (Durie 1985: 57-71):
(53) lexically determined intransitive verbs with A-marking: сrиep 'lie on stomach' ingat 'think of, remember' (from sitting or lying'
batôk 'cough' döng 'stand'
kira 'think' êk 'go up'
chên 'love, feel sympathy for'
beudöh 'get up'
muntah 'vomit'
$\hat{e} h$ 'lie down to rest or sleep'
khêm 'laugh, smile’
marit 'talk'
(54) lexically determined intransitive verbs with O-marking:
jeuet 'become' rhët 'fall'
deungki 'envy' beukah 'gebrochen'
beuhë 'brave'
gli 'ticklish’
rayeuk 'big'
brôk 'verfault'
beureuhi 'wünschen'
seunang 'glcklich'
(55) Verbs which can occur with A and O marking:
cinta 'love'
luwat 'disgusted'
syök 'suspect'
jeuet 'be able'
mulayi 'begin'
teuka 'arrive'
susah 'unhappy'
teuka 'arrive'
saba 'be patient'
galak 'like'

There are some 30 Fluid-S verbs. If a person affix has agentive function, that is, the S argument has controll over the action, it is prefixed to the verb stem. If it has no controll over the action, that is, if it is in the O function, it is suffixed to the verb stem:
(56) a. gopnyan hana=inseueh=geuh
keu=lôn.
he NEG.COP-feel.sympathy -3sODAT-1s
,He has no sympathy with me.‘
b.gopnyan hana=geu=inseueh keu=lôn.
he NEG.KOP-3sA-feel.sympathy DAT=1s
,He refuses to feel sympathy with me.‘
a. gopnyan galak=geuh that.

He happy-3sO very
,He is very happy.' (Durie 1985: 56)
b. gopnyan galak=geuh that keu=lôn.
he happy=3sO very DAT-1s
'He likes me very much.' (Durie 1985: 56)
c. gata bek ta=galak keu=dara=nyan.

2sNEG:Q 2sA-happy DAT-girl-that
,Don't you like this girl?' [The addressee has the choice to like the girl or not.]
(Durie 1985: 57)
(58) rila $\mathrm{ji}=$ matê.

Be.ready 3sA-die
,He was ready to die.' (Durie 1985: 57)

## 6. Is there a subject/pivot in all the languages of the world?

If the existence of a syntactic category such as subject or pivot depends on the neutralization of the macro roles S , A and O one may ask whether one needs to assume the existence of subject/pivot for all the languages of the world. If processes such as coordination, raising, relative clause formation, quantifier floating etc. can be described in terms of semantic roles alone a syntactic category in the sense of subject/pivot is not needed. Aceh (Austronesian, Sumatra) seems to be such a language (Durie 1985, 1987; Van Valin \& LaPolla 1997):

Agreement can always be described in terms of $S_{d} A$ and $S_{\delta} O$
Transitive:
(59) a. (Gopnyan) geu-mat lôn.

3s 3sA-hold 1s
'S/He holds me.'
b. (Lôn) lôn-mat gopnyan.

1s 1sA-hold 3s
'I hold him.'
(60)
a. (Gopnyan) geu-jak. a'. *gopnyan jak(-geuh).
S/he 3sA-go s/he go-3sO 'S/He goes.'
b. (Lôn) lôn-jak. b'.*lôn jak-lôn.
1s 1sA-go
I go-1sO
'I go.'
'I go.'

| a. Gopnyan rhët(-geuh). | a'. *Gopnyan geu-rhët. |
| :--- | :---: |
| 3s fall-3sO | 3 s 3sA-fall |
| 'S/He falls.' | 'S/He falls.' |

b. Lôn rhët(-lôn).
b.'*Lôn lôn-rhët.
1s 1sA-fall
'I fall.'
'Ich fall.'

## Clause combining and the dropping of coreferent arguments

The argument that can be dropped is always A irrespective of whether the superordinated controller is A or O :
(62)
a. Gopnyan geu-tém (*geu-)jak.

3s 3sA-want (3sA-)go
'He wants to go.'
b. Geu-tém (*geu-)taguen bu.

3sA-want (3sA-)cook rice
,S/He wants to cook rice.'
c. *Gopnyan geu-tém rhët.

3 s 3sA-wollen fall
'S/He wants to fall.'
a. Geu-yue-neuh (*neu-)jak keunoe.

3sA-order - 2 sO (2sA-)go here
'S/He ordered you to go there.'
b. Geu-yue lôn (*lôn)-peugöt kuwéh.

3sA-order 1s(1sA-)make cake
'S/He ordered me to make a cake.'
c. Lôn-yue piyôh-geuh.

1sA-order finish-3sO
,I ordered him to come to an end.'

## 7. Direct/Inverse systems

Direct/inverse systems are based on the animacy hierarchy (cf. (30) and (31)). If in a monotransitive predicate the direction of the action goes from an entity higher in this hierarchy to an entity lower in this hierarchy, we get direct marking. Otherwwise, if the action goes from a lower to a higher argument we get inverse marking. Languages with direct/inverse marking: Algonkin, Navaho, Tangutic (Tibeto-Burman), Chukchi (Comrie 1980).

Navaho (Athapaskisch) (Comrie 1981: 186)
a. At"ééd nímasi yi-díi $\operatorname{id}$. girl potato DIR-burn:PST
The $\operatorname{girl}_{\text {[animate] }}$ burnt the potato ${ }_{\text {[inanimate] }]}$ '
b. At"ééd nímasi bi-díi 7 id. girl potato INV-burn:PST
,The potato ${ }_{\text {[inanimate] }}$ burnt the $\operatorname{girl}_{\text {[animate] }]}$ '
a. hastiin $\neg \hat{\mathrm{I}}$-4 $\hat{\mathrm{I}} / 4$ " yi-zta $\neg$. man horse DIR-kick The man [animate] kicked the horse ${ }_{\text {[inanimate] }}$,
b. hastiin $\neg \hat{1}-4 \hat{1}-4 "$ bi-zta $ᄀ$. man horse INV-kick
The horse ${ }_{\text {[inanimate] }}$ kicked the $\operatorname{man}_{\text {[animate] }}$,
Jyarong (Tibeto-Burman; Ebert 1987)
(66) direct:
a. $\mathrm{Na} \mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ nasNo-N.

I he scold-1
'I scold him.'
b. Na no ta-nasNo-n.

I 2s2-schelten-2
'I scold you.'
(67) inverse:
a. $\quad \mathrm{m}^{\prime} \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \quad \mathrm{Na}$ u-nasNo-N.
he ERG I INV-scold-1
'He scolds me.'
b.m ${ }^{\prime} k$ ' no $t^{\prime}-\mathbf{u}-n a s N o-n$.
he ERG 2s 2-INV-scold-2
'He scolds you.'
In Jyarung, ergative marking only shows up with inverse patterns. The only exception is $3 \longrightarrow 3$ :
(68) $\mathrm{m}^{\prime} \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \quad \mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ nasNo-u .
he ERG he scold-3
'He scolds him.'
Cree (Problem 4):
Cree verbal paradigms have the following structure:
(69) (PERS)-root-DIR/INV-(PERS)-(PERS)

The person markers on the verb look as follows:

```
ni- 1 (singular, if not combined with -naan)
ki- 2 (singular, if not combined with -waaw or -naw)
-naan 1p
-naw 1pi (1 and 2)
-waaw 2p
-ak 3p
-n 1s (only in combination with 1s—2s and 2s }\longrightarrow1\textrm{s}
-naa 1s (only in combination with 1s }\longrightarrow2p\mathrm{ and 2p }\longrightarrow>1s
```

There are two different systems of direct/inverse marking in Cree:
1.forms including a $3^{\text {rd }}$ person:
direct: -aa(w)-
inverse: -ik(w/o)-
2.forms with $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ person (speech act participants):
direct: -i-
inverse: -iti-

The direct form in $\mathbf{i}$ - is used for all the cases in which the action goes from $2 \longrightarrow 1$ :
$2 \mathrm{~s} \longrightarrow$ 1s: (21)ki-waapam-i-n 'you(sg) see me'
$2 \longrightarrow 1 \mathrm{p}$ : (22)ki-waapam-i-naan you ( $\mathrm{sg} / \mathrm{pl}$ ) see us [exkl]‘
$2 \mathrm{p} \longrightarrow 1 \mathrm{~s}$ : (23)ki-waapam-i-naa-waaw 'you (pl) see me'
The form in -iti- is used for all the situations of the type $1 \longrightarrow 2$ :
$1 \mathrm{~s} \longrightarrow 2 \mathrm{~s}$ : (24) ki-waapam-iti-n 'I see you (sg)'
$1 \mathrm{p} \longrightarrow 2$ : (25)ki-waapam-iti-naan 'we [exkl] see you (sg/pl)،
1s $\longrightarrow$ 2p: (26)ki-waapam-iti-naaw-aaw 'we see you (pl)'
Since the more marked form in -iti- is used for $1 \longrightarrow 2$ (and for some other reasons), the animacy hierarchy in Cree is $2<1$. This change in hierarchy between $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ person is relatively frequent. Thus, we always have to reckon with an animacy hierarchy of the following type, which characteristic of Algonkin languages:
(70) $2>1>3$

Analysis of the rest of the verbal forms in problem 4:
(1) ni-waapam-aaw 'ich see him'
(2) ki-waapam-aaw 'you (sg) see him'
(3) ni-waapam-aa-naan 'we [excl] see him'
(4) ki-waapam-aa-naw 'we [incl] see him'
(5) ki-waapam-aa-waaw 'you (pl) see him'
(6) ni-waapam-aaw-ak 'I see them'
(7) ki-waapam-aaw-ak 'you (sg) see them'
(8) ni-waapam-aa-naan-ak 'we [incl] see them'
(9) ki-waapam-aa-naw-ak 'we [excl] see them'
(10) ki-waapam-aa-waaw-ak 'you (pl) see them'
(11) ni-waapam-ik 'he sees me'
(12) ki-waapam-ik 'he sees you (sg)'
(13) ni-waapam-iko-naan 'he sees us [excl]'
(14) ni-waapam-iko-naw 'he sees us [incl]'
(15) ki-waapam-iko-waaw 'he sees you (pl)'
(16) ni-waapam-ikw-ak 'they see me'
(17) ki-waapam-ikw-ak 'they see you (pl)'
(18) ni-waapam-iko-naan-ak 'they see us [excl]'
(19) ni-waapam-iko-naw-ak 'they see us [incl]'
(20) ki-waapam-iko-waaw-ak 'they see you (pl)'

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