

Cognate Objects and the Case

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I. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine characteristics of cognate objects in English, investigate some linguists' analyses of them, and explore the possibility of finding out an appropriate way to deal with them with respect to the Case. There has been a long-lasting controversy over whether cognate objects are arguments or adjuncts. However, Nakajima (2006) shows that English has two kinds of cognate objects, i.e., argumental cognate objects and adverbial ones. As has been widely assumed, unaccusative verbs cannot take a cognate object in the object position, since their object position is already occupied by a superficial subject. However, their adjunct position is still available for adverbial phrases. Unlike unaccusative verbs, unergative verbs may have two kinds of cognate objects, i.e., cognate objects as arguments and cognate objects as adjuncts. With respect to the Case, the Government and Binding framework presented in Chomsky (1981) shows some problems. For this reason, I will propose an ellipsis analysis and show that it will work out

problems related to both cognate objects and adverbial NPs.

II. Cognate Objects as Arguments

Jones (1988: 89) defines cognate object constructions as constructions in which a normally intransitive verb occurs with what appears to be a direct object NP whose head noun is the event or state nominalization of the verb.

- (1) a. John died a gruesome death.
- b. Harry lived an uneventful life.
- c. Bill sighed a weary sigh.

With respect to the restriction on the head noun, Jones considers the examples in (1) to be fairly clear examples of cognate object constructions.

Nakajima (2006: 677) considers the cognate objects in (2) as argument-like objects, and argues that they can be passivized as shown in (3), provided that necessary pragmatic conditions are adequately met.

- (2) a. The baby slept a sound sleep.
- b. The woman lived a happy life.
- c. The boy dreamed a terrifying dream.
- (3) a. A sound sleep was slept by the baby.
- b. A good life was lived by Susan.
- c. The same dream was repeatedly dreamed by Mary.

On the contrary, adverbial cognate objects cannot be passivized.¹⁾ The

contrast between the examples in (2) and (3) makes us lead to a conclusion that the verbs in these sentences are transitive, and that each postverbal nominal is their objects.

Another property of argumental cognate objects is that they can be questioned by the interrogative nominal *what kind of*, as shown in (4).²⁾

- (4) a. What kind of sleep did the baby sleep?
 b. What kind of life did the woman live?
 c. What kind of dream did the boy dream? [Nakajima 2006: 677]

In (4), all the nominals, i.e., *what kind of sleep*, *what kind of life*, and *what kind of dream*, seem to behave like objects of each verb, i.e., *sleep*, *live*, and *dream*, just as all the cognate objects in (2) do in relation to their verbs.

In relation to the cognate object constructions in (2), where they have passive counterparts as shown in (3), consider the cognate object constructions in (1). Jones (1988: 91) judges the passive counterparts of (1) to be unacceptable as shown in (5).

- (5) a. *A gruesome death was died by John.
 b. *An uneventful life was lived by Harry.
 c. *A weary sigh was sighed by Bill.

Jones argues that the unacceptability of passives in (5) is related to the idiomatic character of cognate object constructions. In this context, Jones (1988: 92) gives the examples in (6), where *kick the bucket* is to be

1) They will be dealt with in detail in section 3.

2) As is pointed out by Nakajima (2006: 677), adverbial cognate objects take interrogative adverbials such as *how much* or *how far* instead. This fact will be shown in the later section.

interpreted as *die*.

- (6) a. John kicked the bucket.
- b. *The bucket was kicked by John.

The unacceptability of (6b) seems to be related to the fact that the VP in (6a), *kick the bucket*, has lost its original 'transitive verb + object' structure, and has become the intransitive verb 'die' structure, since it has lost its original meaning, i.e., kicking something, and functions as a single verb.

Cognate objects allow movement from the verb by transformational processes, whereas idiomatic NPs may not, as illustrated in the examples in (7–8) by Jones (1988: 92).

- (7) a. What sort of a death did John die?
- b. What a (gruesome) death John died!
- (8) a. *What sort of bucket did John kick?
- b. *What a bucket John kicked!

The comparison of the examples in (7) and those in (8) indicates that cognate objects may undergo WH–Movement, but idiomatic NPs of the *kick the bucket* type may not. This seems to prove that the cognate objects in (1) are more like arguments than the idiomatic expression.

Cognate object constructions have similar constructions with other operator–verbs which are subject to severe collocation restrictions as shown in (9) of Jones (1988: 91).

- (9) a. John met a gruesome death.
- b. Harry led an uneventful life.

c. Bill heaved a weary sigh.

In (9), each postverbal NP is the real object of each verb. This fact is supported by the passive counterparts in (10) of Jones (1988: 92).³⁾

- (10) a. A gruesome death was met by John.
 b. An uneventful life was led by Harry.
 c. A weary sigh was heaved by Bill.

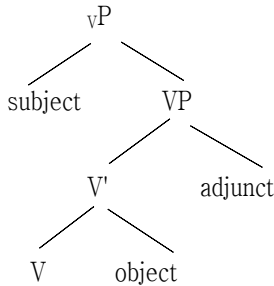
The comparison of acceptable passive examples in (10) with unacceptable ones in (5) indicates that verbs in cognate object constructions are different from those of normal object constructions. In other words, the latter are real transitive verbs, which allow their objects to be the subjects of passive constructions. On the contrary, it is not easy to regard the former as real transitive verbs, since their objects may not be the subjects of passive constructions. In this respect, cognate object constructions are not parallel to the constructions in (9).

Some verbs such as *have*, *resemble*, and *suit* take NP complements but do not allow passive constructions. However, this is not the same case that the verbs in cognate object constructions do not allow passive constructions. Note that the former are pure transitive verbs, whereas the latter are generally regarded as intransitive verbs. This may lead to different accounts for the Case with respect to case theory. In other words, we may have no difficulty in assigning the Objective Case to the objects of the former, but it is difficult to assign the same Objective Case to the objects of the latter. With respect to verbs in cognate object

3) These passive constructions have completely different characteristics from those of cognate object constructions in (5). The subjects of the former are derived from the objects of transitive verbs, whereas the subjects of the latter are derived from the object-like NPs of intransitive verbs.

constructions, Nakajima (2006: 679) explains that the unergative VP structure in (11) gives two possible positions for cognate objects, i.e., object position and adjunct position.

(11) *Unergative*



According to Nakajima, unergative verbs have two positions for cognate objects, and this makes cognate objects of unergative verbs ambiguous between a result reading and a modification reading (e.g., manner, duration, frequency, extent). The result reading corresponds to the interpretation of the cognate object in object position, and the modification reading to its interpretation in adjunct position.⁴⁾

In relation to the two readings of cognate objects, Nakajima (2006: 680) explains that the examples in (12) can be understood ambiguously between two readings.

(12) a. The woman lived a happy life.

4) Nakajima (2006: 680) points out that Macfarland (1995: 48) disregards one of the two readings, the adverbial one, by strictly limiting the range of cognate objects. Macfarland incorporates into the definition of the cognate object construction the constraint that the cognate object must be a result object. This limitation is different from a fact pointed out by many traditional and generative grammarians, such as Visser (1963), Quirk et al. (1985), Zubizarreta (1987), Jones (1988), and Moltmann (1989).

- b. The baby slept a very sound sleep.
- c. The resting girl dreamed a secret dream.

In Nakajima's analysis, sentence (12a) may mean either that the woman lived in a happy way or that her life (though it may have had its ups and downs) resulted in her being happy. Similarly, sentence (12b) may mean either that the baby slept deeply or that the baby had a deep and good sleep.

It is noteworthy that the passive counterparts to the examples in (12) prefer the result reading.

- (13) a. A happy life was lived by the woman.
- b. A very sound sleep was slept by the baby.
- c. A secret dream was dreamed by the resting girl.

Nakajima attributes this reading to the fact that cognate objects with the result reading originally occupy object position. At any rate, it seems clear that cognate objects, if they can be subjects of passive sentences, may have difficulty in having a modification reading, because becoming a subject is equivalent to becoming a topic, which is similar to an argument rather than an adverbial.

Tenny (1994: 39) gives the examples in (14), in which an unergative verb occurs with both a *for*-phrase and an *in*-phrase when it occurs with a cognate object.

- (14) a. Mary laughed a mirthless laugh {for an hour/in an hour}.
- b. Josie danced a silly dance {for an hour/in an hour}.
- c. Martha sang a joyful song {for an hour/in an hour}.

[Nakajima 2006: 680]

With respect to the examples in (14), Nakajima (2006: 681) explains that the unergative verbs occurring with the cognate objects in (14) are either delimited or nondelimited. Nakajima relates the ambiguity to the fact that the cognate objects taken by the unergative verbs play two different syntactic roles and correspondingly have two different semantic meanings. One role is that of a measuring-out argument, and the other is the role of a modifier adjunct. The former role has the result meaning and is compatible with an *in*-PP, whereas the latter has the modification meaning and is compatible with a *for*-PP.

As we have seen so far, argumental cognate objects, unlike adverbial ones, can undergo passivization. This seems to be closely related to proper characteristics of arguments. They can also be questioned by the interrogative nominal *what kind of*. This also supports the belief that argumental cognate objects have concrete status as arguments. However, some cognate objects cannot be subjects of passive sentences. In this respect, these differences should be accounted for between cognate objects that allow passivization and those that do not. Since both unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs have adverbial positions for cognate objects, we will examine adverbial cognate objects in section 3.

III. Cognate Objects as Adjuncts

In the preceding section, we examined cognate objects as arguments. They occupy object positions of unergative verbs. We also saw that unergative verbs may have two positions for cognate objects, i.e., object position and adjunct position.

Nakajima (2006: 674) cites Kuno and Takami's (2004: 116) observation that some unaccusative verbs can occur with cognate objects.

- (15) a. The tree grew a century's growth within only ten years.
 b. The stock market dropped its largest drop in three years today.
 c. Stanley watched as the ball bounced a funny little bounce right into the shortstop's glove.
 d. The apples fell just a short fall to the lower deck, and so were not too badly bruised.

Nakajima argues that the verbs in (15) are unaccusative because they represent nonvolitional events involving nonhuman subjects, and they express the change of state or location of their referents.

The cognate objects in (15) can be replaced by object-like DPs that do not have morphological similarities to the verbs and are not cognate objects.

- (16) a. The tree trunk grew *a century's expansion* in only ten years.
 b. The stock market dropped *250 points* today.
 c. The ball bounced *a funny little curve* right into the shortstop's glove.
 d. The apples fell *the length of my arm*. [Nakajima 2006: 676]

The italicized DPs in (16) can be paraphrased by using adverbial PPs which represent the resultant extent of the events, as in (17).⁵⁾

5) Nakajima (2006: 676) points out a few differences between the argumental spatial DP in (ia) and the extent DPs in (16).

- (i) a. Clyde ran many miles.
 b. Many miles were run by Clyde.

First, the argumental spatial DP in (ia) can be passivized as shown in (ib). Second, the spatial DP in (ia), unlike the extent DPs in (16), can be replaced by a DP not denoting extents (Morzycki 2001).

- (17) a. The tree trunk grew *by a century's expansion* in only ten years.
 b. The stock market dropped *by 250 points* today.
 c. The ball bounced *with a funny little curve* right into the shortstop's glove.⁶⁾
 d. The apples fell *{by/to} the length of my arm*.

Both adverbial cognate objects in (15) and the extent DPs in (16) cannot be passivized, as shown in (18) and (19).

- (18) a. *A century's growth was grown within only ten years by the tree trunk.
 b. *The largest drop in three years was dropped by the stock market today.
 c. *A funny little bounce was bounced right into the shortstop's glove by the ball.
 d. *Just a short fall was fallen to the lower deck by the apples.
 (19) a. *A century's expansion was grown in only ten years by the tree trunk.
 b. *Two hundred and fifty points were dropped by the stock

-
- (ii) a. Clyde ran the race.
 b. *The tree trunk grew many year rings.

Besides, the paraphrase using prepositions in (17) is not possible with the spatial DP in (ia).

- (iii) *Clyde ran by ten miles.

6) Nakajima (2006: 676) adds that the italicized phrases in (16c) and (17c) might not be extent phrases, but the verb *bounce* can take a true extent DP.

- (i) The ball bounced several yards farther before she could catch up with it.

market today.

- c. *A funny little curve was bounced right into the shortstop's glove by the ball.
- d. *The length of my arm was fallen by the apples.
[Nakajima 2006: 677]

This fact is clearly contrasted with argument-like objects as we have seen in the contrast between the examples in (2) and (3). In other words, adverbial cognate objects may not be subjects of passive sentences, whereas argumental ones may. This indicates that adverbial cognate objects, though they appear to be objects of verbs, do not show similarities with normal objects of transitive verbs, which may become subjects of passive sentences. However, this also indicates that argumental cognate objects, on the contrary, are very similar to real objects of transitive verbs both in syntactic aspects and in semantic aspects.

Adverbial cognate objects take the interrogative adverbial *how much* or *how far*, whereas they cannot take the interrogative nominal *what kind of* as shown in (20).

- (20) a. {How much/How far/*What kind of growth} did the tree grow in ten years?
- b. {How much/How far/*What kind of drop} did the stock market drop today?
- c. {How much/How far/*What kind of fall} did the apples fall to the lower deck? [Nakajima 2006: 677]

All these facts make it clear that adverbial cognate objects behave as adverbs rather than as arguments, despite their surface similarity with argumental cognate objects.

Nakajima (2006: 678) argues that the verb *die* is an unaccusative verb which can be followed by a cognate object, as shown in (21a).

- (21) a. Mark Twain died a gruesome death.
 b. Mark Twain died gruesomely.
 c. *A gruesome death was died by Mark Twain.

The cognate object in (21a) may be paraphrased by a manner adverb, as shown in (21b), and may not be passivized, as shown in (21c). In this respect, Nakajima regards the cognate object of *die* as adverbial.

Adverbial cognate objects may have different interpretations. According to Nakajima (2006), the cognate objects in (15) represent the resultant extent of the action, but the cognate object in (21a) represents the manner of the achievement. Nakajima explains that this interpretation difference comes from the distinct classification of the verbs' eventuality. According to Vendler (1967), the verbs in (15), such as *grow*, *drop*, and *fall*, are accomplishment verbs, and the one in (21a), *die*, is an achievement verb. An accomplishment verb and an achievement verb are similar in that they both represent an event that results in a change of state. However, they are different in that the latter, unlike the former, expresses that the change occurs instantaneously. In this sense, the meaning of an achievement verb indicates the resultant end state, and this state comes into being simultaneously with the event expressed by the verb. Therefore, achievement verbs cannot cooccur with another result expression like a resultative secondary predicate, as in **He died stiff* and **Willa arrived breathless*, where the adjectives are intended as resultative phrases. For this reason, the cognate object of *die* in (21a) rules out the result reading and receives that of a manner adverb related to the modifying adjective.

Unlike achievement verbs, accomplishment verbs do not necessarily represent an end state, and take an expression that further specifies their end state. The accomplishment verb *grow* can take a resultative (e.g., *The tree grew tall*), a goal phrase (*The seed grew into a tree*), or an extent phrase (*The tree grew ten inches*), to further specify the resulting state of growth. Similarly, the cognate objects in (15) specify the resulting states, i.e., the resulting extents.

So far, we have seen some characteristics of adverbial cognate objects of some unaccusative verbs. Above all, we have seen that the cognate objects of these verbs may be paraphrased by object-like DPs that do not have morphological similarities to the verbs and are not cognate objects. Besides, these DPs can be paraphrased by using adverbial PPs which represent the resultant extent of the events. Both adverbial cognate objects of unaccusative verbs and the extent DPs cannot be passivized. This seems to indicate that adverbial cognate objects do not show similarities with normal objects of transitive verbs. Adverbial cognate objects take the interrogative adverbial *how much* or *how far*, whereas they cannot take the interrogative nominal *what kind of*. Some adverbial cognate objects represent the resultant extent of the action, while other adverbial cognate objects represent the manner of the achievement. Achievement verbs cannot cooccur with another result expression like a resultative secondary predicate. On the contrary, accomplishment verbs do not necessarily represent an end state, and take an expression that further specifies their end state.

IV. Cognate Objects and the Case

In the preceding section, we saw some characteristics of adverbial

cognate objects. In this section, we will investigate some possibilities of dealing with cognate objects with respect to the Case. To explore them, we will examine some problems of cognate object analyses first in section 4.1. and then an ellipsis analysis of cognate objects in section 4.2.

4.1. Problems of Cognate Object Analyses

To account for cognate objects in relation to the Case, we can examine a few analyses, i.e., the Structural Case analysis, the Inherent Case analysis, and the Caseless NP analysis. It is difficult to assign the Structural Case Objective to the cognate objects in (1) without dropping the restriction to transitive verbs. If we drop the restriction, Objective Case can be assigned to any NP governed by a [-N] head. Note that this modification conflicts with the hypothesis that there exists a class of ergative verbs whose essential property is that they fail to assign Case to the NPs which they govern. At any rate, this modification would not allow NPs to be generated freely in positions governed by intransitive verbs because this possibility is ruled out independently by the θ -criterion. Consider the example in (22) by Jones (1988: 94).

(22) *John died Bill.

Even if *Bill* in (22) is Case-marked, it cannot be a complete component of the sentence due to lack of a θ -role. For this reason, it is incapable of functioning as an adjunct-predicate.

This analysis has a serious problem because it may not explain the inability of some cognate object constructions to passivize. For example, in (5a), repeated as (23) below, *a gruesome death* has moved from a non- θ position to another non- θ position, which is consistent with the hypothesis

that this NP does not have argument status, and is assigned one and only one Case, i.e., Nominative, as required by the Case-filter.⁷⁾

(23) *A gruesome death was died by John.

If we do not posit further conditions, (23) is wrongly predicted to be grammatical. Moreover, any conditions to this end must also consistent with the fact that cognate objects may undergo WH-Movement, as pointed out in (7) above.⁸⁾

In connection with the restrictions on movement of cognate objects, it is interesting to note that these restrictions are similar to those on other adverbial NPs.

- (24) a. John arrived this morning.
 b. George went the wrong way.
 c. Mary dances this way.
 d. Jill stayed several hours on the beach.
- (25) a. *This morning was arrived by John.
 b. *The wrong way was gone by George.
 c. *This way is danced by Mary.
 d. *Several hours were stayed on the beach by Jill.
- (26) a. Which morning did John arrive?
 b. Which way did George go?
 c. Which way does Mary dance?
 d. How many hours did Jill stay on the beach?

7) See (32) in section 4.1.

8) As Jones (1988: 94) points out, the example in (23) might be excluded by a version of the ECP, such as that proposed by Jaeggli (1982), which restricts the occurrence of traces to positions which are subcategorized by the governing item. At any rate, the trace of the *wh*-phrase in (7) would also violate such a condition.

[Jones 1988: 95]

These examples indicate that the NPs involved have the non-argument status as shown in (27), where the same NPs may become subjects of passives when they become arguments of verbs.

- (27) a. This morning will be remembered by John.
- b. The wrong way was taken by George.
- c. This way is recommended by Mary.
- d. Several hours were spent on the beach by Jill.

From all these facts, we may reach a generalization. If we rely on the standard conventions for Case-assignment, intransitive verbs do not assign Objective Case. In this sense, adjunct-predicate NPs, i.e., cognate objects and adverbial NPs of the type in (24), must not occur in a position to which Structural Case is assigned at any stage in the syntactic derivation.

Next, let us examine how cognate objects may be dealt with in the Inherent Case analysis. In Chomsky (1981), Inherent Case is assigned to an NP as a lexical property of the governing predicate. The choice of a particular Case-feature is closely related to the θ -role which the NP bears to the governing predicate. A typical example of Inherent Case is the Dative in the German example in (28).

- (28) Das Mädchen dankte dem Mann.
 The girl [NOM] thanked the man [DAT] [Jones 1988: 95]

In (28), assignment of Dative Case is dependent on properties of the particular verb *danken* rather than on purely structural factors which would

give Objective Case.

Inherent Case-features are not absorbed by the passive verb. In this sense, the object of *danken* cannot become the subject of a corresponding passive.

(29) *Der Mann wurde gedankt.

The man [NOM] was thanked [Jones 1988: 96]

The subject in (29) cannot be assigned Nominative Case because this NP still has the Dative feature assigned at D-structure as a property of the verb. In contrast, inherently Case-marked NPs may be moved to COMP, since no Case-feature is assigned independently to the COMP position.

(30) Welchem Mann dankte das Mädchen?

Which man [DAT] thanked the girl [NOM]

'Which man did the girl thank?' [Jones 1988: 96]

If we extend the notion of Inherent Case to cognate objects and adverbial NPs, the passive constructions in (5) and (25) are ruled out as instances of Case-conflict like (29). The subject receives Nominative Case in addition to the Inherent Case assigned at D-structure. However, Movement to COMP, as in (7) and (26), is permitted for the same reason as in (30).

Nevertheless, it is not evident whether the notion of Inherent Case can be extended in this way. Chomsky's definition applies only to NPs which are arguments of predicates which are marked as having the requisite property, whereas we have argued that cognate objects are not arguments of the governing verb. In this respect, it is difficult to account for cognate

objects with respect to the Case by relying on the Inherent Case analysis.

Finally, let us examine the third analysis, i.e., the Caseless NP analysis. Within the Government and Binding framework presented in Chomsky (1981), the θ -criterion and the Case-filter function together as the basic principles determining the distribution of NPs. These are as shown in (31) and (32).

(31) θ -criterion:

Each argument bears one and only one θ -role, and each θ -role is assigned to one and only one argument.
[Chomsky 1981: 36]

(32) Case-filter:

*NP if NP has phonetic content and has no Case.
[Chomsky 1981: 49]

These two principles require that every NP which is phonetically realized and has semantic content be assigned both Case and a θ -role, either directly or via a trace which it binds.

Instead of trying to devise means of assigning Case to cognate objects and other adjunct NPs which never show overt Case morphology, it may be better to modify Case theory so that such NPs are not required to be Case-marked. Jones (1988: 98) revises the Case-filter, as in (33), to explore the possibility of accounting for cognate objects and adverbial NPs.

(33) Jones's Revised Case-filter (RCF)

*NP

α θ -role

- α Case

where NP has phonetic content.

With respect to argument NPs, the RCF imposes the same conditions as the standard version of the Case-filter in (32). In other words, if an NP has a θ -role, it must have Case. Note that the RCF (33) does not require NPs to be assigned Case and θ -role by the same element. According to the RCF, sentences such as (34) may be analyzed appropriately.

(34) John considers Bill foolish.

In (34), *Bill* is assigned a θ -role by the AP *foolish* but gets its Case from the main verb *considers*. *Bill* is [+ θ -role, +Case]. If we assume that intransitive verbs do not assign Case, the postverbal NPs in (1) and (24) are [-Case], but they are also [- θ -role]. As a result, they are characterized as well formed by the RCF.

The RCF has a good consequence for sentences like (35), which is parallel to (34) except that the attributive expression is an NP rather than an AP.

(35) John considers Bill a fool.

Jones assumes that *a fool* assigns a θ -role to *Bill* in the same way as *foolish* in (34), and that *Bill* gets Objective Case from the verb *considers*. However, according to the standard formulation of the Case-filter (32), *a fool* must also be Case-marked, but there is no way of achieving this.

This problem does not arise under the RCF since *a fool* in (35) functions as a predicate rather than as an argument (i.e., it is $[-\theta\text{-role}]$), and is, therefore, not required to have Case. In effect, the RCF treats *a fool* in (35) in exactly the same way as *foolish* in (34) with respect to Case assignment.

The above observations show that non-argument NPs should be exempted from the requirements of the Case-filter, at least in English. However, the principle given in (33) imposes a stronger condition, namely that non-argument NPs must not be assigned Case. The RCF (33) excludes the combination $[-\theta\text{-role}, +\text{Case}]$.

4.2. An Ellipsis Analysis of Cognate Objects

Since intransitive verbs cannot give their argument NPs Objective Case under the Government and Binding framework presented in Chomsky (1981), it seems essential to decide whether we should give all NPs in English Structural Case without exception or we should allow some exceptions. It is natural that cognate objects and adverbial NPs should be assigned Case if all NPs should be assigned Case irrespective of their positions. In this case, a question arises as to what should be Case-assigners for cognate objects and adverbial NPs. It is not certain what should be their Case-assigners, since both cognate objects and adverbial NPs are not objects of transitive verbs. Note that the Objective Case is assigned to objects of transitive verbs under the Government and Binding framework presented in Chomsky (1981). Therefore, these NPs have to get Case from other sources if Case must be retained for all NPs in English. In this case, we may assume that both cognate objects and adverbial NPs are preceded by prepositions, which are deleted for some reason, i.e., for some idiomatic reason.

Let us examine how this ellipsis analysis can deal with cognate object constructions and adverbial NP constructions. First, consider the contrast among the following examples.

- (36) a. John died a gruesome death.
 b. Harry lived an uneventful life.
 c. Bill sighed a weary sigh. (= (1))
- (37) a. John died gruesomely.
 b. Harry lived uneventfully.
 c. Bill sighed wearily. [My own examples]
- (38) a. John died (in) a gruesome death.
 b. Harry lived (in) an uneventful life.
 c. Bill sighed (in) a weary sigh. [My own examples]

The contrast between the examples in (36) and those in (37) shows that the postverbal NPs in (36) can be substituted by the adverbial expressions. Besides, the contrast between the examples in (37) and those in (38) indicates that the adverbial expressions in (37) can be replaced by prepositional phrases in the same adverbial function. If we assume that the sentences in (36) are derived from those in (38) by deleting the preposition *in*, we do not have to require a case theory to assign the Objective Case to the postverbal NPs by intransitive verbs such as *die*, *live*, and *sigh*. It seems clear that this explanation leads to a natural account for cognate objects in English, without undermining the analysis greatly under the Government and Binding framework of Chomsky (1981). In (38), the postverbal NPs can be assigned Objective Case by the prepositions. Since the sentences in (36) are derived from those in (38), it is only natural that they cannot have their passive counterparts as we

have seen in (5).

Next, consider the following examples in (39–40), which contain postverbal adverbial expressions.

- (39) a. John arrived this morning.
 b. George went the wrong way.
 c. Mary dances this way.
 d. Jill stayed several hours on the beach. (= (24))
- (40) a. John arrived (in) this morning.
 b. George went (in) the wrong way.
 c. Mary dances (in) this way.
 d. Jill stayed (for) several hours on the beach.
 [My own examples]

The relation between cognate objects in (36) and corresponding PPs in (38) parallels the one between adverbial NPs in (39) and corresponding PPs in (40). If we assume that the examples in (39) are derived from those in (40), we may account for adverbial NP constructions naturally with respect to the Case. Note that they do not have to get Case from intransitive verbs, since they can get it from prepositions. In addition, this analysis may account for why adverbial NPs cannot have their corresponding passive counterparts as shown in (25). Note that, in this case, the Case should be assigned before the deletion of prepositions, since the preposition deletion rule is applied later for some idiomatic reason. All these facts indicate that we should account for cognate objects and adverbial NPs structurally based on ellipsis. They also make it clear that the Inherent Case analysis and the Caseless NP analysis are inappropriate for cognate objects and adverbial NPs in English. Therefore, I propose the following revision of the Case-filter from (32).

(41) Jung's Revised Case-filter:

*NP if NP has phonetic content and has no Case, except it is preceded by an elliptical preposition.

The revised Case-filter (41) will eliminate problems related to cognate objects and adverbial NPs with respect to the Case.

V. Conclusion

So far, we have examined a few analyses of cognate objects. Argumental cognate objects may have their passive counterparts, whereas adverbial ones may not. It seems that the former are more like objects of transitive verbs, while the latter are more like adverbs following intransitive verbs. Therefore, it seems natural that the former are assigned Objective Case by the verbs, but the latter are assigned the Objective Case by the preceding elliptical prepositions. This analysis has a merit in that it does not undermine the Case-filter greatly presented in the Government and Binding framework of Chomsky (1981). To eliminate some problems in the Case-filter discussed there, I have proposed a revised Case-filter based on ellipsis. In this revision, it is required that the intransitive verb assign a θ -role to its PP complement so that the object NP of the preposition may get the Objective Case from the preposition. This revision will account for both cognate objects and adverbial NPs with respect to the Case relatively satisfactorily.

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Abstract

Cognate Objects and the Case

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Cognate object constructions are constructions in which a normally intransitive verb occurs with what appears to be a direct object NP whose head noun is the event or state nominalization of the verb. Since cognate objects are, in general, preceded by intransitive verbs, it is difficult to deal with them with respect to the Case under the Government and Binding framework presented in Chomsky (1981). Note that the Objective Case is assigned by transitive verbs in this framework. Therefore, both cognate objects and adverbial NPs cannot be assigned Case without revising the Case-filter discussed in Chomsky (1981). However, these problems can be solved by my revised Case-filter analysis based on ellipsis, without undermining this framework greatly. This analysis can solve problems related to both cognate objects and adverbial NPs relatively well.

Key words: cognate objects, argumental cognate objects, adverbial cognate objects, unaccusative verbs, unergative verbs, Case-filter
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