Reviews

Höskuldur Thráinsson, Hjalmar P. Petersen, Jógvan í Lon Jacobsen, Zakaris Svabo Hansen. *Faroese: An Overview and Reference Grammar*. Tórshavn: Føroya Fróðskaparfelag, 2004, 501 pp.
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As the geography indicates, the language of the Faroe Islands is situated somewhere in between Icelandic and Mainland Scandinavian. Due to this intermediate position, Faroese has attracted comparative-minded linguists in the field of Scandinavian languages for quite some time. The need for an up-to-date reference grammar to replace the fifty-year-old pioneer work of W. B. Lockwood (1955) has long been obvious, and now it is finally here: *Faroese: An Overview and Reference Grammar* (henceforth *FORG*), produced by a Faroese–Icelandic team headed by Höskuldur Thráinsson.

Recent Scandinavian reference grammars such as, for example, *Norsk referansegrammatikk* (Faarlund et al. 1997 (*NR*)) and *Svenska akademins grammatik* (Teleman et al. 1999 (*SAG*)) may serve as points of comparison for this new arrival. The major difference is that whereas *NR* and *SAG* fairly strictly limit themselves to the written language, *FORG* doesn't as this hardly would have made sense from a Faroese perspective (i.e. bearing in mind the short history of written Faroese). Furthermore, although four times the size of Lockwood's grammar, *FORG* is considerably smaller than *NR* and especially *SAG*, and its paperback cover is somewhat poor. This is not necessarily a drawback (frequent use will probably cost rebinding though), as the price is correspondingly lower (less than 400 Danish kroner). This makes the book affordable to students of Scandinavian languages, for example, presumably one of its intended target audiences. *FORG* also wants to be accessible to anyone 'familiar with traditional grammatical concepts' (p. 13). This seems to be so, and whenever the demands of the description go beyond these traditional concepts, generous explanations are offered, especially in the substantial syntax chapter.

A quick glance suffices to assess that *FORG* is by far the most comprehensive book on the Faroese language ever published. Its seven chapters cover orthography and phonetics/phonology (chapters 1 and 2), morphology (3, 4), syntax (5), and Faroese dialects and language history (6–7). In the last two chapters there is a general, fairly exhaustive, and readable, description of synchronic/diachronic variation in Faroese, almost a book of its own, as it were. *FORG* can be seen as a summary

of the past decades of scholarly achievements in Faroes linguistic studies, some of which has been published in less widely read languages (e.g. Faroese and Icelandic). Apart from research by new generations of Faroese linguists – including of course the authors of *FORG* – contributions have been made by scholars from the other Scandinavian countries, the UK, Germany, the USA etc. And although one leading scholar in the field, Michael Barnes, deplores the 'paucity of research' on Faroese (Barnes 2001:6), the point of departure for *FORG* is obviously quite different from the one that met Lockwood, who virtually started from scratch. Still, much remains to be done, and if one feels that some aspects (as e.g. sociolinguistics) of Faroese are sparingly treated in the new grammar, this may be the reason.

FORG may in particular be regarded as a summit (but hopefully not the end!) of fifteen years of intensive, wide-embracing Faroese–Icelandic scholarly co-operation (as witnessed by the conference proceedings *Frændafundur I–IV*). The interest among Icelandic linguists in the Faroese language comes as no surprise as this is obviously the closest relative of Icelandic (the converse is not as self-evident); evidence from Faroese can help in shedding light on aspects of Icelandic and to some extent make up for the domestic dearth of dialect variation. As a rule, Faroese is more 'progressive' than Icelandic; this applies e.g. to the shift from accusative to dative/nominative subjects, a development that is all but completed in Faroese, but about to start in Icelandic (pp. 227f.).

In *FORG* the Faroese–Icelandic(/Old Norse) contrastive perspective is very much present, especially in the syntax and – naturally – the historical chapters. This comparison is appropriate, bearing in mind the book's Faroese–Icelandic editorship and the fact that many of its intended readers are likely to approach Faroese through some knowledge of Icelandic. Sociolinguistically, however, the relation between the two languages is highly asymmetrical. Icelandic has served as a model for the revived written Faroese and been the main source of an attempted purist relexification, attempts that have at times provoked popular resentment in the Faroe Islands (see e.g. Niclasen 1992). The role of Faroese in Iceland (outside linguistic circles) is, on the other hand, negligible.

It is obvious that foreign languages, chiefly Danish, have had a great influence on Faroese. In the spoken language Danish loan-words abound, both older well-established loans and newer ones, to meet momentary needs. For most Faroese the bulk of their reading would be in Danish (in spite of impressive Faroese publishing in recent decades), and Danish words are often the first that come to mind. As Barnes (2001:228) puts it, 'there is scarcely an item of Danish vocabulary that cannot be given a Faroese pronunciation and used in colloquial speech'.

The possible Danish influence on other aspects of Faroese, e.g. morphology and syntax, is less evident and the authors of *FORG* seem inclined to look for 'system-internal' explanations rather than foreign influence. The developing word order sentence-adverb–finite verb in subordinate clauses is a case in point. *FORG*'s

main argument against Danish influence is that Faroese 'has developed a system of its own here' (p. 444), that is somewhere in between the Danish/Mainland Scandinavian system and the Icelandic/Old Norse one. To my understanding, this explanation does not necessarily exclude the other. There may be internal preconditions for the shift towards adv–Vf, but why could the Danish patterns not help to draw Faroese in this direction (even if they do not manage it the whole way)? In a situation like the one in the Faroe Islands, with highly-intensive language contact, one can expect considerable uncertainty in areas that would be more stable in a language under less pressure. Results from research on Vf–adv vs. adv–Vf in Faroese do indeed show vacillation, both in speakers' intuition and in performance of different individuals (pp. 443, 450f.; see also Höskuldur Thráinsson 2001), cf. the following quotation from Barnes (2001:12):

> Speakers of Faroese in my experience display a high degree of uncertainty about what is and what is not permissible in their language, and I have on occasion found it considerably easier to make sense of their performance than their linguistic intuition.

Another 'internal explanation' (tentatively) put forward in *FORG* concerns the fact that in Faroese, unlike e.g. Icelandic, loan-words often keep their original stress, even when in disagreement with the first syllable stress of most native Faroese words. The 'easy' explanation would be to say that massive borrowing has simply weakened the native sense of stress (cf. the similar situation in Mainland Scandinavian). But other stress patterns do exist in native Faroese words (e.g. in compound adverbs, prepositions and adjectives) and the original stress in loan-words might have survived '**because** the native stress rules allowed it' (p. 450; boldface in *FORG*). This is an interesting hypothesis, but it would need more facts, which can be hard to come by, about the chronology of the loans as well as of the deviating native stress patterns in order for it to be corroborated.[1]

A somewhat delicate issue in any description of Faroese is the status of the genitive case. The traditional, normative viewpoint is that it does (or should) exist, whereas 'modern linguists' hold that it doesn't (or shouldn't?).[2] One may note, however, that there seems to be no appreciable difference with regard to the actual use; i.e. everyone agrees that the genitive in spoken Faroese is chiefly to be found in fixed expressions (and with personal pronouns), that definite genitive forms of (especially feminine singular) nouns are very rare and that genitive forms of adjectives are even less frequent than those of nouns etc. Still, it is not unusual to find occasional syntactic genitives in Faroese texts; there is obviously some need for it, stylistic or other, in the written language. So, when *FORG* claims that the genitive 'seems to be on the way out in Faroese' (p. 248), it might as well be argued that it has actually been 'on the way in' ever since the revival of written Faroese in the 19th century. But the authors end on a neutral note and, as they put it, 'leave it to the reader' (p. 457)

to decide, on the basis of their description, whether or not the genitive exists in Faroese! Otherwise *FORG* follows Lockwood and others in giving, as a rule, the genitive forms in brackets.

Explicitly *FORG* takes, as expected, a neutral and 'scientific' stand in most disputed issues in Faroese language planning, noting, for example, the tendency away from dative towards nominative subjects in verbs like *dáma* 'like', *leingjast* 'long for' etc. (nominative 'more commonly [used] in spoken Faroese', p. 257).[3] Implicitly, however, *FORG* will, as probably any grammar must, be normative as it cannot reflect and respect all the variation there is in the language. There are, thus, cases of vacillation in Faroese that are not mentioned in *FORG*, but could have been; e.g. the tendency (chiefly in the spoken language) not to inflect personal names, in particular those that belong to strong masculine declensions (cf. Andreasen & Dahl, 1997: 210f.). This gives us the following comparison with Icelandic:

	ICELANDIC	FAROESE
Common noun:	Ég sá bát [ACK]/*bátur [NOM] 'I saw a boat.'	Eg sá ein bát [ACK]/*bátur [NOM]
Proper name:	Ég sá Ólaf [ACK]/ *Ólafur [NOM]	Eg sá Ólav [ACK]/(?)Ólavur [NOM]

A spot check on the Internet through Google – for whatever it is worth – seems to confirm this hypothesis. The preposition *hjá* 'with'/'at' (identical in Icelandic and Faroese) followed by the (expected) dative (*Ólafi*/*Ólavi*) and nominative (*Ólafur*/*Ólavur*) respectively, gave 676 hits for *hjá*+dative and 0 for *hjá*+nominative in Icelandic versus 67 dative and 15 nominative in Faroese.

Whereas the above use of nominative for expected oblique case still might jar on the ears and (especially) the eyes of most Faroese, this is probably not so when (male) names that lack nominative ending (i.e. *Jógvan, Símun* etc.) are left uninflected in the dative. On the contrary, I have heard Faroese people say that the inflected forms (*Jógvaní, Símuni* etc.) sound stilted and unnatural in colloquial speech. (Cf. also Nauerby 1996:133.) Again, the Internet bears this out: 214 hits for *hjá* + the uninflected form (*Jógvan*) and 64 for the inflected (*Jógvani*). It seems thus as if *FORG* tacitly 'supports' the (threatened) norm as it exclusively uses the inflected dative in names of this category (without mentioning of the uninflected possibility).

An 'oddity' in the weak declension of personal names may also be pointed out. It concerns the (male) name *Áki* [ɔa:ʰtʃɪ], where some speakers keep the affricate in the oblique form *Áka* [ɔa:ʰtʃa], instead of using a velar stop as they would in the oblique singular of phonetically similar common nouns, e.g. *haka* (of *haki*, 'spade').[4] This too may be due to a certain 'psychological reluctance' to inflect personal names (which leads, in this last case, to a 'half-way inflection' in the personal name compared to common nouns).

Another characteristic of personal names (or NPs functioning as such) in Faroese – and this one is thoroughly described in *FORG* – is that they (unlike common nouns) can take a possessive clitic, *-sa*. Normally added to the accusative, the clitic can occasionally be suffixed to the nominative of strong masculines, as *FORG* points out (e.g. *Sjúrðursa*, p. 64). On the whole, there seems to be a tendency in languages to treat personal names differently from other nouns (cf. e.g. Finnish, where composite personal names, in spite of otherwise rich concord, inflect only the last element). Perhaps it could be (has been?) investigated whether the dismantling of case inflection and the development of a possessive clitic in the Scandinavian languages started off with personal names, as the Faroese data seem to indicate?

FORG does not, as mentioned, draw a sharp line between the spoken and the written language; according to the preface (p. 14), 'standard spoken Faroese' (i.e. roughly the dialect of the Tórshavn area) is the base of the description. Throughout the book there are numerous designations of the kind 'mostly in the spoken (/written) language' etc, and the occasional reference to 'slang'. But there is not very much discussion of what these layers signify in a Faroese context (and what there is comes at the end); how do they relate, e.g., to the split between 'pure' and 'impure' Faroese of which the Faroese themselves are highly aware, cf. the dichotomy 'alisføroyskt' ('essential Faroese') vs. 'pidginføroyskt' in Davidsen & Mikkelsen (1993:37f.) and 'Icelandic' vs. 'Danish' Faroese in Nauerby (1996 passim). The example sentences in *FORG* are basically in 'pure Faroese', i.e. the Danicisms of the spoken language are mostly avoided, so to what extent they reflect 'standard spoken Faroese' is thus a matter of how this concept is to be understood. There is, by the way, with a few exceptions, no account of the origin of the example sentences, so it can be assumed that they have mostly been written by the authors.[5]

Talking about example sentences, it is always interesting to abstract from them some kind of 'world view' or *Landeskunde*, as it were. Mostly the sentences are fairly neutral in this respect, but occasionally they reflect traditional Faroese life, with sheep farming – e.g. *Seyðurin er á bønum* 'The sheep is/are in the field' (p. 166) – and catching (and eating) of fish, birds and pilot whales (*grind*). Modern life is represented, e.g., by the (successful) neologisms *fløga* 'CD' and *telda* 'computer': *Jógvan arbeiðir við telduni* 'Jógvan is working with the computer' (p. 172), and once there is a hint at what may be the future for the islands: *Teir hava funnið olju undir Føroyum* 'They have found oil under the Faroes' (p. 93).

When it comes to usefulness, one item that *FORG* lacks is a word index in addition to the Subject index. If, for instance, you want to know how the verb *syngja* 'sing' inflects, you will have to look for it in chapter 3.8.2.2 (assuming that you suspect it to be a strong verb), and after a while probably find it in note 2 to 'Strong class 3'. (*Føroysk orðabók* is probably a better choice for quick reference concerning word inflection.) Or, if you want to find out the syntactic properties of the verb *dáma* 'like', which are discussed on several occasions, then you will have to look under e.g.

'dative subject' in the Subject index, which may not be self-evident to every potential user. A word index, thus, would have been helpful (cf. the 50-page word index in *SAG*). On the other hand, cross-references are ample, so once you have found what interests you, you will be guided to relevant places elsewhere in the book (and in the literature as a whole, for that matter). The thematic lists of bibliographical references that come at the end of each chapter (in addition to the complete one at the end) may prove useful for readers with special interest in some particular field.

The layout in *FORG* is not always optimally user-friendly. The paradigms, for instance, could have been made more attractive if the headings and the forms had been separated graphically (through bold face, italics, character size or the like); cf. the following quotation (from p. 124):

	masc.	fem.	neutr.		masc.	fem.	neutr.
Nsg.	tann	tann	tað	Npl.	teir	tær	tey
A -	tann	ta (tí)	tað	A -	teir (tá)	tær	tey
D -	tí (tann)	tí/teirri	tí	D -	teimum	teimum	teimum
(G -	tess	teirrar	tess	G -	teirra	teirra	teirra)

It is also a (minor) source of irritation, for some of us at least, when paradigms are split between pages; this happens every now and then, e.g. in the paradigms of weak feminine nouns where the N/A/D sg. forms are at the bottom of page 89 and the G sg. and the plural at the top of page 90. Here one feels that, at any rate, it should have been possible to draw the dividing line between the singular and the plural.

Although much longed-for, it would have been worthwhile to wait a few more weeks for *FORG*, in order for it to be submitted to further proof-reading. Misprints in it are numerous, at least 200. But then, admittedly, I have counted everything, including missing full stops and unclosed brackets in footnotes and the like. Although mostly insignificant, the frequent misprints may undermine the non-Faroese speaking reader's trust in the example sentences (or their 'quotability', as it were). These, however, have few misprints as far as I can tell; some of those few will be mentioned here.

The word *nevndin* 'the committee' (p. 251) has the nominative form after the preposition *vegna* 'because of', where it should be in the accusative (as the English gloss indicates), i.e. *nevndina*. The missing *n* in *Getan* (p. 313) is less disturbing; it can easily be restored by the 'observant reader', as the word *genta* 'girl' is a frequent one in the example sentences.

In *Hvar* KEYPTIR *tú bókina?* 'Where did you buy the book?' (p. 191; emphasis MR), the form should be *keypti* as Faroese has no personal endings in the preterite of weak verbs (cf. the corresponding Icelandic form *keyptir*). And [. . .] *henda góða* DRONG 'this nice boy' (p. 433; emphasis MR) should in all probability be *drongin*, as Faroese along with Swedish and Norwegian, but unlike Danish and Icelandic, has double definiteness. This is not always true of formal style (p. 226), but formality does

not seem to be intended here. In correspondence with Icelandic usage is furthermore the dative object with *stjala* 'steal' in **Hesin lúsakjálkin hevur stoli**ð *MÁLLÆRUNI*[DAT]! 'That scoundrel has stolen the grammar book!' (p. 125; bold in FORG, emphasis MR). As far as I can tell from dictionaries the verb *stjala* governs accusative in Faroese (and it is not to be found in the list of monotransitive verbs governing the dative in *FORG*, p. 258).

From a Swedish perspective one may regret that several titles of Swedish references are misprinted and that a quotation in Swedish (p. 349) of two lines suffers from seven misprints. Furthermore, the statement on p. 399 that *u*-umlaut distinguishes the plural of (strong) neuter nouns from the singular (in relevant words) in the 'Scandinavian languages' could be understood to include Swedish, which it doesn't, of course.

Finally there are quite a number of repeated small words ('is is', 'the the', 'and and' and the like), which the spell-checker should have helped to eliminate. And talking about trifles, one may also note a certain inconsistency in how Faroese names are transliterated in the English glosses and translations; e.g. full adaptation as in 'Gjogv' (p. 176; Far. *Gjógv*), partial adaptation as in 'Seyrvágsfjord' (p. 281; Far. *Seyrvágsfjørður*) and no adaptation as in 'Fuglafjørður' (p. 285). This may possibly be due to the fact that different parts of the book have different origins.

These final critical remarks do, however, carry little weight with the overall impression that *FORG* is a remarkable tour de force on its authors' part (most of the blemishes, e.g. the misprints, can easily be removed in a future reprint) and a worthy counterpart to *Føroysk orðabók* (the impressive first-ever monolingual Faroese dictionary) from 1998, as well as to the Scandinavian grammars referred to above. It will hopefully incite interest and inspire research in the enthralling field of Faroese studies for many years to come.

NOTES

1. The fact that there are other languages, e.g. Finnish and Latvian, with considerably more loan-words than Icelandic but with strict initial stress, suggests that there is no simple correlation between the number of loans and preservation of original stress.

2. The 'modernist view' is expressed by one of *FORG*'s authors in his criticism, elsewhere, of a recent, normative Faroese grammar (Andreasen & Dahl 1997): 'Why it [the genitive] necessarily must be pushed into Faroese, I do not understand.' (Petersen 1997:36; translation MR). In a response to Petersen, Jeffrei Henriksen (1998) sums up the traditionalist arguments. (For an overview of the genitive in Faroese grammars, see Weyhe 1996.)

3. A search on the Internet through Google does not indicate an impending shift to nominative with *dáma*, assuming that the Internet reflects more of substandard and 'younger' language than, say, newspaper articles (e.g. *mær dámar* ['I like', DAT]: 454 hits; *eg dámi* [NOM]: 47).

4. This means that the claim in *FORG* – if I have understood it correctly – that the paradigmatic alternation [k/tʃ] is 'without exception, as far as we know' (p. 46) does in fact have exceptions.

5. These matters of vocabulary may, it could be argued, be beyond the scope of a reference grammar, but they have certainly caused headaches and heated debates in connection with Faroese dictionaries (*FORG* sums this discussion up neatly on pp. 453–457).

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Ole Togeby. *Fungerer denne sætning? Funktionel dansk sproglære* [Does this sentence work? Functional Danish grammar]. København: Gads forlag, 2003, 365 + xii pp.

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This book is called a 'sproglære' which is a domestic Danish word for 'grammar'. The etymological meaning of *sproglære* is 'textbook of language' which might be

the reason why it was chosen. The author intends his book to cover not only the morphological and the syntactic aspects of Danish sentences but also their meanings in linguistic and extra-linguistic contexts. In the introductory section he establishes a hierarchical system of functional meanings: the conceptual meaning expressed by the sentence is embedded in a proposition (indicating its reality value), which functions in its turn as the body of a message (with illocutionary meaning, relevant for the receiver), and finally the message is used to perform a speech act (with perlocutionary meaning and social consequences). A coherent understanding of the sentence has to embrace all these levels.
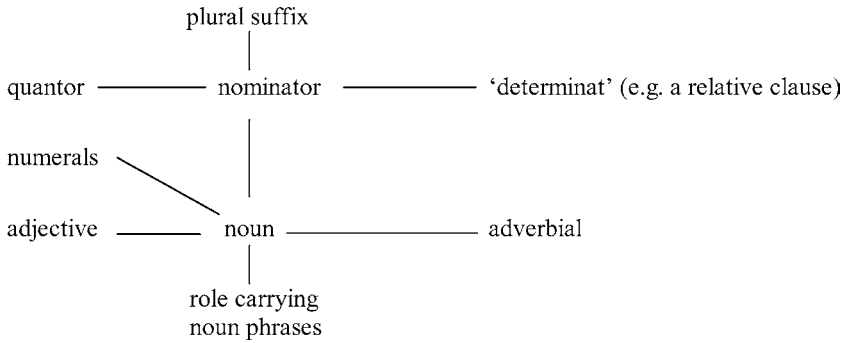
It is maintained that sentences should be linguistically analysed only as part of a communicative context, so the author tries to base all descriptions on authentic (written) material, printed in an appendix at the end of the book. (In reality, though, non-authentic examples – including starred sentences – are frequent in the text!)

The book has three main parts: morphology and syntax (*c*. 100 pp.), 'med-delelseslære' (approximately 'theory of communication; *c*. 80 pp.) and semantics (*c*. 125 pp.). It brings also (short) lists of annotated references for each chapter and a rather complete index of subjects and persons.

The chapters on morphology include presentations of various morphological categories, such as morphemes, roots, functional words, inflection, derivation etc. Togeby looks upon roots as semantic phenomena not inherently belonging to specific parts of speech. (For a similar view, worked out in detail, see Josefsson 1997). Nominal declensions and verbal conjugations are left out since they do not contribute to 'the explanation of the function of the sentence' (p. 21). Problematic parts of speech like pronouns and adverbs are treated only marginally. The section on morphology also includes an exposition of the prosodical patterns of Danish words and sentences (inspired by Grønnum 1998 and Hansen & Lund 1983).

Togeby's syntax is an elaboration of Diderichsen's topological model (Diderichsen 1946), combined with a functional perspective. An attractive concept is the 'centaur structure' (pp. 54, 157) of Danish sentences: the introductory part of the sentence is organised to signal 'utterance' features such as time (by the finite verb), reality value and illocutionary type (by the subject) and the speaker's attitude to the proposition (by sentence adverbials) while its concluding part renders the conceptual meaning (by the predicate and its arguments – minus the one designated by the subject).

The sentence and the nominal group are described in topological schemas but they are also characterised by means of categorial grammar graphs. The noun phrase for instance has the nominator (e.g. the article) as its head (p. 63), as is shown in the diagram below. It is distinguished informally between a more semantic and a more syntactic structure, parallel but only partly isomorphic. The predicate may be a verb, but there are also corporate predicates expressed by a verb and a preposition, an adverb or a naked noun which do not need to form a surface syntactic constituent

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                        plural suffix
                             |
quantor  ————————  nominator  ————————  'determinat' (e.g. a relative clause)

numerals   ╲                 |
            ╲                 |
adjective  ————————  noun  ————————————  adverbial
                             |
                      role carrying
                      noun phrases
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with the verb. Togeby is not very specific on how these various patterns (topology, categorial grammar, argument structure) are systematically related to each other.

The central section of the book has the cryptic title 'meddelelseslære'. This is where pragmatic aspects of the sentence are treated: how its meaning is situated in time, how its reality value is signalled, how it functions interactively as a part of a dialogue or a written text etc. Other paragraphs treat phenomena like information structure, presupposition, identification of referents, and illocutionary force. I find this section a little disparate, although full of interesting observations and analyses. Togeby uses an instructive 'round arch' metaphor to show how the interpretation of a sentence in a paragraph often crucially depends upon the meaning of another sentence in the same paragraph – as when the stones of an arch are kept together by the top stone of the arch. The receiver has to trust the sender to present this key sentence sooner or later. Another useful principle is the one saying that the theme should be expressed as weakly (economically) as possible for the receiver to identify it, while the message about the theme should be as strong as possible, i.e. it should include all information relevant for the receiver. The final part of the section on 'meddelelseslære' has a weaker relation to sentence grammar and semantics than the rest. Here fiction and non-fiction are characterised, and in a few ingenious paragraphs Togeby describes irony, fraud, and various kinds of communicative breakdowns by means of various constellations of what the communicating partners presuppose about each other's knowledge and attitudes.

The final section, on semantics, is extensive and comprehensive. A chapter on grammatical meaning uses Leech's notation to describe the content of the proposition including subordination, degradation and fusion of predicates in complex propositions. Various types of structures are postulated, but they are hardly motivated and alternative analyses are not considered or discussed. Neither is the relation between the proposed semantic structures and their syntactic counterparts investigated or generalised in a consistent way.

In a chapter on polysemy Togeby presents his 'zeugma test', by which he can separate lexical polysemy from other, more accidental semantic differences. In a

following chapter, on lexical meaning, the meaning categories of nouns, verbs, adverbs etc. are enumerated, and Togeby even allows himself to establish a truly Aristotelian taxonomy: the lexico-grammatical conception of the world ('det leksiko-grammatiske verdensbillede'; p. 295). The last chapter treats various apparent violations of semantic consistency, especially metonomy and metaphor. There is also a semantic analysis of the genitive and aktionsarten as well as lists of categories to be used in the description of nouns and verbs as lexical entries.

This 'sproglære' is a rich book, full of original observations and thought-provoking generalisations. Such texts are bound to provoke questions and objections. My reading has left many question marks in the margin. I shall mention only a few of them, mostly from the first sections of the book.

Togeby argues that a thought or a linguistic unit is always perceived as a figure against a ground. This is often quite reasonable, e.g. when discussing information structure and similar matters, but I cannot find it very instructive or convincing about roots (figure) vs. inflectional suffixes (ground), or about heavy stress (figure) vs. weak stress (ground; e.g. pp. 4f.).

The root is characterised as a segmental morpheme (p. 18) but later we learn that adverbial adjectives + *t* (*dårlig-t* 'badly') or complex numerals (*ni-og-halv-fem-s* 'ninety-nine', *syv-ende* 'seventh') are roots. Is the root a morpheme, then, or is it not?

The term 'constituent' is sometimes mentioned (not in the index, though), but its definition is not transparent. Are the tree diagrams superposing topology schemas intended to show the constituent structure of the sentence? Does for instance the diagram on p. 51 imply that the objects and the manner adverbial form a constituent together?

The genitive is analysed as a derivation: the suffix *-s* transforms the noun into an adjective. I admit that a genitive noun phrase in some ways behaves syntactically like an adjective, but it is not inflected like an adjective (for gender, number, definiteness or degree) and in noun phrases it functions as a determiner (Togeby: nominator) rather than a modifier like regular adjectives. In my view, this extravagant idea conceals more than it reveals.

The topological schemas of the book could be discussed, as well. Like Platzack (e.g. 1987) against Diderichsen (1946), Togeby proposes a general syntactic schema for both subordinated and non-subordinated clauses, but he cannot use the arguments of the neo-Chomskyan tradition, and his own functional arguments are not very impressive (p. 99). Togeby uses the noun phrase schema to explain why Danish has *bil-en* 'the car', *den røde bil* 'the red car' but not *den røde bil-en* (p. 67). This seemed at first to be a shrewd idea, but unfortunately the analysis produces new problems, e.g. why *bilen rød(e)*, admitted by the schema, is ungrammatical.

The categorial grammar graphs (e.g. pp. 52, 63; cf. the graph on p. 142 above) could have done with some more comments. No explanation is given why one node can be reached along more than one path. And why is the 'quantor' dominated by the 'nominator' while the plural suffix depends directly on the noun? I can imagine reasons for this, but since the basis of the categorial analysis is not discussed, we can only guess at the author's arguments.

In the system of various noun types it is surprising that the distinction countable vs. mass is made only for concrete nouns (pp. 246f.). This is surprising since the difference between love and a love affair appears to be the same as between food and a sandwich, semantically as well as syntactically.

Togeby's inventory of semantic roles comprises only three (the roles of being, having and doing), and one might have expected a more thorough discussion of their distinctive functional meanings. An account might have been useful of how they can combine mutually and with different predicates and how they can or cannot be expressed. I am not sure that I have understood why the subject in one context (pp. 78ff.) but not in another (e.g. 200ff.) is accepted as a role carrier.

One strength of this book is that it is both general and specific, from the top to the bottom. It is no wonder then that the author has needed an abundance of technical terms. Sometimes he is too generous with terms, though. Does for example the book need a new term for the syntactic function fulfilled by relative clauses ('determinat')? Is it necessary to distinguish terminologically between the process ('derivation') and the product of derivation ('derivat')? A well-known rhetorical and pedagogical dilemma is to decide when new terms should replace old ones with a slightly different definition or where established terms could be used for new concepts with a similar meaning. I do not think it was a good idea to exchange 'present participle' for 'gerundium' or to extend the domain of 'copula' to cover also verbs like *holde* 'keep' in sentences like *hold kaffen varm* 'keep the coffee warm'. Nor am I totally happy with 'foregang' 'process' as a general designation for the meaning of verbal roots, since only some types of verbs denote processes, i.e. not predicates like 'differ' or 'cost'. (Unfortunately I can suggest no better alternative.)

The book has a large number of abbreviations, graphs and synthesising lists. The index of abbreviations and 'signs' comprises slightly less than 150 instances. They are simply too many and the text would definitely have been more readable if more terms had been written out in full. Many small graphic typographic differences are distinctive: bold vs. non-bold, upper-case vs. lower case, underlining (double or simple) vs. non-underlining etc. The use of such typological distinctions is not always consistent:

> J: adjective root; j: adjectival suffix
> V: verbal root; v: finite verb
> K: conjunction; k: subjunction

Many of the geometric graphs are instructive but some of them are difficult to understand (like the ones on pp. 127 and 318). The beautiful symmetry of the figure on p. 179 (taken from an earlier work of Togeby's, I think) is perhaps too beautiful for its own good, i.e. the reader might suspect that the symmetry is used as a persuasive technique rather than as a true reflection of reality.

The synthesising tables may be effective as pedagogical tools, but their comprehensiveness can be deceptive. New information has sometimes found its way into the table and in other cases important information from the text may not have fitted into the format of the table.

Various complex phenomena are explained by metaphors, often very effectively. To begin with I found the bus window metaphor for tenses and aspects (e.g. p. 104) quite telling, too, but second thoughts convinced me that it has also some serious flaws if you take it seriously.

The title of the book indicates that it is a textbook; and according to the preface a preliminary version of it has been used as such in the study of Danish at the University of Aarhus. The author suggests that it can also be used as a reference work. One can foresee certain difficulties in both cases. Parts of the book are not easy to read, even for a reader with substantial previous knowledge of the field. Sometimes the text starts from scratch, on other occasions it presupposes quite advanced pupils. Another problem is that the book is idiosyncratic, i.e.Togeby-ish, in some respects without mentioning or discussing other attempts at coming to grips with similar problems. Contemporary or traditional well-established terminologies are at times silently and unnecessarily disregarded. This idiosyncratic character of the book makes it perhaps also less useful as a work of reference.

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