



Those Danes who will read this book, not only do they stand to improve their English significantly, but they will also gain a deeper understanding of what a language really is.

On the other hand, those readers who study Danish will see their learning curve get substantially steeper, thus speeding up the process of learning the language.

First off, let us distinguish between the **what** and the **how**.

Let us say we intend to embark on a study of a human organ, say the *heart*. The *dialectical* way to go about it is to first (a) define the heart, the **what**, and then (b) study it, the **how**, that is how the heart works and to what end.

Our being able to formulate a valid definition does not mean we know the inner workings of the concept defined.


The definition of the *heart* might be a couple of lines long but its inner workings are millions of lines long.

However, despite the huge difference in the quantity of text between the *what* and the *how*, they are equally important, especially when the concept defined does not have a visual representation like, for example, *Justice*.

The definition serves to bring into sharp focus the object of our study. If our definition is wrong, we will end up studying some other concept instead. If, for example, our definition of *Justice* were really the definition of *punishment*, then we would be studying *punishment* instead of *Justice*. Therefore, the stakes involved in formulating a valid definition are really high.

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In this book we are going to talk about and study in depth the grammar of **adverb clauses**, both in English and Danish, focusing on the similarities and differences between the 2 languages with respect to them, that is to adverb clauses.

 I denne bog skal vi tale om og dybtstudere grammatikken i adverbialsætninger, både på engelsk og dansk, med fokus på lighederne og forskellene mellem de 2 sprog med hensyn til dem, det vil sige adverbialsætninger.

But if we are to be successful in our endeavour, we had better consider first a number of issues before we get to the point of actually studying adverb clauses.

However, let it not escape us that studying grammar means studying language as well. It makes a lot of sense, then, to start by defining *language* and *grammar*, for it would not serve us well if we

started to study adverb

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clauses without having a clue about the nature of grammar and language, which are of course concepts.

But even before we define grammar and language, shouldn't we define, well, the terms *concept* and *definition*?

And, what about our methodology?

The methodology we are going to follow in writing this book is based on *Dialectics* and *Horistics*.

Would it not then be a good idea to start by first defining *Dialectics* and *Horistics* instead?

Let us do just that.

Starting, then, in logical order, that is from top to bottom, we are going to define (a)definition, (b)concept, (c)dialectics, (d)horistics, (e)language, and (f)grammar.

def. 1 A **definition** is a set of properties which exclusively identifies a unique concept.
(Isidoros Parlamas 1980)

For a statement to qualify as a definition, it must fulfill a number of requirements, one of which is that only 1 unique concept can fit into it.

def. 2 A **concept** is a representation of a given definition. (Isidoros Parlamas 1980)

For instance, if we define the word "horse," the way opens to consider different representations of the term defined. We can think of the concept of (a)a real horse, the concept of (b)a horse on a computer screen, the concept of (c)a horse in a physical photo, (d)in a physical painting, the concept of (e)the word "horse" itself et al.

def. 3 **Dialectics** is asking the right questions and providing the right answers with an eye to uncovering the truth regarding the issue under examination. (Socrates in Plato's *Cratylus* 390c)

In everyday language, this refers to the ability to *think straight* or to *avoid making mistakes* when we think critically. Arriving at a conclusion involves, inevitably, asking questions and providing answers. If we ask the right questions and provide the right answers, we will arrive at the right conclusion, thus reaping benefits; if not, we will arrive at the wrong conclusion, thus suffering the consequences.

def. 4 **Horistics** is the art of defining. (Isidoros Parlamas 1980)

It should be mentioned at this point that horistics is the cornerstone of dialectics.

Meaningfully, the word *horizon* has the same origin as the word *horistics*, from the Greek verb **ΟΡΙΖΕΙΝ / ὀρίζειν** (*horizein*), which means *to delineate*. Each definition has its own *horizon* or *delineation*, and it had better not spill over to other horizons of adjacent concepts because, if it does, then our definition is invalid.

Time to define language.

We'd better be careful here not to confuse *interaction* with language. So, what is language?

def. 5 **Language** is communication governed by grammar. (Isidoros Parlamas 1980)

What is grammar?

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def. 6 **Grammar** is the set of rules that governs a language. (Isidoros Parlamas 1980)

Now, armed with this set of instrumental definitions of very basic concepts, we are better equipped to proceed further.

But, you will ask, why did we have to go through all those definitions?

Well, the importance of the reason we had to do this cannot be underestimated.

By defining our terms, we open ourselves up to being held accountable for what we say.

Defining one's terms promotes accountability.

Definitions make it easier for nonsense, owned either to ignorance, bad faith, or indulging oneself in malicious manipulation, to be detected.

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A WORD ON CONCEPTS • EN KOMMENTER OM BEGREBER 🇩🇰

Literally **everything** that exists, be it animate or inanimate, is, among other things, a concept. Definitions describe concepts. All concepts have at least one representation, be it physical, visual, lexical, or conceptual.

For instance, an **apple**, a concrete noun, can be represented in 4 objective ways:

1. **physical** (real apples)



2. **visual** (on a screen or in a photo or in a painting):



3. **lexical** (the word): apple

4. **conceptual** (definition): **An apple** is typically round or oblong fruit with smooth or slightly textured skin. The skin color can vary depending on the variety and can be shades of red, green, yellow, or a combination of those colors. Apples have a firm and juicy flesh and their taste can range from sweet to tart.

But **kindness**, an abstract noun, can be represented only in 2 objective ways:

5. **lexical** (the word): kindness


6. **conceptual** (definition): **def. 7 Kindness** is a positive quality or characteristic demonstrated through compassionate and considerate behavior towards others.

The thing to understand here is that (a)since representations of concepts are **something** and (b)since **everything** is, among other things, a concept, (c)it follows that representations of concepts are also concepts.

We can therefore refer to (a)the concept of the physical representation of an apple or (b)the concept of the lexical representation of an apple and so on.

Some concepts are universal while others are not. For example, lexical representations, that is words or vocabulary, are not universal because they are language dependent, while conceptual representations are

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universal. Indeed, the lexical representation of an  in English is **apple**, while in Danish is **æble**; however, the conceptual representation of an apple, that is its definitions, is universal.

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A WORD ON LANGUAGE • EN KOMMENTER OM SPROG

A language can be broken down into (a)lexicon (words or vocabulary), (b)phonetics (pronunciation) rules, (c)punctuation rules, (d)syntax (word order) rules, and (e)morphology* rules, part of which are periphrases.**

* **morphology** refers to internal structure and formation of words in a language, which involves, among other things, prefixes, suffixes, inflection, declension, conjugation, and periphrases. In English, we **decline** nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, and we **conjugate** verbs. For instance, the subject of verbs in English is indicated by nouns or subject pronouns: **example 1** *Helen works* or *she works*, but in Spanish, it is indicated by the ending of the verb as the verb is conjugated: *Helena trabaja* or *ella trabaja* or *trabaja*; *Helena y Juan trabaj***an** or *ellos trabaj***an** or *trabaj***an**.

** **periphrasis**, plural **periphrases**, is part of morphology and refers to polylexical (multi-worded) forms of Parts of Speech. For example, *to be fond of* is a periphrasis of *to like*, but they are both verbs and their meaning is roughly the same. *Even though* is a periphrasis of *although*, but they are both conjunctions and their meaning is roughly the same. Periphrases do not always occur in pairs. For example, *look forward to* does not have a monolexical (single-worded) counterpart.


(f) There are far more concepts than words and (g) each word represents only one concept at a time and (h) each concept has a definition and (i) there is only one valid definition for each concept and (j) there is not a single word which represents only one concept. (Isidoros Parlamas • Applied Dialectics & Horistics)

Let me elaborate on the statement above:

(f) *There are far more concepts than words*

For every word and in every developed language there are at least 2 concepts associated with it. As an example, let us think of **water**. How many concepts does **water** represent? Well, let's see how many of them we can think of off hand.

example 2 I drink 2 liters of **water** every day. (H₂O → uncountable noun)

 Jeg drikker 2 liter vand hver dag.

example 3 My eyes **water** when I see homeless children. (intransitive verb)

🇩🇰 Mine øjne løber i vand, når jeg ser hjemløse børn.

example 4 My mouth **waters** when I smell fresh fish. (intransitive verb)

🇩🇰 Min mund løber i vand, når jeg lugter frisk fisk.

example 5 I **water** my garden once a week. (transitive verb)

🇩🇰 Jeg vander min have en gang om ugen.

We see that **water** represents at least 4 different concepts.

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(g) *Each word represents only one concept at a time*

But even though **water** represents various concepts, it represents only one concept at a time. As you can see, in each of the 4 sentences above, **water** represents only one concept. For example, in sentence 1, it represents only H₂O.

(h) *each concept has a definition*

The definition of **water** in **example 1** above is its chemical formula: **def. 8** H₂O.

The definition of **water** in **example 2** above is **def. 9** overflowing of the eyes with tears.

The definition of **water** in **example 3** above is **def. 10** the production of an abnormally large amount of saliva in the mouth.

The definition of **water** in **example 4** above is **def. 11** providing moisture to plants and/or trees by applying water to the soil.

(i) *there is only one valid definition for each concept*

Of course, anyone can attempt to define a concept. If, for example, we ask 10 people to define **Justice**, we will most probably end up with 10 different definitions, of which, most probably, none will be apposite.

Justice, just like all other words, represents more than one concept, but each specific concept of **Justice** has only one valid definition which is different from the definitions of the other concept(s) of the term.

It takes a lot of training in *Dialectics* and *Horistics* to be able to come up with valid definitions.

(j) *there is not a single word which represents only one concept*

This may sound impossible, but it is true. Even very common words, such as **and**, represent more than one concept. (this not the same as (f) above)


Let us take a look.

example 5 He ate two peaches **and** drank one coke.

🇩🇰 Han spiste to ferskner **og** drak en cola.


Rel. (cumulative relationship • **and** here conveys the concept of increase or addition)

example 6 George invited Helen to dinner, **and** he didn't pay for it.

 George inviterede Helen til middag, **og** han betalte ikke for det.

Rel. (relationship of contrast • **and** here means **but**)

example 7 Jill was anxious about her date, **and** she canceled it.

 Jill var bekymret for sin date, **og** hun aflyste den.

Rel. (aetiology or cause-and-effect relationship • **and** here means **so**)

You get the idea...

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PARTS OF SPEECH • DELE AF TALE

At this point, it is necessary to define **truth**.

Most people believe that *truth* exists only as a word because they feel that its meaning, if it has one, is and will remain elusive for ever.

It turns out, though, that most people think so because they live a life hypocrisy and they would rather accept as truth whatever helps them to sweep under the rug their negative traits and the uncomfortable feeling of guilt.

One of the basic premises of *Dialectics* tells us that each concept has a valid definition, and so does *truth*.

So, what is *truth*?

def. 12 **Truth** is what happens or takes place without exception. (Isidoros Parlamas 1985)

Let me explain by example.

dialog 1

1. **Jill** — Is it true that the sun rises in the east?
2. **Steve** — No.
3. **Jill** — Why not?
4. **Steve** — Because there are exceptions.
5. **Jill** — How so?
6. **Steve** — Well, on planet Venus, the sun rises in the west.
7. **Jill** — Is it true that on planet Earth the sun rises in the east?
8. **Steve** — Yes, it is.

Notice that after we narrowed down question 1 enough, we arrived at question 7 and answer 8, that is we arrived at the truth; we know for sure now that the answer to question 7 is positive because the statement *On planet Earth, the sun rises in the east* is devoid of any exceptions.

Dialectic Exercise 1 Can you think of another example to demonstrate that **def. 12** is valid?

Truth 1 (a)Parts of Speech are concepts. (b)There are 10 Parts of Speech and (c)each word belongs in at least one of them. Parts of Speech are (d)**language independent**, meaning that they

are (e)lexicon independent, (f)punctuation independent, (g)syntax independent, (h)morphology independent, and (i)periphrases independent.

A verb, then, remains a **verb** in all languages regardless of the lexicon or punctuation or syntax or morphology or periphrasis involved.

You really need to understand that while **lexicon**, **syntax**, **punctuation**, **morphology**, and **periphrasis** are language dependent, **Parts of Speech**, are not. That is to say that Parts of Speech are universal.

For instance, **working hard** is a concept. **example 9** **They work hard** is expressed in all countries, irrespective of lexicon, punctuation, syntax, morphology or periphrases. So, in all languages on planet Earth, in this specific example, **they** will always be a subject pronoun, **work** will always be a verb, and **hard** will always be an adverb.

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Let us see this same sentence in a few different languages:

English: **They** **work** **hard**.

Danish: **De** **arbejder** **hårdt**.

Modern Greek: **Autoi** **εργάζονται** **σκληρά**.

Spanish: **Ellos** **trabajan** **duro**.

Polish: **Oni** **pracują** **ciężko**.

Russian: **Они** **много** **работают**. (The syntax is different here, but Parts of Speech remain unaffected.)

Mandarin Chinese: **他们** **工作** **努力**。

We can see that in every single language above, **fuchsia** is the subject pronoun, **blue** is the verb and **red** is the adverb, which demonstrates neatly that Parts of Speech are universal.

Parts of Speech are, then, strictly **function dependent**, which means that each Part of Speech plays a distinct nonvariable role in the clause; in other words, the role of verbs is invariably the same, the role of nouns is invariably the same, and so on.

The role that each Part of Speech has in clauses is spelled out in its own definition, meaning the definition of each Part of Speech is really the description of its role in the clause.

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These are the 10 Parts of Speech in alphabetical order:

- A. adjectives (**good** food)
- B. adverbs (**well** done)
- C. articles (**the** right choice)
- D. conjunctions (He's in Europe, **but** I'm in Africa.)

- E. interjections (**Wow!** Do you mean that?)
- F. nouns (high **quality**)
- G. participles (an **extended** period of time • an **interesting** book)
- H. prepositions (**at** home)
- I. pronouns (It's **them**!)
- J. verbs (We **meet** often.)

There are also a handful of words, usually less than 10, called **particles**, which do not fit into any of the definitions of the Parts of Speech. For example, in English, the word **to**, when part of the infinitive, is sometimes, but not always, a **particle**.

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Mostly directly, but also indirectly, Parts of Speech are noun-centered, that is nouns are the sun of the solar system of the Parts of Speech. All other 9 Parts of Speech revolve around nouns.

def. 13 **Nouns** are names.


George, Helen, apple, kindness

 hest, brød, Jens, vand

— — —

def. 14 Articles qualify* **nouns** in terms of gender, person, number et al.

the, a/an, of

 *det, den, de, af*

Some languages, for example, Polish, lack articles.

*In English, when we talk about grammar, **qualify** and **modify** are synonyms.

def. 15 Adjectives qualify **nouns**.

good weather, **bad** advice, **heavy** rain, **this** book, **those** boys

 **godt** vejr, **dårlige** råd, **kraftig** regn, **den her** bog, **de der** drenge

— — —

def. 16 Participles derive from verbs and, just like adjectives, they qualify **nouns**.


interesting film, **concerned** parents, **complicated** story, **living** legend

 **interessant** film, **bekymrede** forældre, **komliceret** historie, **levende** legende

— — —

def. 17 Pronouns replace **nouns**.

he • she • it • them • this is my book • those are my friends • she did it herself

 han • hun • det • dem • denne er min bog • det er mine venner • hun gjorde det selv

— — —

def. 18 Verbs denote an action, occurrence, or state of being, in which **nouns** or **pronouns** are the protagonists.

go, put, write, sleep, be, think, work, give


 gå, sætte, skrive, være, tænke, arbejde, give

— — —

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def. 19 Prepositions qualify **nouns** in terms of *time, place, manner, degree, quantity, quality et al.*

at home • in the country • around the corner • on the wall • under the table

 hjemme • i landet • rundt om hjørnet • på væggen • under bordet

— — —

def. 20 Adverbs qualify (a)verbs, (b)adjectives, (c)other adverbs, (d)clauses, and (e)sentences.

- she lives **well**  hun lever **godt**
- he is **reasonably** fluent  han er **rimelig** flydende
- they run **fast enough**  de løber **hurtigt nok**
- Interestingly, they all insisted on paying for everyone's drinks.
 Interessant nok insisterede de alle på at betale for alles drinks.

and answer to questions related to (f)when, (g)where, (h)how, (i)how much, and (j)why.

— — —

def. 21 Conjunctions connect clauses while, at the same time, they **establish** fundamental relationships between them.


and, or, therefore, for, while, before

 og, eller, derfor, for, mens, før

— — —

def. 22 Interjections are stand alone words or phrases which express strong emotions, sudden reactions, or short exclamations.

Wow! Ouch! Oh no! Yay! Oops! Ah... Ugh!

 Wow! Av! Åh nej! Yay! Ups! Åh... Åh!

— — —

The same word can be more than one Part of Speech depending on its function in the clause or phrase*. This phenomenon is language dependent.

* **def.23** A **phrase** is a word or a group of words that conveys a meaning but does not have the subject-verb unit.

For example:

Phrase Good!

Phrase Weather permitting.

Phrase Once upon a time.

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Phrase God willing!

Phrase Damn it!

are all phrases.

Some nouns can also be adjectives.

example 10 This **animal** is beautiful. (noun)

example 11 **Animal** feed can be expensive. (adjective)

Some adjectives can also be nouns or adverbs.

example 12 This is a **good** job. (adjective)

example 13 I am thinking of the greater **good**. (noun)

example 14 They look **good**. (adverb)

Some present/active participles can also be nouns.

example 15 The children are **swimming**. (present/active participle)

example 16 **Swimming** is a great sport. (noun/gerund)

Some past participles can also be adjectives.

example 17 This issue has always **complicated** things. (past participle)

example 18 This is a **complicated** situation. (adjective)

Some pronouns can also be adjectives.

example 19 **This** is beautiful. (demonstrative pronoun)

example 20 **This** flower is beautiful. (demonstrative adjective)

Some verbs can also be nouns.

example 21 I **sleep** well. (verb)

example 22 Adequate **sleep** is crucial for overall health. (noun)

Some prepositions can also be conjunctions or adverbs.

example 23 He is standing **before** her. (preposition)

example 24 He had called **before** she arrived. (conjunction)

example 25 She has done that **before**. (adverb)

Some adverbs can also be adjectives.

example 26 We work **hard**. (adverb)

example 27 The soil is very **hard**. (adjective)

Some conjunctions can also be prepositions.

example 28 She stayed home **for**, as she said, she was feeling unwell. (conjunction)

example 29 I am doing this **for** you. (preposition)

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A LITTLE HISTORY

Of course, everything started when the **Creator** created the cosmos.

But here, on planet Earth, **civilization**, not architecture, not agriculture, not irrigation, not know-how of any sort, but civilization started with Socrates (469 - 399 BC) in Athens.

Socrates was the first to be concerned primarily, both in his private and public discourse, about **Justice and Ethics**.

It was Socrates who introduced to the world the Dialectical Methodology of Reasoning, the Dialectics, which did away once and for all with superstition, bias, and economic and social discrimination, thus giving a tremendous boost to philosophy and social politics.

The way Socrates lived and died has been **anathema** to this day to all psychopaths, strongmen, fascists, dictators, and tyrants from China to Chile...and beyond. But it also has been the guiding light of Freedom and Justice for various peoples, but first and foremost for the Scandinavian peoples.

Most Scandinavians may not know it, but the way they have lived their lives for the last 150 years is aligned to a great extent with the Socratic view on social politics and political ethos.

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Then, there was (a)Plato, Socrates' student, and then (b)Aristotle, Plato's student, and finally (c)Alexander the Great, Aristotle's student.

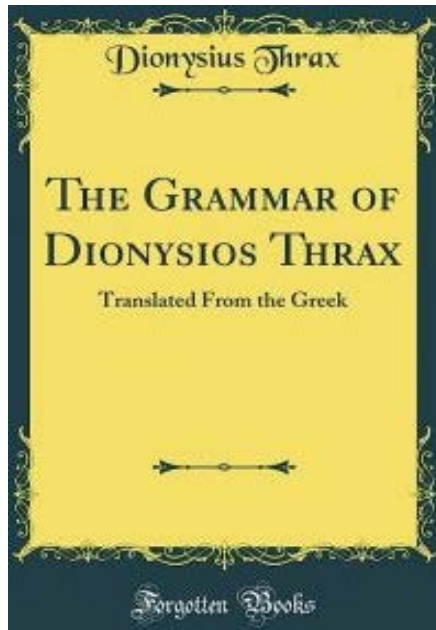


The first university ever, the Academy, was founded by Plato in Athens and lasted for about 1000 years; the second university, the Lyceum, was founded by Aristotle in Athens and lasted for about 300 years. As for Alexander the Great, he was the one who, through his conquests in Asia and

North Africa, deliberately and methodically spread the Classical Greek Civilization from the Atlantic ocean to India and caused the phenomenon called *Hellenization*, which has been transforming the whole world ever since.

[Socrates](#), in Plato's *Cratylus*, and, subsequently, Plato's student, [Aristotle](#), were the first known individuals to have formulated the concept of The Parts of Speech. But it was [Dionysius the Thrax](#), an ancient Greek grammarian and scholar who lived during the 2nd century BC, and [Apollonius Dyscolus](#), an ancient Greek grammarian and scholar who lived during the 2nd century AD, who spelled out 9 of today's 10 Parts of Speech, leaving out **interjections**. Dionysius the Thrax is known for his work on grammar, specifically his treatise

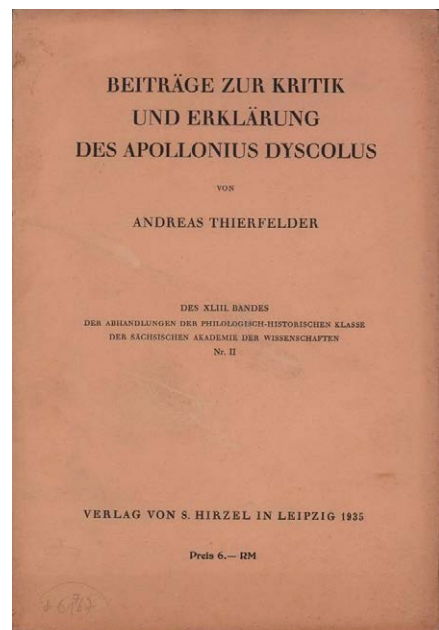
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called "[The Art of Grammar](#)" (τέχνη γραμματική). Apollonius Dyscolus, on the other hand, was the founder of scientific syntax and wrote specifically on adverbs, conjunctions and pronouns. Apollonius Dyscolus' son, [Aelius Herodian](#), also influenced significantly later grammarians; he wrote extensively on prosody.

Their work are the foundational texts in the field of Greek grammar and had a significant influence on

subsequent grammatical studies in both Greek and Latin; they are still regarded as the groundwork of the entire Western grammatical tradition and beyond.



In "[The Art of Grammar](#)," Dionysius the Thrax described the parts of speech in Greek including **onomata** (nouns and adjectives), verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions. He also discussed topics such as syntax (sentence structure), and morphology (word formation).

Dionysius the Thrax and Apollonius Dyscolus' works have had a lasting impact on the study of grammar worldwide. Their classification of the Parts of Speech and their grammatical analysis methods became fundamental principles in subsequent grammatical studies and have been influencing the development of grammatical theories in most languages to this day.

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The Parts of Speech and their definitions are universal, which means that all languages have exactly the same Parts of Speech.

However, grammarians are notoriously inaccurate and will tell you that different languages have different Parts of Speech, which is totally untrue.

What they really mean is that Parts of Speech in different languages may consist of different or more or fewer types or classes or subcategories. For example, they will tell you that English has 1 class of adjectives while Japanese has 3.

It is true that some languages, such as Russian, lack articles, but the remaining Parts of Speech are the same ones as in every other language.

But why are The Parts of Speech important?

Because each one of them defines a distinct role/function of words in clauses and, because of that, they help us study and learn languages infinitely more efficiently.

The definition of each Part of Speech spells out its role/function in a clause and those definitions are formulated on the basis of universal conceptual criteria. That means that if a word satisfies the definition of

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verbs in a given clause, then it is a verb regardless of language, punctuation, syntax, morphology, or any periphrases involved. (**Truth 1 on page 6**)

In clauses or phrases, words as well as groups of words can be identified on two levels, [\(a\)](#) Parts of Speech (PoS) analysis level and [\(b\)](#) syntactical analysis level (word order).

Let us take a look at this sentence.

example 30 [Both of them work hard.](#)

PoS Analysis:

- both ([pronoun / stedord](#))
- of ([partitive article / delingsartikel](#))
- them ([pronoun / stedord](#))
- work ([verb / udsagnsord](#))
- hard ([adverb / biord](#))

Syntactical Analysis:

- both of them ([subject / subjekt](#))
- work hard ([predicate / udsagnsled](#))

Of course, syntactic analyses can be much more detailed when the situation calls for it, but here we just wanted to point out that the Parts of Speech analysis should not be confused with the syntactic one.



At this point we need to understand the concepts (a)clause, (b)main/independent clause, (c)subordinate/dependent clause, (d)sentence, and (e)conjunction.

def. 24 A **clause** is a word or a group of words which, as a minimum, contains a subject and a verb.

def. 25a A **main clause** is a clause which can stand on its own.

Alternatively,

def. 25b A **main clause** is a clause which contains no conjunctions.

def. 26a A **subordinate clause** is a clause that cannot stand on its own.

Alternatively,

def. 26b A **subordinate clause** is a clause which contains a conjunction.

No asterisks or exceptions or hidden meanings!

Ingen stjerner eller undtagelser eller skjulte betydninger!

def. 27 A **sentence** is either a lone main clause or a mixture of main and subordinate clauses.

def. 21 **Conjunctions** are words or groups of words that connect clauses while, at the same time, establish fundamental relationships between them. (page 9)

Points to Internalize*

point 1 Provided we have at least one subject, we have as many clauses as we have verbs. (see **example 31** through **example 37** below)

point 2 In English, the terms **clause** and **sentence** are not synonyms and therefore they cannot be used interchangeably. The term **clause** is used only when we examine whether a group of words is a *main clause* or a *subordinate clause* or when we differentiate between *main clauses* and *subordinate clauses*. In all other circumstances, the term **sentence** is used.


point 3 A lone main clause can be referred to as either a *clause* or a *sentence*, depending on the context, but a lone subordinate clause can **only** be referred to as a *clause*.

We could say, for example, (a) **example 32** below is a **sentence** whose subject is "we," or (b) **example 32** is a **main clause** while **example 33/2** (= and study), is a **subordinate clause** because it cannot stand on its own.

point 4 Main clauses can be **one-word** clauses, like **example 31**, but subordinate clauses cannot because they must contain a conjunction.

point 5 Only (a) lone main clauses and (b) a mixture of main and subordinate clauses can be referred to as **sentences**.

* To **internalize** means to take something external, such as information, values, beliefs, or experiences, and incorporate or integrate it into one's own mind or understanding. When you internalize something, you make it a part of your own thinking, perspective, or behavior.

 At **internalisere** betyder at tage noget eksternt, såsom information, værdier, tro, eller oplevelser, og inkorporere eller integrere det i ens eget sind eller forståelse. Når man internaliserer noget, gør man det til en del af ens eget tænkning, perspektiv eller adfærd.

cj = conjunction

- **example 31** Eat!¹ (one clause)
- **example 32** We work¹ at a bank. (one clause)
- **example 33** We work¹ and^{cj} study.² (we work • and we study) (two clauses)
- **example 34** We work¹, study,² and^{cj} party.³ (we work • [we] study • and we party) (three clauses)
- **example 35** As^{cj} you know¹ ... (as^{cj} you know ...) (one clause)
- **example 36** As^{cj} you know¹, it has² been confirmed ... (as^{cj} you know • it has) (two clauses)
- **example 37** As^{cj} you know¹, the situation has² been evaluated but^{cj} your proposition has³ not been adopted.
[(1)as^{cj} you know • (2)the situation has • (3)but your proposition has] (3 clauses)

...

Truth 2 From Socrates to Plato to Aristotle to Dionysius the Thrax to Apollonius Dyscolus to Noam Chomsky, who turned 94 this year, that is in the year 2023, a **main clause** is a clause that can stand on its own (**def. 25a**). Interestingly, it so happens that a clause can stand on its own only if it does not contain any conjunctions (**def. 25b**).

Making use of **example 31** through **example 37** above to interpret **def. 24** through **def. 27**

How to use the words *clause* and *sentence* in English is a tangle, but we are going to untangle this mess in no time. Just pay close attention. See also **point 2**

In **example 31**, we have (a) the implicit subject **you** and (b) a verb, which makes it a **one-word clause** (**def. 24**). We can also see that this one word (c) can stand on its own, which makes it a **main clause** (**def. 25a** and **def. 25b**). Indeed, no additional information is required for this clause to make sense and it contains no conjunctions.

Of course, we are dealing here with the imperative mood / bydemåde • imperativ.  **Spis!**

example 31 also satisfies **def. 27** .

page 16

In **example 32** , we have (a)a subject and (b)a verb, which makes this specific group of words a **clause**. We can also see that this group of words (c)can stand on its own, which makes it a **main clause**. Indeed, no additional information is required for this clause to make sense.

If we observe carefully, we will notice that **example 32** satisfies simultaneously **def. 24** , **def. 25a** , **def. 25b** , and **def. 27** .

The fact that **example 31** and **example 32** satisfy **def. 26** means that, depending on the context, **example 31** and **example 32** can be referred to also as **sentences**, something about which we are going to talk in a second.

def. 25a and **def. 25b** are equivalent and, of course, they are absolutely **not** contradictory, because it so happens that clauses which cannot stand on their own always contain a conjunction and clauses which can stand on their own never contain a conjunction.

— — —

In **example 33** , we have (a)a main clause (we work) and (b)a subordinate clause (and study).

The whole group together is a sentence comprised of 1 main clause and 1 subordinate clause.

— — —

In **example 34** , we have 2 main clauses (we work, we study) and 1 subordinate clause (and we party). The whole group together is a sentence comprised of 2 main clauses and 1 subordinate clause.

— — —

In **example 35** , we have 1 subordinate clause (as you know ...). Lone subordinate clauses cannot be referred to as sentences under any circumstances.

— — —

In **example 36** , we have 1 subordinate clause (as you know ...) and one main clause (it has been confirmed). The whole group together is a sentence comprised of 1 subordinate clause and 1 main clause.

— — —

In **example 37** , we have 2 subordinate clauses [(1)as you know • (2)but your proposition has not been adopted] and 1 main clause (the situation has been evaluated). The whole group together is a sentence comprised of 2 subordinate clauses and 1 main clause.



æøå

Horistics

Subject • Verb • Adverb • SVA • SAV • VSA • AVS

STREAMLINING & UNIVERSALIZING THE ROLE OF CONJUNCTIONS

AT EFFEKTIVISERE OG UNIVERSALISERE AF KONJUNKTIONERNES ROLLE



Is there a way to test if a clause is main or not?

Obviously, we need to test if a clause fulfills the definition of main clauses.

25a A main clause is a clause that can stand on its own.

25a En hovedsætning er en sætning som kan stå alene. 🇩🇰

The question now becomes, is there a way to test if a clause can stand on its own?

The answer is affirmative, *Yes, there is.*

We prompt our interlocutor to talk to us about something or someone. Our interlocutor's sentence starts with that **something** or **someone**.

TEST 1

Interlocutor A (1) Tell us about **the weather**. Fortæl os om **vejret**. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2a) **The weather** was fine. **Vejret** var fint. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2b) And **the weather** was fine. Og **vejret** var fint. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2c) But **the weather** was fine. Men **vejret** var fint. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2d) Or **the weather** was fine. Eller **vejret** var fint. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2e) For **the weather** was fine. For **vejret** var fint. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2f) So **the weather** was fine. Så **vejret** var fint. 🇩🇰

TEST 2

Interlocutor A (1) Tell us about **Jill**. Fortæl os om **Jill**. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2a) **Jill** is a great person. **Jill** er en fantastisk person. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2b) And **Jill** is a great person. Og **Jill** er en fantastisk person. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2c) But **Jill** is a great person. Men **Jill** er en fantastisk person. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2d) Or **Jill** is a great person. Eller **Jill** er en fantastisk person. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2e) For **Jill** is a great person. For **Jill** er en fantastisk person. 🇩🇰

Interlocutor B (2f) So **Jill** is a great person. Så **Jill** er en fantastisk person. 🇩🇰

As we can see in the tables above, in both Test 1 and Test 2, only clause **2a** can stand on its own, which means clause **2a** is a main clause, whereas clauses **2b** through **2f** are subordinate clauses.

It follows that main clauses cannot be introduced by or start with a conjunction...any conjunction. Period!

In this way, the definition of a main clause is upheld. **def. 25a** (page 13)

So, every time you want to make sure if a clause is a main one or not, just run the above test.

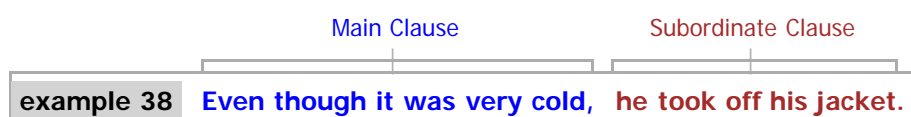
Now, a lot of naive people, grammarians among them, claim that if we take out the conjunction, we will end up with a main clause, which is correct. But if we were to think like that, then all clauses would be main clauses...there would not be any subordinate clauses at all.

There is not one single subordinate clause which would not turn into a main clause if we took out the conjunction.

Those people fail to see that it is precisely the conjunction that makes a sentence subordinate. No conjunction, no subordinate clause. Conjunctions always connect main clauses. The thing is that the clause which starts with a conjunction is no longer a main one exactly because it starts with a conjunction.

One cannot bend definitions at will just because they have gotten wrong something as basic as the difference between a main and a subordinate clause.

For example:



If we were to ignore *although*, the conjunction, we would be left with 2 main clauses: (1) *it was very cold* and (2) *he took off his jacket*. Now, how is that a surprise? Of course, we would be left with 2 main clauses!

All subordinate clauses will become main clauses if we remove the conjunction.

Conjunctions in subordinate clauses are inseparable from those clauses. We don't get to include them or exclude them at will to cover contradictions or inconsistencies created on account of having adopted theories that cannot stand to logical scrutiny.

So, where does that leave FANBOYS (for • and • nor • but • or • yet • so), in English, and OMEFS (og • men • eller • for • så), in Danish?

Well, they are totally redundant since they do not add or contribute anything useful or meaningful to grammar. On the contrary, they create a lot of confusion. No benefit, but a lot of confusion.

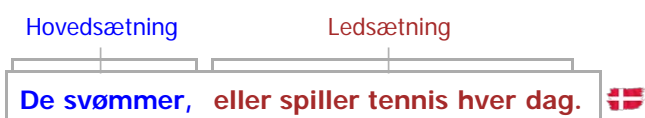
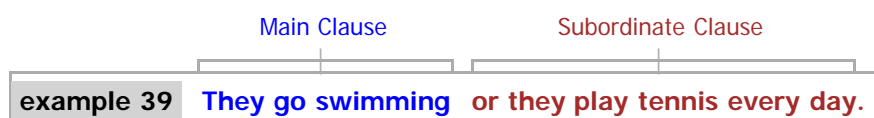
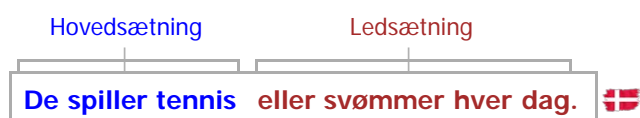
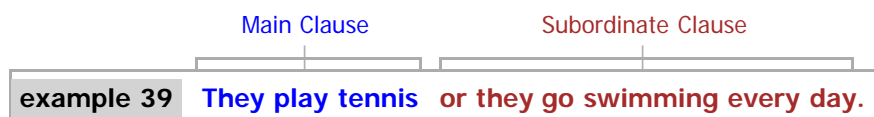
It happens all the time in all fields of knowledge. Some scholars, usually scholars who enjoy a lot of misplaced prestige, introduce concepts into their field which make no sense, either to make an impression or out of outright ignorance.

If we were to ask the question *Why are FANBOYS/OMEFS any different from other conjunctions?* the only answer we would get is *Because they connect equivalent clauses*, which sometimes is true and sometimes it is

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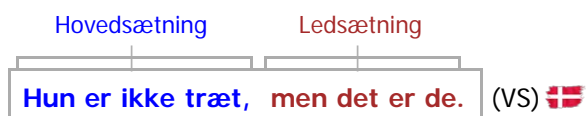
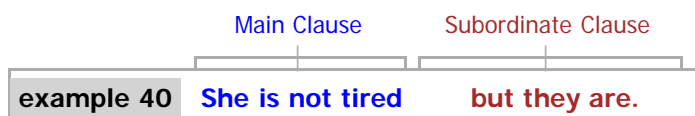
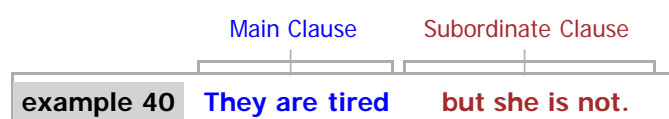
not. But if we were to ask a second question, *How does that contribute to the theory of grammar?* the answer is that *They do not contribute in any way.*

For example:



It is true that both sentences are equivalent, which means **they carry equivalent contextual weight**.

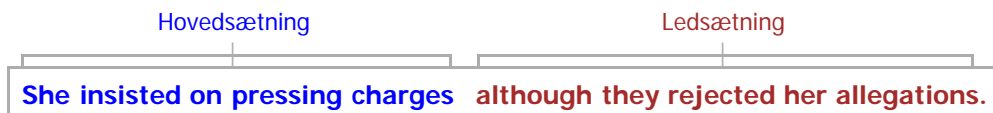
And so what? How is that useful to us? The second clause will always be a subordinate clause anyway because it cannot stand on its own.



Both sentences are equivalent here also. But the distinction is useless because the second clause will always be a subordinate one.

They say that FANBOYS connect main clauses, but what they mean is that if we take out the conjunction, we are left with two main clauses. But that is true in all cases, not just when we are dealing with FANBOYS.

Moreover, we are not supposed to remove the conjunction because the conjunction is an integral part of both clauses and sentences.



These two clauses are not even equivalent because the conjunction establishes a **relationship** of conflict between the two clauses and it turns out that relationships of conflict are not comprised of equivalent clauses.

We see, then, that clauses connected with FANBOYS are not always equivalent, but even if they were, it would not help us in any way. So, much ado about nothing, which reminds us of Shakespear's homonymous play.

Some will say that FANBOYS/OMEFS help us apply the rules of punctuation correctly, but that is not the case either; however, I will not take the time to demonstrate why that is not the case since punctuation per se is beyond the scope of this book.

Now, if any of the readers believe that the concept of FANBOYS or the concept of OMEFS contributes to grammar, please enlighten me and I will sincerely be grateful to you. (horistics@gmail.com)

• • • VSA SYNTAX • • •

Truth 3

Internalize:

Classifying clauses as either main or subordinate is not syntax dependent but rather **stand-on-one's-own** dependent.

Internaliser:

At klassificere sætninger som enten hoved- eller led-sætninger er ikke syntaksafhængig, men snarere **stå-alone** afhængig. 🇩🇪

Danish, along with English, German, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic, belongs in the Germanic family of languages. Those languages share many similarities in vocabulary and grammar, but they also share, with the notable and sole exception of English, almost identical syntax rules.

These syntax rules, which have been confused with the Parts of Speech, are at the heart of the contradictions and inconsistencies in both Danish and the other Germanic grammars, save English, as they are presented in grammar books.

As stated above, generally speaking, English does not share the syntactic peculiarities of the rest of the Germanic languages.

When Danes study main and subordinate clauses, they are presented with the following 4 pillars of Danish syntax: SVA, SAV, VSA, and AVS; S stand for *subject*, V stands for *verb* and A or CA stands for *central adverb*.

We all know what a subject, a verb, and an adverb is, but what about *Central Adverbs*? What are they?

I am currently studying Danish at Sprogskole and we've been talking about *central adverbs* a lot, but, so far, never has a definition of them been provided. So, what are they?

Adverbs are defined in **def. 20**, but what is the difference between adverbs in general and central adverbs?

def. 28 In Danish, **Central Adverbs** are a specific group of adverbs which relate to the subject and verb in a clause in terms of how they are positioned with respect to one another: SVA, SAV, VSA, or AVS. **S** stands for *subject*, **V** stands for *verb*, and **A** stands for *adverb*.

På dansk er centrale adverbier en specifik gruppe af adverbier, der relaterer til subjektet og verbum i en sætning i forhold til, hvordan de er placeret i forhold til hinanden: SVA, SAV, VSA eller AVS. S står for *subjekt*, V står for *verbum*, og A står for *adverb*. 🇩🇪

Now, the syntax we are considering in this section is VSA, that is **verb + subject + adverb**.

For example:

example 42

Surprisingly, he also won the second race. / Overraskende vandt^V han^S også^A det andet løb. (VSA) 🇩🇪

We observe that in both languages the introductory adverb comes first, but in English it is offset by a comma while the Danish clause undergoes inversion. Another difference is that, in Danish, the Central Adverb (også) must come after the verb.

example 42 is a main clause because it can stand on its own with or without the introductory adverb. Notwithstanding syntax, **example 42** is a main clause in both languages. We need to understand that the definition of a main clause has nothing to do with syntax. If the clause can stand on its own, it is a main clause. Period!

In Germanic languages, save English, we are forced to deal with chaos and a host of contradictions and inconsistencies.

Let us examine the following main clause:

example 43 The salary is also low. / Lønnen er også lav. (SVA) 🇩🇪

Let us introduce a few semantic nuances by way of introducing the above clause with an adverb.

example 44 Surprisingly, the salary is also low. / Overraskende er lønnen også lav. (VSA) 🇩🇪

example 45 Unfortunately, the salary is also low. / Desværre er lønnen også lav. (VSA) 🇩🇪

example 46 Coincidentally, the salary is also low. / Tilfældigvis er lønnen også lav. (VSA) 🇩🇰

example 47 Usually, the salary is also low. / Normalt er lønnen også lav. (VSA) 🇩🇰

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example 48 Strangely, the salary is also low. / Mærkeligt er lønnen også lav. (VSA) 🇩🇰

First let us confirm that **example 44** through **example 48** are all main clauses with or without the adverb introducing the clause.

Now, the words *surprisingly*, *unfortunately*, *coincidentally*, *usually*, and *strangely* are adverbs. But are they? How can we know for sure?

Well, we compare them to the definition of adverbs. That is why we need definitions.

Let us remind ourselves of the definition of adverbs. (pages 8-9)

def. 20 Adverbs qualify (a) verbs, (b) adjectives, (c) other adverbs, (d) clauses, and (e) sentences.

- she lives **well** 🇩🇰 hun lever **godt**
- he is **reasonably** fluent 🇩🇰 han er **rimelig** flydende
- they run **fast enough** 🇩🇰 de løber **hurtigt nok**
- Interestingly, they all insisted on paying for everyone's drinks.
🇩🇰 Interessant nok insisterede de alle på at betale for alles drinks.

and answer to questions related to (f) when, (g) where, (h) how, (i) how much, and (j) why.

We notice that **example 44** through **example 48** fall under (e) and (h) because (1) they qualify sentences and (2) answer to the question *In what way?* or *How do we feel about the salary being also low?*

1. We feel surprise → **surprisingly**
2. We feel it's unfortunate → **unfortunately**
3. We feel it is worth mentioning it → **coincidentally** (by the way)
4. We feel it is usual → **usually**
5. We feel it is strange → **strangely**

Now, let us look at this example:

example 49 Therefore, the salary is also low. / Derfor er lønnen også lav. (VSA) 🇩🇰

First and foremost, **therefore** is a conjunction, not an adverb!

Secondly, **example 49** is a subordinate clause because it cannot stand on its own, which is consistent with the theory.

"What?!" will the Danish/German/Dutch/Swedish/Norwegian grammarian exclaim. "Of course **therefore** is an adverb! / Selvfølgelig er "derfor" et adverbium! 🇩🇰

And if we ask *why*, they will tell us, "Look at the syntax! It's VSA! / Se på syntaksen! Det er VSA!" 🇩🇰

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And how should we respond to that?

Well, we should say the obvious: "My dear fellow, we suggest you look at the definition of adverbs, not the syntax."

Of course, there is no mention of *syntax* in the definition of adverbs and, as we have already seen, the Parts of Speech are language independent.

Now, let us run a test to see if the clause can stand on its own:

TEST 3

Interlocutor A	(1)	Tell us about the salary .	Fortæl os om lønnen . 🇩🇰
Interlocutor B	(2a)	Surprisingly, the salary is also low.	Overraskende er lønnen også lav. 🇩🇰
Interlocutor B	(2b)	Unfortunately, the salary is also low.	Desværre er lønnen også lav. 🇩🇰
Interlocutor B	(2c)	Coincidentally, the salary is also low.	Tilfældigvis er lønnen også lav. 🇩🇰
Interlocutor B	(2d)	Usually, the salary is also low.	Normalt er lønnen også lav. 🇩🇰
Interlocutor B	(2e)	Strangely, the salary is also low.	Mærkeligt er lønnen også lav. 🇩🇰
Interlocutor B	(2f)	Therefore, the salary is also low.	Derfor er lønnen også lav. 🇩🇰

We see that only clause (2f) cannot stand on its own and therefore it is a subordinate clause.

Remember that Parts of Speech are language independent and, therefore, they are also punctuation independent, which means no hollow arguments about punctuation may be admitted to defend the claim that *therefore* is an adverb.

Furthermore, **example 49** does not answer to anything since only statements, that is either affirmations or negations, as opposed to questions, are true answers; but statements can only be main clauses. In other words, no answer can start with **therefore**, which drives us to the conclusion that **therefore** does not conform to the definition of adverbs since adverbs must, among other things, answer to specific categories of questions.

In addition, *therefore* does not qualify either (a) a verb, or (b) an adjective, or (c) another adverb, or

(d) a clause, which means that *therefore* does not fulfill the requirements to be an adverb.

Yes, *therefore* precedes the clause but it does not qualify it in any way because it does not relate at all to the context of the clause.

Indicative of the confusion surrounding *therefore*, as well as many other words, is that in English grammar books, *therefore* is referred to either as (a) a conjunction, or as (b) an adverb, or as (c) a transition, or as (d) conjunctive adverb.

Elize, I know you probably do not approve of this...but I am fed up with the academic status quo...

Let us start with some healthy satire! Is satire always healthy?

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Now, don't get me wrong! It's just that sometimes some humor is needed and irony...whatever...sarcasm? No, no need for sarcasm...I'm in the habit of saying things in a straightforward way...no hypocrisy or bigotry in this book...just politics...no pseudo-politics...no partisan politics...just Politics...and Dialectics...and Horistics...

Wow! Grammarians! What is wrong with you? So, "therefore" is an adverb? Well, that could be forgiven, at least adverbs is one of the Parts of Speech...but transition and conjunctive adverb? **transition** and **conjunctive adverb** even mean anyway? Are they the 11th and 12th Parts of Speech? Or, are you re-re-re-inventing the wheel of grammar? Hold your horses for a second and study Dionysius the Thrax and Apollonius Dyscolus...for heaven's sake...or, if you don't like Classical texts, you can read Noam Chomsky! Otherwise, you might as well rip up your PH.D's and Master degrees...it may be that you have attended too many so-called academic conferences...I don't know much about academic tourism...you tell me...but I am certainly having a great time here doing what I am doing...admittedly enjoying a healthy dose of academically flavored schadenfreude...well, not really...just fooling around guys...everyone's entitled to making some mistakes...what is wrong with me? Am I bigheaded? Or are you a rote learning product, professor? Unless you know how to tell a clause of purpose from a clause of result...but you wouldn't know, would you? Unless you've read and understood Dionysius the Thrax or Apollonius Dyscolus, which you haven't, right? Too busy celebrating your social and academic status...well...well...it's time you bought a new outfit for the next conference...come on now...you're not alone out there...stop sobbing...I'll buy you a lollipop...everything will be OK...you will see...I know you wanna project yourself out there as a serious scholar but you feel little more than an outfit...what can you do to feel better? What? Are you used to acting pompous? I know...poor soul...



Lad os starte med noget sund satire! Er satire altid sundt?

Nu, misforstå mig ikke! Det er bare, at jeg har brug for noget humor og ironi...hvad som helst...sarkasme? Nej, intet behov for sarkasme...Jeg har for vane at sige tingene på en ligefrem måde...intet hykleri eller bigotteri i denne bog...bare politik...ingen pseudo-politik...ingen partipolitik...bare politik...og dialektik...og horistik...

Wow! Grammatikere! Hvad er der galt med dig? Så er "derfor" et adverbium? Nå, det kunne tilgives, i det mindste er adverbier en af ordleddene ... men overgang (transition) og konjunktivt adverbium? Hvad betyder **overgang** og **konjunktivt adverb** overhovedet? Er det 11. og 12. del af tale? Eller genopfinder du grammatikkens hjul igen? Hold dine heste et øjeblik og studer Dionysius Thrax...for himlens skyld...eller, hvis du ikke kan lide klassiske tekster, kan du læse Noam Chomsky! Ellers kan

du lige så godt rive dine ph.d.'er og kandidatgrader op...det kan være, at du har deltaget i for mange såkaldte akademiske konferencer...Jeg ved ikke så meget om akademisk turisme...du fortæller mig ...men jeg har det helt sikkert godt her, og gør det, jeg laver...nyder ganske vist en sund dosis af akademisk smagt skadefreude...nå, egentlig ikke...bare at fjerne...alle har ret til at lave nogle fejl... hvad er der galt med mig? Er jeg storhovedet? Eller er du et udenadslæringsprodukt, professor? Medmindre du ved, hvordan man kan skelne en klausul om formål fra en klausul om resultat ... men du ville ikke vide det, ville du? Medmindre du har læst og forstået Dionysius Thrax eller Apollonius Dyskolus, hvilket du ikke har, vel? For travlt med at fejre din sociale og akademiske status...nå...ja...det er på tide, at du køber et nyt outfit til næste konference...kom nu...du er ikke alene derude...stop hulkende...jeg vil købe en slikkepind til dig...alt vil være i orden...du vil se...jeg ved, du vil projicere dig selv derude som en seriøs lærer, men du føler dig lidt mere end et outfit... hvad kan du gøre for at få det bedre? Hvad? Er du vant til at opføre dig pompøst? Jeg ved...stakkels sjæl...

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OK, enough is enough. So much for *therefore* being an adverb. The conclusion is that *therefore* (= that is why = for that reason) is an aetiological conjunction and, for that reason, it introduces aetiological clauses which happen to be subordinate ones because they cannot stand on their own.

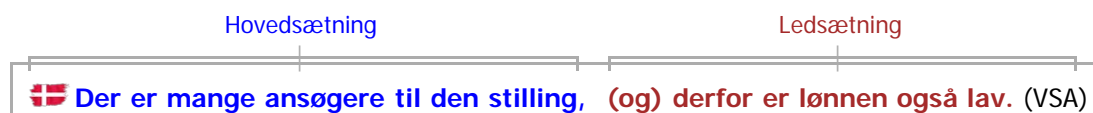
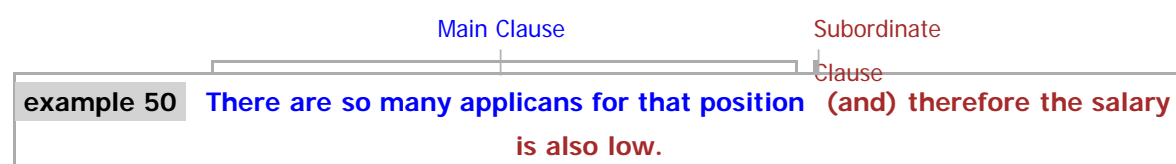
🇩🇰 OK, nok er nok. Så meget for *derfor* at være et adverbium. Konklusionen er, at derfor (= af den grund) er en ætiologisk konjunktion, og af den grund introducerer den ætiologiske sætninger, som tilfældigvis er ledsætninger, fordi de ikke kan stå af sig selv.

therefore may or may not be offset by commas, depending on context and style.

🇩🇰 *derfor* kan eller kan ikke være forskudt af kommaer, afhængigt af kontekst og stil.

example 49 is in need of a main clause to make sense.

For example:



In **all** languages, clause (1) is a main clause and clause (2) is a subordinate clause. The **relationship** between the clauses is aetiological. Should we need to reverse the order of the clauses, the conjunction needs to be changed also:

example 51 (1)Because there so many applicants for that position, (2)the salary is also low.


🇩🇰 (1)Fordi der er så mange ansøgere til den stilling, (2)er lønnen også lav.

In **all** languages, clause (1) is a subordinate clause and clause (2) is a main clause.

So, how should the rule governing VSA syntax be reformulated to do away with contradictions, chaos, and inconsistencies?

Here it goes:

THE VSA RULE In Danish, *statements which employ VSA syntax are usually, but not always, main clauses introduced by adverbs which qualify the whole clause.

 På dansk er *udsagn, der anvender VSA-syntaks, sædvanligvis, men ikke altid, hovedsætninger introduceret af adverbier, der modificerer hele sætningen.

It is possible to test the VSA rule employing the same tell-us-about technique.


We know from experience that many do not find this *tests* particularly helpful but, also from experience, we know that equally many find it really helpful.


Perhaps, if all those who go over the test, did so slowly and were more focused, they would find that there is


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some value for them in it, too.

TEST 4 (testing the VSA rule)


A (A1) Tell us about **things you've noticed in supermarkets..** Fortæl os om **ting, du har lagt mærke til i supermarkeder..** 

B (B1) (1) In supermarkets you often see parents standing and discussing with their children (2) what they should have for dinner.  (1) I supermarkeder ser v man s tit A forældre, (2) der står og diskuterer med deres børn, (3) hvad de skal have til middag.

B (B2) (1) In supermarkets you often see parents standing and discussing with their children.  (1) I supermarkeder ser v man s tit A forældre, (2) der står og diskuterer med deres børn.

B (B3) (1) In supermarkets you often see parents.  (1) I supermarkeder ser v man s tit A forældre.

In English, B's response is a sentence which comprises of a main clause and a subordinate clause. Clause (1) is the main clause and clause (2) is the subordinate clause. We notice that clause (1) can stand on its own but clause (2) cannot. **In supermarkets** is an *adverb of place* which introduces the main clause modifying all of it. We see that, in Danish, the **VSA** syntax is employed.

 På engelsk er B's svar en sætning, der består af en hovedsætning og en ledsætning. Sætning (1) er hovedsætningen, og sætning (2) er den ledsætning. Vi bemærker, at sætning (1) kan stå alene, men sætning (2) kan ikke. **I supermarkeder** er et *adverbium af sted*, som introducerer hovedsætningen og modificerer det hele. Vi ser, at man på dansk anvender **VSA**-syntaksen.

However, in Danish, the sentence comprises of one main clause and 2 subordinate clauses. Clause (1) is the main clause and clauses (2) and (3) are the subordinate ones. Despite the difference, the theory still holds because in both languages, actually in all languages, clause (1) can stand on its own and therefore it is a main clause. All 3 versions, (B1), (B2), and (B3), can stand on their own exactly because clause (1) is a main clause. Please, take your time to internalize...

🇩🇰 Men på dansk består sætningen af en hovedsætning og 2 ledsætninger. Klausul (1) er hovedsætningen, og sætninger (2) og (3) er de ledsætningerne. På trods af forskellen holder teorien stadig, fordi sætning (1) på begge sprog, faktisk på alle sprog, kan stå alene og derfor er en hovedsætning. Alle 3 versioner, (B1), (B2) og (B3), kan stå alene, præcis fordi sætning (1) er en hovedsætning. Tag dig tid til at internalisere...

However, not all clauses which employ the VSA syntax are main clauses. A notable exception is the conjunction **derfor**. Clauses introduced by *derfor* are subordinate clauses which employ the VSA syntax.

🇩🇰 Imidlertid er ikke alle sætninger, der anvender VSA-syntaksen, hovedsætninger. En bemærkelsesværdig undtagelse er konjunktionen **derfor**. Sætninger introduceret af **derfor** er ledsætninger, der anvender VSA-syntaksen. See **example 50**

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*statements can be either affirmations or negations, but not questions.

🇩🇰 *statements* kan enten være bekræftelser eller negationer, men ikke spørgsmål.

• • • SVA SYNTAX • • •

Truth 3

Internalize:

Classifying clauses as either main or subordinate is not syntax dependent but rather **stand-on-one's-own** dependent.

Internaliser:

At klassificere sætninger som enten hoved- eller led-sætninger er ikke syntaksafhængig, men snarere **stå-alene** afhængig. 🇩🇰

THE SVA RULE In Danish, statements which employ the SVA syntax are (1) either main clauses introduced by the subject of the clause itself or (2) subordinate clauses introduced by OMEFS, that is *og, men, eller, for*, and *så* (only when *så* introduces a **clause of result**).

🇩🇰 På dansk er udsagn, der anvender SVA-syntaksen, enten hovedsætninger indført af selve sætningens subjekt eller ledsætninger indført af OMEFS, det vil sige *og, men, eller, for*, og *så* (kun når *så* indfører en **resultatsledsætning**).

example 52

Most novels never keep a distance from the protagonist. (main clause)

🇩🇰 De fleste romaner^S holder^V aldrig^A afstand til hovedpersonen. (hovedsætning)

example 53

(1) I get up early, (2) so I am never late. [(1) main clause, (2) subordinate clause of result]

🇩🇰 (1) Jeg^S står^V tidligt^A op, (2) så jeg^S kommer^V aldrig^A for sent.

[(1) hovedsætning, (2) resultatsledsætning]

In **example 52**, we have an SVA main clause and in **example 53** we have another main SVA clause plus a subordinate SVA clause.

CLAUSES OF PURPOSE (så)

In Danish, the conjunction **så** introduces (1) clauses of *result*, (2) clauses of *purpose*, and (3) clauses of *succession*.

Now, 99 out of 100 grammarians cannot tell the difference between a clause of result from a clause of purpose. To cover their ignorance, they define some clauses as **result/purpose**, as if clauses of purpose and clauses of result were identical, which of course is not true.

🇩🇰 Nu kan 99 ud af 100 grammatikere ikke kende forskel på en resultatssætning fra en formålssætning. For at dække over deres uvidenhed definerer de nogle sætninger som **resultat/formål**, som om formålssætninger

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og resultatsætninger var identiske, hvilket selvfølgelig ikke er sandt. This requires, then, some explaining, so let us do just that.

First we have to define the times. In grammar, we have 4 times:

1. general time **example 54** I do my laundry twice a week.
2. present time **example 55** I am doing my laundry right now.
3. future time **example 56** I am going to do my laundry tomorrow.
4. past time **example 57** I did my laundry yesterday.

Next we have to define the concepts of **real** and **unreal** clauses.

def. 29 A clause is **real** if, at the moment it is spoken, it is a fact.

def. 30 A clause is **unreal** if, at the moment it is spoken, it is **not** a fact.

example 58 (1) Tim bought one extra ticket for his nephew (2) **so** he would not go alone to the soccer game.

In **example 58**, clause (1) is a **main real** clause and clause (2) is a **subordinate unreal** clause.

Notice that at the moment **example 58** was spoken, clause (1) was a fact but clause (2) was not.

That is exactly what makes **example 58/2** a clause of purpose. **example 58/2** is telling us the purpose **example 58/1** happened.

In English, we could also use **so that** instead of **so**.

example 58 (1) Tim bought one extra ticket for his nephew (2) **so that** he would not go alone to the soccer game.

🇩🇰 (1) Tim købte en ekstra billet til sin nevø, (2) så han ikke skulle gå alene til fodboldkampen.
(clause of purpose → SAV)

In English, clauses of purpose (1) are not offset by comma and (2) the order of the clauses can be reversed.

However, if we reverse the order of the clauses, then we have to use comma:

example 58 (1) **So that** he would not go alone to the soccer game, (2) Tim bought one extra ticket.

Clauses of *purpose*

- In English, when main clause comes first, no comma; when subordinate clause comes first, comma. Conjunction can be either **so** or **so that**.

In all languages, main clause is real, subordinate clause is unreal.

Tim bought one extra ticket for his nephew so (that) he would not go alone to the soccer game.

So that he would not go alone to the soccer game, Tim bought one extra ticket.

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- In Danish, regardless whether main clause comes first or second, always comma and always SAV syntax; when the main clause comes second, it undergoes inversion.

Tim købte en ekstra billet til sin nevø, så han ikke skulle gå alene til fodboldkampen. (SAV)

For at han ikke skulle gå til fodboldkampen alene, købte Tim en ekstra billet. (SAV)

CLAUSES OF RESULT (så)

example 59 (1) She wanted his full attention, (2) so she also bought an expensive outfit.

🇩🇰 (1) Hun ville have hans fulde opmærksomhed, (2) så hun købte også et dyrt outfit. (SVA)

Clause (1) is a **main real** clause and clause (2) is a **subordinate real** clause. As we see, both clauses are real and (3) reversing the order of the clauses is not an option because it makes no logical sense.

These 3 characteristics is what makes a clause a result clause.

🇩🇰 Sætning (1) er en reel hovedsætning, og sætning (2) er en underordnet en reel hedsætning. Som vi ser, er begge sætninger reelle, og (3) at vende rækkefølgen af sætningerne er ikke en mulighed, fordi det ikke giver nogen logisk mening. Disse 3 karakteristika er det, der gør en sætning til en resultatsætning.


Clauses of *result*

- As a rule, subordinate clauses explain why main clauses happen. However, in clauses of result, the opposite happens, that is main clauses explain why subordinate clauses happen.


- In both languages, the two clauses are set off by comma.
- In all languages, both clauses are real and reversing the order of the clauses is not an option.
- In Danish, clauses of *result* employ the SVA syntax.

TIME CLAUSES (så)

example 60 (1)First I have lunch, (2)then I always take a nap.

 (1)Først spiser jeg frokost, (2)så tager jeg altid en lur. (VSA)

Clause (1) is a **main real** clause and clause (2) is a **subordinate real** clause. As we see, both clauses are real and (3)reversing the order of the clauses requires changing the conjunction while the main clause undergoes inversion.

 Sætning (1) er en reel hovedsætning, og sætning (2) er en reel hedsætning. Som vi ser, er begge sætninger reelle og (3) at vende rækkefølgen af sætningerne kræver ændring af konjunktionen, mens hovedsætningen gennemgår inversion.

example 61 (1)After I have lunch, (2)I always take a nap.

 (1)Efter jeg har spist frokost, (1)tager jeg altid en lur. (VSA)

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Time Clauses

- In both languages, the two clauses are set off by comma.
- In all languages, both clauses are real and reversing the order of the clause requires changing the conjunction while, in Danish, the main clause undergoes inversion.
- In Danish, *time* clauses with **så** employ the VSA syntax.

Perhaps some of you still do not see clearly the difference between clauses of result and clauses of purpose. In that case, I can say this: the difference is not cosmetic, it is a contextually fundamental difference. Clauses of result and clauses of purpose say totally different things.

DIGGING A BIT DEEPER

Let us look at these 2 sentences:

example 62 (1)I only eat a little, (2)so I never feel bad.

 (1)Jeg spiser kun lidt, (2)så jeg har det aldrig dårligt. [(2)SVA]

example 63 (1)I only eat a little (2)so I never feel bad.

 (1)Jeg spiser kun lidt, (2)så jeg aldrig har det dårligt. [(2)SAV]

At first sight, they seem identical, but they are not. The difference is the comma in **example 62**.

That difference is a huge one because it makes **example 62** a clause of result. On the other hand, **example 63** is a clause of purpose.

Let us make a few general observations and then let us see what this one difference, the comma, really means:

1. The *time* of both clauses is *general*. In other words, both clauses describe what happens in general.
2. Both clauses in both languages are comprised of 1 main clause, the 1st clause, and 1 subordinate clause, the 2nd clause.
3. While in English it is the comma that makes the difference, in Danish, it is the SVA syntax versus the SAV syntax that makes the difference.
4. In English, in **example 63**, we have the choice of using **so that** instead of **so** without any change in meaning; however, we cannot do the same in **example 62**.
5. Reversing the order of the clauses in **example 62** is not an option because it would make no logical sense, but we can certainly reverse the order of the clauses in **example 63**.
6. In English, if we reverse the order of clauses in **example 63**, we must use a comma and we must use **so that** instead of **so**:

example 64 (1) **So that I never feel bad**, (2) **I only eat a little**.

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In Danish, if we reverse the order of clauses in **example 63**, we must use **for at** instead of **så** and the main clause undergoes inversion:

 (1) **For at jeg aldrig har det dårligt**, (2) **spiser jeg kun lidt**. [(1) SAV]

7. Contextually speaking, both clauses in **example 62** are **real** because both represent facts; but in **example 63**, clause (2) is **unreal** because, being a clause of purpose, it makes sense to represent a hope or a plan or an expectation which is to be materialized sometime after the sentence is spoken; and it doesn't matter that the time of **example 63** is general. What the speaker is saying is that each time they eat a little, they do it hoping or expecting not to feel bad after their meal and, until that happens, **example 63b** is not a fact.

Clause **example 62b** is a confirmation that it itself happens all the time in a consistent invariable fashion, while **example 63b** is a hope or a plan or a highly likely expectation.

Moreover, clause **example 62a** explains why clause **example 62b** happens, which is unique to clauses of result, whereas **example 63b** explains why **example 62a** happens, and that is an important logical difference.

Looking at this from a different angle.

Let us formulate the question to which **example 62a** would be the answer:

- — **Why is it that you never feel bad after having a meal?**

- **Because I eat a little.**

(an unequivocal confirmation of a fact whose result is that I never feel bad after meals)

Now, let us formulate the question to which **example 63b** would be the answer:

- — Why do you eat a little?
- So that I never feel bad. (a hope or an expectation)

Please, take time to internalize points 1 to 7 above.

LET US DIG EVEN DEEPER

ANATOMY OF A SENTENCE • EN SÆTNINGS ANATOMI 🇩🇰

Main clauses will be in **brown type** and subordinate clauses will be in **blue type**.

There are 7 types of Adverb Clauses:

1. clauses of purpose (clauses answer **why** questions) 🇩🇰 formål ledsætninger
2. resultative clauses (clauses answer **why** questions) 🇩🇰 resultatmæssige ledsætninger
3. aetiological clauses (clauses answer **why** questions) 🇩🇰 ætiologiske ledsætninger
4. adversity in eventuality clauses (clauses offer suggestions) 🇩🇰 modgang i en eventualitet
5. adversity in eventuality clauses (clauses offer suggestions) 🇩🇰 modgang i en eventualitet
6. against-the-norm clauses (what goes against the norm) 🇩🇰 mod normen ledsætninger
7. acumen* clauses 🇩🇰 skarpsindighedsledsætninger
8. time clauses (when) 🇩🇰 tidsledsætninger

* **acumen** is the ability to make good judgments and quick decisions

🇩🇰 **acumen** er evnen til at træffe gode vurderinger og hurtige beslutninger.

Admittedly, with some help from Dionysius the Thrax and Apollonius Dyscolus, let us start analyzing examples to get an idea of the challenges awaiting us as well as to master the art of identifying the different types of adverb clauses...

...

example 42 Purpose

so / so that • så 🇩🇰

