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A Semantic Analysis of Experiential Construction in Hokkien

Sherly Novita

Dept. of Linguistics, Graduate Program, Faculty of Cultural Studies, University of Sumatera Utara

Jln. Abdul Hakim No. 1, Padang Bulan, Medan Baru 20222, Medan, North Sumatera, Indonesia

Tel: 62-812-600-7879 E-mail: sherly.novita.1991@gmail.com

Mulyadi (Corresponding author)

Dept. of Linguistics, Graduate Program, Faculty of Cultural Studies, University of Sumatera Utara

Jln. Abdul Hakim No. 1, Padang Bulan, Medan Baru 20222, Medan, North Sumatera, Indonesia

Tel: 62-812-631-5231 E-mail: mulyadi.usu@gmail.com

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Abstract

In this article the author discusses the analysis of the experience of construction and the subject of experiencer (dative) in Hokkien. In Semantic studies, experiential construction is a process or method used to form meaning that has experiencer as a human participant who accidentally experiences a mental or physical state. The concept of experience explains 5 subdomains of experiential verbs, namely bodily sensations (thirst, hunger, pain, itching), emotions (anger, pleasure, fear), desire (want), cognition (thinking, knowing, remembering), and perception (see, feel, hearing), as well as forms of experiential adjectives, namely curious, clever, forgetful, and confused. Each language has terms that are bad, good, and neutral emotions and can be described through symptoms outside the body, such as red and pale. This research is a qualitative descriptive study and was compiled using the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) theory. The author analyzes the data in this article by using data

collection methods from respondents with referring, engaging, and proficient techniques. The research data is taken from written and verbal sources. The experiential construction in Hokkien may use both transitive and intransitive experiential verbs in experiential assignment as object and or subject datives. In Hokkien, subject experiencer is taking the position of direct subject, while the object experiencer is taking the position as dative subject.

Keywords: Experiential construction, Verbs, Dative, Hokkien, Experiencer

1. Introduction

1.1 Problems of the Study

This paper is about experiential construction in Hokkien. It has its focus on semantic analysis of Hokkien and addresses three major questions:

1) What is experiential construction?

2) How is the experiential construction in Hokkien?

3) What are differences and similarities among previous researches of other languages and Hokkien?

1.2 The Significances of the Study

In this paper, there are two significances of the study. Theoretically, this paper deals with Hokkien used in Medan by showing the sentence construction in terms of experiential verbs. So, it is aimed to give information to the readers about how the construction is formed along with the meaning if subject, object, agent, or patient is placed. Practically, this paper is significant for the readers to use Hokkien properly. This paper will help them to be aware of Hokkien as one of the mother tongues used in Medan.

1.3 The Relevant Scholarship

In other to support this paper, the writer uses some relevant related paper which are wished to support findings in the field so that the theory can be strengthened and the data can be accurate. The theory is the semantic analysis of experiential construction. They are the paper by Dahl (2012) entitled The Argument Structure of Experience: Experiential Construction in Early Verdic, Homeric Greek, and Old Latin, and Lam (2014) entitles A Unified Analysis to Surpass Comparative and Experiential Aspect. According to Dahl, experiential verbs differ from agentive verbs in Early Verdicm Homeric Greek, and Old Latin. Dahl distinguishes between generalized construction where the experiencer is encoded like an agent and inverted construction where the stimulus is also encoded as an agent. While Lam investigates the morpheme *gwo3* in Cantonese has two construction, namely the surpass-comparative and the experiential perfect, and argues that *gwo3* should be analyzes with the same syntax and semantics based on the syntactically question formation and the semantically specificity and quantification.

2. Method

The writer collects the data by using the techniques by Sudaryanto (2015) which allow the writer to observe conversation among Hokkien native speakers in Medan, get involved in it, get the chance to have the conversation with the speakers, and finally write or transcribe their language into wordings. The method itself is based on Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM) approach by Wierzbicka (1996). It deals intensively with language and cognition, and language and culture. A semantic analysis in the NSM approach results in a reductive paraphrase called an explication that captures the meaning of the concept explicated. An ideal

explication can be substituted for the original expression in context without changing the meaning.

A local variant of Hokkien spoken in Medan, Indonesia is the lingua franca in Medan as well as other northern city states of North Sumatra surrounding it, and is characterized by the pronunciation of words according to the Zhangzhou dialect, together with widespread use of Indonesian and English borrowed words. It is predominantly a spoken dialect: it is rarely written in Chinese characters, and there is no standard romanization.

Construction is the process, method, or way in which words are used together and arranged in a sentence with meaning. Experiences can be understood as participants of humans or living beings who experience unintentional mental or physical states arising from or caused by some external triggers that are unknowingly characteristic of being involved in the situation. In Mulyadi (2010), experience is an argument that experiences certain mental states indicated by its predicate (Broekhuis, 2008: 1). In the predicate of two places, experience occupies the first argument (Van Valin and LaPolla 1999: 114). Stimulus is limited as an argument that triggers or becomes the target of experiential psychological responses (Kearns, 2000: 190), or entities absorbed by experience (Klein and Kutscher, 2005: 1-2). Therefore, experiential construction is a process or method used to form meaning that has experience as a human participant who accidentally experiences a physical mental or physical state, with the role of experiential verbs or experience adjectives. As explained in Verhoeven's book (2007: 35) in Chapter 3, the experience concept explains 5 subdomains of experience, namely sensations of the body, emotions, volition, cognition, and perception. Each language has terms that are bad, good, and neutral emotions and can be described through symptoms outside the body, such as red and pale. Wierzbicka (1999) in Verhoeven's book (2007: 36) asserts that all languages explain emotions through the inner body with sensations such as feeling hot as a reaction to emotional situations. Wierzbicka (1996, 1999) also gives an example of the verb of emotions, cognition and volition by being interpreted as thinking, knowing, wanting, feeling, and experience adjectives as shocked, jealous, jealous. Whereas Verhoeven (2007: 159) describes the forms of experiential adjectives, as follows: satisfied, curious, proud, amazed, smart, intelligent, forgetful, confused, ignorant, strong, fragile, powerful, blind, happy, excited, angry, scared, shy.

3. Results

Since Masica (1976) has suggested that the dative subject is a common areal feature in the Indian subcontinent, dative subject' has become one of the most popular topics among linguists studying South Asia. Secondly, Abbi has demonstrated the similarity among Indo-Aryan, Dravidian and Mundari of experiencer noun marking as follows: "Typologically Indo-Aryan, Mundari and Dravidian languages more or less share the patterning of direct and oblique experiencer noun marking" (1994: 79). She has described the postposition ke as a dative case marking and the noun phrase marked by the postposition ke as an experiencer in Mundari.

Thirdly, Dahl and Fedriani (2012: 26) note that emotion verbs have a far broader range of argument realization options than the other types of experiential predicates, being compatible

with all of the six construction types distinguished. While it is hardly surprising as this class of experiential verbs includes predicates denoting a broad variety of fundamentally different attitudes towards very different kinds of stimuli, that is, smaller or greater semantic distinctions which might be expected to have morphosyntactic repercussions. Verbs of perception and volition contrastedly seem to be more strongly connected with a single construction type. Moreover, in the same manner as certain verb classes are compatible with multiple construction patterns, some individual verbs have multiple argument realization options, as for instance the Early Vedic verb śrav- 'hear, listen' and the Homeric Greek verb κλύω 'I hear, listen' which invariably selects generalized constructions but was shown to alternately select a stimulus argument in the accusative, genitive or dative.

It is well known that construction is process, method, or way where words are used altogether and arranged in structured way to form meaningful sentences, on the other hand, verbal construction like love, envy and fear tend to have a far less unitary morphosyntactic expression than, for instance, prototypically agentive verbs like 'murder', 'break' or 'build' both within and across languages. Experiencer roles can be understood as participants in humans or animate beings who experience unintentional mental or physical states arising from or caused by some external stimuli that are unknowingly characteristic of being involved in the situation. The agent and the experiencer have in common that they both tend to be understood as human or animate entities.

Therefore, experiential construction is a process or method used to form meaning that has experiencer as a human participant who accidentally experiences a physical mental or physical state, with the role of experiential verbs or experience adjectives. Related points can be made with regard to the role of the stimulus which in a sense causes a change in the state of the experiencer so that it resembles an agent. The more evidence shows that the manifestation system of arguments is sensitive to lexical requirements such as control and involvement of the will, such as feelings, emotions or unspecified physical conditions related to these parameters, so it is reasonable to assume that this has an impact on linguistics.

Experiencers vary greatly as to the degree of control they project on different feelings, also from a cross-linguistic perspective. In Hokkien, the verb $k^{h}ɪ4$ seŋ4 tɛ3 'to get angry' requires a special valency pattern and cannot take an accusative-marked Experiencer because it is categorized as an intentional action (Chandralal 2010). Similarly, Becher (2003: 29) reports that in Wolof verbs expressing love and hate do not conform to the general coding prototype of experiential verbs because they are seen as mental activity verbs.

The particular status of experiencers is mirrored in their vague characterization in the literature. For example, Lehmann (1991) uses the label 'ambivalent status', Nass (2007) describes experiencers as 'volitional undergoers', while Smith (1993) speaks of 'bilateral involvement' and Pustet characterizes the experiencer as a 'syntactic chameleon' to capture the ambiguous status of a participant which is both patient-like and actually capable of independent action (Bossong 1998, Croft 1993).

The underspecified character and ambivalent status of both the experiencer role and the stimulus role gives rise to a tension between a tendency to assimilate Experiential

constructions to the transitive prototype and a tendency to differentiate these two construction types. Both experiencers and stimuli appear to be equally poor candidates for the relational primacy associated with the syntactic status of subject, as both of them have rather different properties than prototypical agents or patients (see Croft 1993, Butt et al. 2006 and Malchukov and de Swart 2009 for discussion). Nevertheless, experiencers may be selected because of their animacy and stimuli because of their being the source or cause of a state or event. As a result, we find causative experiential verbs where the stimulus is chosen as subject and the experiencer as object, as well as non-causative experiential verbs where the experiencer is encoded as subject and the stimulus as object (see also Dowty 1991, Primus 1999).

3.1 Intransitive, Transitive, Causative, and Passive

The verbal stem in Hokkien is either transitive or intransitive. The intransitive verbal stems have two subsets. One is a small set of purely intransitive verbs (1a), which never take the transitive marker. The other intransitive verbs are fluid (2b), i.e., they can be used transitively.

Transitive verb stems are given in (1c).

1 a. *tʰɪt1 tʰo2* '(to) play', *pʰu2 kəŋ1* '(to) dawn', *ke4 gau2* '(to be) dumb', etc.

b. *ce3* '(to) sit', *jɪp1* '(to) enter', *kʰʌk1 kʰuaɪ3* '(to) fast', etc.

c. *cɪak1* '(to) eat' , kʰua3 '(to) see', *lɪak1* '(to) catch', etc.

Transitivity is demonstrated by the ability to take object pronominal affixes on verbs. The transitive marker and intransitive marker play a crucial role for causativisation and passivisation. When the fluid type of intransitive verb is used transitively, it is considered as a causativized form of an intransitive verb (2). On the other hand, when a transitive verb is used intransitively, it can be considered as a passivised form of a transitive verb (3). For example,

2 a. *Lisa tɔŋ3 kɪm1 ce3 kɪn4 kʰi1 tʰɔ3 kʰa1.*

Lisa now-CONT sit-INTR-IND at-ground

Lisa is sitting on the floor now.

b. *Linda hɔ3 ha0 le1 gi1 na4 gi1 na4 ce3 kɪn4 kʰi1 tʰɔ3 kʰa1 lɪau4.*

Linda give those-DEMPRO-PL child-PL sit-TR-IND at-ground PERF

Linda has seated those children on the floor.

3 a. *keŋ4 tʃʰʌt3 lɪak1 tɪok3 ha0 le1 nɔ3 kaɪ2 tʃʰʌt3 lɪau4.*

Police-PL:SUB arrest-TR those-DEMPRO-PL two-DU thief-PL PERF

The police have arrested those two thieves.

b. *ha0 le1* *nɔ3 kaɪ2* *tʃʰʌt3* *tɪok3 lɪak1 lɪau4*.

Those-DEMPRO-PL two-DU thief-PL arrest-PASS-INTR-IND-PERF

Those two thieves have been arrested.

3.2 Subject and Object Markings

When the subject NP and object NP are animate, subject and object agreement elements can be affixed to the verb. The following personal pronominal suffixes are used for subject-object agreement:

4. personal pronouns	singular	object	plural
First	*wa4* (I)	*wa4* (me)	*wa4 lʌŋ2* (we / us)
Second	*lu4* (you)	*lu4* (you)	*lu4 lʌŋ2* (you)
Third	*ɪe0* (he / she)	*ɪe0* (him / her)	*ɪe0 lʌŋ2* (they / them)

The same forms are used for subject and object, and occupy the same slots. The subject agreement element is attached as a clitic either to the end of the verb or to the preverbal NP which may be in a subject or a non-subject role. The- object agreement element occurs before the indicative marker *lɪau4* and after the transitive marker *hɔ3* / *tɪok3* in unmarked sentences.

As Comrie states, "there is no nominal morphological distinction between subject and object". Further, the word order is not fixed for subject NP and object NP. Subject and object agreement, therefore, is very important for the signaling of grammatical relations. But in some cases, ambiguity cannot be excluded. When the subject NP and object NP have the same person and number the sentence is ambiguous:

5 a. *Cindy* *ka3* *ɪe1* *mɪau1*.

Cindy bite-TR-IND 3SG:OBJ-cat

Cindy bit the cat.

b. *ɪe1* *mɪau1* *ka3* *Cindy.*

3SG:SUB-cat bite-TR-IND Cindy

The cat bit Cindy.

On pragmatic side, meaning (5a) may be less likely. But if *mɪau1 ʧhu4* ‘mouse’ is placed in the first position instead of Cindy, the sentence is totally ambiguous.

6 a. *ɪe1 mɪau1 ʧhu4* *ka3* *ɪe1* *mɪau1*.

3SG:SUB-mouse bite-TR-IND 3SG:OBJ-cat

The mouse bit the cat.

b. *ɪe1* *mɪau1* *ka3* *ɪe1* *mɪau1 ʧhu4.*

3SG:SUB-cat bite-TR-IND 3SG:OBJ-mouse

The cat bit the mouse.

One construction in which subjects and objects may be distinguishable is in relative clause constructions. The head NP in relative clauses can be a subject or an object in Hokkien. But the transitive marker and intransitive marker can be used to distinguish the NP subject head from the NP object head. Thus,

7 a. *ɪe1 mɪau1 ka3 ɪe1 mɪau1 ʧhu4 e si4 lɪau4.*

3SG:SUB-cat bite-TR-IND 3SG:OBJ-mouse die-INTR-IND

The cat which bit the mouse has died.

b. *ɪe1 mɪau1 ɪe1 mɪau1 ʧhu4 ka3 e si4 lɪau4.*

3SG:SUB-cat 3SG:OBJ-mouse bite-INTR-IND die-PERF-INTR-IND

The cat which the mouse bit has died.

The subject marking and object marking are discussed here. As shown above, these marking systems can indicate grammatical relations in Hokkien to some extent. However, the subject and object agreement element can be marked only when the subject NP and object NP are classified as animate nouns, which will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.3 Animacy Hierarchy

The cross-linguistically valid animacy hierarchy has been much discussed by many linguists. The animacy hierarchy can be formulated as follows:

speaker / addressee > 3rd person pronouns > human proper nouns > human common nouns > other animate nouns > inanimate nouns

This hierarchy means that "NPs higher on the inherent salience hierarchy tend to occupy more prominent syntactic positions than NPs lower on it" (Foley & Van Valin 1985: 288). The animacy hierarchy originated from discussions of the phenomenon of 'split ergativity'. In other words, it is based on the semantic nature of NPs (Dixon 1979: 85).

In Hokkien grammar, the distinction between animate and inanimate nouns play an important role, as below:

3.4 Subject, Agent, dan Object

The following terms for grammatical relations from Dixon (1979, 1994) will be mentioned: S for intransitive subject, A for transitive subject, O for transitive object. The first criterion will be given to assign the NPs to grammatical relations in Hokkien in (8):

8. If S, A, O are animate nouns, the grammatical relations can be identified by the subject and object marking system in the verbal morphology.

9. A NPs are basically animate nouns.

According to Dixon the animacy. hierarchy denotes the likelihood of functioning as transitive agent (Dixon 1979: 85). There is usually a cut-off point for functioning as a transitive agent in the hierarchy. In Hokkien the cut-off point is between other animate nouns and inanimate nouns. Thus, example (10) is not grammatical because its agent is inanimate.

10. *ɪe1 mɪk3 kɪa0 cɪak1* *t^{h}au1 tɔk1* *ha0 le1* *gi1 na4 gi1 na4 lɪau4.*

Food-SUB poison-PERF-TR-IND those-DEMPRO-PL child-PL:OBJ PERF

The food has poisoned those children.

As the agent NP *mɪk3 kɪa0 cɪak1* 'food' is inanimate, so sentence (10) is unacceptable. Instead the instrumental postposition *hɔ3* is normally used in a passive construction.

11. *ha0 le1* *gi1 na4 gi1 na4 hɔ3* *ɪe1 mɪk3 kɪa0 cɪak1* *t^{h}au1 tɔk1 tɪok3.*

those-DEMPRO-PL child-PL:SUB by food poison-PERF-TR-IND

Those children have been poisoned by the food.

Some inanimate nouns denoting natural objects, which are capable of automatic locomotion, can occupy the agent slot. In that case, the subject agreement element gets marked on the verb like an animate agent NP. This is called animatization. As with a regular transitive clause only the animatized agent argument gets cross referenced by a bound pronoun irrespective of the animacy of the object NP. For example,

12. *ha0 le1* *kʌŋ4* *co1* *ʃua1* *(tui4 tʃ^{h}ua3* *ʃua3).*

that-DEMPRO-SG river make-TR-IND mountain carry-TR-IND sand

That river made mountain by carrying the sand.

13. *ha0 le1 kʌŋ4* *co1* *ha0 le1* *gi1 na4* *lau2.*

that river make-TR-IND that-DEMPRO-SG kid:3SG-OBJ drown-TR-IND

That river drowned that kid.

Among inanimate nouns, only natural power, e.g. *hɔŋ1* 'wind', *hɔ3* ‘rain' etc., can be animatized.

It is very easy to identify animate NPs as subject on the basis of (9), because an animate subject is always marked by a clitic pronoun. However, there is an exception, as inanimate NPs can be assigned to agent slot with a certain class of verbs. This is the topic in the next section. The term "construction" is used in many ways in the linguistics literature, often in ways which conform to a certain degree with its technical use here.

Individual constructions and classes of constructions have had a prominent place in the description of languages since the ancient grammarians, and certainly through modern,

generative linguistic descriptions. One of the features of construction is th a t the proximal agent of the caused event, NP, is being made to be willing to perform the act.

3.5 Experiencer Verbs

As mentioned above, the inanimate NP cannot normally occupy the agent slot. But with some verbs, inanimate NPs can do this. The semantic range of these verbs is restricted to the following:

14 a. sensory and mental experiences

b. emotional experiences

c. physical and biological experiences

These are called experiential verbs. This semantic range almost corresponds. interestingly with dative subject predicates in Indo-Aryan (Klaiman 1986, Abbi 1994). Dative / accusative cases, generally related to indirect objects, are most common used cases in referring non-canonical subjects in some languages. In semantic map point of view, Hokkien is a quite logic choice as its addressee argument is semantically closed to the experiencer argument (see Haspelmath, 2003).

There are two types of sentence in experiential verbal constructions in Hokkien, as follows:

15. *wa4* *tʰau1 bi3 tɪok1* *kua3 səŋ1 e bi3 sɔ3.*

I-1SG:SUB smell-CONT-INTR-IND sweat smell

I am experiencing a smell of sweat.

16. *cə0 luɪ4 e* *hua1* *hɔ3* *wa4* *bi3 tɪok1* *pʰʌŋ1 e bi3 sɔ3.*

This-DEMPRO-SG flower make me-1SG:OBJ smell-CONT-TR-IND good fragrance

This flower has made me experience a good smell.

17. *wu3 cə3 si2* *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* *caɪ1* *hua3 hi4* *tʰau1* *tʰɪau1 bu4.*

Previous time they-3PL:SUB experience-PERF-INTR-IND joy through dancing

In the previous time they had experienced joy through dancing.

18. *ha0 le1* *e* *bu4* *co3* *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* *hua3 hi4.*

That-DEMPRO-SG dance make-TR-IND them-3PL:OBJ feel joy

The dance made them experience joy.

It can be seen that there is a distinction between the direct subject (15), (17) and the dative subject (16), (18), because it is almost identical with subject experiencer (taking direct subject) and object experiencer (taking dative subject) in Hokkien Further, it is interpreted that the verbs show volitional act as in (15) and (17), but show a non-volitional act in (16) and (18).

If the criterion (8) assigns the NP to grammatical relations by the morphological marking system, the subjects are either nothing, or inanimate nouns in (16) and (18) and the objects are *wa4* 'me' in (16) and *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* 'them' in (18). Thus, the term 'dative subject' is misleading. As how the grammatical relations explained above, these criteria will be kept throughout the paper. A new analysis of experiential verbal constructions will be further discussed.

3.6 Experiencer and Stimulus

In this part, we shall adopt the term 'experiencer' and 'stimulus'. The experiencer denotes the human experiencer of sensory, mental, emotional, physical and biological states expressed by the experiential verbs, while. the stimulus is the source or cause of experience.

Further we shall adopt the notion of 'experiencer-subject' from Croft (1991, 1993) for a typological analysis of mental verbs, where experiential verbs assign the experiencer to the subject position in (15) and (17).

In (16) and (18), the experiencer is assigned to the object position. Therefore, it is considered as the experiencer-object construction. This analysis is useful, because it enables us to keep the criteria for subject- object assignment.

Next, a new analysis of experiential construction will be given. In general, an experiential verb is regarded as an intransitive verb (see 15 and 17). Then the writer considers the same experiential verb as a causativized form of an intransitive verb in the object-experiencer construction (see 16 and 18). This analysis fits Croft (1991)'s crosslinguistic findings that "experiencer-object verbs are causative" (1991:215).

The stimulus occurs with the instrumental postposition *t^hau1* in the experiencer-subject construction shown in (15 and 17), and as a subject in the experiencer-object construction shown in (16 and 18). Are the NPs *hua1* in (16) and *bu4* in (18) really subjects? And are the NPs *bi3 sɔ3* in (16) and *hua3 hi4* in (18) really objects? Ler's make a syntactic test for subjecthood and objecthood by using a relativization, as demonstrated above in point (7).

19. *na0 luɪ4* *p^hʌŋ1 e bi3 sɔ3 hua1* *ta1 lɪau4.*
    That-DEMPRO-SG fragrance flower withered-PERF-INTR-IND
    That good-smelling flower has withered.

20. *cɪ3 cuɪ3 lʌŋ2* *cə0 luɪ4* *hua1* *hɔ3* *p^hʌŋ1 e bi3 sɔ3* *cau4 lɪau4.*
    People this-DEMPRO-SG flower make fragrance go-PERF-INTR-IND
    The people whom this flower made experience a good smell have left.

21. *ha0 le1* *cɪn3* *hua3 hi4 e bu4* *cuɪ4 kɪn3* *lɪau4 liau4.*
    That-DEMPRO-SG very happy dance recently end-PERF-INTR-IND
    The very joyful dance has finished recently.

22. *cɪ3 cuɪ3 lʌŋ2* *cə0 tɪau3* *bu4* *co3* *hua3 hi4* *e* *təŋ1 tua3 liau4.*

People this-DEMPRO-SG dance make happy grow up-PERF-INTR-IND

The people whom the dance made joyful have grown up.

As the intransitive marker *e* appears in (19) and (21), the NPs *hua1* ‘flower’ and *bu4* ‘dance’ are subjects. On the other hand, the transitive marker *hɔ3* and *co3* occur in (20) and (22) the NPs *hua1* and *bu4* are objects.

An important note is concerned about subject, agent and object NPs. The stimulus is always an inanimate noun. In other words, agent NPs in the object-experiencer construction are inanimate nouns. For instance, the following sentences are not acceptable:

23. *cə0 kaɪ2 ca3 bɔ4 cɔ3 wa4 bi3 tɪok1 pʰʌŋ1 e bi3 sɔ3.*

This-DEMPRO-SG girl:SUB make-TR-IND me-1SG:OBJ smell good fragrance

This girl made me experience a good smell.

24. *tʰɪau1 bu4 e ca3 bɔ4 co3 ɪe0 lʌŋ2 hua3 hi4.*

Dancing girl:SUB make-TR-IND them-3PL:OBJ feel joy

The dancing girl made them experience joy.

In order to say the equivalent sentences of (23 and 24) in Hokkien, these should be replaced by (25 and 26) respectively.

25. *cə0 kaɪ2 ca3 bɔ4 e bi3 sɔ3 cɔ3 wa4 bi3 tɪok1 pʰʌŋ1 e bi3 sɔ3.*

This-DEMPRO-SG girl’s smell-SUB make-TR-IND me-1SG:OBJ smell good fragrance

This girl’s smell made me experience a good smell.

26. *kʰua3 tʰɪau1 bu4 e ca3 bɔ4 co3 ɪe0 lʌŋ2 hua3 hi4.*

See-GER:SUB dancing girl make-TR-IND them-3PL-OBJ feel happy

Seeing the dancing girl made them experience a joy.

Therefore, the writer rewrites the second criterion (see point 9) for subject-object assignment here.

27. Agent NPs are animate nouns except for the object-experiencer construction.

As illustrated above, an experiential verb in Hokkien is considered as an intransitive. In other words, in the experiencer-subject constructions, only the experiencer assigned.to stimulus occurs, and the stimulus occurs with the instrumental postposition *tʰau1*. However, a few experiential verbs, ex. *hua3 hi4* 'to feel happy', *kʰi4 seŋ1 te3* 'to get angry', *pʰaɪ4 se3* 'to feel ashamed', can act as transitive verbs. In that case, the animate NPs can occupy the objects slot

not as stimuli, but as beneficiaries. The writer shows the general benefactive construction in (28) and the experiencer-subject and beneficiary-object construction in (29 and 30).

28. *wa4* *hɔ3* *lu4* *mɪk3 kɪa3 cɪak1.*

I-1SG:SUB give-TR-IND you-2SG:OBJ food

I give you the food.

29. *wa4* *pʰaɪ4 se3* *kʌk3* *lu4.*

I-1SG:SUB shame-INTR-IND CONJ you-2SG:OBJ

I feel ashame at you.

30. *wa4* *aɪ3* *ha0 le1* *ca3 bɔ4 gi1 na4.*

I-1SG:SUB like-TR-IND those-DEMPRO-PL girls-PL:OBJ

I like these girls.

The sentences (29 and 30) are transitive constructions, but the intransitive marker *e* should follow. Further, there are no experiencer-object constructions corresponding to (29 and 30) in Hokkien.

4. Discussion

Next, let us discover the experiential construction in Hokkien.

31. (=15) *wa4* *tʰau1 bi3 tɪok1* *tʃau1 kua3 səŋ1 e* *bi3 sɔ3.*

I-1SG:SUB smell-CONT-INTR-IND sweat smell

I am experiencing a smell by sweat.

32. *cə0 le1* *kua3 səŋ1* *co3* *wa4* *bi3 tɪok1* *tʃau1 e bi3 sɔ3.*

This-DEMPRO-SG sweat:SUB make-TR-IND me-1SG:OBJ smell-TR-IND bad smell

This sweat has made me experience a bad smell.

33.*wu3 cə3 si2* *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* *bʌt1* *go1 tɪok1;* *ɪŋ3 guɪ3* *ɪe0 lʌŋ2 khɪau1.*

Previous time they-3PL:SUB ever-TR-IND-PERF hunger-INTR because they-3PL:SUB poor

In the previous time they had experienced hunger; as they had been poor.

34. *mɪk3 kɪa3 cɪak1* *co3* *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* *go1 tɪok1* *na4 si2.*

Food:SUB make-TR-IND them-3PL:OBJ hunger-INTR that time

The food made them experience hunger at that time.

In (31), the experiencer *wa4* 'I' smells of his own sweat and everyone perceives his bad smell, while in (32), the smell of sweat reaches the specific experiencer *wa4* 'me' irrespective of other persons' experience. In (33), the experiencer *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* 'they' felt hungry constantly, and everyone knew about their condition, while in (34), the appetite caused by the sight of food arose in the specific experiencers *ɪe0 lʌŋ2* 'them' irrespective of other persons' experience.

Abbi (1994: 79) has shown similarities between Indo-Aryan, Dravidian and Mundari languages from the marker of experiential nouns as follows: "Typologically the Indo-Aryan, Mundari and Dravidian languages share more or less direct and oblique verb patterns". Abbi describes the postposition *ke* a sign of a dative case and the noun phrase is characterized by postposition *ke* as experiencer in Mundari language. While Hokkien language itself has two types of experiential construction verbs, namely in the examples (15-18).

The discussion about experiential construction in Hokkien concludes that Hokkien may use both transitive and intransitive experiential verbs in experiential assignment as object and / subject datives. Experiential verb itself is different from agent verb in semantic asymmetry between experiencers and stimulus which are quite different from agents and patients. This is because experiencer and stimulus have some of the same semantic properties as agents, both of which may morphosyntactically assimilate with the latter. agents and experiencers have in common that they both tend to be understood as human entities or animate beings. A stimulus role which in a sense causes a change in state of experience and therefore resembles an agent. Following Bossong (1998), the author distinguishes general constructs where experiencer is encoded like an agent with an inverse construction where stimuli are instead coded like subjects and experiencers are represented as agents who undergo verbs actively and take part in situations.

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Abbreviations

CONT = continuous

DEMRPO = demonstrative pronoun

DU = dual

GER = gerund

IND = indicative

INTR = intransitive

OBJ = object

PERF = perfect

PL = plural

SG = singular

SUB = subject

TR = transitive

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