Syntax Seminar (BBN-ANG-252): Handout 1

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This is a summary of BESE Ch. 1.1-2, partly 1.3, Ch. 2.1.1-2, 2.1.6, 2.1.7, with some additions from Radford (2009) and Carnie (2012).

1 Introduction

- Speakers of a language are able to produce and understand a limitless number of expressions. They also produce and understand utterances that probably have never been produced before.
- Linguistic knowledge is not stored; speakers have "a (finite) set of rules which tell us how to recognise the infinite number of expressions that constitute the language that we speak" (BESE p. 2).
- This finite set of rules is often referred to as grammar.
- Distinction: I-language, which is internal to the mind and consists of a finite system (this is what linguists try to model), and E-language, an infinite set of expressions defined by the I-language that linguists take data from when formulating their grammars.
- Syntax is the study of the way in which phrases and sentences are structured out of words (Radford 2009: 1).
- Studying linguistic variation: parameters (Radford 2009: 22)

Compare the possibility of omitting the subject pronoun in English and Italian in (1). This phenomenon is referred to as '*pro*-drop' and the languages like Italian are called 'null subject languages'.

- (1) a. Maria thinks that *(they) speak French.¹
 - b. Maria pensa che parlano francese. Maria thinks that speak.PRS.3PL French 'Maria thinks that speak French.'²

Italian (Radford 2009: 22)

Apart from the 'Null-subject Parameter', we also find other parameters, cf. the word order in wh-questions ('Wh-Parameter'). Compare English and Chinese (2):

- (2) a. What do you think he will say?
 - b. Ni xiang ta hui shuo **shenme**? you think he will say what 'What do you think he will say?'

Chinese (Radford 2009: 24)

¹The asterisk (*) marks ungrammatical sentences. In (1a) the notation indicates that the sentence is ungrammatical if *they* is omitted – i.e., that the sentence *Maria thinks that speak French* is ungrammatical. Other symbols used for grammaticality judgements are % 'interspeaker variation', ?/?? 'less acceptable, marginal' and # 'semantically odd'.

²The glosses obey the Leipzig Glossing Rules: 3 = third person, PL = plural, PRS = present.

2 Structure, rules, phrases

- "A sentence is obviously made up of a number of words, but [...] it is not true that sentences are formed simply by putting a row of words together." (BESE: p. 57)
 - (3) a. Sid saw Wendy.
 - b. Yesterday Sid saw Wendy.

What generalizations can we make regarding the linear order in (3)? And how about the meaning of the sentences?

- Sentences are internally structured, words are grouped into units.
- Sentences are built with the help of **rules**. In (4), one sentence contains the other. Thus, syntactic rules can be *recursive*.
 - (4) a. This is the house [that Jack built].
 - b. This is the malt [that lay in the house [that Jack built]].
 - c. This is the mouse [that ate the malt [that lay in the house [that Jack built]]].
- NB: two types of rules are to be distinguished, *prescriptive* and *descriptive* rules (see Carnie 2012). We are concerned with the later.

Prescriptive rules: telling people how they should speak (e.g., language teachers and copyeditors) \rightarrow "correct" sentences

Descriptive rules: rules that show how people *actually* speak, whether or not they are speaking "correctly" \rightarrow grammatical, acceptable sentences (see also fn. 1)

- **Phrases**: structured units that can consist of multiple words and that occur in a specific position in the sentence, i.e., have a specific syntactic distribution. For example, *the postwoman* and *the doctor* fulfill the same role in (5b) as *Prudence* and *Dennis*, respectively.
 - (5) a. [Prudence] pestered [Dennis].
 - b. [The postwoman] pestered [the doctor].
- → *Prudence* and *the postwoman* have the same syntactic distribution, cf. (6) and (7):
 - (6) a. They spoke to Prudence. (7) a. *We Prudence Dennis.
 - b. They spoke to the postwoman. b. *We the postwoman Dennis.
- Syntactic structure is not "flat": the sentence is organised in a hierarchical structure.
- The sentences in (8) have two possible interpretations. This is so because they are structurally ambiguous.

- (8) a. Peter saw the boy with the binoculars.
 - b. Mary saw tall boys and girls.
 - c. Mary saw boys and girls who were tall.
 - d. John said on Friday he would come over.

Homework (challenge): Think about the ambiguities in (9). What are the two possible interpretations of these sentences? Can they be (easily) accounted for in the same way like the examples in (8)?

- (9) a. John drove Mary home drunk.
 - b. I saw Mary in New York when she claimed she would arrive.

3 Word categories and types of phrases

- Word categories: words that cluster together based on certain principles
 - ① Thematic (lexical) categories: verbs (V), nouns (N), adjectives (A), prepositions (P)

Provide a few examples for these categories.

⁽²⁾ Functional categories: inflections (I), determiners (D), degree adverbs (Deg), complementizers (C)

- (10) Inflections
 - a. I think that he **could** see me.
 - b. I was anxious for him **to** see me.
 - c. He swim**s** everyday.
- (11) Determiners
 - a. the party
 - b. **a** snake
 - c. this idea of yours
 - d. which friend of mine

- (12) Degree adverbs
 - a. **so** light
 - b. **more/most** beautiful
- (13) Complementizers
 - a. I know [**that** I am right].
 - b. I was hoping [**for** you to phone].
 - c. I wonder [**if** you would lend me the money].
- NB: BESE (p. 30–34) distinguishes between degree adverbs (functional) vs. *-ly* adverbs (derived from adjectives). The latter are treated as adjectival phrases (see below).
- Criteria for determining the category of a word:
 ✓ morphology
 Provide arguments that nouns in English have similar morphological properties.

✓ syntactic distribution

What can be observed regarding the distribution of nouns and verbs based on (6) and (7)?

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(14)	the red apple I like dark red.	[Adj] [N]
(15)	They always attack us. We are under attack.	[V] [N]
(16)	The screen will clear. Everything is clear now.	[V] [Adj]

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Note: The phenomenon illustrated above is referred to as 'conversion' (the examples are from Fábregas & Scalise 2012). Can you give examples of conversion in Hungarian?

Homework: Determine the categories of the words *father, chair, costs, rings*. Provide examples to illustrate.

- "The identity of a phrase is determined by one of the words it contains. This word is known as the **head** of the phrase." (BESE: p. 66)
- ↔ verb phrases (VPs), adjectival phrases (APs), preposition phrases (PPs), inflectional phrases (IPs), determiner phrases (DPs), degree adverb phrases (DegPs), and complementizer phrases (CPs)

✓ Label the phrases in the following examples (BESE: p. 61–62):

(17) a. [[The postwoman] [pestered [the doctor] [on [his birthday]]]]b. [[The postwoman] [thinks [[the doctor] [is [cute]]]]]

Homework: Identify the constituents in the following sentences by using square brackets and adding labels to each phrase.

- (18) a. The postman lost his key yesterday.
 - b. The student who has just passed the exam is very happy.
- "Rewrite rules describe what constituents a certain structure can be made up of" (BESE: p. 327), as in (19). For instance, a sentence (S) can be re-written as a determiner phrase followed by a verb phrase, cf. (19a) as illustrated by (17).

(19) $S \rightarrow DP VP$ $VP \rightarrow V DP PP$ $PP \rightarrow P DP$ $DP \rightarrow D N$

References

Carnie, Andrew. 2012. Syntax: A generative introduction (3th edition). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Fábregas, Antonio & Sergio Scalise. 2012. *Morphology: From data to theories*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Radford, Andrew. 2009. *An introduction to English sentence structure*. New York: Cambridge University Press.