

Word Order

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“English is an SVO Language” (1/2)

- English is often described as having SVO as its basic (or ‘canonical’, ‘unmarked’, or ‘preferred’) word order

Chiquita (S) kicked (V) Pedro (O).

(other examples: Chinese, French, Spanish, Bulgarian)

as compared with:

- SOV, e.g. Japanese (here ‘=’ indicates cliticization of case markers):

John=ga tegami=o yon-da

John=GA letter=O read.PST

‘John read the letter.’

(other examples: Korean, Basque, Turkish, Uzbek)

- VSO, e.g. Welsh:

Dywedodd Gwyn y [gwelodd ef y bechgyn].

Said Gwyn that saw he the boys

‘Gwyn said that he saw the boys.’

(other examples: Irish, Hawaiian, Tongan, Chamorro)

“English is an SVO Language” (2/2)

- VOS, e.g. Malagasy (an Austronesian language of Madagascar):

Nahita ny mpianatra ny vehivavy.

saw NY student NY woman

‘The woman saw the student.’

(other examples: Fijian)

- OSV, e.g. Nadëb (a Nadahup language of Brazil):

awad kalapée hapúh

jaguar child see.IND

‘The child sees the jaguar.’

(other examples: Xavante (Brazil), Warao (Venezuela))

- OVS, e.g. Hixkaryana (a Carib language of Brazil):

toto y-ahosi-ye kamara

man 3:3.grab.distant-past jaguar

‘The jaguar grabbed the man.’

What is Meant by 'Basic' Word Order? (1/2)

1. Is Kim a vegan? (V-S-O, main clause polar interrogative)
2. What are they? (O-V-S, main clause constituent interrogative)
3. (I wonder) what they are. (O-S-V, embedded constituent interrogative)
4. BAGELS, I like. (O-S-V, contrastive topicalization)
L+H* L-H%
5. She bought the Ford ... no,
the CHEVY she bought. (O-S-V, corrective focus)
H* L-
6. The bigger the dog, the louder the bark. (comparative correlative)
7. No fool he!

What is Meant by ‘Basic’ Word Order? (2/2)

- In a DECLARATIVE, TRANSITIVE, PRAGMATICALLY UNMARKED, MAIN CLAUSE of English, the subject precedes the verb, and the verb precedes the object.
- For some languages, e.g. French, what counts as ‘basic’ is further circumscribed by requiring that the arguments be ‘full noun phrases’ as opposed to pronouns:
 1. Marie voit Jean.
Marie sees Jean
‘Marie sees Jean.’
 2. Marie le voit.
Marie him sees
‘Marie sees him.’
- But how do you know which is the ‘subject’ and which is the ‘object’?

What's a 'Subject'?

- In some syntactic frameworks, notions of 'grammatical function' or 'grammatical relation' are taken as undefined theoretical primitives.
 - LFG distinguishes (inter alia) SUBJ, OBJ1, OBJ2, OBL (oblique), COMP (complement), and XCOMP (controlled complement)
 - HPSG distinguishes (inter alia) SUBJ, COMPS, SPR (specifier), MOD (modifier), and FILL (filler)
- In GB, SPEC, COMP, and ADJ were *configurationally defined*—we will come back to this.
- In contemporary categorial frameworks, there are no (primitive or defined) notions of grammatical function.

What's a 'Subject' in our LG English Fragment?

- Consider the following lexical entry:

$$\vdash \lambda_{st}.s \cdot \text{beats} \cdot t; \text{Nom3s} \multimap \text{Acc} \multimap \text{S}; \text{beat}$$

- The argument we *call* the 'subject' can be identified as:
 - the one that comes to the left of the verb
 - the one that must be nominative (if it is a pronoun)
 - the one that the verb agrees with
 - the one corresponding to a certain semantic argument of the *beat* function (the 'agent' as opposed to the 'patient'—see below)
 - Once more of the grammar is known, we can also identify this argument as the one which can be 'raised', 'controlled', or 'passivized'.
 - In other languages, other properties are sometimes identified as 'subject' properties, e.g. ability to relativize, or to antecede a reflexive pronoun.
- But across languages, these properties may not all line up, or may not even exist.

Semantic (or Thematic) Roles (1/3)

- **Semantic roles** are *ways of participating* in the actions, states, or events described by predicates (usually but not always verbs).
- From one point of view, each such relation has its own set of semantic roles, in the sense that e.g. being the beater in a beating is different from being the feeder in a feeding.
- But semantic roles across different verb meanings with shared properties are often classified as instances of a single role (or role-type) in the interest of accounting for putative linguistic generalizations.
- Roles in this sense include, e.g. agent, patient (or theme), goal (or recipient), instrument, beneficiary, etc.
- A related notion in mainstream generative grammar is **θ -roles**, which are taken to be *syntactic* elements that ‘assigned’ to arguments by the syntactic entities that ‘take’ the arguments.

Semantic (or Thematic) Roles (2/3)

- Dowty (1991) introduced the notion of **proto-roles** as *prototypes* characterized by sets of *semantic properties* (or equivalently, entailments).
- Prototypical Agent Properties ('Proto-Agent'):
 - a. volitional involvement
 - b. sentience or perceptivity
 - c. causer of the event, or of a change of state of another participant
 - d. movement (possibly relative to the position of another participant)
 - e. existence independent of the event described by the verb
- Prototypical Patient Properties ('Proto-Patient')
 - a. undergoes a state change
 - b. incremental theme
 - c. causally affected by another participant
 - d. stationary relative to motion of another participant
 - e. existence dependent on the action described by the verb.

Semantic (or Thematic) Roles (3/3)

Standardly assumed semantic roles can be *defined* as presence or absence of different proto-role properties, e.g.

- Agent =_{def} volition + causation (+ sentience + movement)
- Experiencer =_{def} sentience/perceptivity, without volition or causation
- Theme =_{def} change of state (+ incremental theme + dependent existence + causally affected)
- Instrument =_{def} causation + movement, without volition or sentience

Case (1/5)

- Roughly, **case** is the *morphological* expression of the grammatical relationship of an argument/modifier to the predicate that it is an argument of (or that it modifies)
- Some languages (e.g. Chinese) lack case altogether:

Ta xihuan ta.

s/he like him/her

'S/He likes him/her.'

- Some (e.g. English) distinguish case only for pronouns.
- Some (e.g. K'iche') express case not on the argument but by **cross-reference** markers on the verb:

1. x- \emptyset -a-to' ri achi

CMP-A3-E2-help the man

'You helped the man.'

2. x-at-u-to' ri achi

CMP-A2-E3-help the man

'The man helped you.'

Case (2/5)

- Some languages express case via **inflection** of the argument itself (e.g. Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Turkish, German):
dom 'house' (nom.), dom-a (gen.), dom (acc.), dom-u (dat.), dom-e (loc.), dom-om (instr.)
- Some express case via **phrasal affixation**, i.e. clitics that attach after the entire argument phrase (e.g. Japanese, Korean), or before it (e.g. Tagalog):
Bumili ang=lalake ng=isda sa=tindahan.
Bought DIR=man IND=fish OBL=store
'The man bought fish at the store.'
- Languages differ with respect to the number of cases, e.g. 2 (Rumanian), 3 (Tagalog), 4 (German), 6 (Russian), 15 (Finnish)

Case (3/5)

- Dixon (1979) classifies case systems based on proposed universal syntactic-semantic primitives:

S: the single argument of an intransitive verb

A: the more agent-like argument of a transitive verb

O: the more patient-like argument of a transitive verb

Unfortunately ‘S’ and ‘O’ here don’t mean quite the same thing as in locutions like ‘V-S-O’ and ‘S-V-O’!

- In **nominative/accusative** case systems (e.g. Latin, German, Russian), S patterns with A (nominative) and against O (accusative).
- In **ergative/absolutive** case systems (e.g. Basque, Tibetan, K’iche’, West Greenlandic) , S patterns with O (absolutive) against A (ergative).

Case (4/5)

- In **split ergative** systems, ergativity is *conditioned*, e.g.:
 - in Hindi, the ergative pattern is followed if the verb is perfective, the accusative pattern if it is imperfective.
 - in ‘split S’ languages (e.g. Dakota), S of an *active* intransitive patterns with A, S of *stative* intransitive patterns with O.

Case (5/5)

- In **Austronesian** case systems, which argument of the transitive patterns like the only argument of the intransitive depends on the **voice** of the verb (here, for Tagalog, AV = agentive voice, OV = objective voice, DV = dative voice):

1. Bumili ang=lalake ng=isda sa=tindahan.
PERF.AV.buy DIR=man IND=fish OBL=store
'The man bought fish at the store.'
2. Binili ng=lalake ang=isda sa=tindahan
PERF.buy.OV IND=man DIR=fish OBL=store
'The man bought the fish at the store.'
3. Binilhan ng=lalake ng=isda ang=tindahan.
PERF.buy.DV IND=man IND=fish DIR=store
'The man bought fish at the store.'

Beyond V, S, and O

Languages also vary with respect to relative position of:

- pre/postposition and its object
- complementizer and clause
- verb and adverb
- clause and sentence modifier
- noun and attributive adjective
- noun and relative clause or complement clause
- noun and determiner
- noun and possessor
- noun and classifier (if any)

Word Order Freedom (1/4)

Many languages are often claimed not to belong to any of the six typed defined by relative position of S, V, and O, e.g.

- Korean and Japanese, and subordinate clauses of German and Dutch, are often characterized as **V-final** rather than S-O-V.
- Tagalog and K'iche' are usually characterized as **V-initial**
- Some languages are often said to have **free** word order, such as (poetic) Latin, Romanian, Finnish, Serbo-Croatian, and Warlpiri.

Word Order Freedom (2/4)

In reality, order in so-called free-word-order languages is subject to many different kinds of constraints involving a wide range of factors including:

- prosodic properties of the argument (e.g. ability to bear a pitch accent)
- whether the argument is a ‘full NP’, ‘independent pronoun’, or clitic
- semantic role of the argument
- inherent properties of the argument such as humanness or animacy
- person of the argument
- pragmatic properties of the argument, such as (in)definiteness, being a (continued, or contrastive) topic, or being a (answer, or corrective, or other) focus

Word Order Freedom (3/4)

- Even in languages where the order of ‘major constituents’ (arguments and modifiers) within a clause is relatively free (e.g. Finnish), the order of the words *within* each major constituent may be as rigid as in English.
- Much rarer is the “splitting” of NPs (e.g. separation of determiners or adjectives from nouns, as in these Jiwarli (central Australia) examples:
 1. Kutharra-rru ngunaha ngurtnta-inha jiluru.
two.nom-now that.nom lie-pres egg.nom
‘Now those two eggs are lying (there).’
 2. Karla wantha-nma-rni jarnpa juma.
fire.acc give-imper-hence light.acc small.acc
‘Give me a small fire light.’

Word Order Freedom (3/4)

- In some languages, certain nonfinite verbs allow (the appearance of) ‘scrambling’ of an argument or modifier into the next clause (or VP) up, as in German so-called ‘coherent’ constructions:
 1. *dass ihm der Mann zu helfen versucht*
that him.DAT the man to help tries
‘that the man tries to help him’
- In many languages, e.g. Czech, clitics can scramble out of their ‘home’ VP (often to “second position”):
 1. *Opravit jsem se mu to včera snažil marně.*
repair aux refl to-him it yesterday tried fruitlessly
‘I tried to repair it for him yesterday without success.’
- Scrambling out of a finite clause into a higher clause is much rarer.