COSC421: Neural Models of Language Lecture 8: Introduction to Minimalist syntax

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We've seen:

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• A model of how observers experience a reach-to-grasp episode. (Key idea: experiencing the episode involves a canonical sequence of SM operations.)

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(Key idea: an episode stored in working memory can be internally replayed.)

- An overview of language networks in the brain. (Phonemes, syllables, word forms, word meanings.)
- Some data about how infants learn words. (Word forms, word meanings.)

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Outline of today's lecture



Introduction to GB/Minimalism





Minimalist analysis of a transitive clause

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Outline of today's lecture

What do linguists do?

Introduction to GB/Minimalism

- 3) Components of the Minimalist model
- 4 Minimalist analysis of a transitive clause

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Objective (version 1): to describe a human language (call it L).

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So to describe *L*, we need to define a mechanism which *generates* all (and only) the sentences in *L*.
 (The generative mechanism is a way of stating a declarative theory—not a model of how people produce sentences.)

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So to describe *L*, we need to define a mechanism which *generates* all (and only) the sentences in *L*.
 (The generative mechanism is a way of stating a declarative theory—not a model of how people produce sentences.)

The mechanism is a collection of *rules*, which define what counts as a 'well-formed sentence' in L.

• These rules operate *recursively*: they explain how words combine into **phrases**, and how phrases combine into sentences.

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What's a syntactic analysis?

Take a sentence S in a particular language.

- (E.g. The man grabbed a cup.)
 - Once we have our generative mechanism, we can *describe* how this mechanism generates *S*.

This description can be given as a specification of the hierarchical **phrase structure** of *S*.

- The terminal nodes in the structure are words.
- Each nonterminal node describes the application of a phrase-formation rule.

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An example

Here's a simple generative mechanism:

Here's a description of how it generates *the man grabbed a cup*.



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Objective (version 2): to describe the human language faculty.

A *human speaker* of language *L* must have a generative mechanism for *L* 'on board'.

- Assumption: most of this generative mechanism is *innately given*. (This is the Chomskyan **Universal Grammar** (**UG**) hypothesis.)
- Children 'parameterise' their generative mechanism when they learn their mother tongue.

A linguist with this goal must build a generative mechanism which can be parameterised for any human language.

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Objective (version 3): to explain how sentences get their meanings.

Assumption: we use a sentence's phrase structure to derive its meaning.

- Each word in the sentence has a stored meaning.
- The meaning of each *phrase* in the sentence is *constructed* from the meaning of its component elements.



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How do linguists represent sentence meanings?

We've seen a 'sensorimotor' (embodied) conception of meaning:

• 'The meaning of *The man grabbed a cup* is a replayed SM sequence.'

Linguists normally think of meanings more symbolically.

- The verb in the above sentence introduces a **predicate**, which takes one or more **arguments**.
- Each argument plays a particular **thematic role** in the described episode.
- The verb grab has two arguments, which are associated with the thematic roles AGENT and PATIENT.

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1 What do linguists do?

Introduction to GB/Minimalism

Components of the Minimalist model

4 Minimalist analysis of a transitive clause

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Choosing a syntactic framework

I'm using Chomsky's **generative grammar** tradition as my syntactic framework.

- Theorists working in this tradition are trying to develop a parameterisable UG model, rather than just a description of individual languages. (C.f. Objective 2)
- They also want their model to explain how sentences get their meaning. (C.f. Objective 3)

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GB and Minimalism

Generative grammar has undergone many changes over fifty years.

- I'm drawing mainly on the **Minimalist model** (Chomsky, 1995).
- But for exposition I'll also refer to the **Government-and-Binding** (**GB**) model of the 1980s.

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Phonetic form and logical form

In Minimalism, a sentence needs to be described at two different syntactic levels.

- **Phonetic form** (**PF**) represents the surface form of the sentence.
- Logical form (LF) is 'the level of syntactic representation which interfaces with the semantic system'.

LF is also the level at which syntactic generalisations across languages are manifest.

I'll assume that all translations of *The man grabbed a cup* have the same LF.

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Components of the Minimalist model

The Minimalist model has two components:

- A definition of what **phrases** are
- A generative mechanism for forming (and altering) phrases.

(Most of the complexity of the model is in the generative mechanism.)

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Definition of phrases

The basic unit of phrase structure is the **X-bar schema**.



Each word in a sentence contributes an XP structure.

- The **head** of the structure (X) is the word itself.
- The structure also has slots for a **specifier** (Spec) and a **complement** (Comp).
- These slots can (recursively) be occupied by other XPs.

Motivating the X-bar schema

What evidence is there that the X-bar schema is the basic building block?

- A simple idea:
 - Each word in a sentence contributes its own piece of syntactic structure, creating positions for the words which denote its **arguments**.
 - There seem to be generalisations between the structures contributed by different word categories.



Why not make the schema look like this?



One reason: there are often words or phrases which we can substitute for a head and its complement, but not for a head and its specifier.



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One reason: there are often words or phrases which we can substitute for a head and its complement, but not for a head and its specifier.



But what about words with more than two arguments?

How should we analyse

John put the cup into the sink



The generative mechanism

The generative mechanism builds a **phrase structure** (out of XPs), and then alters it.

- It begins with a series of **phrase formation operations**, in which XPs are created and joined together.
- Then there's a series of **movement operations**, where elements move from one position in the phrase structure to another.

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Generating PF and LF structures

The sequence of movement operations is divided into two subsequences.

- First there's a sequence of overt movement operations
- Then there's a sequence of covert movement operations.

The PF of a sentence is **read off** the phrase structure after the overt movement operations. The LF is created by executing the remaining covert movement operations.

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An example sentence: The man grabbed a cup

Phrase formation operations create the following XP structure:



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An example sentence: The man grabbed a cup

Each XP is of a different type:



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An example sentence: The man grabbed a cup

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Each XP is of a different type:



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VP is headed by a verb, and introduces two DPs:



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Movement operations are of two types. One is **DP movement**:



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Movement operations are of two types. One is **DP movement**:



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The other type of movement is head movement:



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Moved elements remain linked to their previous position(s):



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Some movement operations are **overt**, and some are **covert**:



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Languages have different patterns of overt/covert movement:



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English PF looks like this:



French/Italian PF looks like this:



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Māori PF looks like this:



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(Perhaps) Japanese PF looks like this:



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Motivating the structure of The man grabbed a cup

The X-bar structure of a transitive sentence is motivated from a complex body of arguments.

I'll introduce the structure incrementally.

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An asymmetry between subject and object

Recall the simple structure we gave to begin with:



Note that the verb binds more tightly to its object than to its subject. Here are some motivations for this:

- John grabbed a cup. Bill **did so** too.
- All sentences have subjects.
 Whether a sentence has an object depends on the verb.

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Verbs can have inflections: e.g. grabs, grabbed.

When a sentence features an **auxiliary verb**, the main verb is always uninflected (**nonfinite**).

- John can walk.
- *John can walks.

This suggests that the auxiliary verb in some sense takes the place of an inflection.

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The GB idea: auxiliary verbs have their own XP, which sits above VP.



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The subject of the verb appears at the Spec of this XP.

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- Verb inflections originate as heads of this same XP.
 For this reason, it's called IP ('inflection phrase').

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- The subject of the verb appears at the Spec of this XP.
- Verb inflections originate as heads of this same XP. For this reason, it's called **IP** ('inflection phrase').
- Note that inflections agree with the subject.

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The GB idea: auxiliary verbs have their own XP, which sits above VP.



- The inflection (I) and verb (V) have to come together at PF.
- The GB analysis: V raises to I in some languages (e.g. French), and I lowers to V in other languages (e.g. English).
- This gives a nice explanation of some differences in word order.

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John often drinks tea Jean boit souvent du thé [Jean drinks often of tea]



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John often drinks tea Jean boit souvent du thé [Jean drinks often of tea]



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John often drinks tea Jean boit souvent du thé [Jean drinks often of tea]



John often drinks tea Jean boit souvent du thé





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John does not drink tea Jean (ne) boit pas du thé

[Jean (ne) drinks not of tea]



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Evidence from question formation

The GB story:

- Questions have an extra projection above IP, called CP.
- Questions require I to move to the head of CP.



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Evidence from question formation

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Summary

- Clause structure has a CP, an IP and an VP.
- Heads can (iteratively) raise or lower to adjacent heads.
- Subject-verb agreement is implemented at the inflectional head.

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A Minimalist revision

In Minimalism, all movement is upwards (i.e. to the left).

- Phrase-formation operations generate a *fully inflected verb* at V.
- This verb always raises to I (and to C if there is one).
- In French, this movement is *overt*; in English, it's *covert*.

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In generative grammar, DPs undergo movement as well as heads.

To introduce the idea, consider these two sentences:

- (1) It seems John walks.
- (2) John seems to walk.

How can we explain that the sentences have the same meaning?

- John is clearly the AGENT of walks in both (1) and (2).
- But in (2), *John* is the subject of *seems*.

The GB proposal: (1) and (2) derive from the same LF structure.

The GB proposal: seem takes a whole clause as its complement.

- John is the subject of this complement clause at LF.
- A verb 'assigns' AGENT/PATIENT to positions in its local clause.
- [Spec,IP] is the AGENT; [Comp,V] is the PATIENT.



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Note that movement is *obligatory* if the complement verb is nonfinite.

(3) *It seems John to walk.

The GB explanation relates to a concept called **Case**.

- Every DP must be 'assigned' Case.
- Object DPs get (acc) Case from the V which introduces them.
- Subject DPs get (nom) Case from the I which introduces them.

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GB proposes that **only** *finite* I can assign Case. This means *John* must raise to the higher [Spec,IP] *to get Case*.

Summary

- A verb assigns **thematic roles** (e.g. AGENT, PATIENT) to its arguments *locally*, within its clause.
- The subject of a nonfinite clause has to raise to a higher IP to get Case.

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The VP-internal subject hypothesis

In later versions of GB and in Minimalism, the idea of subject raising is extended to simple clauses like *John grabbed a cup*.

The subject originates at [Spec,VP] and raises to [Spec,IP].



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The subject originates at [Spec,VP] and raises to [Spec,IP].



- 1. Auxiliary verbs are a lot like raising verbs (e.g. seem).
 - Semantically, they introduce a whole proposition. John can walk = 'It can be that [John walks]
 - They can have empty subjects. (E.g. It can rain hard here.)

This suggests a raising analysis.



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2. If subjects originate within the VP, then we can tell a simple story about how thematic roles (e.g. AGENT, PATIENT) are assigned.

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If subjects originate at [Spec,VP]:



So: subjects get thematic role at [Spec, VP], and Case at [Spec, IP].

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3. VSO languages become easy to explain.

If subjects originate at [Spec,VP], then we can generate VSO order by:

- making subject raising covert;
- making verb raising overt.





















In late GB and in Minimalism, objects also raise out of the VP, to the Spec of a new projection called Agr_OP (I'll say AgrP for short).



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Some languages allow the object of a transitive verb to appear before the verb.

This happens in Irish nonfinite clauses:

Ba mhaith liom	John	an	abairt	а	scríobh	
I want	John	the	sentence(ACC)		write	
'I want John to write the sentence'						

One possible explanation:

 There's a position in between IP and VP which the object can move to.

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The object starts off in the complement position.

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The object starts off in the complement position. Then it moves to the specifier of the intermediate position.

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Pollock (1989): there's a projection in between IP and VP.

In finite clauses:

English *have* and *be* can raise past both adverbs and negation, while lexical verbs cannot.

- (1) John is often happy / John is not happy
- (2) *John drinks often tea / *John drinks not tea

French lexical verbs *AND* have / be can raise past both adverbs and negation.

- (3) Jean est souvent heureux / Jean n'est pas heureux
- (4) Jean boit souvent du thé / Jean ne boit pas du thé

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Pollock (1989): there's a projection in between IP and VP.

In nonfinite clauses:

English *have/be* can raise past both adverbs and negation, while lexical verbs cannot.

- (5) To be often happy / To be not happy
- (6) *To kiss often Mary / *To kiss not Mary

French *have* and *be* can raise past both adverbs and negation, while lexical verbs can only raise past adverbs.

- (7) Être souvent heureux / N'être pas heureux
- (8) Embrasser souvent Marie / * N'embrasser pas Marie

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Some generalisations:

- 1. If a verb can move past negation, it can always move past adverbs. (But the reverse is not true.)
- 2. French lexical verbs can move past adverbs. But English lexical verbs can't.
- 3. In French and English, *be/have* can always move past negation.

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Pollock: we can explain these generalisations neatly by assuming that verbs raise from V to I *in two hops*:

- First they raise beyond the adverb position to an intermediate head.
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Pollock: Agr and I contribute different elements of verb morphology.

- Agr contributes agreement morphology
- I contributes tense morphology. (He renamed I T.)



Belletti: the agreement head must be above the tense head.

- Tense morphemes attach before agreement morphemes.
- E.g. parl-av-ano...



Chomsky (1995): there are two Agr projections.

- The one above T carries subject agreement morphology.
- The one below T carries object agreement morphology.



Alistair Knott (Otago)

Chomsky (1995): there are two Agr projections.

- The one above T assigns nominative Case to its Specifier.
- The one below T assigns accusative Case to its Specifier.



Alistair Knott (Otago)

Ali (2009):

- To keep things simple, I'll collapse subject agreement and T.
- I'll call the combination IP.



Why should the intermediate projection relate to object agreement?

- 1. It creates a uniform Case assignment mechanism.
 - Both nom. and acc. Case are assigned by a functional head to its Specifier.
 - DPs raise out of the VP to get Case.

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Why should the intermediate projection relate to object agreement?

- 1. It creates a uniform Case assignment mechanism.
 - Both nom. and acc. Case are assigned by a functional head to its Specifier.
 - DPs raise out of the VP to get Case.
- 2. It provides a simple way of explaining SOV order.
 - S raises to [Spec,IP] (at PF)
 - O raises to [Spec,AgrP] (at PF)
 - V stays in the VP (at PF).

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The verb and its arguments originate in the VP.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)

The subject raises to [Spec,IP] to get Case.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)

The subject raises to [Spec,IP] to get Case.



The subject raises to [Spec,IP] to get Case.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)

The object raises to [Spec,AgrP] to get Case.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)

The object raises to [Spec,AgrP] to get Case.



The object raises to [Spec,AgrP] to get Case.



Alistair Knott (Otago)

The verb raises successively to the Agr and I heads.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)

The verb raises successively to the Agr and I heads.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)

The verb raises successively to the Agr and I heads.



Alistair Knott (Otago)

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The verb raises successively to the Agr and I heads.



Alistair Knott (Otago)

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Moved elements leave traces.



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Alistair Knott (Otago)