

LIN7209 – Syntax

Theory and Architecture

Adèle Hénot-Mortier (based on David's original materials)

23/09/2025

Queen Mary University of London

Logistics at a glance

- Adèle (she/her, a.mortier@qmul.ac.uk, ArtsOne 113).
- Tuesday 9-11, ArtsTwo 3.17.
- Course updated regularly on [QMPlus](#).
- Office hours Monday and Friday 13-14 starting 29/09.

Readings

- The **background reading** is David's *Core Syntax*. I encourage you to read the relevant Chapter(s) (give in *syllabus*) prior to class.
- Each week has a [main reading] (see *syllabus*). We'll go through it in class and will serve as the backbone for the discussion. Try to read it both before and after class.
- (**Extra reading**) can be done whenever, but ideally should be done by the end of the class.
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Assessment

- You'll have to write up a portion of the **data analysis** exercises we do in class in the form of a short linguistics paper (~4000 words).
- Criteria for assessment:
 - professional presentation (examples, glosses, citation, bibliography etc.);
 - clear argumentation connecting data, analysis and theory.
- It is QMUL policy to penalize **late submissions** 5 marks per day. In addition, submissions received more than 7 days after the due date will receive a mark of 0.
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Introduction

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- (2) Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

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- A “bruteforce” solution: syntax encodes pairs of form-meaning mappings.
 - Immediate issue: that would require a lot of memory space, in fact an **infinite amount of space**, given that sentences can be arbitrarily long, so there’s an infinite number of them.
- (3) Jo told Ed that Al believes that ... that Lu is sick.

A big picture question

- What should a theory of syntax look like then?
- Question *a priori* independent from a specific syntactic framework.
- At the most basic level, Syntax must involve a number of primitives, but also a number of productive rules/principles, allowing us to generate an infinite number of outputs with finite means (**generative** syntax).
- Core ingredients we will review today:
 - Constituent structure;
 - Argument structure;
 - Dependency.
- We'll also quickly review how generative syntax built on these ingredients and evolved into the so-called Minimalist framework.
- Before diving this, let's further define what really falls into Syntax.

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Syntax and processing

Agreement attraction

(4) [?]* The cat near the windows **have** bitten the dog.
 subject attractor

- Sometimes, non-subjects linearly intervene between the subject and the verb, and make us produce the “wrong” agreement. This is called **agreement attraction**.
- Should we consider (4) partially grammatical then?
- Not really: after careful consideration, most if not all speakers would agree that (4) deserves a *.
- Additionally, kids are exposed to such sentences but do not overproduce them.
- The *processing* of two linearly adjacent nominals can be confusing when determining agreement–this appears independent from Syntax.

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 - In (5), we want to understand *The old man* as a noun phrase (\simeq *the man that is old*), rather than a noun phrase plus a verb (\simeq *the old people operate...*).
 - This is because *old* is **more likely** to be used as an adjective as opposed to a noun, and *man*, as a noun as opposed to a verb. Consequently, the structure we first infer is different from the one that eventually makes sense.
 - The continuation *while the young...* helps disambiguate in favor of the unlikely yet consistent interpretation.

Garden-pathing (II)

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 - Should we consider (5) and (6) partially ungrammatical then?
 - Not really: syntactically innocuous substitutions drastically improve these sentences!

(5') The **elderly** man the boat.

(6') The woman **given** the sandwich from the kitchen tripped.

Ungrammaticality vs. processing difficulties

- Agreement attraction and garden-path effects outline the fact that sentences can “feel” off due to processing difficulties, rooted in our idea of what’s likely (**statistics**).
- Usually, these difficulties are overcome after more careful consideration, or by changing some superficial aspects of the sentence to reduce ambiguities.
- A sentence like (7) cannot be “rescued” that way.

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Syntax and the Parser

- We need to distinguish the **syntactic module** from the processing module (**the parser**).
- The parser uses the rules provided by Syntax, but also extra heuristics (e.g. use the most likely rule at any given point) to make processing faster.
- Sentences can be ungrammatical but wrongly accepted/produced by the parser (**attraction**), or grammatical but rejected by the parser (**garden-pathing**).
- This relates to the standard difference between syntactic **competence** (our abstract, internal capacity to produce any sentence), and **performance** (what we actually produce, given our cognitive limitations).
- Let's now review a few core components of Syntax, starting with constituent structure.

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Constituency

Evidence 1: Basic word order

- In English, many sentences follow the SVO pattern.

(8) The cat bit the dog.
 AGENT PATIENT

- Null hypothesis: the form-meaning relation is purely linear: the AGENT comes first, then the predicate, then the PATIENT.

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- Syntax must encode something about how the different elements of a sentence **interact** beyond linear order.

Extension: verb-second

- Many Germanic languages but also Ingush (Northeast Caucasian) and O'odham (Uto-Aztecán) are verb-second (V2). From Yiddish (V2 in main and embedded clauses):

- (9) Ikh **hob** gezen mitvokh, az ikh **vel** nit kenen kumen donershtik.
I have seen Wednesday that I will not can come Thursday
'I saw on Wednesday that I wouldn't be able to come on Thursday.'
- (10) Mitvokh **hob** ikh gezen, az donershtik **vel** ikh nit kenen kumen.
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Evidence 2: question formation

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- (12) a. The cat [that **is** lying on the mat] **has** bitten the dog.
 b. * **Is** the cat [that lying on the mat] **has** bitten the dog?
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- Syntax must encode what it means to be the “main” auxiliary—some **hierarchy**.

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- Extra evidence that syntax must encode some hierarchy.

Encoding hierarchy via constituent structure

- A straightforward implementation of hierarchical relations between words is **constituent structure**.
- Word or groups of words are bracketed to form constituents. In our case, a well-formed bracketing is s.t.:
 - $[w]$ with w a word is a well-formed constituent;
 - $[C]$ is well formed iff C is a concatenation of one or more well-formed constituents.
- This is an inductive definition: it applies to arbitrarily long sentences.

(14) [[[The][[cat][[near][[the][windows]]]]][[has][[bitten][[the][dog]]]]]

- This gets heavy real quick so obvious/irrelevant brackets may be dropped.
- Brackets may be labeled (e.g. $[_{DP} \text{the windows}]$), but some theories choose not to encode this as part of constituent structure, instead encoding this kind of information if the words.

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Standard constituency tests

(15) [The cat near the window] has bitten the dog.



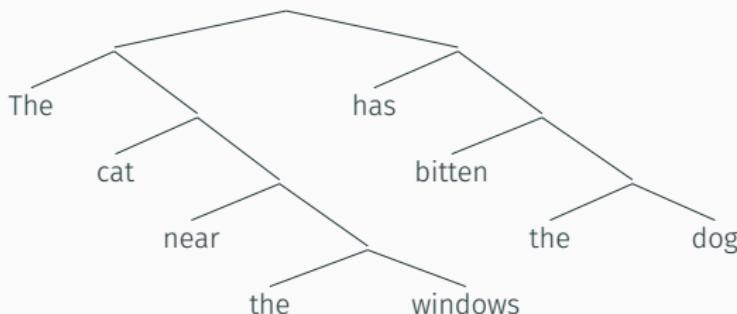
- Substitution: *Sachou has bitten the dog.*
- Clefting: *It's the cat near the window that has bitten the dog.*
- Question formation: *Who bit the dog? The cat near the window.*
- Coordination: *Sachou and the cat near the window have bitten the dog.*

(16) The cat near the window [has bitten the dog].

- Ellipsis: *The cat near the window has bitten the dog, and Sachou too* (has bitten the dog)

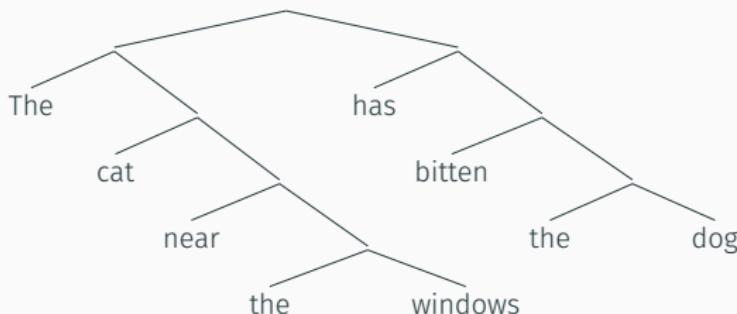
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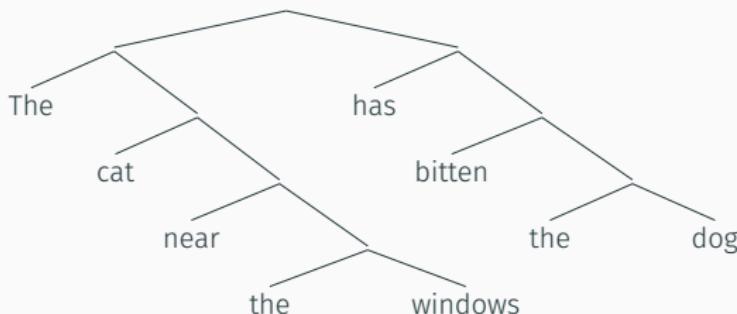
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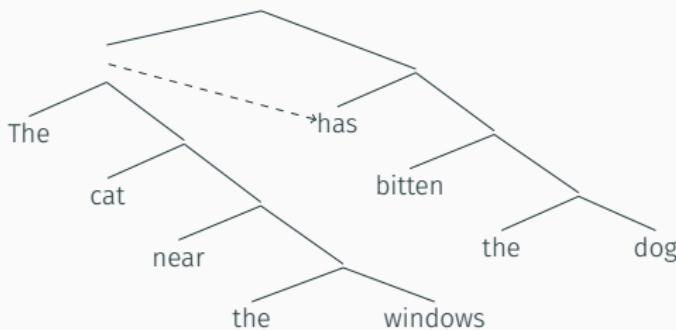
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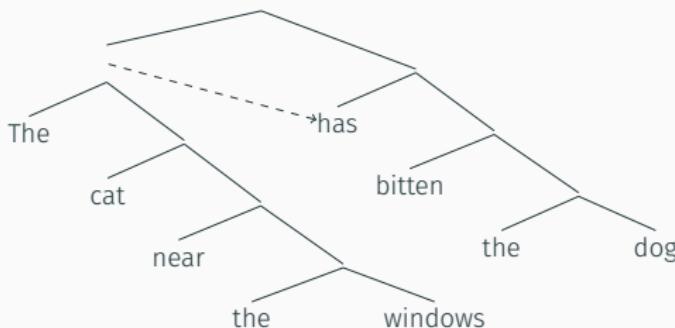
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- Trees are expressive enough to explain why *has* is singular in (14) and the above tree: it must agree with the entire C-Commanding constituent *The cat near the windows*, rather than with the deeply embedded constituent *the windows*.

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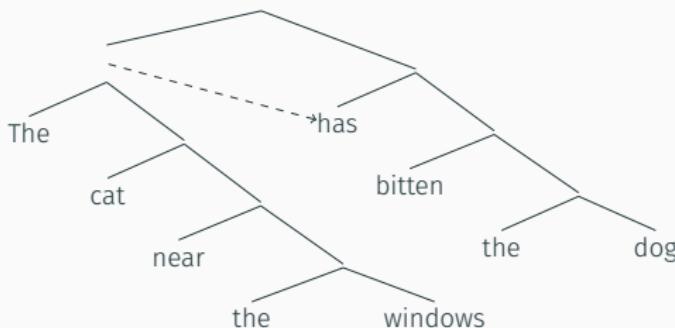
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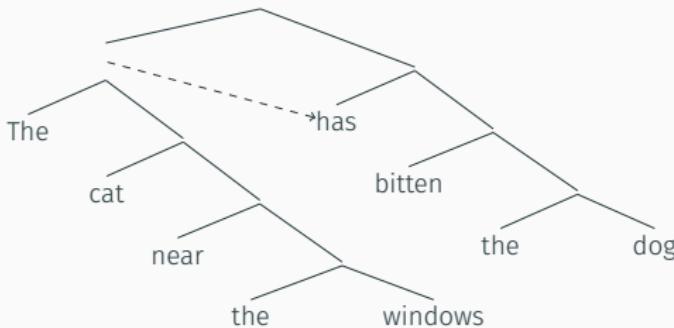
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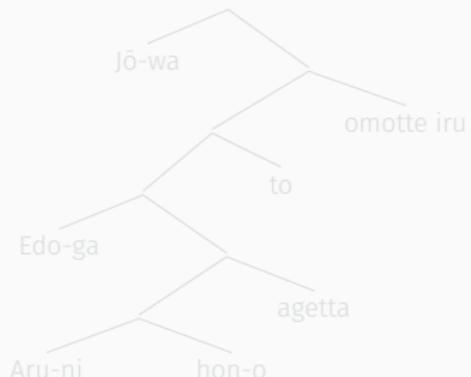


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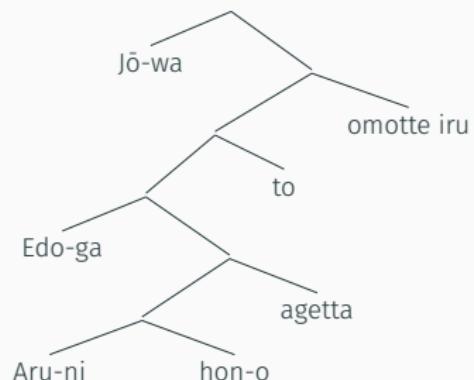
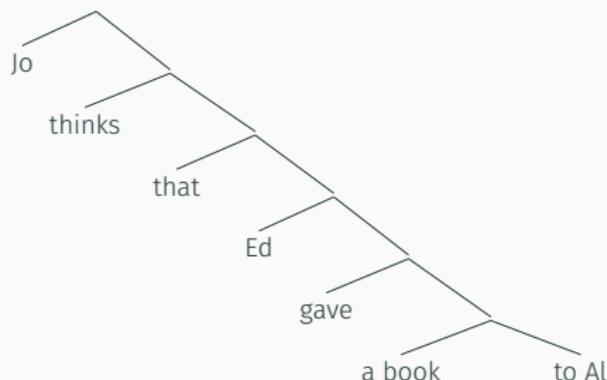
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Advantages of an unordered tree structure

- Sentences must be produced sequentially (**linearization**), but their trees don't come with an inherent notion of ordering between sister nodes. Being the left/right node on paper does not mean being left/right in the sentence.



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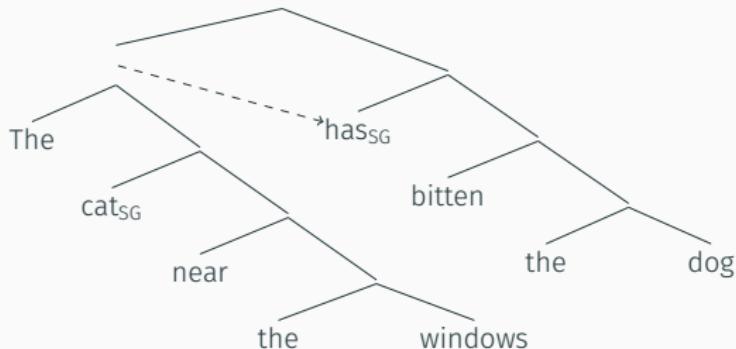
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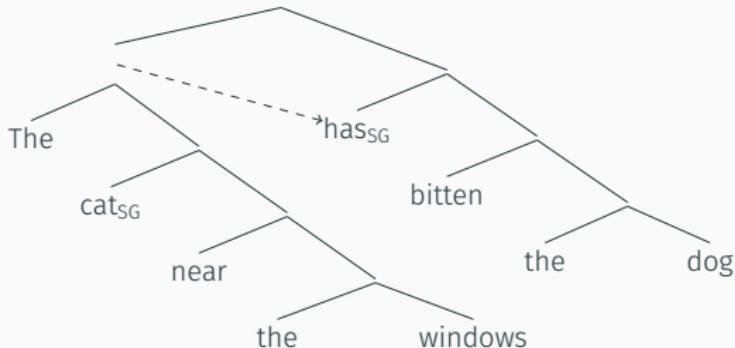
Argument structure

Back to agreement



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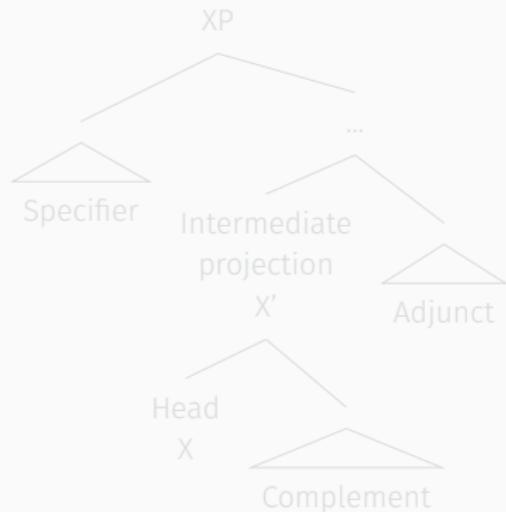


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Heads and structural relations

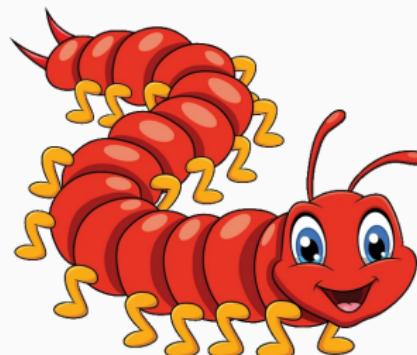
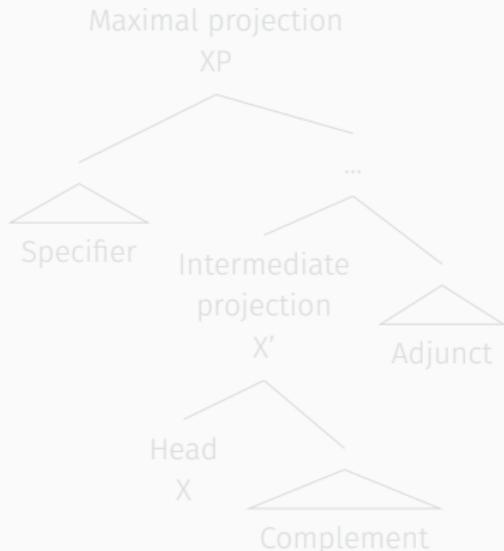
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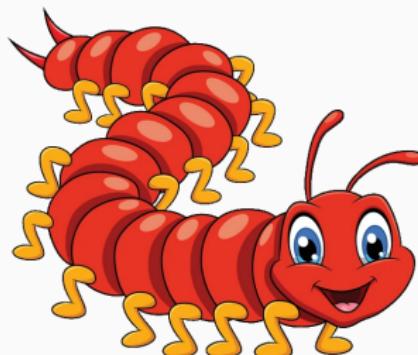
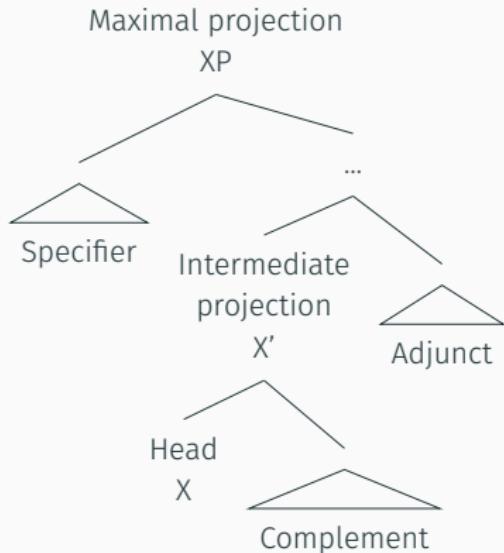
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The head of a sentence

- Constituents inherit the behavior of their head—what about entire sentences then? Are they like subjects? VPs?



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- Sentences behave like **tensed phrases**; they are headed by a tense (T) head. The Specifier of T (Spec-TP) eventually hosts the subject.

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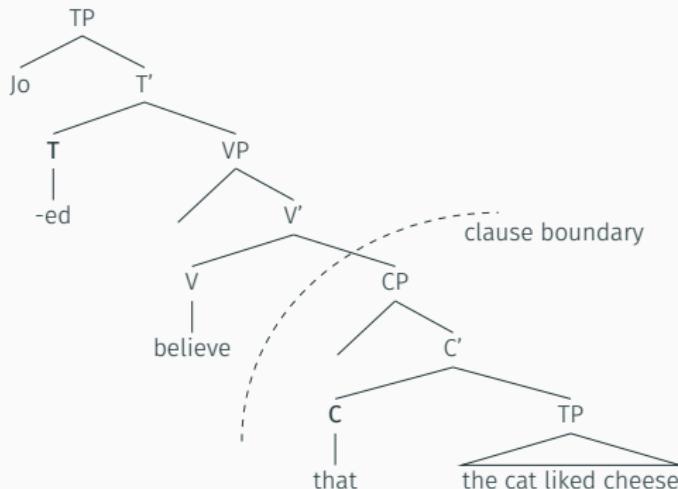


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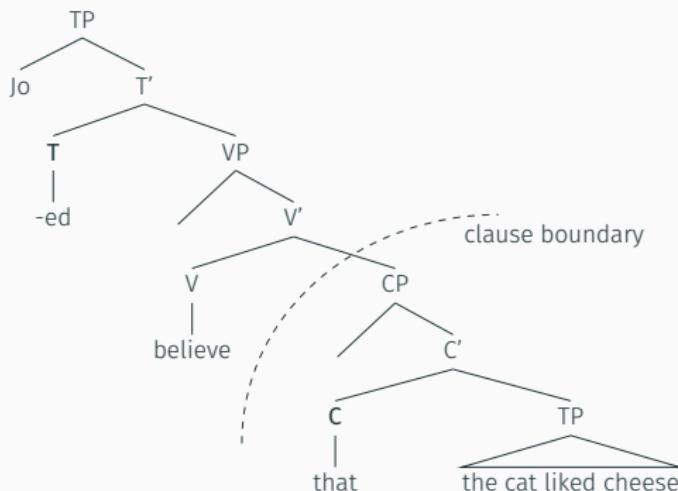
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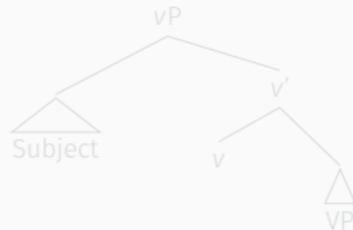
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- The interpretation of V is often sensitive to the semantic characteristic of its object, but never to those of its subject!

- (21) a. throw a baseball.
b. throw support behind a candidate.
c. throw a party.

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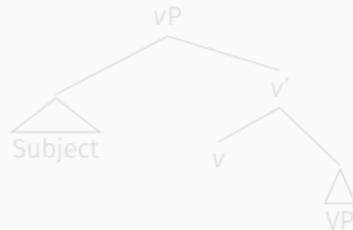


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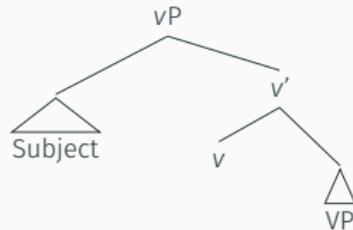


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 PATIENT AGENT
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 'The cat fell.' Intransitive unaccusative
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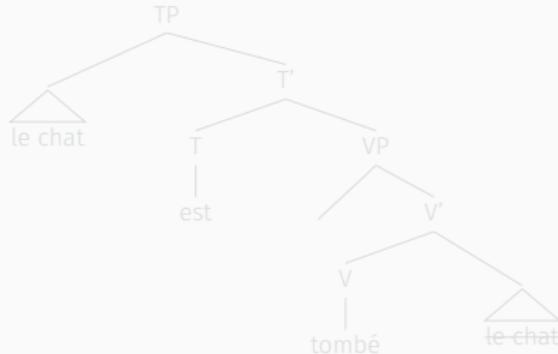
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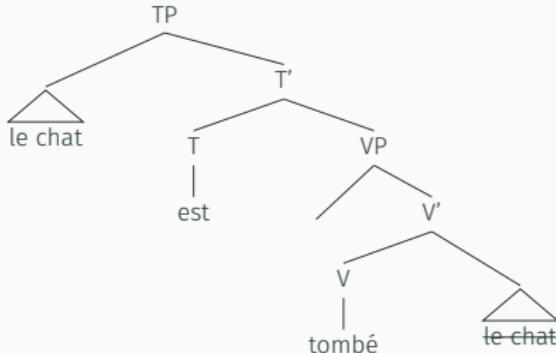


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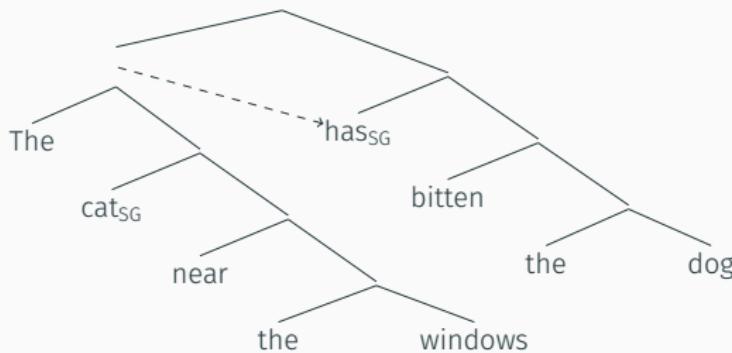
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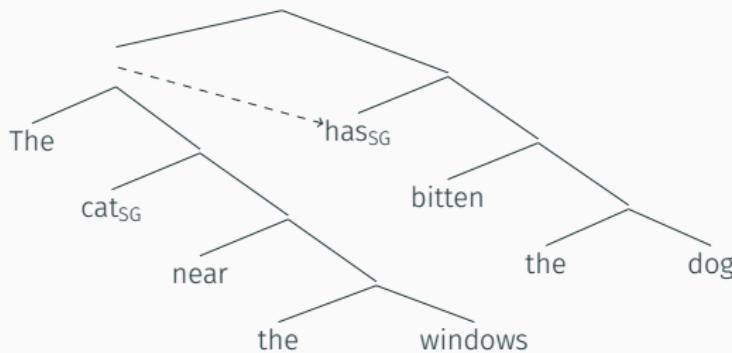
- Possessive/reflexive pronouns **corefer** with specific elements:
 - variable introduced by a quantified expression (e.g. *every kitten*);
 - referent introduced by a referring expression (e.g. *Lu*).
- The possibility of a dependency is structurally determined by C-Command, and in the case of English reflexives, restricted to a local domain (here, excluding *Jo*).
- (Variable) binding is thus another kind of **positional dependency** that Syntax must encode.

Agreement again!



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- Formal dependencies lie agreement operate on these abstract features.
- Morphology maps abstract features to overt realizations.

Beyond subject-verb agreement

- Some languages like Tsez (Nakh-Daghestanian) will primarily agree with their object.
- Some languages will agree with any argument, as soon as one of them bears the critical feature (omnivorous agreement).

- (29) a. nits-ikákomimm-ok-innaan-a
1-love_{TA}-INV-1Exc-Sg
'She loves us (exclusive).'
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- Another kind of formal dependency is **case**, e.g. nominative vs. accusative.

(30) a. She saw him.
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- Basque, Georgian, Mayan, Tibetan, Sumerian, some Indo-European and many Indo-Aryan languages display **absolutive-ergative case systems**, in which the subject of an intransitive and the object of a transitive are marked with the absolute, while the subject of transitives are ergative.

Formalizing the core concepts

Three big historical landmarks

- Phrase structure rules
- Transformational grammar
- Minimalism

Phrase structure rules

- Production rules of the form “mother node → children nodes” specifying how to build syntax trees.

S → NP VP

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- Issue: powerful system, but oblivious of certain inherent differences in argument structure, e.g. (in)transitivity.

- (32) a. The shooting of the hunters. ambiguous
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Transformations (I)

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- Transformational grammar: the above nominalizations are derived from sentences *via specific transformation rules*.
- Because *shoot* is transitive, (32a) can be derived from either *The hunters shoot ...* or from *... shoot the hunters*, capturing the ambiguity.
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- Transformations affect structure but not meaning. Meaning is determined at the level of “**deep structure**”.
- Applications: active-passive alternation, *tough*-constructions, raising constructions...dependencies in general.

(8) The cat bit the dog.
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(8') The dog was bitten by the cat.
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(33) a. It's tough to please Jo.

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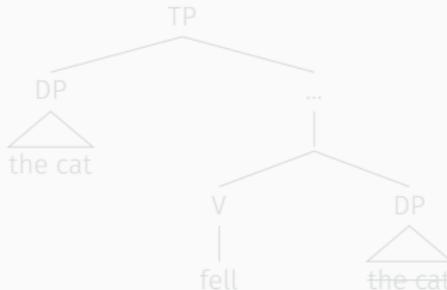
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Minimalism: Merge

- Core components of Syntax enabled by one operation: **MERGE**.
 - Structure building (before: phrase structure rules) is **EXTERNAL MERGE**—you merge two constituents that have not been merged before.

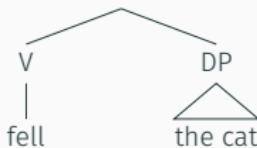


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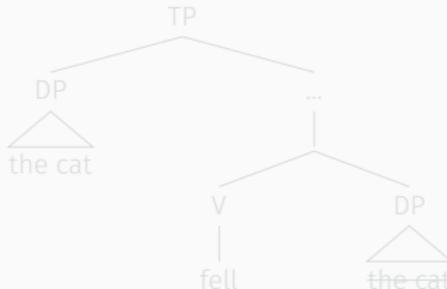


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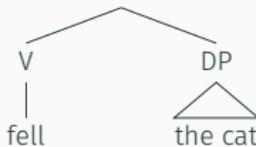


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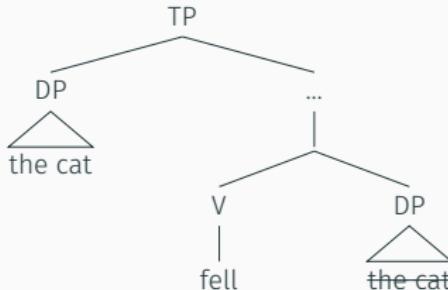


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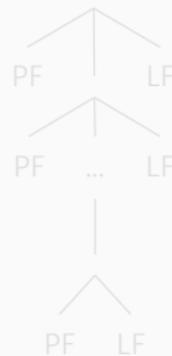


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Minimalism: a “narrow” Syntax

- Things that are not enabled by MERGE are pushed out of syntax. MERGE produces a structure that is sent to the **interfaces** (“spell-out”):
 - The **phonological component**, which determines how the structure gets pronounced (Phonological Form);
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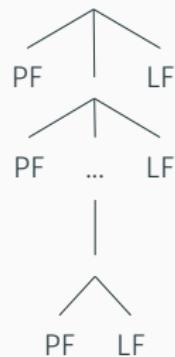
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