

PROIEL Guidelines for Annotation

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1 Introduction

The system of annotation presented here is based on dependency grammar enriched with secondary dependencies (slashes, see section 13) reminiscent of the structure sharing mechanism in Lexical-Functional Grammar. Much of the scheme is adapted from the *Guidelines for the Syntactic Annotation of Latin Treebanks (v. 1.3)*¹ and its ultimate source, the *Guidelines for Annotations at Analytical Level of the Prague Dependency Treebank*.² However, there are several important differences that are addressed in a separate document which also discusses questions of conversion.

Since we use a dependency grammar, word order is not modelled at all in our syntactic trees. The information about word order is rather stored in a separate layer where each word is given a linearisation index corresponding to its position in the sentence. This means that there is no left-to-right ordering in our trees. In this document, the ordering often but not always approximates the linear order of the sentence. In the annotation interface, the left-to-right ordering of trees is decided by the dependency tree grapher and is purely conventional.

Word order

2 Sentence boundaries

The division of the text into sentences has been done automatically. It is based on the punctuation used in the source text, which will not always correspond to meaningful syntactic units. In the case of the Latin Vulgate, the source text had no punctuation at all, so we have 'imported' punctuation from another, slightly different text (the Clementine Vulgate). This means that there is even more potential for errors.

In the first step of the annotation process, therefore, the annotator is asked to verify that the sentence boundary has been set correctly. Whether two main sentences with *et*, or a similar conjunction between them have been conjoined or not depends on the punctuation used by the editor. The annotators should in general not change this, but only verify

Grouping of main clauses

- that there are no 'off-by-one' errors, ie. cases where the sentence boundary is wrong by a couple of words. This can happen if there are important textual deviations between the Clementine Vulgate and our text. Also, subjunctions like *quia* are often placed together with direct speech ('mixed speech'), but should belong with the verb of saying.
- that there are no subordinate clauses which have been assigned to the wrong governing main clause

Notice that the most frequent off-by-one-error occurs when a subjunction like *quia* is put in the same sentence as direct speech. In such cases, the subjunction should be dependent on the verb of speech (normally via the relation COMP),

'Mixed' speech

¹<http://nlp.perseus.tufts.edu/syntax/treebank/1.3/docs/guidelines.pdf>

²<http://ufal.mff.cuni.cz/pdt2.0/doc/manuals/en/a-layer/html/index.html>

but not itself have any dependent, because the direct speech is marked off as a separate sentence. Notice that sentences introduced by subjunctions should be considered indirect speech if this is possible, ie. if there is no evidence from e.g. pronouns to indicate that the quote is direct.

Direct and indirect speech

Indirect speech should depend on, and be grouped with, the sentence containing the verb of speech. Direct speech should be separated off as main clauses. If a sentence contains both a verb of saying and some direct speech, it is possible to analyse this as two separate sentences, see the next section.

There are cases where one main clause is entirely included in another main clause as a parenthetical sentence. Since we consider direct speech as main clauses, this is the case whenever a verb of speech is inserted parenthetically into a sequence of direct speech, as in the following example (Acts 25.5):

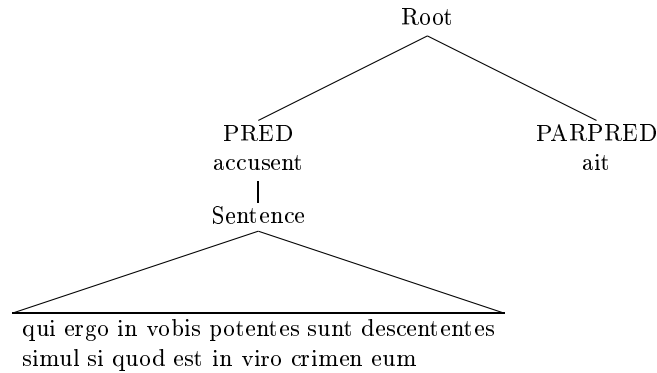
Parenthetical sentences

οἱ οὖν ἐν ὑμῖν, φησὶν, δυνατοὶ συνακαταβάντες εἴ τί ἐστιν ἐν τῷ ἀνδρὶ ἄτοπον κατηγορεῖωσαν αὐτοῦ.

Qui ergo in vobis, ait, potentes sunt, descendentes simul, si quod est in viro crimen, accusent eum.

This should be split into two sentences, a PRED and a PARPRED. Disregarding the internal structure of the main clause, the analysis will look the following way:

(1)

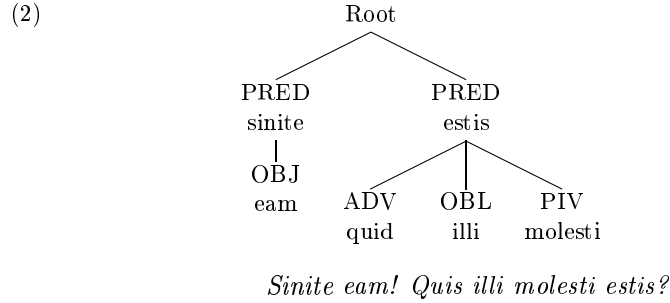


But there are also longer parenthetical sentences, especially in Paul. For the purpose of the sentence boundaries, the whole should be treated as one sentence. In analysing the syntactic dependencies, the verb of the parenthetical sentence should be made dependent directly on the sentence root (and not on the main clause) via the relation PARPRED (parenthetical predication).

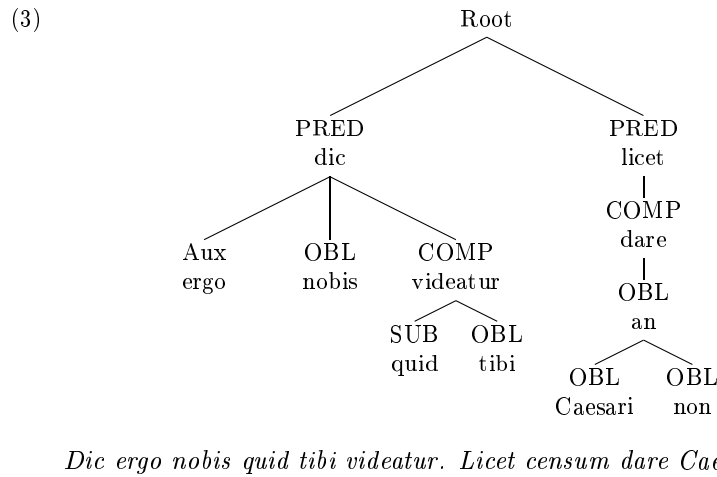
2.1 Changing sentence boundaries

The GUI will provide a possibility to change the sentence boundary one word at a time in order to correct for small errors in the segmentation. However, a more common error occurs when two sentences which should have been two independent as grouped together. The annotators should solve this by attaching

each of them as PREDs to the sentence root. In this way it is possible to make two independent questions into two sentences:³



The same technique can be used when direct speech cooccurs with other elements:



The precondition for using several PREDs directly under the root is that the two sentences can be properly ordered, ie. all elements of the first PRED must precede all elements of the second PRED. If this is not the case, the relation PARPRED must be used instead. Also, no slashes are allowed between two such sentences, since they will be converted to completely independent sentences in a later stage.

Notice that only PRED, PARPRED and VOC relations are allowed directly under the root.

3 Tokenization

The words to be analyzed and represented in the dependency tree do not always match those in the text. Sometimes elements which need to be treated as

Clitics, krasis

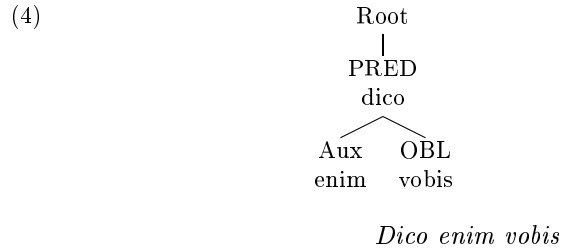
³In the following example we ignore the necessary slash from *molesti* to *estis*, see section 13.

separate tokens in the syntactic model are run together in the text. This is the case with *krasis* in Greek, and with enclitic *-que* in Latin. The conjunction cum negation *neque* has also been split into a conjunction part *que* and a negation part *ne*.

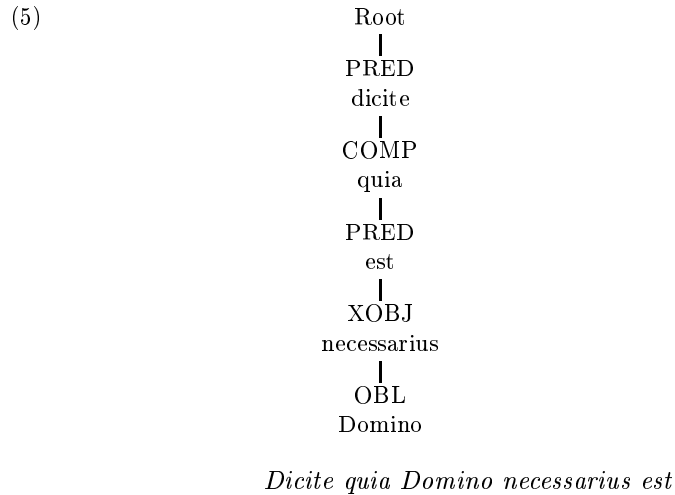
4 The verb

The verb is the central element of every predication. We model this by taking the verb to be the head of all other elements in its sentence (except subjunctions, see section 9.2). We also let the verb "stand in" for the sentence as a whole, which means that it is annotated with the function of the whole sentence (unless, again, a subjunction is present). This structure is apparent in example 1: although the internal structure of the main clause is not shown in the figure, we see that the main verb dominates all the other elements of its sentence.

Main clauses do not have a function within some larger sentence, therefore their verbs are attached to the root via the relation PREDication: **Main clauses**



In subordinate clauses introduced by a subjunction, the subjunction is assigned the relation which corresponds to the function of the clause, and the verb is attached to the subjunction via the relation PRED: **Subordinate clauses**

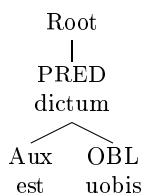


For more on subordinate clauses with subjunctions, see section 9.2. Sometimes the subjunction is missing even in sentences where we would expect one, see section 9.3.

In other contexts (relative clauses, accusative with infinitives, absolute constructions, dominant participles, conjunct participles and governed infinitives), verbs will be annotated with the function of the whole construction, see section 9. This means that a verb should always be present: if it is not in the text, it will have to be inserted, see section 11.

Auxiliary verbs are attached to the main verb via the relation Aux:

(6)



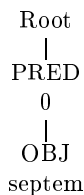
Dictum est vobis

**Other
embedded
predications**

**Auxiliary
verbs**

Since we only allow PRED, PARPRED and VOC under the root, it is necessary to supply an empty verb whenever none is present. For example, when Jesus asks the disciples how many baskets of bread they distributed, the disciples answer 'seven':

(7)

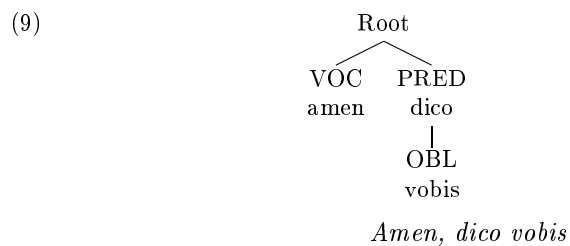
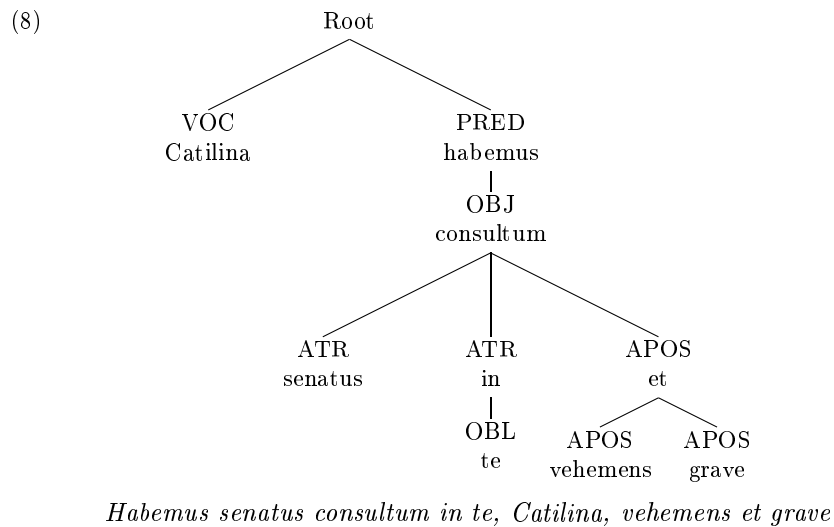


**Non-verbal
predication**

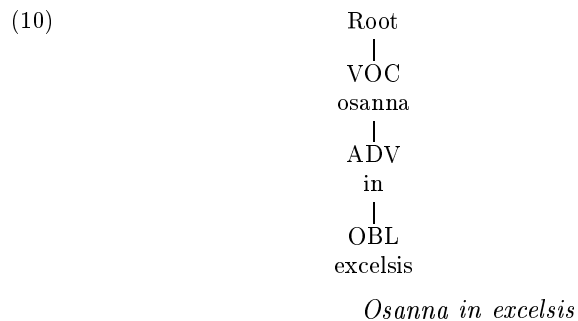
5 Exclamations

We use the relation VOC for all kinds of exclamations. These are placed directly under the root, as they are external to the sentence. In the syntactic annotation we annotate form and not function, so this relation is not only used for vocative nouns, but also for nominative and accusative exclamations as well as for different interjections etc.

**Vocatives,
interjections**



Some sentences consist of only an exclamation. In such cases there is no need to introduce an empty PRED-node:



Notice in particular that *ecce* and ἰδοὺ belong here.

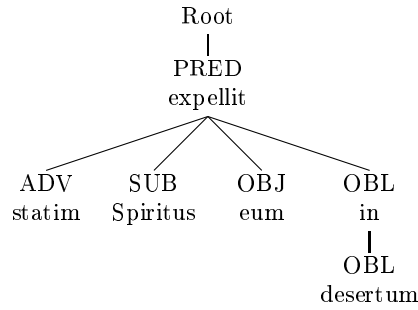
6 Non-verbal sentence-level grammatical relations

In this section we describe sentence-level grammatical relations, ie. relations that must have a verbal node as a head. These are SUBject, OBJect, OBLique, AGent, PIV (predicative complement) and ADVerbial, as well as some supertags described in section 6.7

6.1 Subject

In the typical case, SUB relates a nominative noun to its verb:

(11)

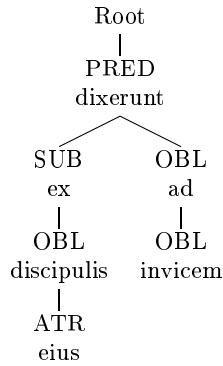


statim Spiritus expellit eum in desertum

But on some occasions, we also find partitive expressions (genitive nouns and prepositional phrases) which are subjects and must be given the relation SUB:

Partitive subjects

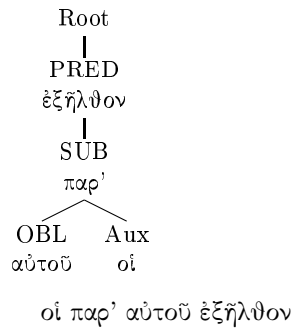
(12)



ex discipulis eius dixerunt ad invicem

Note that more generally, preposition phrases can serve as subjects in Greek when they are nominalised by the article:

(13)



οἱ παρ' αὐτοῦ ἐξῆλθον

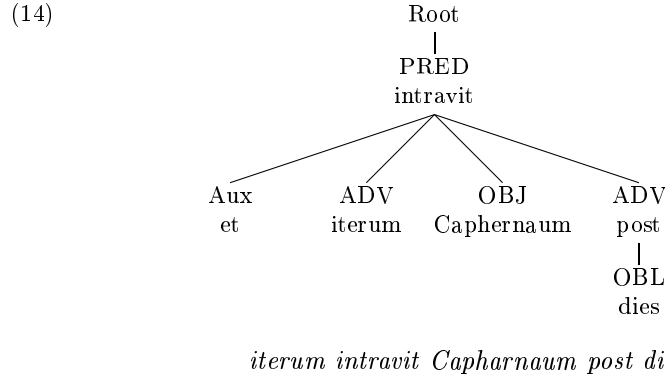
Note that infinitives are never subjects, but rather COMPs, see section 14.7.

Subjects can also be nouns in oblique cases in an absolute construction, see section 9.7.

Subjects in absolute constructions

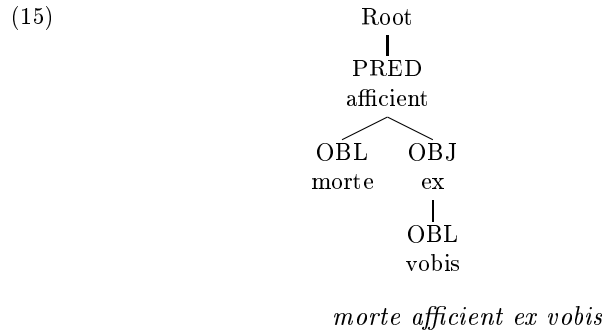
6.2 Object

In the typical case, OBJ relates an accusative noun to the sentence:



As with subjects, we sometimes find partitive expressions which are objects. They are given the relation OBJ:

**Partitive
objects**



Partitive objects raise a problem which does not occur with partitive subjects, since they must be distinguished from normal governed genitives as we find, f.ex. with *meminisse*. The relation OBJ should only be assigned if an accusative could be substituted. If in doubt, consult section 6.7.

Some verbs, like *docere*, take two accusatives. It is possible in such cases to assign two object to the verb. However, this should only be done if both accusatives could become subjects in a passive construction. If only one of the accusatives can be the subject in a passive construction, the other accusative must become an OBL or an ADV.

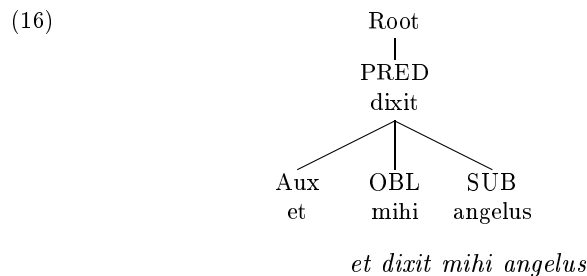
**Double
accusatives**

6.3 Obliques

We use the relation OBLique to attach those arguments of the verb which are not subjects or objects to the clausal node. By *argument* we mean any syntactic element seen as required by a verb. This could be a genitive, as with *meminisse*; a dative, as with *succurrere*; an ablative, as with *uti*; a prepositional phrase, as with *pertinere* and in general with motion verbs; and even an adverb, as with *tractare*. It is not always clear whether a noun phrase is an oblique argument

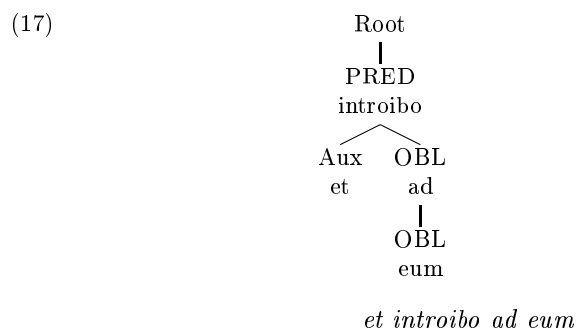
or not; or whether a genitive is a partitive object or an oblique argument. If in doubt consult section 6.7. Oblique arguments include non-accusative "objects" as well as prepositional arguments.

**Indirect
objects**



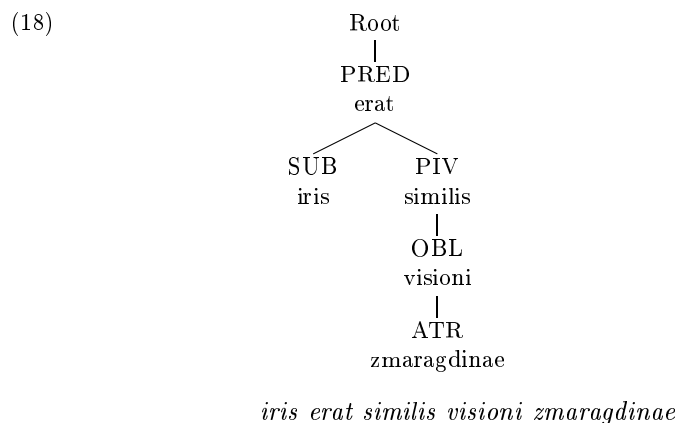
We include all directional expressions here (goal and source) here when they are used with motion verbs. This goes both for prepositions and adverbs, so e.g. *huc* should very often be an OBL. Other prepositions that are necessary to the meaning of the verb, such as in e.g. *pertinere ad*, also belong here:

**Prepositional
arguments**



A restricted group of adjectives such as *similis*, *dissimilis* also take complement nouns. We relate these nouns to their adjectives via the relation OBL:

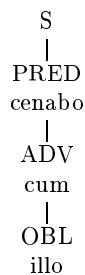
**Arguments
of adjectives**



As the last example illustrates, the complement of the preposition is also considered an oblique argument (of the preposition), no matter the function of the phrase as a whole:

**Objects of
prepositions**

(19)



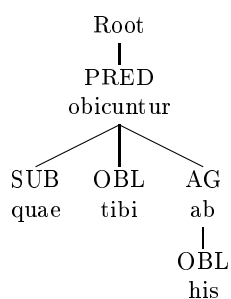
cenabo cum illo

6.4 Agents in passive constructions

We use the relation AGent to attach agent expressions to the sentence:

PPs as agents

(20)

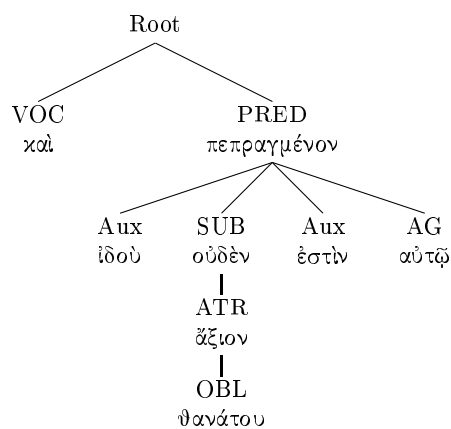


quae tibi obicuntur ab his

The same relation AGent is used whenever the agent is expressed by a pure case form rather than a prepositional construction:

**Pure
case forms**

(21)

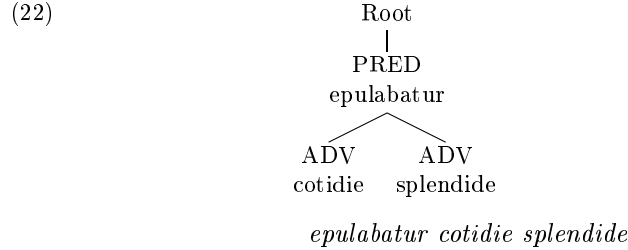


ἴδου οὐδέν ἄξιον θανάτου ἐστὶν πεπραγμένον αὐτῷ

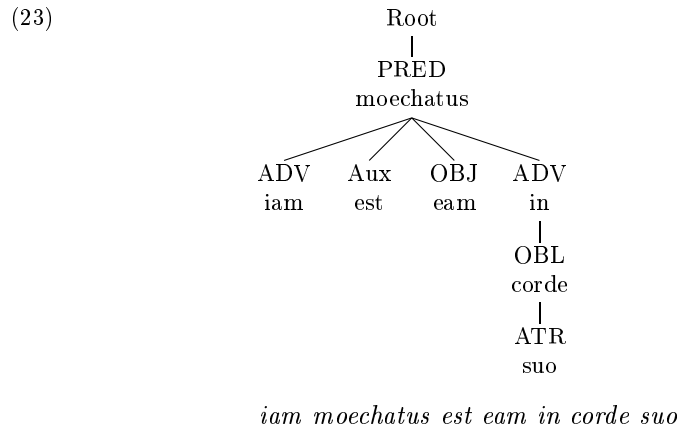
6.5 Adverbials

We use the relation ADverbial to attach adverbial expressions to the sentence. Such expressions can take various forms: adverbs, preposition phrases, nouns (in oblique cases), participles and gerunds. In some cases, it is not clear whether they are adverbials or oblique arguments, and in that case, sections 6.7 and 15.1 should be consulted:

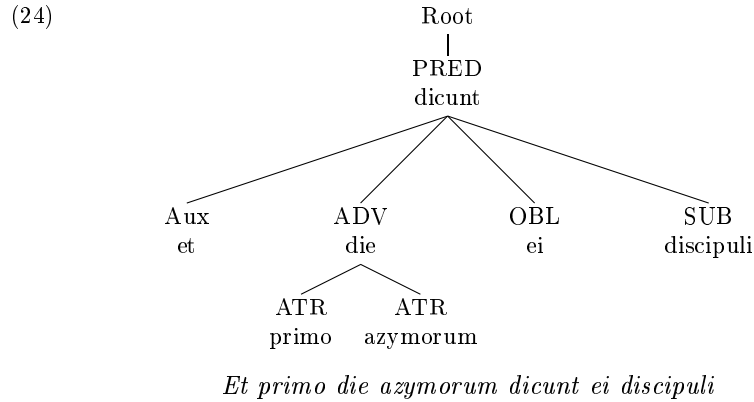
Adverbs



**Preposition
phrases**



**Noun in
oblique case**



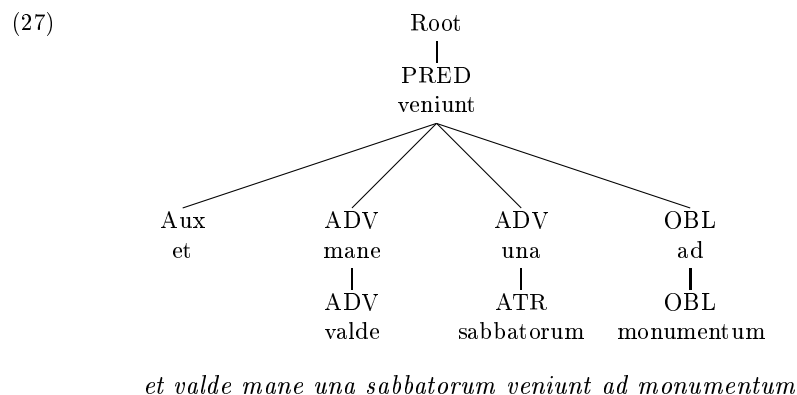
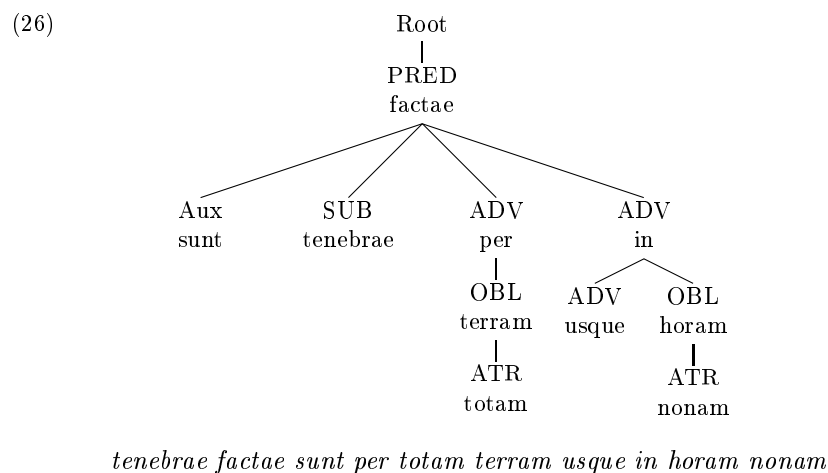
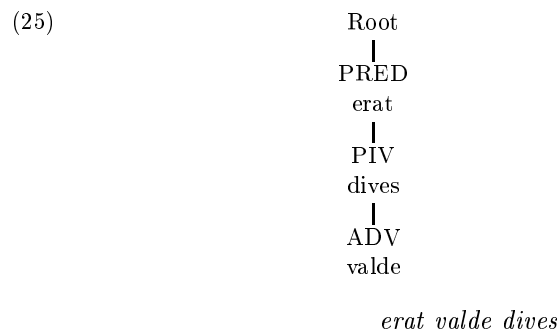
We also consider predicative/conjunct participles and adjectives, as well as gerunds, to be adverbial, but they special because they are cases of embedded predications with their own argument structure. Moreover, they are special

in that they cannot take a subject dependent. They are further described in section 9.9. In the nominal domain, we do not try to separate predicative nouns from appositions, see section 8.3.

Adverbial accusatives are also ADVs and annotators should beware that *multum*, *multa*, *πολλά* and the like are often ADV and not OBJ.

The relation ADV is also used for sub-sentence-level modifiers of adjectives, prepositions and other adverbs:

**Adverbial
accusative
ADV
modifying
non-verbal
elements**



6.6 Predicative complements

The relation PIV (for predicative) is used for subject and object complements⁴ which are introduced by verbs like *esse*, *videri*, *appellari*, *fieri* (subject complements) and *facere*, *creare* (object complements), as well as in verbless absolute ablatives (see section 9.7). The relation itself does not make clear whether we are dealing with a subject predicative or an object predicative. Instead, we use the slash notation to mark this, see section 13.

Note that predicatives can be of many different syntactic categories: adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases are typical examples:

- (28)
- ```

 Root
 |
 PRED
 |
 est
 / \
 SUB PIV
 / \
Cicero ← consul
Cicero consul est

```
- Nominative  
noun
- (29)
- ```

      Root
      |
      PRED
      |
    creaverunt
     /  |  \
    SUB OBJ  PIV
   /      |  \
Romani  Ciceronem ← ..... consulem
Romani Ciceronem consulem creaverunt
  
```
- Accusative
noun
- (30)
- ```

 Root
 |
 PRED
 |
 erat
 / \
 SUB PIV
 / \
navis ← in
 |
 OBL
 |
 mari
 |
 ATR
 |
 medio

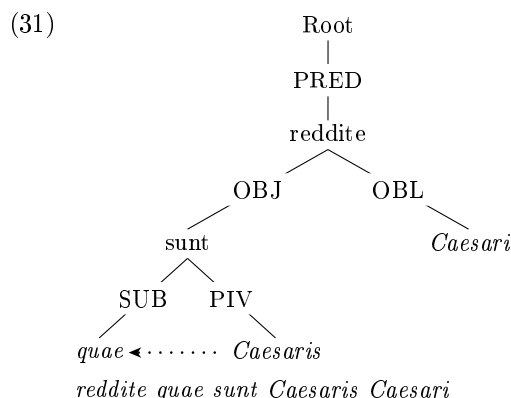
```

<sup>4</sup>Technically, PIV is equivalent to XOBJ as explained in section 15.5. We keep the distinction in the web interface since it is familiar from school grammar, but all PIVs will be converted to XOBJ. Annotators can therefore use this distinction as they please.



*navis in medio mari erat*

**Preposition  
phrase**



**Genitive noun**

## 6.7 Supertags

The distinctions that we attempt to make in our syntactic model are not always crystal clear. Section 15 offers some supplementary advice on the use of some relations. In order to preserve the quality of the data, we also provide certain supertags which the annotators should use when they are in doubt, instead of simply choosing one of the alternatives. These are:

- PER for peripheral (not subject or object) elements, ie. OBL or ADV. This should be used whenever it is not possible to decide whether an element is an argument or an adjunct.
- ARG for arguments, to be used whenever it is not possible to decide whenever an element is an OBJECT or an OBLIQUE.
- NONSUB for non-subjects, ie. elements that are either OBJECTS, OBLIQUES or ADVERBIALS

In addition there are supertags for verbal functions, see section 9.10 and a supertag for adnominal functions, see section 8.

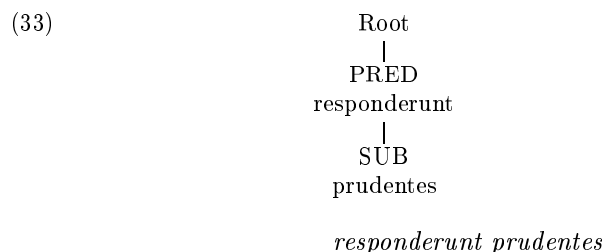
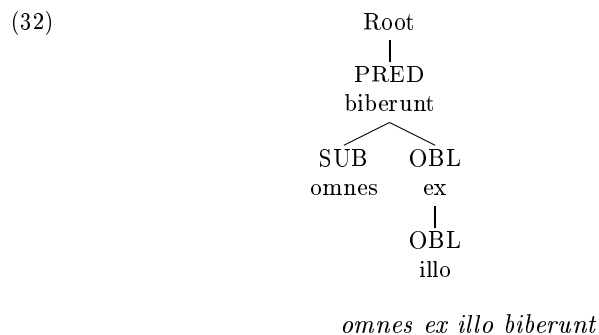
## 6.8 Auxiliary words

Items that are not covered by these tags are simply given the tag Aux, which serves to mark auxiliary verbs, modal particles, focus particles, negation etc. Information about these items is always recoverable from the categorial information in their morphology. The intuition behind the relation Aux is that it serves to mark off 'grammatical words' as opposed to 'lexical words'. There are certain adverbs whose meaning can sometimes be so weakened that they appear as grammatical words (*ergo* signalling simple progression for example), so the distinction between Aux and ADV is not always clear.

It is important to attend to scope issues: auxiliary verbs should be attached via Aux to their verbs; focus particles and constituent negation should be attached to the items they take scope over. In general, a scoping item is considered to scope over its mother node and all nodes dominated by its mother, and it should be placed accordingly. For more on this, see section 14.3.

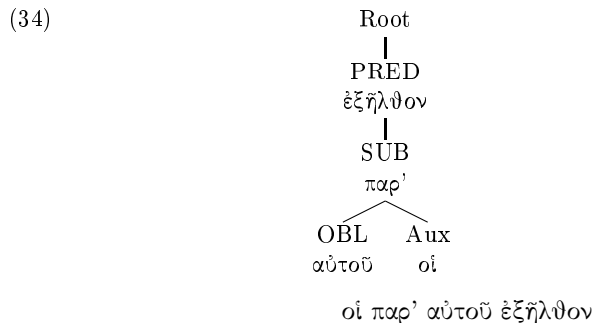
## 7 Noun phrases without nouns

Sometimes a sentence-level function is not filled by a noun, but by an adjective, participle or a numeral. Such elements should be given the appropriate function in the sentence, and should *not* be related to an empty node representing the 'elliptical' subject, object or otherwise:



Before opting for such an analysis, the annotators should make sure that the adjective/participle is not predicative. The example above means 'The wise one answered'. If the sentence meant 'Being wise, they answered', *prudentes* would have been an XADV, see section 9.9.2.

As we have seen in the sections on the subject (6.1) and the object (6.2) even prepositional phrases can be subjects and objects, especially when they express partitivity. Another construction, which is fairly frequent in Greek, is the nominalisation of prepositions and adverbs in constructions like οἱ παρ' αὐτοῦ 'the ones around him' or οἱ νῦν 'people nowadays'. In such cases, the preposition should be the head and the article an Aux, as usual:



Sometimes there are several adjectives, participles and/or numerals. In such cases annotators will have to make a choice as to what is the head of the construction and what is the modifier/attribute. In general, the element which is most central to establishing the referent should be the head.

## 8 Adnominal tags

### 8.1 General

Dependents of nouns can be of various types. There are negations, emphatic particles etc. which are related via Aux, but with due consideration of scope issues (see section 14.3). In general, 'grammatical words' will bear the relation Aux, whereas 'lexical words' which are dependents of nouns will have various relations depending on their function. We recognise 4 main types:

**ATR** - attributes are elements which serve to restrict the reference of a noun. For example, in *canis albus* the adjective *albus* serves to restrict the possible reference of the noun *canis*. Attributes can be adjectives, prepositional phrases, relative clauses, participles, genitives, number words - but these categories can also have other adnominal functions, so it is important to pay attention here.

**APOS** - appositions are elements which serve to further elaborate on a nominal referent, without restricting the reference. Examples are *consul* in *Cicero consul*, *frater* in *Marcus frater*. Appositions are mostly nouns in the same case as their head, and non-restrictive relative clauses.

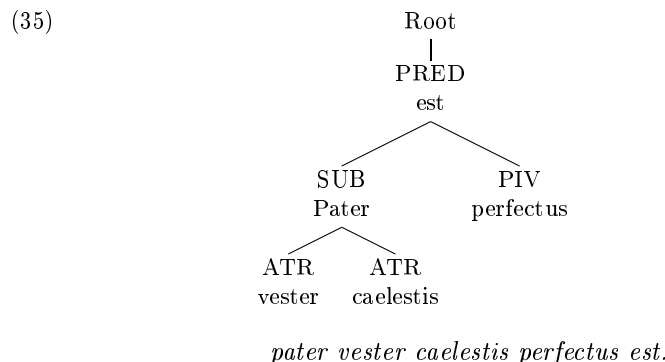
**PART** - partitives are elements which tell us to which group or whole the noun belongs. They are typically realised by genitives or by prepositions like *ex*, *de*, *ἀπό* etc.

**NARG** - some elements can be said to be *arguments* of nouns. The most clear example is the object genitive, as in *spes uincendi* or *amor fati*. Arguments can also be realised as prepositional phrases, as in e.g. *Dei amor erga nos*. Here *erga* is an argument of *amor* (and *nos* is in turn an argument of *erga*). Note that subject genitives are counted among the normal possessive genitives, as attributes.

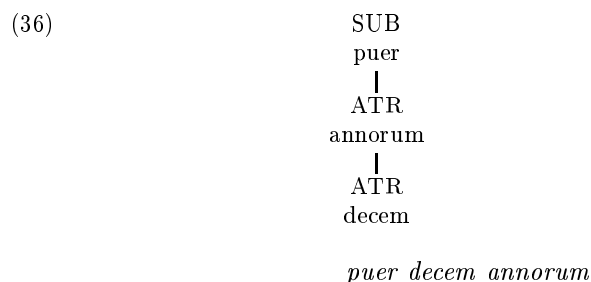
These categories are further explained and exemplified in the following sections. There is also supplementary information in section 15. If in doubt annotators should use the supertag ADNOM.

## 8.2 Attributes

Attributes are given the tag ATR. Here is an example with an adjective and a possessive pronoun:



Here is a subtree involving a descriptive genitive and a numeral which is an attribute of the genitive noun: **Descriptive genitives**

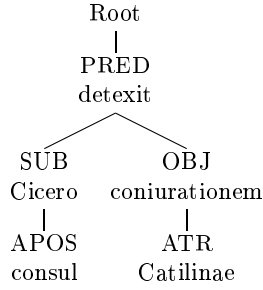


There are various other possibilities not illustrated here, such as possessive genitive (*patris filius*) and definitive genitives (*arbor fici*). Also, restrictive relative clauses are considered attributes, see section 9.4.

## 8.3 Appositions

Appositive nouns are attached to their head noun via the relation APOS. Such nouns are never restrictive (if they are, they are attached via the relation ATR instead), and we do not attempt to keep apart predicative appositions from other appositive nouns.

(37)



*Cicero consul coniurationem Catilinae detexit*

We do not attempt a differentiation between the two meanings 'Cicero the consul uncovered Catiline's conspiracy' and 'Cicero uncovered Catiline's conspiracy while he was a consul'. Non-restrictive relative clauses are also considered appositions, see section 9.4.

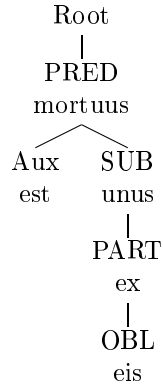
Notice in particular that 'second names', and modifiers of names, as in *Maria Magdalena* or *Iesus Christus*, are always considered appositions.

**Names and  
modifiers  
of names**

## 8.4 Partitives

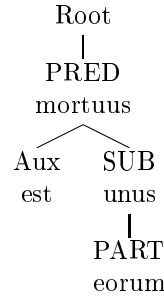
Adnominal partitive expressions are typically realised as genitives or preposition phrases:

(38) (a)



*Unus ex eis mortuus est*

(b)

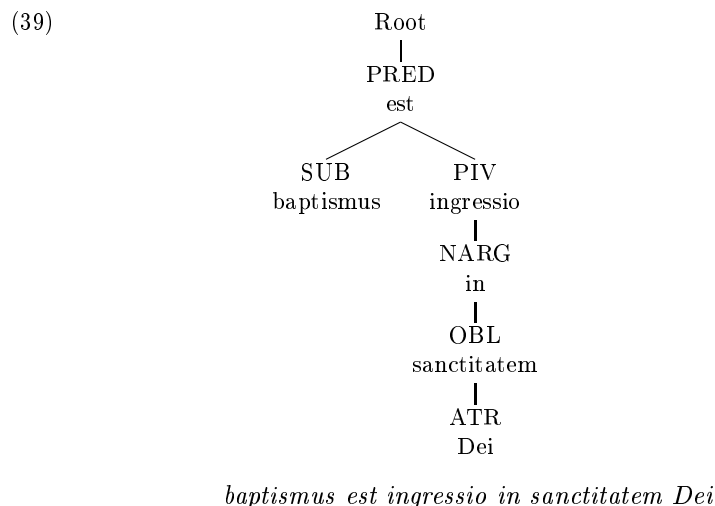


*Unus eorum mortuus est*

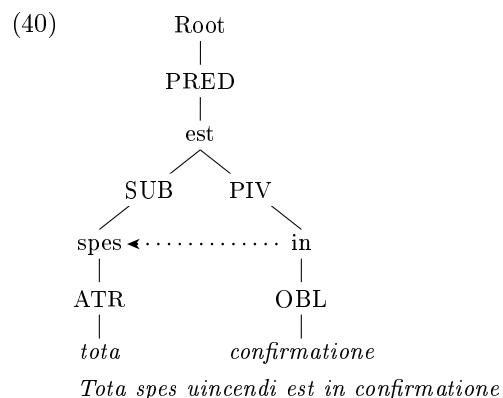
Notice that PART is reserved strictly for adnominal partitives. It should *not* be used for partitive objects. These are OBJs, and only the morphology signals that they are partitives. This means that *ut ab agricolis acciperet de fructu vineae*, there is no partitive: *de fructu vineae* is a normal object of *acciperet*.

## 8.5 Arguments of nouns

Nouns, especially deverbal nouns, can take arguments just like verbs.<sup>5</sup> A clear case are so-called objective genitives, but also other items like prepositional phrases can be NARGs:



Verbal nouns, such as infinitives and gerundives, are typically NARGs when they are dependent on nouns:



In such cases, there is not always a clear subject in the sentence. But if there is one, it should be marked by a slash arrow. Consult sections 14.6 and 14.7 for further information.

## 9 Embedded predication

Embedded predications are divided in two major classes according to whether

**Open**      **and**  
**closed**  
**predications**

---

<sup>5</sup>However, nouns very rarely take direct object arguments, although some exceptions are found e.g. in early Latin.

they can have their own, overt subject or not. Predications which cannot have an overt subject are called *open*, because their subject is supplied from outside the construction. They include some infinitives, such as the complement infinitives of *posse* - witness the grammaticality of *potesne mihi auscultare* as opposed to *\*potesne te mihi auscultare* - and conjunct participles, whose subject is always coreferent with some other element of the sentence, but never expressed as a dependent of the participle. Open predications are further discussed in section 9.9. Sections 9.1 to 9.8 describe various kinds of closed predications.

The distinction between open and closed predications has to do with being a sentence or not. 'Real' subordinate sentences, introduced by subjunctions, have all it takes to be a sentence: a subject, a predicate, aspect, voice, etc. etc. Accusative with infinitive structures and absolute construction and even the *ab urbe condita*-construction also have these characteristics. So we can refer to these as subordinate *sentences*. Conjunct participles are also like sentences in some ways, but differ in a crucial respect, since they do not have their own subject.

## 9.1 The basic types of subordinate clauses

Traditional grammar divides subordinate clauses into three groups: substantival sentences, adjectival sentences and adverbial sentences. This distinction reflected in our annotation.

### 9.1.1 Substantival sentences

**Substantival sentences** are also called complement sentences because they complement the main verb. They often seem to have the same functions as nouns, most often as objects, but sometimes as subjects. However, we do not attempt to keep such functions apart, but use COMP for all of them. We treat them this way, because in a sentence like *dicitur Homerum caecum fuisse*, it is not easy to tell whether *Homerum caecum fuisse* is the subject of *dicitur* or rather the object of an impersonal construction.

Substantival sentences are typically AcIs, indirect questions and subordinate clauses introduced by *quod*, *quia* and ὅτι (in the meaning 'that', not 'because', which introduces an adverbial sentence). Notice that in Biblical Greek ὅτι is also used to introduce complement clauses much more regularly than in Classical Greek. In Latin, complement clauses can also be introduced by *ut*, *ne*, *quominus* and *quin*. The criterion is that the sentence is selected by the verb: *persuadere* selects an *ut*-sentence, f.ex., so this sentence is a COMP. The same goes for locutions like *prohibeo quominus* and *haud dubito quin*. Sometimes a subordinate clause is not introduced by any subjunction at all and such subordinate clauses are always COMPs.

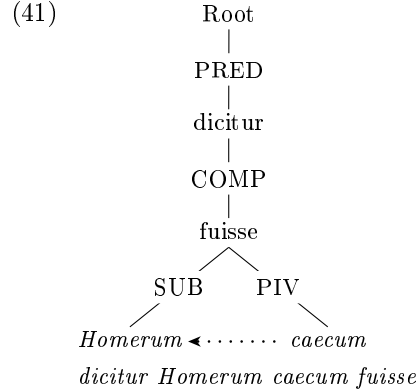
**Types of  
complement  
sentences**

Notice that an *ut*-sentence which depends on *persuadere* differs from the *ut*-sentence which can be added to any verb, to express intention. A fairly comprehensive list of verbs that take completive *ut* in Latin is: *accidit*, *adhortor*, *adipiscor*, *admoneo*, *caveo*, *cogo*, *concedo*, *constituo*, *contendo*, *contingit*, *convenit*, *decerno*, *denuntio*, *deprecor*, *dico*, *edico*, *efficio*, *enitor*, *evenit*, *facio*,

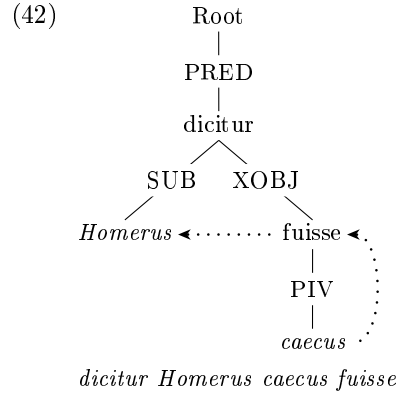
*fit, flagito, hortor, impello, impero, impetro, incito, interdico, interest, iubeo, laboro, mando, mereo, moneo, obsecro, opto, oro, permitto, persuadeo, peto, placet, posco, postulo, praecipio, praescribo, precor, rogo, scribo, sequitur, sino, statuo, studeo, suadeo, subigo, volo* No such list is available for Biblical Greek or the other languages, but the intuition to follow is that with verbs with the above semantics, the *ut*-sentence belongs closer to the verb than in other cases, where it introduces an adverbial sentence.

For guidelines on how to annotate the various complement sentences, consult sections 9.2 (finite sentences with subjunctions), 9.3 (finite sentences without subjunction), ?? (accusative with infinitive) and 9.5 (indirect questions).

Our representation is therefore:



Notice that the so-called nominative with infinitive is treated differently:



In the nominative with infinitive, the infinitive no longer has its own subject, so it is an XOBJ and not a COMP.

Another common variant of the complement clause is the indirect question:

### 9.1.2 Adjectival sentences

Relative sentences are adjectival in the sense that they have the same functions as adjectives. They are often adnominal (ADV and ATR), but can also be



'substantivized' and used directly for sentence-level functions without having a antecedent.

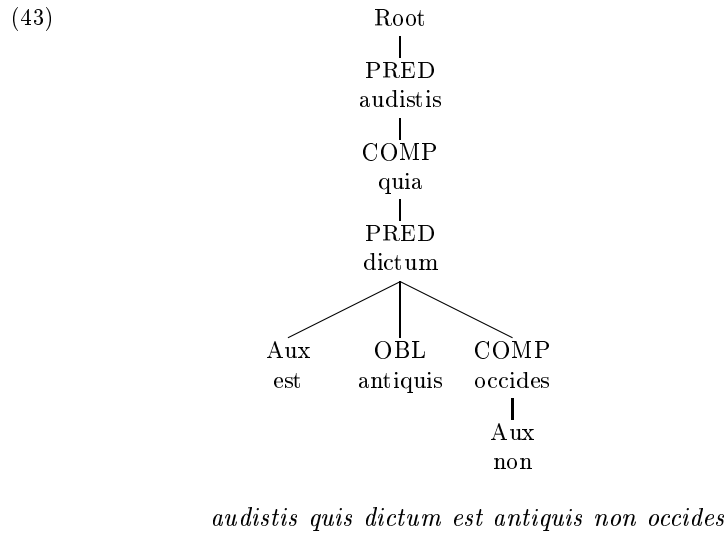
Relative sentences are the only adjectival sentences and their annotation is further described in section 9.4.

### 9.1.3 Adverbial sentences

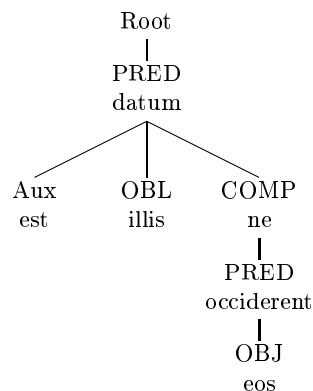
Adverbial sentences are sentences which express information about time, intention, result, cause, concession, condition etc. Absolute constructions (9.7) belong here. Otherwise, they are always introduced by subjunctions and treated in section 9.2. Some subjunctions which introduce adverbial sentences in latin are: *cum, donec, dum, ne, nec, neque, nisi, postquam, prout, quando, quia, quoadusque, quod, quoniam, si, sicut, siquidem* In Greek, at least ἕαν, εἴ, ἐπάν, ἐπεί, ἐπειδή, ἕως, ἡνίκα, ἵνα, ὅταν, ὅτε, ὅτι, ὥστε introduce adverbial sentences.

## 9.2 Finite subordinate clauses with subjunctions

In subordinate clauses, except relative clauses, the finite verb is attached to the subjunction via the same relation PRED that we use in main clauses. The subjunction is related to the matrix clause via COMP if it is a complement clause:



(44)



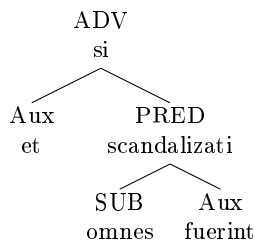
*datum est illis ne occiderent eos*

Only a restricted group of subjunctions introduce COMPs, see the discussion in section 9.1.1. Many more subjunctions introduce adverbial sentences, consult section 9.1.3.

Notice that in most cases the subjunction will only have a single daughter, the verb, although sometimes a subjunction can be modified. For example, we can have  $\epsilon\iota \kappa\alpha\iota$  or *et si* (= *etsi*) where  $\kappa\alpha\iota$ /*et* modifies the subjunction:

**Modification  
of a subjunction**

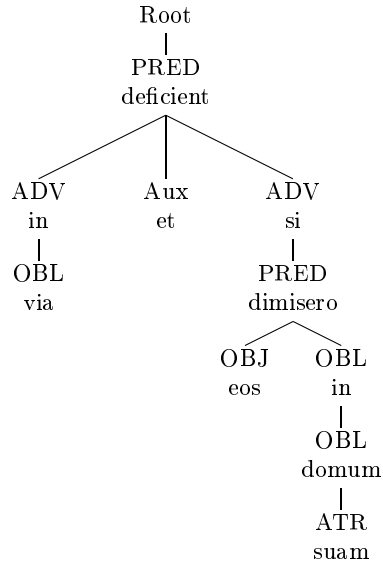
(45)



*et si omnes fuerint scandalizati*

This means 'even if everyone is scandalized'. In cases where *et si* means 'and if', *et* should be attached to the main verb:

(46)



*et si dimisero eos in domum suam deficient in via*

Here the meaning is 'And if I send them home, they will faint on their way', ie. *et* modifies the whole sentence, and not the subjunction alone.

### 9.3 Finite subordinate clauses without subjunction

It can happen that a finite subordinate clause is not introduced by a subjunction, e.g. when *ut* is left out. In such cases, the function of the subordinate clause is annotated directly on the verb, and the function is almost always COMP:

(47)



*vide dixeris nemini*

### 9.4 Relative clauses

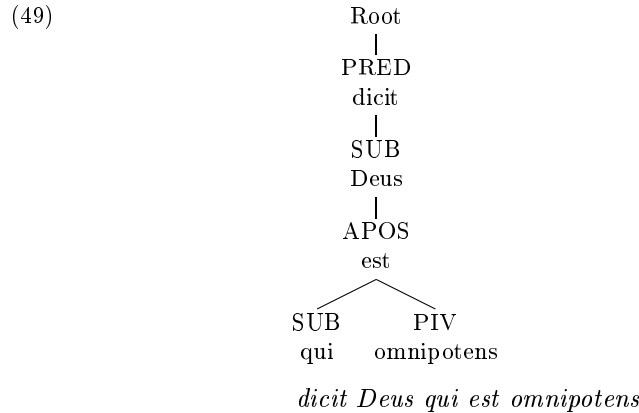
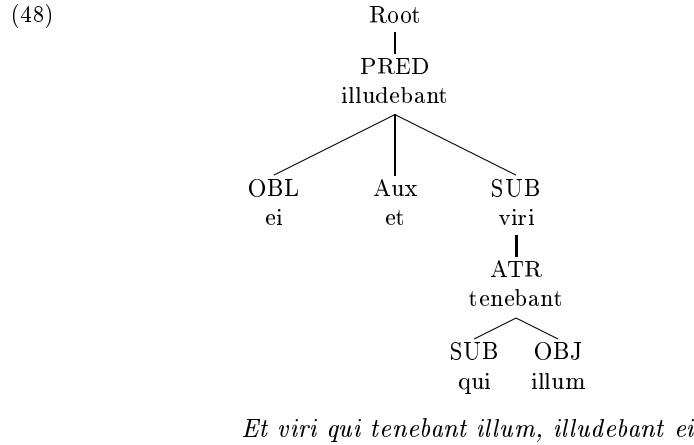
Relative clauses differ from other finite subordinate clauses in that they do not have a subjunction. Instead, they are introduced by an element (the relative pronouns or adverbial) which also has a role in the sentence, such as subject, object, oblique or adverbial. Therefore these sentences should be headed by

the verb directly, and the relative or interrogative should be annotated with its function within the clause. In other words, it is **never** correct to let an adverbial or relative word head a sentence. This also goes for relative adverbs like *ubi* and similar words.

The verb of such subordinate sentences is therefore given the relation corresponding to the function of the sentence as a whole. There are several possible functions.

The verb of a relative clause with an antecedent is attached to the antecedent via the relation ATR (restrictive relative clauses) or APOS (non-restrictive relative clauses):

**Adnominal  
relative  
clauses**

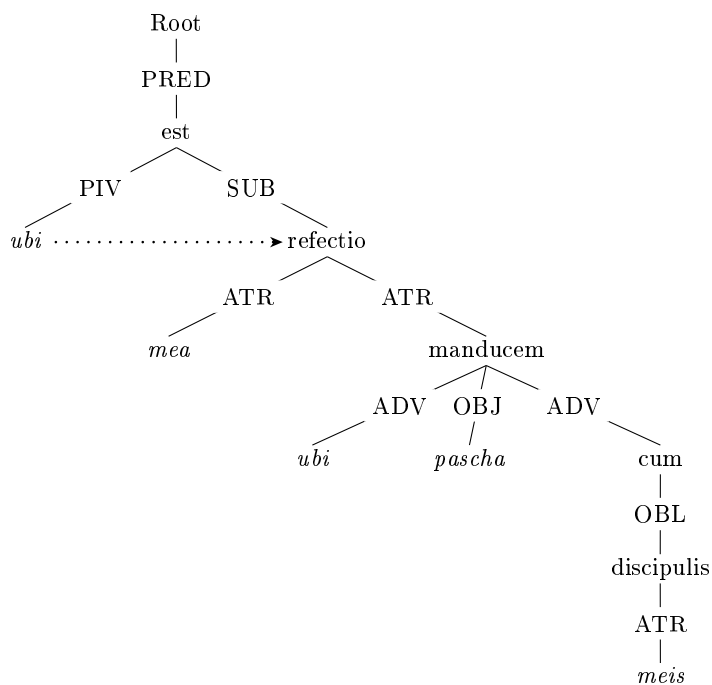


If the verb of the relative clause was instead attached via the relation ATR, this would correspond to the semantic interpretation "the god who is omnipotent" (in contrast to some other god). If it is not possible to decide whether a relative clause is restrictive or not, use the supertag REL.

It is important that not only relative pronouns, but also relative adverbs should be annotated this way, since relative adverbs also have a function within their own clause. The same goes for interrogative adverbs. The following sentence illustrates *ubi* in both uses:

**Relative  
adverbs**

(50)

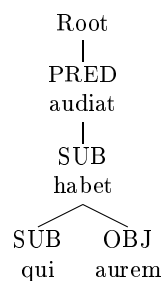


*ubi est refectio mea ubi pascha cum discipulis meis manducem*

If there is no antecedent for the relative pronoun, the verb of the relative clause will itself bear a sentence-level function within the matrix clause:

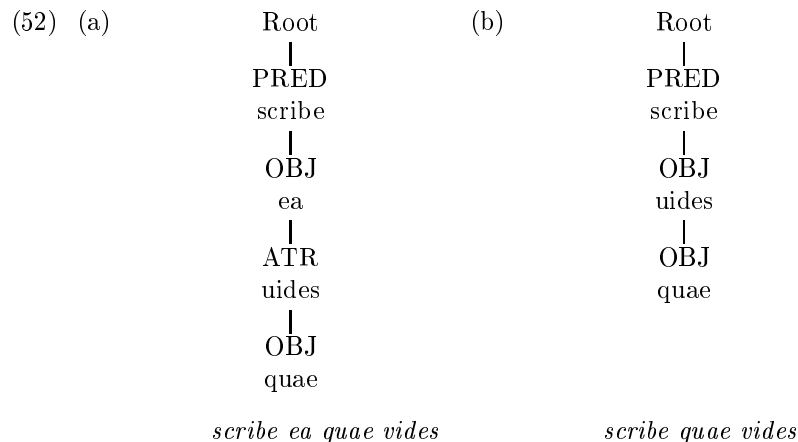
**Relatives  
without  
antecedent**

(51)



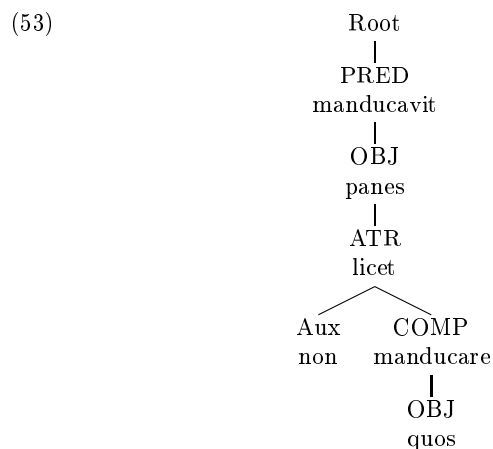
*qui habet aurem, audiat*

Notice that this method of annotation implies that the relation of the subordinate verb changes if the correlate is left out. Consider the following two sentences:



Leaving out the correlate changes the function of the relative clause, which is annotated on its verb, from an attribute which restricts the reference of *ea* to a direct object of *scribe*.

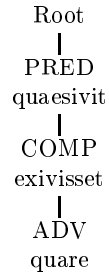
Sometimes the correct position of the relative pronoun can be deep inside the clause it introduces, e.g. in an embedded accusative with infinitive:



## 9.5 Indirect questions

Indirect questions are like relative sentences in that there is no element which introduces the sentence. The interrogative pronoun/adverbial has a function inside the sentence and must be annotated accordingly. The verb of the indirect question is given the function of the whole subordinate sentence, which in the case of indirect questions is always COMP.

(54)

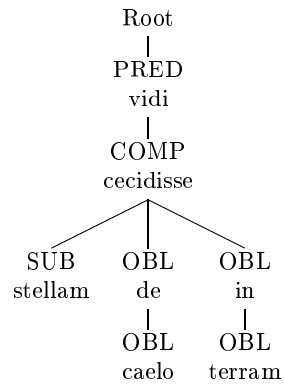


*quaesivit quare exivisset*

## 9.6 Infinite predication: Accusative with infinitive (AcI)

Again we let the infinitive verb stand in for the whole construction. In the normal case this construction consists of a subject in the accusative, a predicate which is a verb in the infinitive and possibly further arguments and adjuncts. The infinitive is given the relation COMP:

(55)

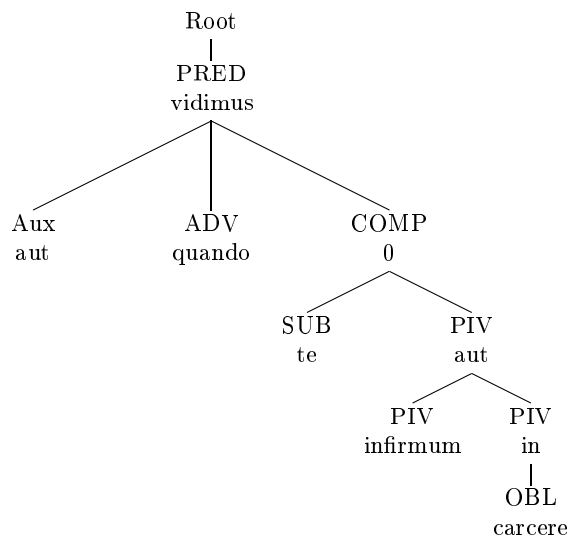


*vidi stellam de caelo in terram cecidisce*

However, it can happen that the predicate infinitive is lacking. Most often the elided infinitive is *esse* or a similar verb, and we introduce an empty node:

**Elided  
infinitive**

(56)



*quando te vidimus infirmum aut in carcere*

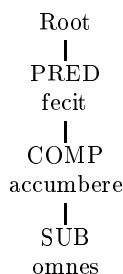
Accusative with infinitive structures should be kept apart from pure infinitives which cannot take a subject, as with the complement infinitives of auxiliary verbs like *posse*, *velle*. For the annotation of the latter structures, consult section 9.9.

However, since the subject is not always present in an accusative with infinitive structure, it is sometimes hard to tell whether a given infinitive is part of an AcI with an unexpressed subject or is an open complement. In addition, some verbs allow both constructions. For example, both *uolo id facere* and *uolo me id facere* are possible constructions in Latin. In examples like *uolo id facere*, *facere* should be treated as an open complement (XOBJ) and not part of an AcI with a deleted subject. An elliptical AcI should be assumed only if the matrix verb does not allow an open complement construction.

**AcI without  
subject**

There are structures where one could be in doubt whether an accusative noun is the object of the main verb or the subject of the subordinate verb. Consider f.ex. the causative construction with *facere* + accusative noun + infinitive, as in *fecit omnes accumbere*. *omnes* could be analysed as the subject of *accumbere* or as the object of *fecit*. Both analyses would in principle be possible, but annotators should always use the AcI analysis with the accusative noun dependent on the infinitive:

(57)



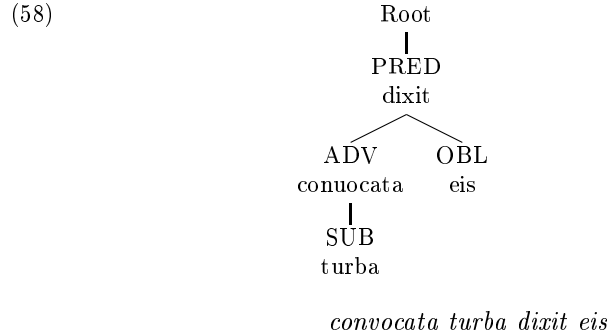


*fecit omnes accumbere*

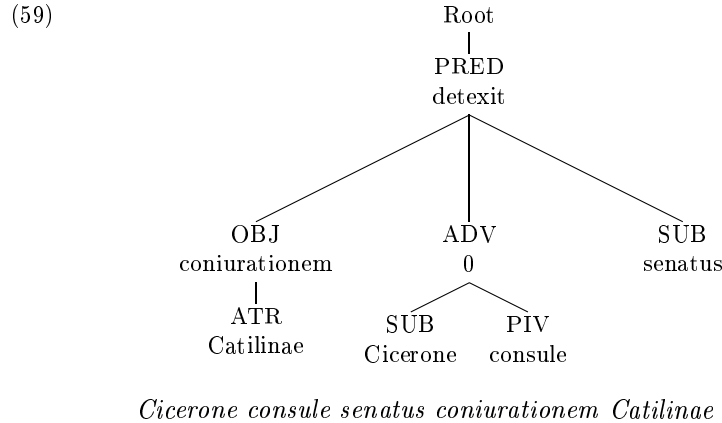
This is a purely conventional choice and applies only to accusative nouns. In structures with a dative noun and an infinitive, f.ex, the noun is made dependent on the matrix verb, as in *licet mihi exire*, see section 14.4.

### 9.7 Infinite predication: absolute constructions

Absolute constructions are embedded predications with an adverbial relation to the rest of the sentence. We consider the participial verb to be the head of the construction. It is therefore related to the matrix clause via the relation ADV:



The predicate in an absolute construction need not be a verb: it can be a noun or an adjective. In such cases, we assume an empty verb:

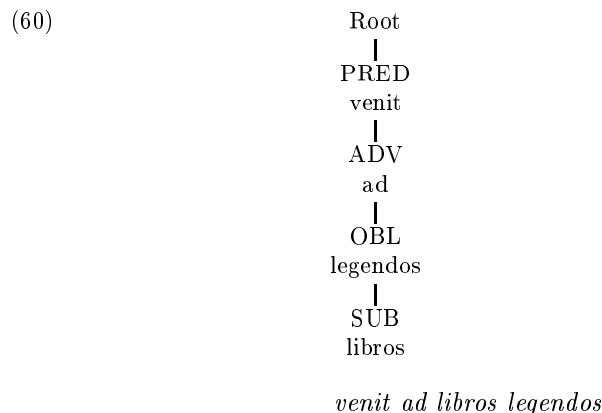


### 9.8 Infinite predication: dominant participles and gerundives

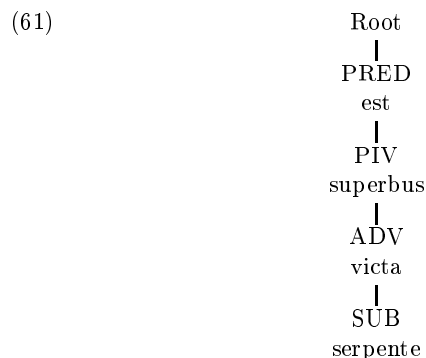
Latin has a special type of an embedded predication which looks like a normal noun phrase: sometimes noun + agreeing participle/gerundive corresponds to an English translation with a verbal noun translating the participle (or gerundive) + a dependent genitive. Thus *ab urbe condita* means 'from the founding of the

city', and not 'from the founded city'; *Caesar occisus* can mean 'the murder of Caesar' (ie. 'that Caesar was murdered') and not 'the murdered Caesar'. In such cases, we consider the participle/gerundive to be the head of the construction and the noun is attached via the SUB-relation, whereas the participle/gerundive is annotated with the function of the whole predication.

Probably the single most frequent case of such a construction, is the *ad* + gerundive + noun construction. In this locution, the noun is almost always dependent on the gerundive: ***ad* + noun**  
**+ gerundive**



But the *ab urbe condita*-construction is found in other contexts as well:



*superbus victa serpente est* '(Apollo) is proud that the serpent was defeated'

## 9.9 Open predications

Open predications are predications that do not supply their own subject, but get a subject via coreference relations<sup>6</sup> within the sentence. Finite verb forms never take part in open predication, only infinite forms. The infinite verb form heads the whole construction and is related to the matrix verb via the relation corresponding to the function of the embedded predication + a prefix X.

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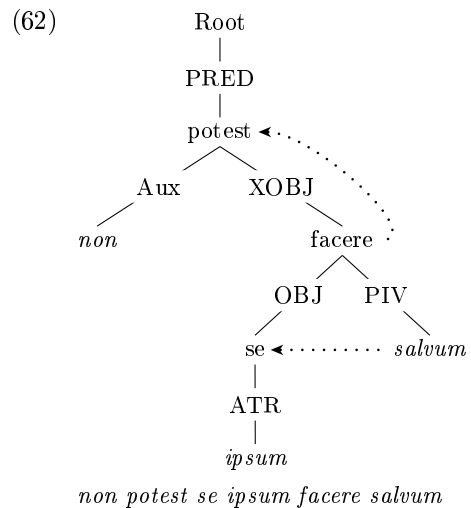
<sup>6</sup>These relations are normally analysed in terms of *raising* and *control*

We distinguish two kinds of open predications according to whether they are arguments which *complement* a verb or adverbials which *modify* a verb.

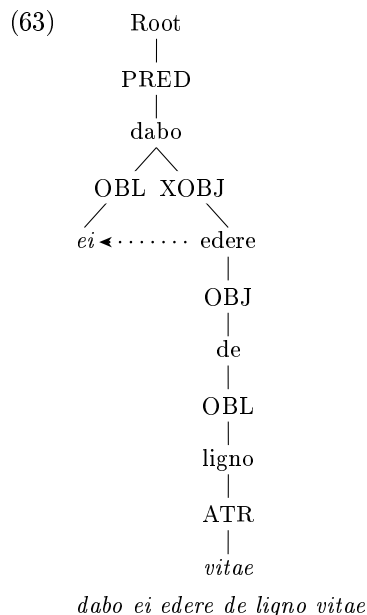
In some cases, infinite verb like infinitives and gerunds can depend on nouns. In these cases, they are never given the relations XOBJ or ADV, but are most often NARGS. Consult section 8.5, as well as 14.6 on gerunds and 14.7 on infinitives.

### 9.9.1 XOBJ

Infinitives can also be objects of verbs. This typically happens with auxiliary verbs like *uelle*, *posse* etc.:



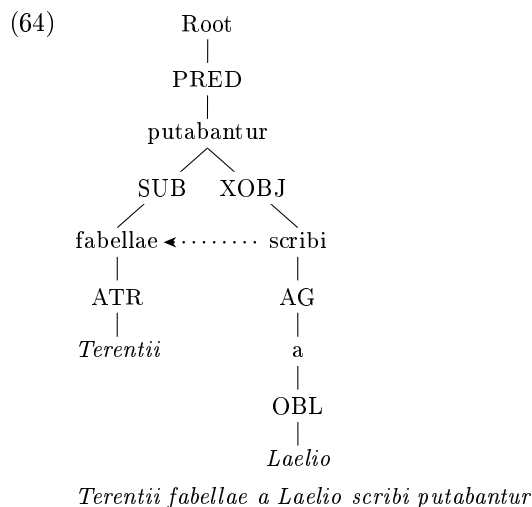
But it is also found with some other verbs, such as *dare*:



Such constructions are different from other embedded predications (AcI's etc.) in that no subject can be added. Instead the subject is supplied by coreference with an element which is either present in the matrix clause, such as *ei* in the last example, or implied by the argument structure of the matrix verb, as the implied subject of *potest*. This coreference should be marked by means of the slash notation, see section 13.

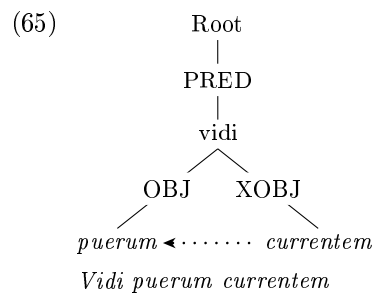
The so-called nominative with infinitive construction also involves an XOBJ:

**Nominative  
with  
infinitive**



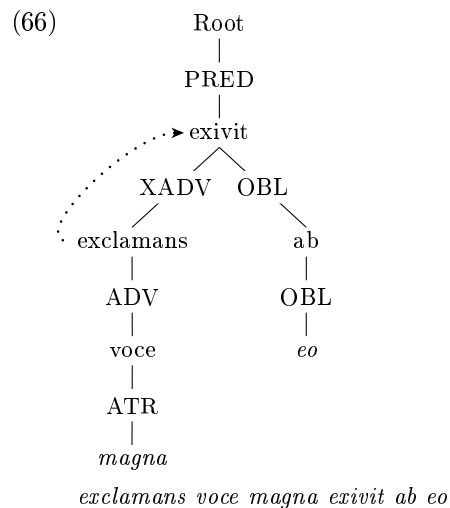
XOBJs are not always infinitives; some verbs, like  $\lambda\gamma\gamma\omega$  govern a participle which is then related to it via XOBJ. The coreference between the subject

of the participle and the subject of the matrix verb is again marked via the slash notation. Also, perception words which take an accusative with participle construction are analysed as taking the accusative as an object and the participle as an XOBJ:

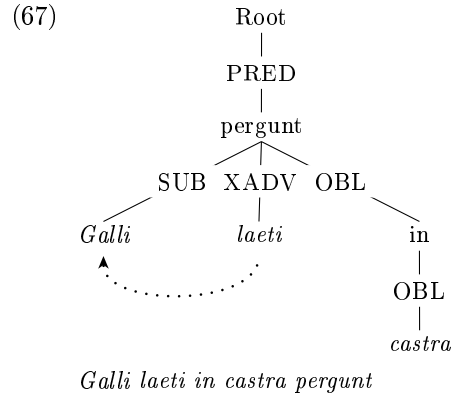


### 9.9.2 XADV

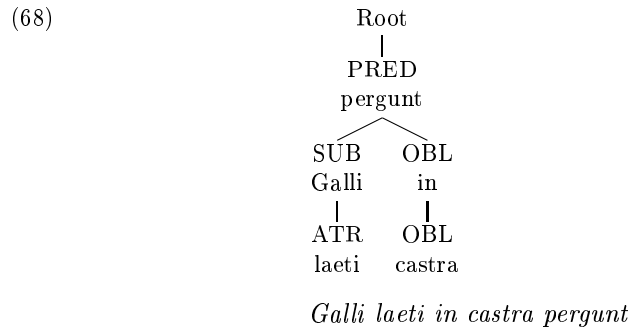
Conjunct (or predicative) participles are adverbials which modify the matrix verb, to which they are attached via the relation XADV:



Like predicative participles, predicative adjectives are also given the tag XADV:

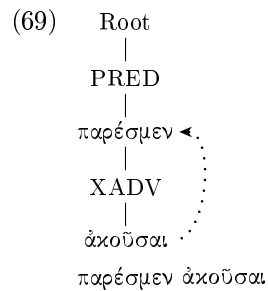


Participles and adjectives are given the tag ADV when they are predicative, ie. do not restrict the reference of a noun phrase but rather modify the main verb, ie. the above sentence means 'The Gauls proceeded happily into the camp.' whereas the meaning 'The happy Gauls proceeded into the camp.' would be represented as



The infinitive of purpose is also an adverbial expression and should be assigned to the relation XADV :

**Infinitives  
of purpose**



## 9.10 Supertags

One supertag is relevant for embedded predications: REL, which is used whenever it is not possible to determine whether a relative clause is restrictive or not.

## 10 Coordination

Notice first that we do not recognize monopartite coordination. Thus, in the numerous cases in the New Testament where a sentence is introduced by a conjunction (*et* and others), this should not be treated as coordination, but the *et* should be attached to the sentence predicate via the relation Aux.

The slash arrow notation, which is used extensively in this section, is further explained and discussed in section 13, often with the same examples being used.

In analysing coordination, the first step is to ascertain what kind of elements are being conjoined: the conjuncts can be either constituents, multi-rooted elements, or sentences.

**Types of coordination**

A constituent, in the sense of a dependency grammar, is a node together with all the nodes it dominates: for example, a noun with all its attributes and appositions is a constituent. In *Cicero consul coniurationem Catilinae detexit* (see the tree on page 21), there are exactly five constituents: *consul*, *Cicero consul*, *Catilinae*, *coniurationem Catilinae* and *Cicero consul coniurationem Catilinae detexit*.<sup>7</sup> However, the latter constituent, which corresponds to a sentence, is treated differently from other sentences. By definition a constituent has a single root.

**Constituent**

A multi-rooted element is a set of nodes which are not connected, ie. does not have a common mother. Consider *tradet frater fratrem in mortem* (example 102 = 79): *frater fratrem in mortem* has a common mother node, the verb, but this is not present in the string, so this set of nodes is as such multi-rooted. And still, it can be coordinated with another element, as in *tradet frater fratrem in mortem et pater filium*.

**Multi-rooted elements**

A sentence is a constituent dominated by a finite verb, or by an empty node which stands in for a verb, or by the infinitive in an Accusative with infinitive construction.

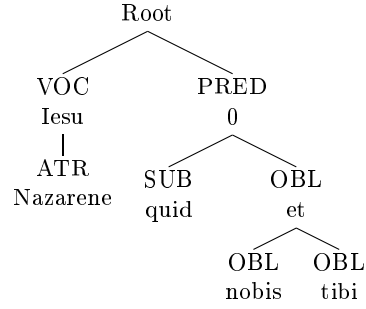
**Sentences**

### 10.1 Coordination of constituents/single rooted elements

Coordination of constituents is the most straightforward case, especially when the constituents are single words. Consider the example '*quid nobis et tibi Iesu Nazarene?*'. *nobis* and *tibi* are conjoined by *et*. They are both OBLique arguments of a (elliptical) *esse*, but so is the whole phrase *nobis et tibi*. We therefore want to have both *nobis*, *tibi* and *nobis et tibi* as constituents which bear the OBL relation and we achieve this by having the conjunction dominating both *nobis* and *tibi* via the relation these would have had to the main verb if there was no coordination. The conjunction then inherits this relation and is attached to its head via the same relation that it bears to its daughter(s):

<sup>7</sup>In a phrase structure grammar, on the other hand, all words would be constituents, as would the VP (verb + object) *coniurationem Catilinae detexit*.

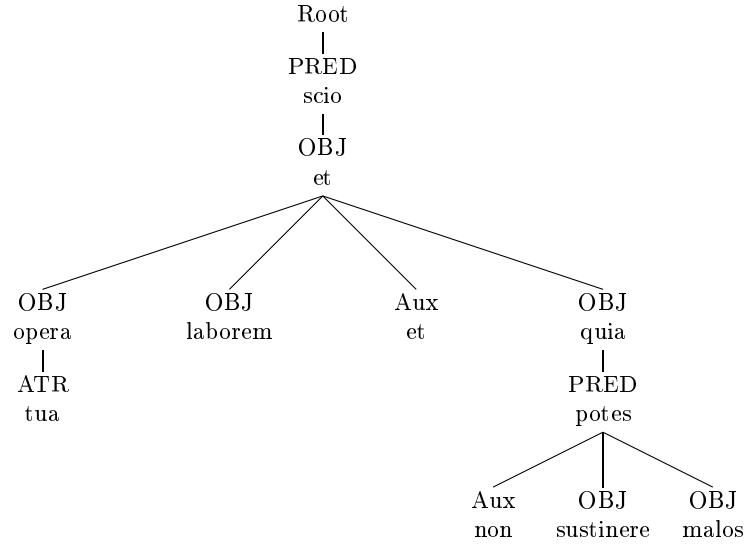
(70)



*Quid tibi et nobis, Iesu Nazarene?*

If there are more than two elements, all conjuncts are attached to the conjunction in the same way. Often there will also be more than one conjunction. In such cases, the first conjunction should serve as a head of the coordinated phrase, and any further conjunctions should depend on the first one via the relation Aux

(71)

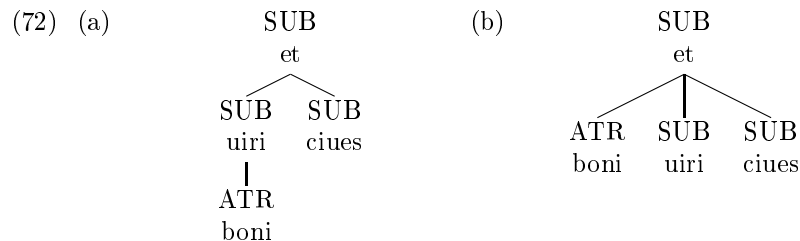


*scio opera tua et quia non potes sustinere malos*

If there is no conjunction present we insert an empty node which behaves as a conjunction.

We use essentially the same analysis whenever the conjuncts are single rooted but share a subtree. Consider the string *boni viri et cives*. There are two possible analyses: the intended meaning can be 'good men and citizen (which are not necessarily good)' (tree (a) below)- in that case we have constituent coordination, since *viri* and its attribute *boni* is a constituent which is related to the constituent *cives*. But the meaning can also be 'good men and good citizens' (tree (b) below), in which case *boni* modifies both *viri* and *cives*. We represent the difference in the following way:





In this way, the adjective has correct scope, see section 14.3.

In analysis of single root conjuncts, it is important to ensure that both conjoined elements have the same function, ie. should bear the same grammatical relation. SUBs can only be coordinated with SUBs, OBJs with OBJs etc. Only in this way is it possible to give the conjunction a correct function.

**Identity  
of function**

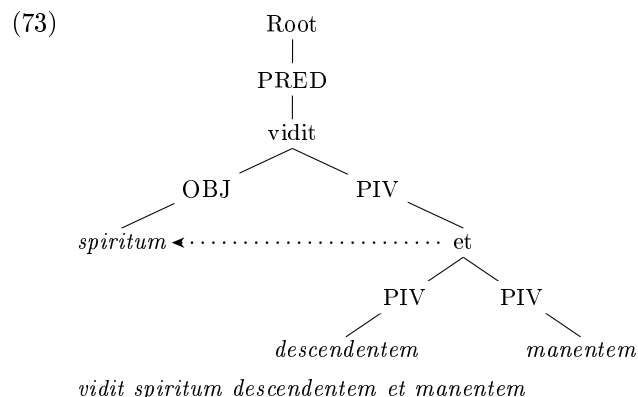
There is one exception to this, however. The XADV-relation, which can be coordinated with an ADV-element. In such cases the conjunction is given the relation ADV (and not XADV). This is possible because the only real function of the X prefix is to signal the presence of a slash arrow.<sup>8</sup>

**Coordination  
of ADV and  
XADV**

If the relations of the two conjuncts are not identical, another form of conjunction must be used. Of course, beside the conjuncts themselves, the coordination can have 'superfluous' conjunctions bearing the relation Aux, as well as items that are shared between the two conjuncts.

The principles described in this section are only applicable to **constituent** coordination. Whenever the two elements which each have more than one root are coordinated, the construction must be treated as described in section 10.3. One case which is not infrequent is the coordination of two object + object predicative structures. Even though we might like to conceive of an object + an object predicative as a single constituent, they have no common root except the governing verb in our model. We must therefore treat such coordinations as sentence coordinations, see example 78.

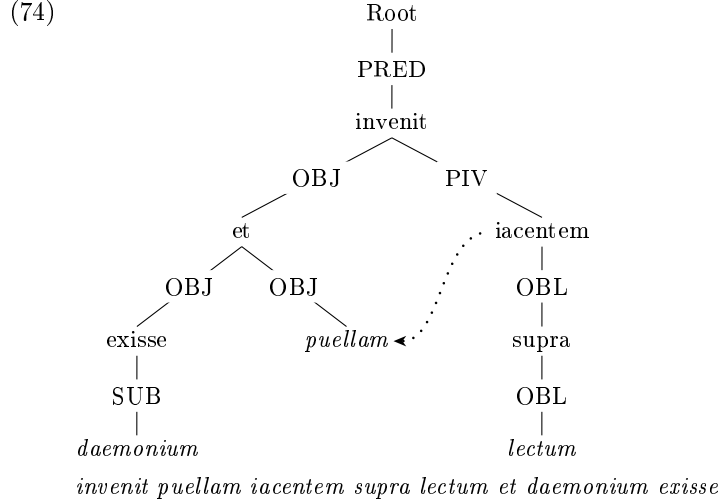
On the other hand, it *is* possible to coordinate two PIVs:



<sup>8</sup>Note that the relation between OBJ and XOBJ is different, since verbs subcategorize differently for these functions.

In this case, there should be a slash from the conjunction *et* to *spiritum*, see section 13.

It is also possible to coordinate a nominal object with an accusative with infinitive, even if the object takes a predicative complement:



In this case there should be a slash from *iacentem* to *puellam*. The example illustrates how our analysis relates to the semantics of the sentence in such cases: the subject of *invenit* perceives both the girl (*puellam*) and some proposition about here (that she is lying down, *iacentem*). The subject also perceives a proposition about the demon (*daemonium exisse*), but he does not directly perceive the demon, and therefore *daemonium*, unlike *puellam*, is not a direct object of *invenit*.

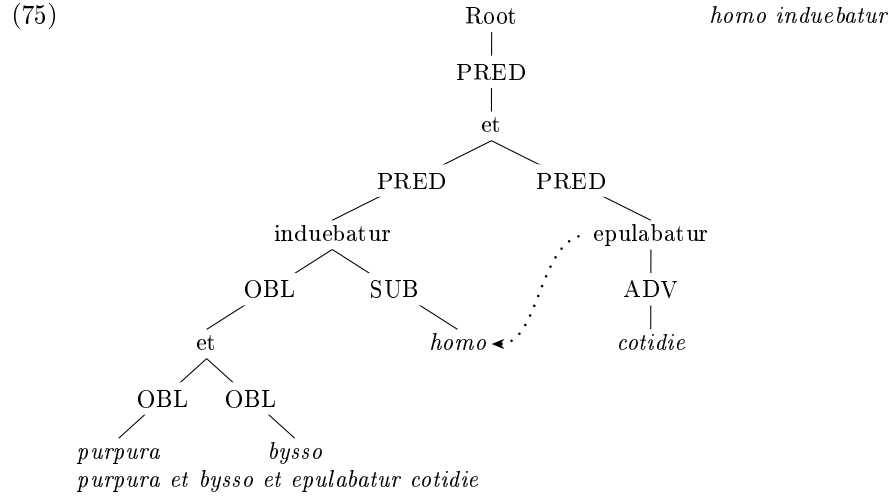
## 10.2 Sentence coordination

Although technically it would be possible to model VP coordination<sup>9</sup> in the same way as other coordinations of single rooted conjuncts which share a subtree, we do not pursue this option. Instead we follow the spirit of dependency grammar and assume that every finite verb, as well as infinitives in accusative with infinitives, forms a sentence. This also ensures consistency in the analysis, since - given the liberal use of pro-drop subjects in ancient IE languages - it is often not possible to determine whether we have sentence coordination or VP coordination.

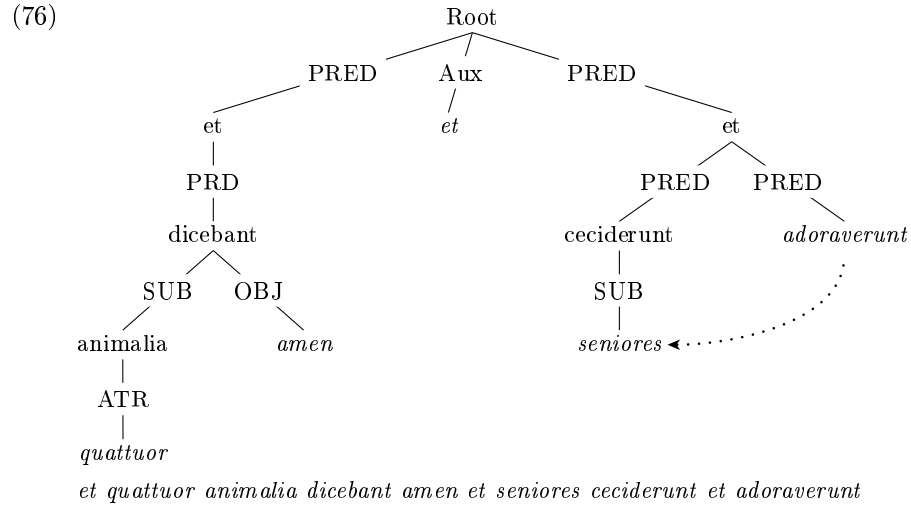
Consider *homo induebatur purpura et bysso et epulabatur cotidie*. There is no way of knowing whether the two conjuncts are *induebatur purpura et bysso* and *epulabatur cotidie*, with the subject belonging to both conjuncts, or rather *homo induebatur purpura et bysso* and *epulabatur cotidie* with a zero subject in the second conjunct. To avoid making such decisions, we treat all such cases as

<sup>9</sup>That is, the coordination of two verbs with their arguments, but without the subject.

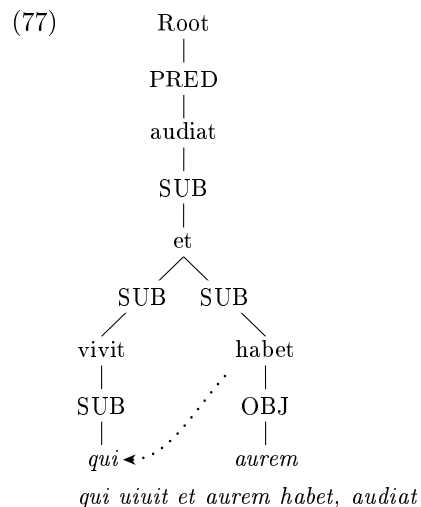
sentence coordination and mark shared arguments via the 'slash notation', see section 11. The representation is therefore:



If there is more than one conjunction present, the first will dominate the coordinated elements, whereas subsequent conjunctions will be attached to the first one via the relation Aux:



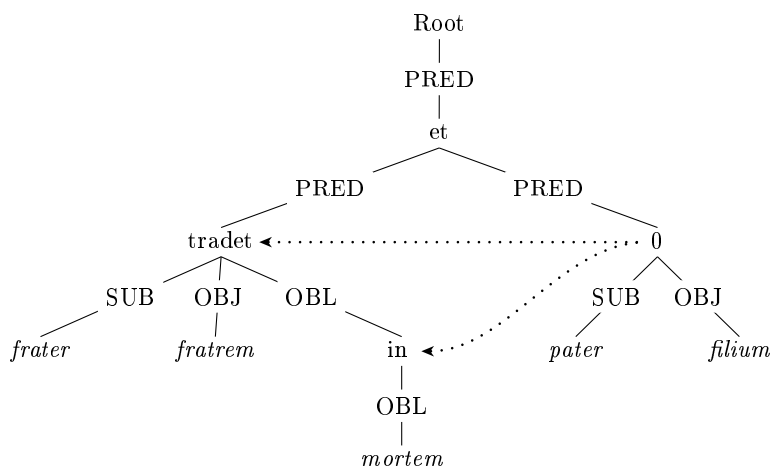
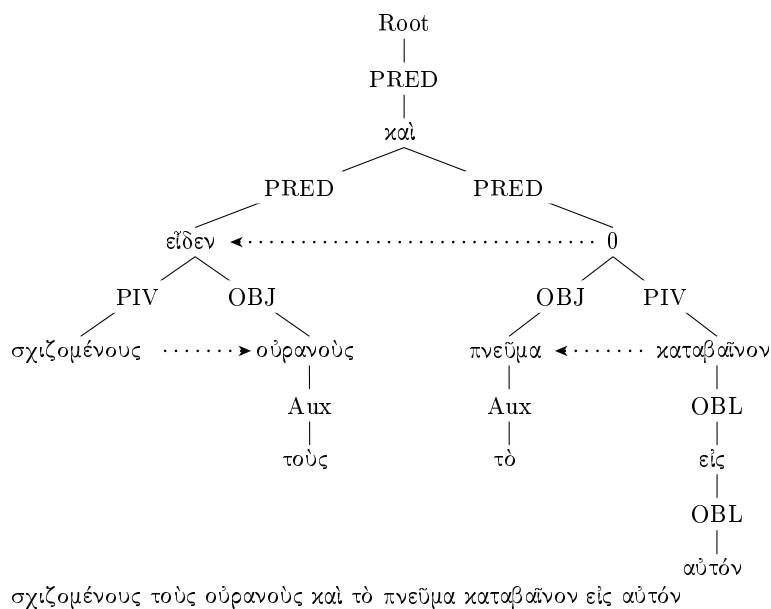
In subordinate clauses without a subjunction, the verbs do not bear the relation PRED but corresponding to the function of the subordinate clause. Conjoint verbs are analysed as sentence coordination here too:



### 10.3 Conjunction of non-constituents/multi-rooted elements

The conjuncts do not always have a single root. Consider a sentence like 'John drank coffee and Peter beer.' The second conjunct here is 'Peter beer' which is not a constituent and does not have one root but two unconnected roots, 'Peter' bearing a SUB relation and 'beer' an OBJ relation. We must first create a common root for them. This will be an empty node. The empty node and the sentence are then conjoined in a way similar to sentence coordination. Both are given the relation PRED, but the second conjunct lacks the verb and is therefore marked with a slash arrow towards the overt verb, ie. it is a kind of predication which shares the central element, the predicate, with the first conjunct):

εἶδεν



### 10.4 In which conjunct does an element belong?

It is sometimes not clear how the conjoined domains should be delimited and in which conjunct an element belongs. If the element is shared between the two conjuncts, the question is which dependency should be marked directly in the tree, and which one by a slash arrow. This does not affect the semantic interpretation of the sentence in any way, since the element is shared. For such questions, consult section 13.3.4.

It can happen that it is clear that an element belongs to only one conjunct, but it is unclear which one that is. In such cases, the choice will determine the interpretation. If in doubt, the annotator should consult standard translations. The principles in section 13.3.4 do not apply to such cases.

## 10.5 Other issues

Finally, it is important to distinguish the *conjunction* *et* 'and' from the *particle* *et* 'also'. This latter should be attached to the word it emphasises via the relation *Aux*. The same also holds for some other particles, as *neque* which can sometimes mean 'not even'.

## 11 Gapping and ellipsis

### 11.1 Elided copulas

Since we take the verb to be the head of the entire sentence in our model, we always need a verb in the analysis. However, copular verbs are often elided. In such cases we insert an empty copula:

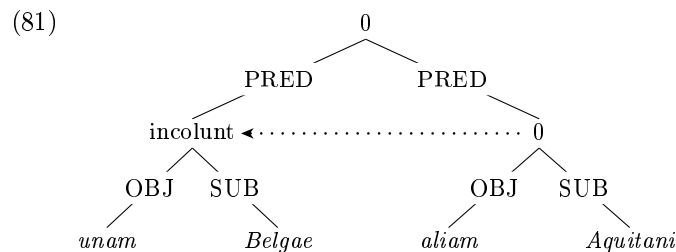
(80) Find example

Note that we have to assume an empty copula even in some cases where it is never overtly realised, as absolute ablatives with a predicative noun, see section 9.7

When the absent verb is not a copula, we will have to analyse this as gapping (see next section), ie. the structure should be attached to the sentence with which it shares a verb.

### 11.2 Gapping

Note that we do not mark ellipsis of nominal arguments as such, ie. we do not mark absent subjects in sentences like *currit* 'he runs'; nor do we mark absent objects in sentences like *interfecit* 'he killed him'. The only kind of ellipsis that we *do* mark is so-called gapping, ie. cases where shared material in a coordinated structure is left out in one or more of the conjuncts. Such conjuncts are treated as sentences, ie. we insert an empty verb which is given the relation *PRED*, and the shared elements are stored in a list, as explained in section 10.3. One further example will suffice:

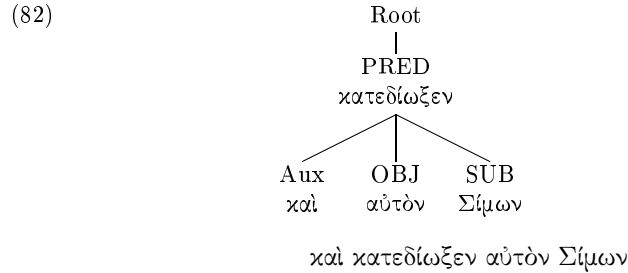


Notice that for the purposes of this rule, we treat XADVs as coordinated with the main verbs, ie. it is allowed to use a slash arrow from a main verb towards an argument of an XADV participle, see example 101.

## 12 The Greek article

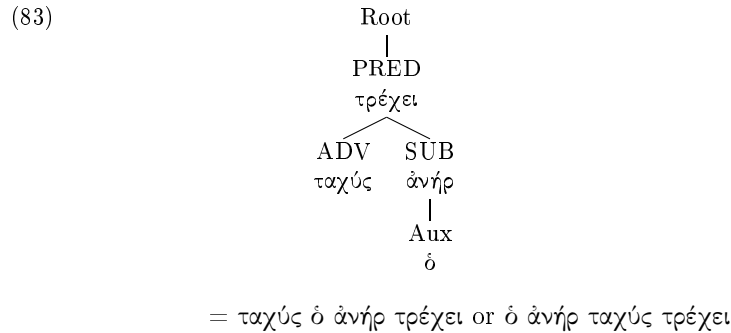
### 12.1 Noun phrases

When a Greek noun phrase does not contain any articles, it is treated like NPs in other languages:



However, many Greek noun phrases contain one or more definite articles which can appear in various configurations, DAN, DNDA, NDA, ADN and DNA:<sup>10</sup> ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἀνὴρ, ὁ ἀνὴρ ὁ ἀγαθός, ἀνὴρ ὁ ἀγαθός, ἀγαθός ὁ ἀνὴρ and ὁ ἀνὴρ ἀγαθός. In the last two configurations the adjective is normally considered predicative and not attributive, so there is a functional difference as well as a difference in word order. For our purposes, this means that adjectives in configurations like ἀγαθός ὁ ἀνὴρ and ὁ ἀνὴρ ἀγαθός should not be related to the noun via ATR, but rather to the verb via XADV. The article, on the other hand, is related to the noun via Aux. Note that since our syntax is dependency-based and not configurational, there is no difference between ταχύς ὁ ἀνὴρ τρέχει and ὁ ἀνὴρ ταχύς τρέχει:

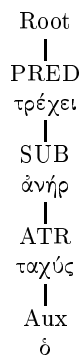
**Possible configurations**



In other cases, where the adjective is attributive, we attach the article to the first item to the right. This means that in the dependency structure, we do not distinguish between ὁ ταχύς ἀνὴρ and ἀνὴρ ὁ ταχύς. Both turn up as

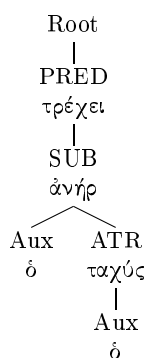
<sup>10</sup>D for the determiner/article, N for noun, A for adjective

(84)



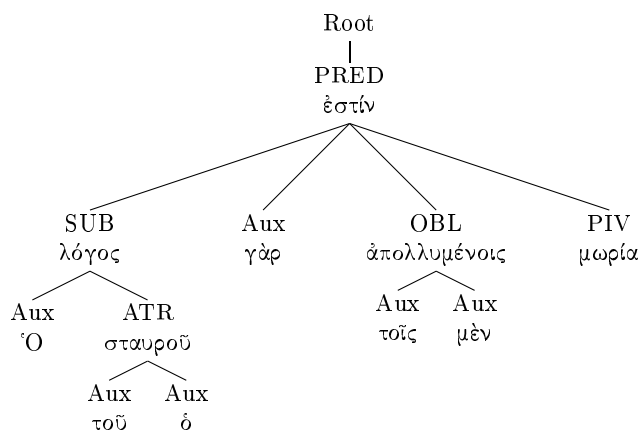
In the final case, there is an article preceding both the noun and the adjective and we attach each one to the element to their right. *ὁ ἀνὴρ ὁ ταχύς τρέχει* ends up as:

(85)



However, the modifier in an NP need not be an adjective; it can be a genitive NP, an adverb etc. We attach the article to that element of the modifier which is related to the noun via ATR:

(86)



Ὁ λόγος γὰρ ὁ τοῦ σταυροῦ τοῖς μὲν ἀπολλυμένοις μωρία ἐστίν Notice that in the structure of *ὁ τοῦ σταυροῦ*, both *ὁ* and *τοῦ* are Aux-daughters of *σταυροῦ*.



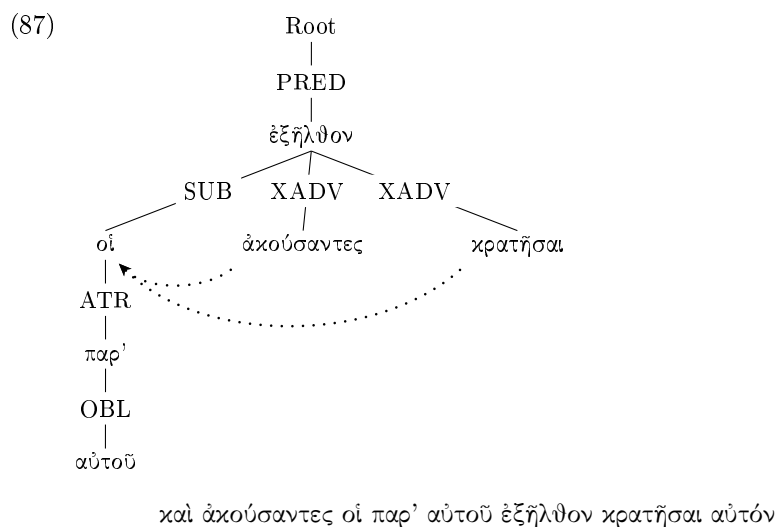
## 12.2 The article on its own

Whenever the article appears on its own, without belonging to a noun or to some other element, as in the  $\acute{o}\ \mu\acute{\epsilon}\nu\ \dots\ \acute{o}\ \delta\acute{\epsilon}$  construction, it is not an article at all, but should be marked as a pronoun in the morphological analysis and be analysed as a subject.

## 12.3 Articles without nouns

If an article appears with only an adjective or only a participle, it is considered to nominalize this adjective/participle (for syntactic purposes, not the morphology!). This means the adjective/participle will have a normal sentence-level function like SUB, OBJ or similar.

However, when the article appears with non-nominal categories like adverbs or preposition phrases, the article itself is considered the head of the construction and given the appropriate relation:



## 12.4 Articular infinitives

In articular infinitive structures, the article should always depend on the infinitive via Aux, even if it is separated from its infinitive by other elements.

(88) Find example

# 13 Slash notation

## 13.1 Introduction

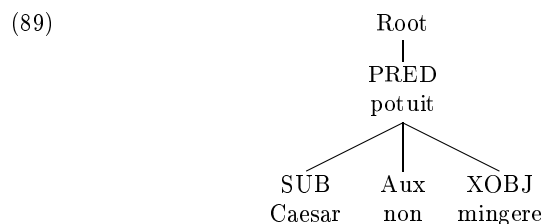
Slashes are used in our system to represent coreference relations within one dependency tree (which can of course contain several coordinated main clauses).

Informally, the general principle is that a whenever an item 'needs' to have a dependent, but this dependent is already 'used' (ie. is a dependent of something else).

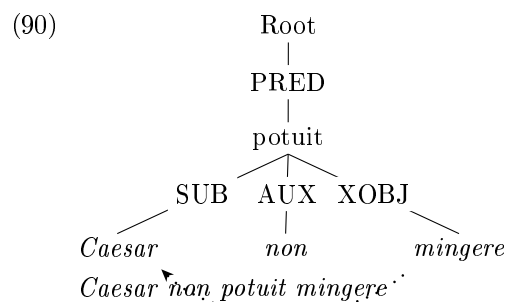
In other words, the meaning of a slash is *not* that the slasher node<sup>11</sup> is referentially identical to the slashee node.<sup>12</sup> Rather, the slash arrows should be conceived of as supplementary dependency relations: the slashee node is a dependent of the slasher. There is one exception to this principle, namely when the slasher is an empty node which bears the PRED-relation, see section 13.3.3.

**Interpretation**

To understand this general principle, consider the sentence *Caesar non potuit mingere*. The dependency tree is



Caesar is correctly designated as the subject of *posse*. However, Caesar is also the subject of *mingere* and to represent this fact, we put a slash arrow from *mingere* to *Caesar*:



The interpretation of this notation is that the subject of *mingere* is coreferent with the subject of *posse*, which is *Caesar*.

We can distinguish two groups of uses of the slash notation, one associated with the 'open' functions XADV and XOBJ as well as PIV, and one associated with gapping and elliptical coordination.

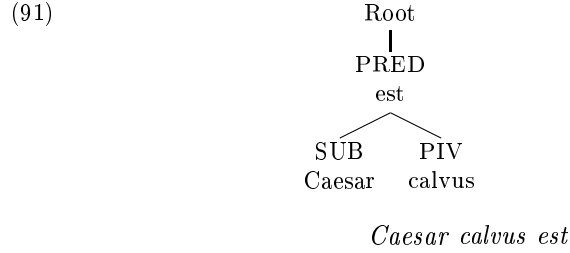
## 13.2 Open functions: XADV, XOBJ and PIV

The open functions XADV and XOBJ were introduced in section 9.9. By definition, they do not supply their own subject, but get a subject via coreference

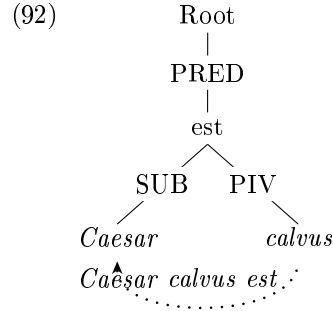
<sup>11</sup>I.e. the node where the slash is inserted; the origin of the slash arrow in the visual representation of the dependency tree.

<sup>12</sup>I.e. the node where the slash is inserted; the origin of the slash arrow in the visual representation of the dependency tree.

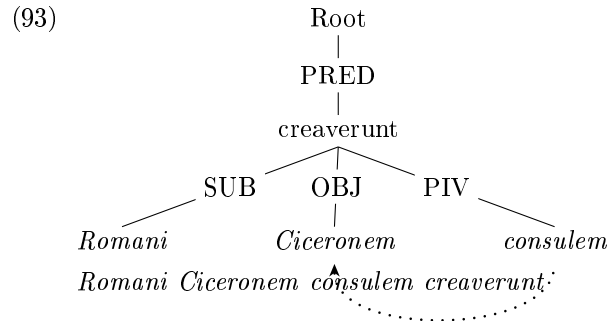
relations within the sentence. From the perspective of traditional grammar, it is perhaps not clear that PIV behaves in the same manner, but consider the example *Caesar calvus est*. *Caesar* is the subject of *est*, and *calvus* is the predicative complement of *est*:



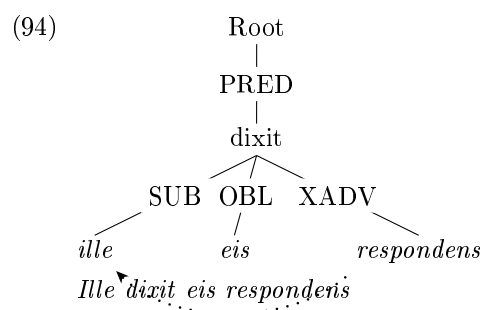
However, we want to capture the fact that not only is *calvus* an argument of *est*, in the sense that *est* requires the presence of a predicative complement, *calvus* is also a predication about *Caesar*. In other words, *Caesar* is the subject of *calvus* and this is represented by a slash arrow from *calvus* to *Caesar*:



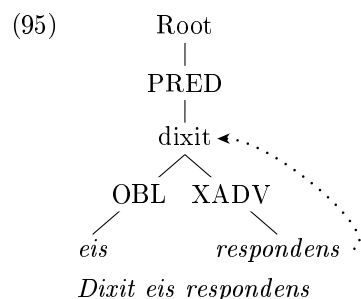
The same holds for a traditional 'object predicative', as in *Romani Ciceronem consulem creaverunt*: *creare* requires three arguments, a subject, an object and a predicative. So, *consulem* is a PIV-dependent of *creaverunt*, and *Ciceronem* is a OBJ-dependent of *creaverunt*, but at the same time, *Ciceronem* is the subject of *consulem* and we capture this fact by a slash arrow from *consulem* to *Ciceronem*:



With the relation XADV, the facts are the same. Consider *ille respondens dixit eis*: *dixit* is the main verb, *ille* its subject and *eis* its oblique argument. *respondens* is an adverbial which modifies the main verb, contributing the extra information that the 'saying' was 'responding'. So *respondens* is an XADV-daughter of *dixit*, but we also want to express that *ille* is the subject of *respondens*:



Now what if there was no overt subject in the sentence, ie. if the subject of *dixit* was pro-dropped and the sentence read *respondens dixit eis*? In this case, the subject is supplied by the finite verb itself, and the slash arrow is therefore directed towards the verb:



This means that **every node which is the daughter in an XOBJ, XADV or PIV-relation should have a slash!** The interpretation of the slash arrow is always uniform, since it is always a *subject* dependent that these nodes lack. In other words, the slashes are always the subject of the slasher. Therefore there should **never be more than one** outgoing slash from the daughter in an XOBJ, XADV or PIV-relation, since this will create an ambiguity. In other words, it is not possible to mark that such an element shares an argument with another element of the sentence.

**Number of  
outgoing  
slashes  
on  
XOBJS/XADVs**

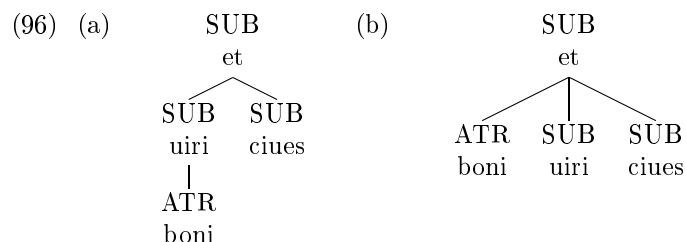
Notice finally, that the slash arrow from an XOBJ, XADV or PIV-node should always be local, ie. directed towards either the head verb or an element

dominated by the head verb. This restriction is enforced by the annotation interface.

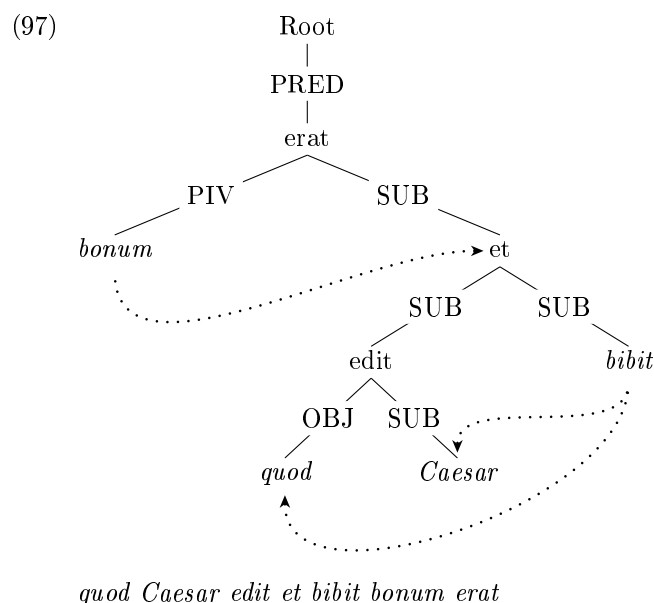
### 13.3 Slashes in gapping and coordination

#### 13.3.1 Motivation

Slashes in coordinate *sentences* denote much of the same scoping information that is expressed in other ways in constituent coordination. In section 10.1 we represented adjectives scoping over two coordinated nouns as in (b) below:



Theoretically, it would be possible to represent *Caesar edit et bibit* by coordinating the two verbs under the conjunction and then attach *Caesar* as a SUB-daughter of the conjunction. But consider *quod Caesar edit et bibit bonum erat*. *et* would be a subject daughter of *erat*, and would dominate one object daughter, *quod*, and *three* subject daughters, namely *edit*, *bibit* - and *Caesar*. Although this ambiguity could be resolved through the morphological annotation, we prefer to avoid it entirely and represent the sentence as:



### 13.3.2 Slashes in sentence coordination

Whenever two coordinated sentences, or an XADV and its main verb, share an element, be it a SUB, OBJ, XOBJ, OBL, AG or ADV, and this element is overtly represented only once, the element should be attached to the verb to which it belongs in the surface string, and a slash arrow should be set from the other verb to the shared element.

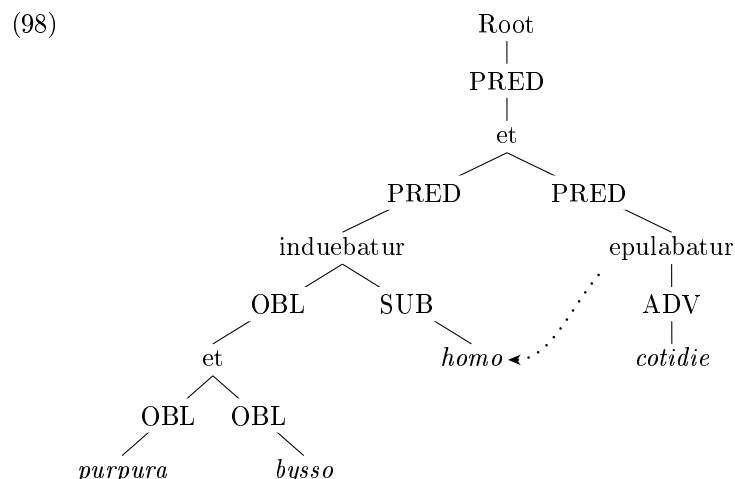
**Shared arguments**

Notice in particular that for the purposes of slashing, XADVs are considered to be on par with their governing verbs. It is allowed to slash from a main verb to an argument of an XADV, but not to an argument of some dependent clause (XOBJ, accusative with infinitive or subordinate clause). But the opposite, a slash arrow from an XADV to an argument of the verb can only indicate the subject of the XADV, therefore XADVs can only have one outgoing slash arrow.

**Treatment of XADVs**

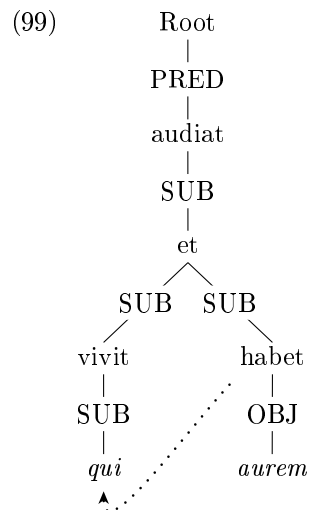
This kind of slashes should leave a verbal node and point towards the shared element. One should never use slashes between two verbs to indicate subject identity.

Consider again the first example from section 10.2:



*Homo indebatur purpura et bysso et epulabatur cotidie*

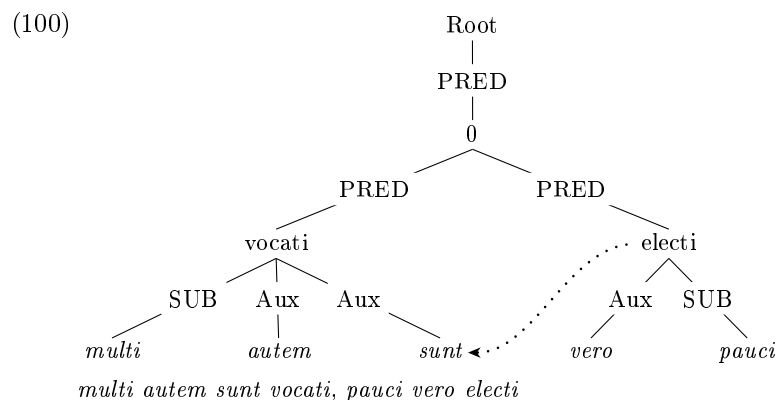
Now consider the example *qui uiuit et aurem habet, audiat*:



*qui vivit et aurem habet, audiat*

The shared element can also be an auxiliary verb:

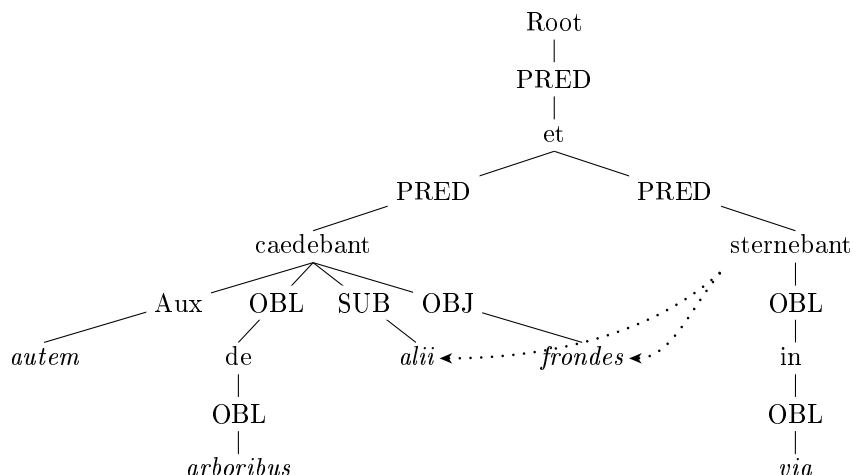
**Shared auxiliaries**



*multi autem sunt vocati, pauci vero electi*

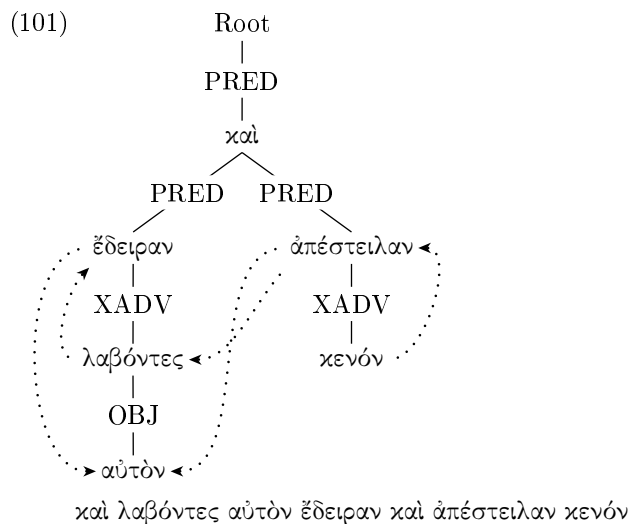
When the slash notation is used in sentence coordination, it is important to assure that the grammatical relation between the slasher node and the slashee is identical to the relation of the slashee to its mother. In other words, if the slashee is a subject in its own clause, it should also be the subject of the slasher. If the unexpressed object of a coordinated verb is identical to the overt subject of another verb, we cannot express this coreference relation. This is so because, unlike the case of slash notation on open predications, where all slashees are subjects, there is no default relation type with which to interpret the slash relation. Instead, the slash relation 'inherits' the function of the slashee node. As long as this restriction is respected, there can be several slashes in a tree:

**Interpretation of slashes in coordination**



*alii autem frondes de arboribus et sternebant in via*

We can even have many more arrows:



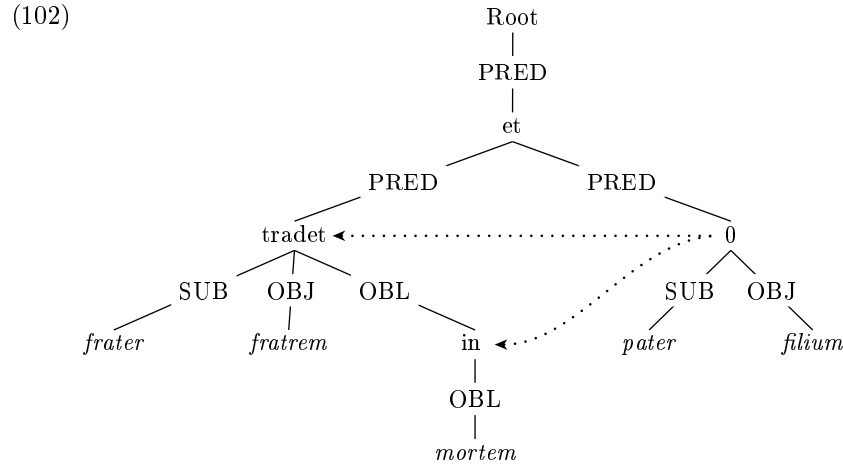
Here, αὐτὸν is taken to be the overt object of λαβόντες (for the general principle, see section 13.3.4). The arrows from ἔδειραν and ἀπέστειλαν indicate that these verbs also have αὐτὸν as their object. The arrows from λαβόντες and κενόν to their respective dominating verbs ἔδειραν and ἀπέστειλαν indicate that the subjects of these XADVs is an unexpressed element which is 'supplied by the verb'. In the case of λαβόντες, the subject of the participle is the unexpressed subject of the main verb; and in the case of κενόν, the subject of the adjective



is the object of the main verb. This object is expressed, but via a slash arrow: it is therefore not possible to slash directly from  $\chiενόν$  to its subject.

### 13.3.3 Slashes in gapping/multi-rooted conjuncts

Slashes in multi-rooted conjuncts behave exactly like slashes in sentence coordination, except that there is also a slash arrow from the empty node representing the verb, to the overt verb.<sup>13</sup> Consider *tradet frater fratrem in mortem et pater filium*:



*tradet frater fratrem in mortem et pater filium*

As here, it is often the case that other elements than the predicate are shared between the conjuncts. The slash arrow from the empty node to *tradet* indicates predicate identity whereas the arrow from the empty node to *in* indicates a shared argument. As such it underlies the same restriction as other slashes in sentence coordination: the slashee must have the same grammatical function in both conjuncts.

### 13.3.4 In which conjunct does a shared element belong?

Our treatment of shared arguments raises the question where a shared argument belongs in the tree. Sometimes an element can belong in several places. Why do we put *in mortem* in the first conjunct in example 102? Or, in a more difficult case, why does  $\alpha\upsilon\tau\acute{o}\nu$  belong to  $\lambda\alpha\beta\acute{o}\nu\tau\epsilon\varsigma$  in example 101? The following section provides some guidelines for making such decisions.

For argument sharing between coordinated elements we need to establish the domains of both conjuncts. If there is an overt conjunction, this will indicate

**Delimitation  
of conjunct  
domains**

<sup>13</sup>This slash arrow therefore has a different interpretation, meaning that the slasher node has the same meaning as the slashee node.

the boundary between the two domains. Elements should therefore be made to depend on the verb in their domain. In *tradet frater fratrem in mortem et pater filium* we have the domains *tradet frater fratrem in mortem* and *pater filium*, so *in mortem* clearly depends on *tradet* and not on the empty node. If there is no overt conjunction, we appeal to the principle of domain continuity: both domains should, if possible, be continuous. If there are several possibilities, ambiguous elements should belong to the first conjunct. For example, if there was no *et* in example 102, both *tradet frater fratrem in mortem // pater filium* and *tradet frater fratrem // in mortem pater filium* would yield continuous domains, so we choose the first option, which attaches *in mortem* to the first conjunct.

In practice, then, the principles mean that the first element which belongs only to the second conjunct marks the start of the second conjunct domain.

When there is argument sharing between a clause and an XADV, the principles remain the same, but the application is slightly different. The subtree dominated by the subordinate verb or the subjunction should correspond to a continuous string in the sentence. In example 101, this means that αὐτὸν can be attached to λαβόντες; if αὐτὸν appeared to the right of ἔδειραν, such an attachment would not be possible. When several attachments are possible, we again choose to attach elements as early as possible in the surface string: this means that we prefer to attach αὐτὸν to λαβόντες. However, if the subject of ἔδειραν intervened between λαβόντες and αὐτὸν, such an attachment would *not* be possible, since λαβόντες αὐτὸν would no longer be a continuous domain.

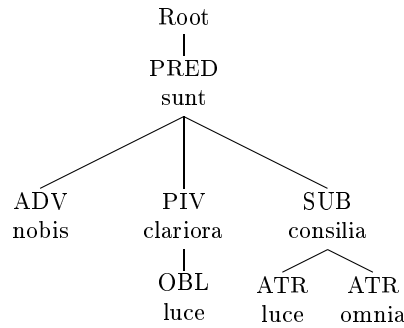
Notice, finally, that the principles described in this section are only applicable whenever the sentence is ambiguous. Very often, case morphology will make it entirely clear where an element belongs, and in such cases, the morphology should not be overridden by considerations of domain continuity etc.

## 14 Other constructions

### 14.1 Comparison

Ablatives of comparison are dependent on the comparative adjective via OBL:

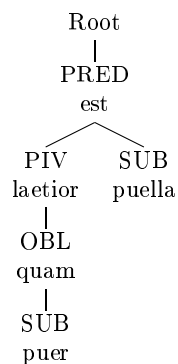
(103)



*luce sunt clariora nobis tua consilia omnia*

When *quam* is used it should depend on the comparative adjective via OBL, and the second member should depend on *quam* via the same relation as the other item compared:

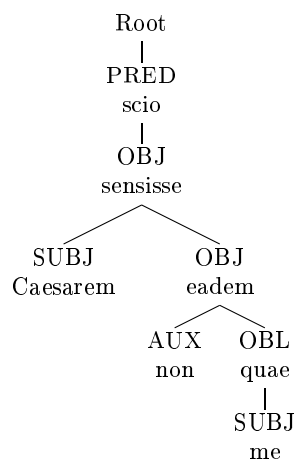
(104)



*puella est laetior quam puer*

Other expressions of comparison are analysed in the same way: *nihil aliud nisi*, *idem qui*, *similis ac* etc. Here is an example:

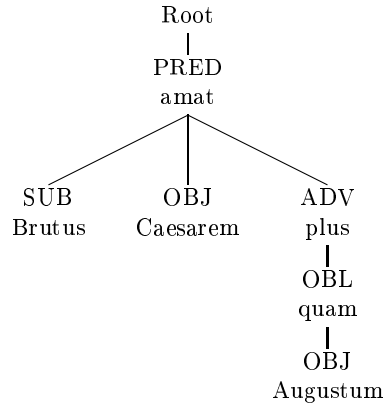
(105)



*Caesarem non eadem quae me sensisse scio*

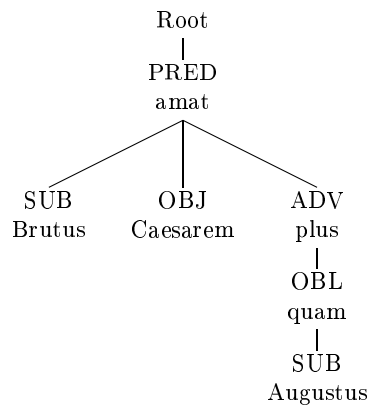
We use the same principle for comparative adverbs.

(106)



*Brutus amat Caesarem plus quam Augustum*

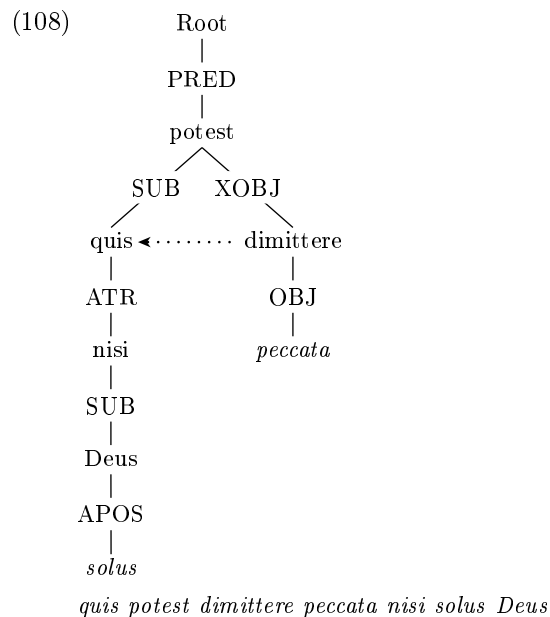
(107)



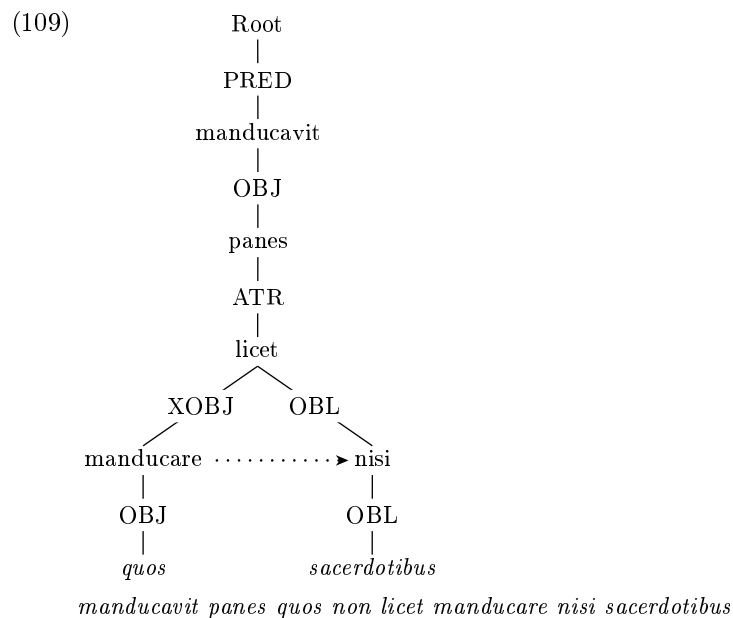
*Brutus amat Caesarem plus quam Augustus*

This approach is tantamount to treating *quam* (as well as *nisi* in *nihil aliud nisi*, *qui* in *idem qui*, *ac* in *similis ac* as introducing a sentence.

Here is another example where *nisi* modifies an interrogative pronoun:

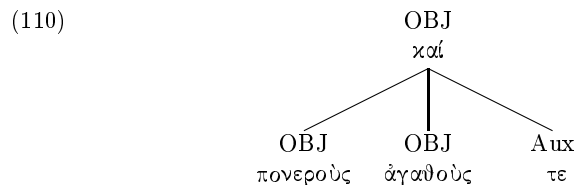


If there is no 'antecedent' to *nisi*, it will bear a sentence-level function:



## 14.2 Coordination through particles in Greek

Coordinating particles are treated as conjunctions. Note however that in a sequence  $\tau\epsilon \dots \kappa\alpha\iota$  we treat  $\kappa\alpha\iota$  as the head and  $\tau\epsilon$  as an auxiliary particle:



In a sequence of  $\mu\epsilon\acute{\nu}\nu \dots \delta\epsilon \dots$ , we treat  $\delta\epsilon$  as the head and  $\mu\epsilon\acute{\nu}\nu$  as an auxiliary particle, since it does not have to be present.

(111) Find example

### 14.3 Scope

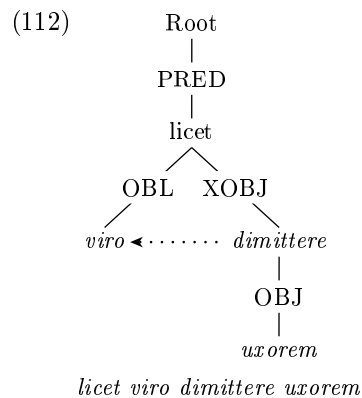
Scope is relevant to many constructions. An adjective can modify one or more nouns, and is then said to have scope over these nouns. A genitive can be dependent upon (and thereby for example modify) one or more nouns. The negation can negate one particular element in a sentence, or several, or the whole sentence - these elements are said to be in the scope of the negation. Emphasizing particles can take scope of one or more words.

We represent scope via the attachment site of scoping items. Scoping items should be placed so as to be dependent on the item in their scope. By default, they also take scope over all elements dominated by their mother node; so a negation dependent on the verb negates the whole sentence. This means that if we want an item to take scope over two coordinated elements, it should be made to depend on the conjunction.

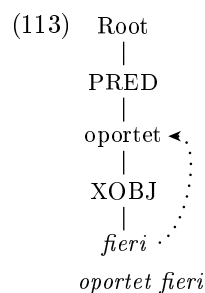
Note however that scope over coordinated verbs/sentences is treated in a fundamentally different way. An item which is the subject of two coordinated verbs can *not* be made dependent on the conjunction. Instead, it should depend on the verb in the sentence where it appears (see section 13.3.4 for delimitation of the domains) and have an incoming slash arrow from the verb in the second conjunct.

### 14.4 Impersonal verbs

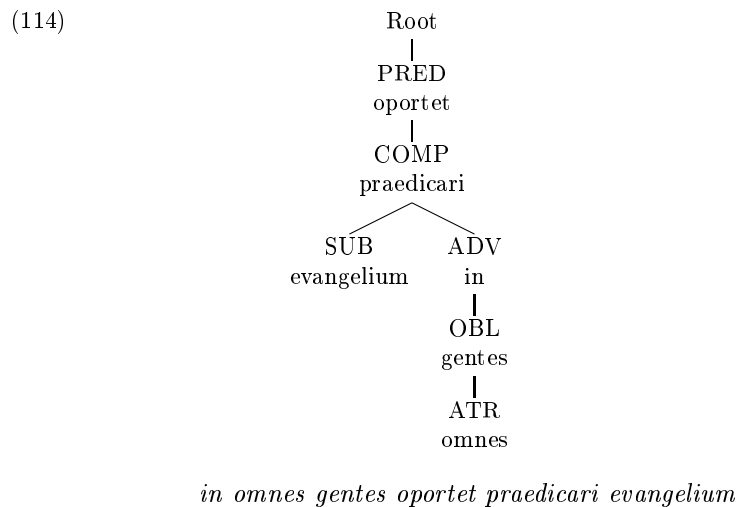
Impersonal verbs are defined by their inability to take a subject. Therefore, verbs like *licet*, *pudet*  $\acute{\epsilon}\xi\epsilon\sigma\tau\iota\nu$  etc. should never take a subject dependent. Infinitives with such verbs should be considered OBJs or XOBJs, depending on whether an accusative subject would be possible or not. For example *licet* takes a dative and an infinitive. This becomes:



This means that whenever no dative is present, there should be a slash to the main verb:



On the other hand, such verbs can often also be constructed with an Accusative with infinitive, and in such cases, they must be OBJs:

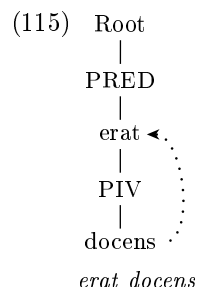


Verbs which are sometimes constructed with an AcI and sometimes with a pure infinitive are ambiguous whenever there is no subject accusative to the infinitive

and no argument of the main verb which can supply a subject to the infinitive. In such cases, annotators should choose the XOBJ relation, as in example 113. But first it must be made sure that the verb in question can take a pure infinitive.

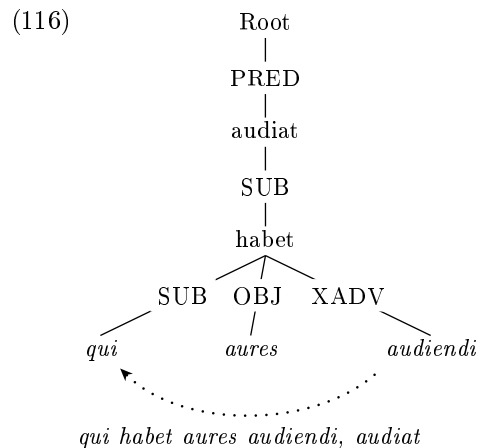
## 14.5 esse + participle

In the New Testament, we fairly often find a construction where the copula combines with a participle to form something which could almost be described as a periphrastic form. However, despite the regularity of the construction, we have chosen to treat it as if the copula had its full force:



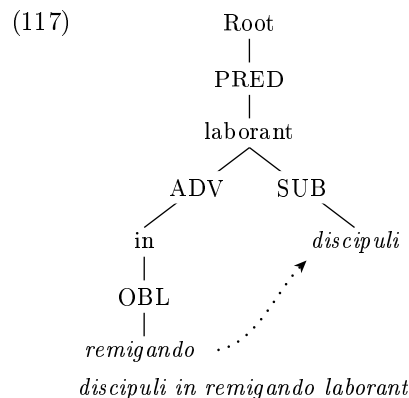
## 14.6 Gerunds

Gerunds on verbal nouns which cannot take a subject. As such, they should have an outgoing slash arrow. Gerunds on their own will very often be XADVs, fulfilling an adverbial role in the sentence. This goes both for instrumental ablative gerunds and final genitive gerunds:



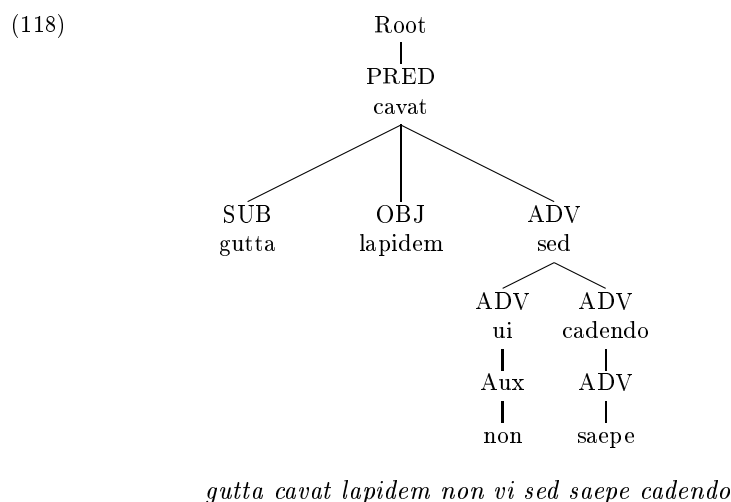
However, gerunds are also very often embedded in a preposition phrase. In such cases, the preposition serves as an ADV, while the gerund is an OBL of the preposition with a slash to its subject:





Another common use of gerunds is as arguments of certain verbal nouns, as in e.g. *spes vincendi*. In this function, they are NARGs, but with a slash to the subject if one is present. This slash should be directed towards the nearest possible subject - the number of nodes one must go upwards from the NARG/OBL slasher node before one descends towards the slashee node should be as small as possible.

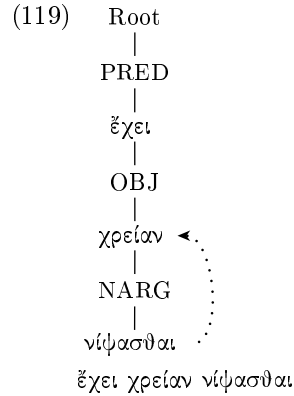
Ablative gerunds are also typically ADVs:



## 14.7 Infinitives

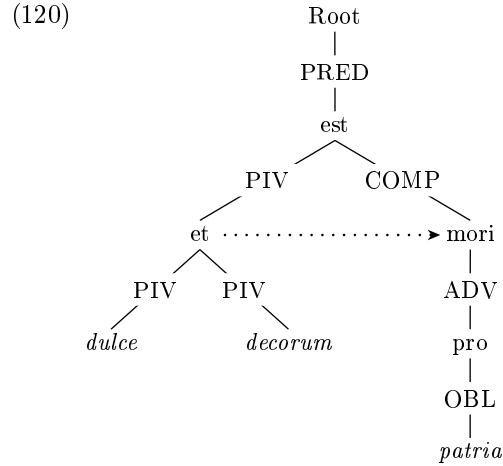
The two most common functions of infinitives are head of AcI (which is a COMP) and complement of auxiliary verb (XOBJ). But infinitives can have other functions, often corresponding to that of the gerund in Latin. For example, a bare infinitive can express purpose, in which case it is an XADV. It can also be an argument of a noun, in which case it is a NARG. The articular infinitive can be the object of a preposition, in which case it is an OBL. XADVs and XOBJs underlie some restriction on their slashes, which should always be 'local', ie.

point toward the mother node or a node which the mother node dominates. Slashes from NARGs and OBLs are freer, but should still be as local as possible - the number of nodes one must go upwards from the NARG/OBL slasher node before one descends towards the slashee node should be as small as possible.



The subject of νίψασθαι is not represented directly, but is coreferent with the subject of ἐχρει. If this subject was present in the sentence, the coreference would again be noted by means of the slash notation.

Furthermore, infinitives are often found in positions where it could be analysed as a subject. However, we have chosen to treat it as a COMP 'across the board', in order to avoid complicated choices:



*dulce et decorum est pro patria mori*

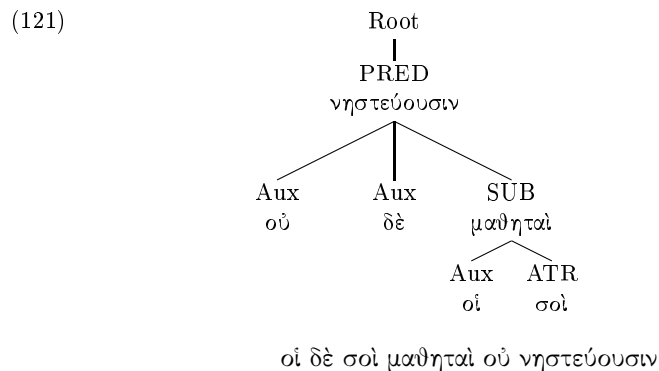
## 14.8 Datives

The dative has a variety of meanings within the languages in our corpus. In Greek and Gothic, for example, the instrumental and the dative have syncretized. Therefore the dative has a variety of instrumental meanings which

are almost always ADVs, except with some verbs like *χράομαι* 'use' which takes a dative OBL.

In this section, we focus particularly on the 'dative proper', excluding meanings that have arisen by syncretism. The proper dative has as its central meaning the expression of 'the more remotely concerned person'. This will most often be an OBL. However, there are some other possibilities:

The dative is sometimes used adnominally to express possession, in which case it will be an ATR



In other adnominal uses, the dative can be a NARG, whereas the so-called ethical dative should be ADV

## 15 General issues

### 15.1 ADV or OBL? adjunct or argument?

It can often be hard to decide whether a given element should be an ADV or an OBL, or - in more traditional terms - whether an element is an adjunct or an argument. Therefore we provide a super-tag which should be used whenever the annotator cannot decide, but the following section offers some advice to guide the choice.

**Arguments** are traditionally defined as 'elements seen as required by the verb'. In old Indo-European languages, nothing is really 'required by the verb', because all elements, even subjects and objects, can be dropped if they are easily inferable from the context. The test is therefore not whether an element can be left out or not, but rather whether it is possible to conceptualize the event expressed by the verb while abstracting from some element in the sentence. If that is possible, the element is an adjunct. Adjuncts (ADVs) are elements which elaborate upon an event description and gives extra information about the event.

There are some kinds of adverbials which are almost always adjuncts. These are

- Adverbials of manner
- Adverbials of instrument

- But even here there are exceptions: in *bene tractare*, for example, *bene* is an argument, since it is not possible to conceptualize the idea of 'treating someone' while abstracting away from the way of treating him. *utor* + ablative in Latin, and *χράσμαι* + dative in Greek are cases where an adverbial of instrument has been grammaticalized so as to become an ablative/dative "object" - which we treat as an OBL. Place adverbials are typically OBLs and not ADVs when they appear with 'positional verbs', such as *stare*, *sedere* etc. However, even these can sometimes take a position ADV. Consider the following interesting example:

```

graph TD
 Root[Root] --> PRED[PRED]
 PRED --> sedeant[sedeant]
 sedeant --> ADV[ADV]
 sedeant --> OBL1[OBL]
 ADV --> in1[in]
 in1 --> OBL2[OBL]
 OBL2 --> synagogis[synagogis]
 OBL1 --> in2[in]
 in2 --> OBL3[OBL]
 OBL3 --> cathedris[cathedris]
 cathedris --> ATR[ATR]
 ATR --> primis[primis]

```

The *cathedris*, seats, are inextricably linked to the sitting event, but the synagogues are not.

There is also another way of thinking about arguments: they are elements that can appear in a sentence because of the main verb. Specifications on manner, instruments, times and places can appear with almost any verb. Specifications of goal and source, on the other hand, can only appear with a subset of verbs - mostly motion verbs - therefore they are arguments of their verbs. Sometimes both a source and a goal appears in a sentence, and both are OBLs:

68

The two ways of thinking about arguments do not always give the same predictions. Here for example, one could argue that it is possible to conceptualize motion without a goal and a source; but goal and source are 'selected' by the verb and cannot appear with any verb.

If the two tests give the same result, we have a rather clear case of an argument. But most elements which test positively for argumenthood in either one should be considered arguments.

## 15.2 ATR or APOS? attribute or apposition?

...

## 15.3 ATR or XADV?

It can sometimes be hard to know whether a participle or an adjective is an ATR or an XADV, ie. whether it helps determine the reference of the noun (ATR) or is predicated of the noun (XADV).

With definite noun phrases, the decision is easier to make than with indefinite nouns. In Greek there is overt marking: participles/adjectives in attributive position (directly after the article) are ATRs and participles/adjectives in predicative position are XADVs. But note that not all adnominal elements follow the standard rules; for example πᾶς regularly appears in predicative position even when it is attributive.

Even in languages with no overt marking of the attributive/predicative opposition or of the definite/indefinite opposition, it is generally easier to determine whether an item is an ATR or an XADV if the NP is semantically definite. This is so because the NP in such cases has a definite referent, and we can easily determine whether the adjective/participle helps picking out this referent.

With indefinites, this is more difficult to determine. Annotators can try whether it is possible to paraphrase a participle or adjective by a non-restrictive relative clause - if so, the participle/adjective is likely an XADV. Another test is whether it is possible to set up a contrasting referent - if so, the participle/adjective is likely an ATR.

## 15.4 XADV or SUB?

A similar question arises whenever a participle is dependent on a verb without there being an overt subject present, as in *venientes dicunt ei*. If *venientes* is taken as the subject, the sentence means 'those who are coming say to him'. If *venientes* is taken as an XADV, it means 'Coming (to him), they said to him'. There are no clear tests to be used. Annotators should base their analysis on a semantic interpretation of the sentence.

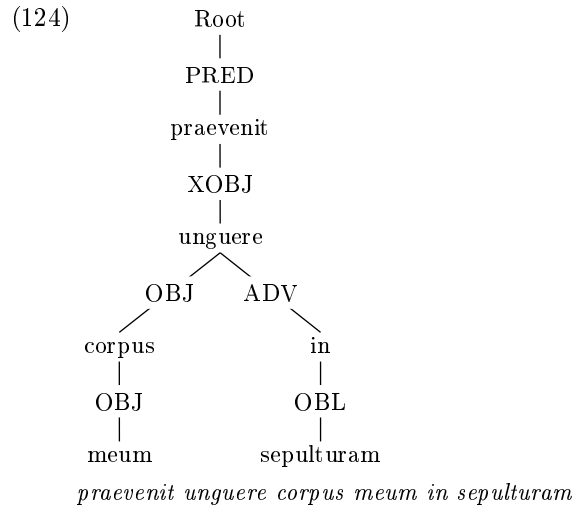
## 15.5 More on the XOBJ relation and PIVs

The XADV and XOBJ relations are unfamiliar from traditional school grammar. XADV corresponds quite closely to the concept of predicative/conjunct participle or adjective, so it should not be too hard to grasp. The XOBJ relation, on the other hand, does not correspond closely to one particular category of traditional grammar, so it needs further explanation.

The crucial facts to grasp about the XOBJ relation is that it is used for predications which have external subjects (whence the X-) and which are governed by another verb. This means that nothing which can itself have a subject daughter, is an XOBJ: all finite verbs are excluded.

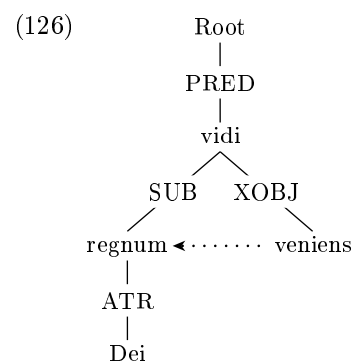
The prototypical XOBJ is therefore an infinite verbal form, but other word classes can also be predicative: most notably nouns, adjectives and prepositions.

XOBJ is a governed relation, an element which is selected and demanded by the matrix verb. A prototypical case are auxiliary verbs, like *posse*, *coepi*, *velle* and others, which demand a complement infinitive (and this infinitive cannot take its own subject). However, other verbs can also take an infinitive argument:



The facts are the same in both constructions: both *iudicare* and *omnipotens* are selected by the main verb and cannot be deleted; and they both have external

subjects (they do not themselves govern their subject). For this reason, we treat traditional predicative complements as XOBJs. A notable case which often appears is the accusative with participle construction:



## 15.6 Empty nodes

In our model, we only use empty nodes to stand in for missing conjunctions in asyndetic coordination and missing verbs in elliptical constructions. Empty nodes should never be used for any other purpose