

The Notion of Subject

The notion of the subject is difficult to define in any concrete or definite way.

We say this because there is a serious and genuine concern about the categorization of this grammatical construct!

This state of being with regard to the notion of the subject is there because,

Unlike many other terms/concepts of traditional grammar, the linguists didn't devise or adopt any new definition for a clear sense of understanding of the term called 'subject'!

They remained complacent with traditional definition and concept of the subject and this has resulted into a mess.

However, for any existing theory of linguistics, it is a must to have a concrete idea or definition of the SUBJECT.

Let us see some old discussion that we already have done in some earlier classes;

Let us see how linguistic elements work from single nucleus to a group and to the unit..

Elements of language:



Groups of elements:



Units of language



Higher Units of language



The last step in the earlier slide tells us that when the linguistic units keep on grouping together, there comes a stage when the linguistic units finally bring a 'sentence' by utilizing different functions of structural dependencies.

The structural dependencies are better understood by the analysis and understanding of case-marking system which facilitates an element or a unit of similar structure with different function.

If you think carefully you would realize that it is because of the case-marking and the semantic value of the verb that a noun phrase [_{NP} Det+N] can sometimes function as a subject and sometimes as DO or IO (objects) and yet in another context, it can function as an oblique object!

This is why we need to re-think and understand it carefully as to what does it mean when we categorize some level of linguistic analysis as 'formal' and some other level as 'notional'.

Let us first see different levels of organization of linguistic elements and then we will talk about the notion of 'subject'.

Different organizational levels


Words in linear order= word level




G.C. for Constituents= formal level



Subj; Obj & Verb= Notional level



Subj-Nom Obj-Acc= Categorical level



Agent; patient; theme = relational level



Formulation of sentences and finally the discourse

Identity of the term called 'subject'

The fourth stage of the analysis of linguistic units i.e. the categorial level, converts an [_{NP} Det+N] as a subject of the sentence because this NP receives nominative case from the INFL of the VP.

It is also a fact that this NP occupies the first or initial position in a sentence in some 86% or even 96% of the languages of the world.

So, we believe that these two linguistic properties (case and place) of an NP have been very dominating factor in terms of qualifying it as the 'subject' in the languages of the world.

This must have led the grammarians to take the notion of 'subject' just for granted and they never defined or devised any theory or definition for what should be and what shouldn't be called a 'subject'!

Falk, Yehuda N. (2006)'s book

If we do a lot of hard work and try to find out as to how we should define a 'subject', we will come across the following tools that may help it to be defined;

1. Discovery procedure of 'subject':

- a. An NP is the subject iff it occupies the first/initial position (in majority of the cases) in a sentence.
- b. An NP is the subject iff it is in the 'nominative case'
- c. An NP is the subject iff it agrees with the verb in the sentence.
- d. An NP is the subject iff it can be the antecedent of a reflexive.

Let's apply the abovementioned procedures to find out a subject in Hindi or many other Indian languages:

1.	<u>lərki</u>	bəčče-ko	uṭ ^h ayegi		
	girl-3FS-Nom	child-3MS-Acc	lift-Imp-Fut-3FS		
	‘The girl will lift the child’.				

Sentence (1) in Hindi will pass all the tests given in (1.a-d) and these requirements will finally prove that ‘lərki’, ‘girl’ is the subject of in the given sentence.

2.	<u>lərke-ne</u>	<u>ek</u>	kitāb	uṭ ^h a-yi	
	boy-3MS-Erg	one	book-3FS-Acc	lift-Perf-3FS	
	The boy picked up/ lifted a book’.				

In sentence (2), the girl will be qualified as a subject by (1.a & d), but (1.b&c) will disqualify ‘girl’ as the subject in sentence (2).

In fact requirement no. (1.c) would do something very different and it will plead for ‘the book’ to be qualified as the subject!!

This will never make any sense to the speakers of English and majority of European languages unless they are linguists!!

Let us examine some more interesting examples:

3.	<u>lərki</u> -ne	bəčče-ko	ut ^h aya		
	girl-3FS-Erg	child-3MS-Acc	lift-Perf-3MS		
	‘The girl lifted the child’.				

The requirements given in (1.a-d) will say that there is no subject in sentence (3) !

Rules (1.a&d) may help someone to argue for lərki ‘girl’ as the subject but (1. b&c) will reject any such argument on the grounds of case requirement and agreement factor.

4.	<u>lərka</u>	ek	kıtab	ut ^h a-ye-ga	
	boy-3MS-Nom	one	book-3FS-Acc	lift-Imp-Fut-3MS	
	‘The boy will pick up/ lift a book’.				

Sentence (4) again restores ‘boy’ as the subject of the sentence because this NP will pass through all the tests/requirements given in (1.a-d) in order to call an NP as the subject of the sentence.

So, in order to avoid the disqualification of an NP as a subject in sentences (2 &3), we have to parameterize our rules/requirements that qualify an NP as the subject of a sentence.

Parameterization of Rules to decode Subject in some Indian Languages

2. Revision of the rules:

1. Even if an NP has a 'non-nominative case' it can still function as a subject (i.e. logical subject at least).
2. Even if the verb doesn't agree with an NP, the NP can still function as a subject (i.e. logical subject at least).
3. If an NP can't be an antecedent of a reflexive, it can't be the subject.
4. The occurrence of an NP at the initial position of a sentence can be optional.

This parameterization was essential and this surfaced as an issue and a big conference was organized in Stanford in late 90s to discuss the problem.

experiencer subjects in south asian languages

edited by manindra k. verma and k.p. mohanan

Verma & Mohanan (1990) reported the following in the preface of this work, '.... One of the well-known features that characterizes South Asian languages typologically has been the existence in their syntactic structures of an NP which is non-nominative in case marking but has most of the properties of a subject NP.

Most typically, the thematic role of this NP is one that can be characterized as 'experiencer.'

Usually, the case marking is dative, though not always.

This cuts across geographical and genetic boundaries and is treated as a feature of some significance in defining India and South Asia as a linguistic area'.

Structural dependencies and the case-marking with the subject:

Consider the following sentences from Hindi and Malayalam:

Hindi:

1.	bəččə	bəhut	k ^h uś	huwa
	child-3MS-Nom	very	happy-Adj	be-Perf-3MS
	‘The child became very happy’.			

No one can really
pin-point and say

1a.	bəčče-ko	bəhut	k ^h uś-i	huw-i
	child-3MS-Obl-Dat	very	happiness-N	be-Perf-3MS
	‘The child became very happy’.			

that these two sentences in Hindi have the following semantic differences with regard to their meaning.

Malayalam:

2.	kuṭṭi	santoṣ-ičču	
	child-Nom	rejoice-Pst	
	‘The child became happy’.		

2a.	kuṭṭi-kkə	santoṣəm	ayi
	child-Dat	happiness	come-Pst
	‘The child became happy’.		

Mohanan (1990) has said exactly the same thing about these sentences in Malayalam!

Masica (1976: Ch. 6) mentions that ‘...in many languages of the world, subjects of predicates denoting subjective experiences are marked differently from subjects of predicates denoting states and actions (Masica 1976: Ch. 6).

- A. A set of predicates denoting perception, liking, need, physical or mental states, belief, knowledge, gain, etc., take a dative subject, e.g. ‘dɪk^hayi dena’, ‘to be visible’, ‘pəsənd hona/ana’, ‘to like’, ‘gussa ana/hona’, ‘to be/become angry’, ‘činta hona’, ‘to be worried’, buk^har hona’, ‘to have a fever’, ‘višwas hona’, ‘to believe’, ‘maɭum hona’, ‘to come to know’, ‘pəta hona/čəlɪna’, ‘to become aware’, and ‘lɔɖ jana/ ana + čahna’ to come/go back’ require a dative subject.

Let’s see some examples of Dative-subject in the next slide.

Dative-subject

Consider these examples:

1.	<u>ram-ko</u>	<u>rat-mě</u>	<u>dɪk^hayi</u>	<u>nəhi</u>	<u>deta</u>	<u>hə</u>
	ram-3MS-Dat	night-Loc	seeing-N	Neg	give-Impf-3MS	be-Prest
	‘Ram can’t see at night’.					

2.	<u>mohən-ko</u>	<u>meri</u>	<u>g^həɾi</u>	<u>pəsand</u>	<u>ayi</u>	
	mohan-3MS-Dat	I-Obl-Gen	watch-3FS	like-N	come-Perf-3FS	
	‘Mohan liked by watch’.					

3.	<u>rəmeš-ko</u>	<u>muj^h-pe/-pər</u>	<u>bəhūt</u>	<u>gussa</u>	<u>aya</u>	
	Ramesh-3MS-Dat	I-Obl-Loc	very	anger-N	come-Perf-3MS	
	‘Ramesh became very angry with me’. (R was very angry on me)					

4.	<u>muj^h-e/-ko</u>	<u>rəmeš-ki</u>	<u>bəhūt</u>	<u>činta</u>	<u>huyi</u>	
	I-Obl-1S-Dat	Ramesh-3MS-Gen	very	worry-N(f)	be-Perf-3FS	
	‘I got very worried about Ramesh’.					

5.	<u>muj^h-e/-ko</u>	<u>tum^ha-ra</u>	<u>nam</u>	<u>malum</u>	<u>hə</u>	
	I-Obl-1S-Dat	you-Obl-Gen	name-3MS	know	be-Pres-3S	
	‘I know your name’.					

B. A selected set of non-volitional, non-active intransitive and transitive verbs such as ‘gırnɑ’, 'to fall', ‘tutnɑ’, 'to break', ‘honnɑ’, 'to happen' and ‘k^honnɑ’, 'to lose' take the instrumental subject.

C. A set of verbs of intention, belief, claim, etc., require a genitive subject, e.g. ‘irada honnɑ’, 'to intend', ‘vičar honnɑ’, 'to think', ‘dava honnɑ/kərnɑ’, 'to claim'. The same is also true for sets of predicates denoting a permanent state such as ‘jənm honnɑ’, 'to be born', ‘mrityu honnɑ’, 'to die', etc.

D. A set of 'inherent' properties such as ‘utsah 'enthusiasm', ‘d^heryə’, 'patience' and ‘himmət’, 'courage' etc., require a locative subject.

The notion of dative-subject or experiencer-subject remained in the discussion in the field of typology for quite some time.

But, as we saw in Masica's classification, it is not just the ‘dative-case’ that occurs with the subject in SALs but a bunch of other case-markers can also occur with the subject in these languages.

Instrumental, Genitive and Locative Subjects

Instrumental subject:

1.	kərən-se	gɪlas	tut	gəyi	
	Karan-3MS-Instr	glass-3FS	break-V ₁	go-Perf-3FS	
	'Karan broke the glass (non-volitionally)'.				

2.	muj ^h -se	gələti	ho	gəyi	
	I-Obl-1S-Instr	mistake-3FS	happen- V ₁	go-Perf-3FS	
	'I did a mistake (non-volitionally)'.				

3.	həmdul-se	uski	g ^h əɾi	k ^h o	gəyi
	Hamdul-3MS-Instr	his	watch-3FS	lose-V ₁	go-Perf-3FS
	'Hamdul lost his watch'.				

Genitive subject:

1.	mohən-kə	kya	irada	he	
	Mohan-3MS-Gen	what	intension	be-Prest-3S	
	'What is Mohan's intension'?				

2.	sohən-kə	dava	gələt	he	
	Sohan-3MS-Gen	claim-3MS	wrong	be-Prest-3MS	
	'Sohan's claim is wrong'.				

Instrumental, Genitive and Locative Subjects

Locative subject:

1.	dipək-me	bəhut	utəsah	hɛ	
	Deepak-3MS-Loc	a lot	enthusiasm	be-Prest-3MS	
	‘Deepak has lots of enthusiasm’.				
2.	tʊʃ ^h ə-mě	himmət	to	bəhut	hɛ
	you-Obl-Loc	courage-3FS	<u>Emph</u>	a lot	be-Prest-3S
	‘You have lots of courage’.				
3.	viʃal-mě	jəra	b ^h i	d ^h eryə	nəhĩ hɛ
	Vishal-3MS-Loc	little	<u>Emph</u>	patience-3MS	<u>Neg</u> be-Pres-3S
	‘Vishal doesn’t have a little bit of patience’.				

These so-called psyche-predicates and different case-suffixes with the subject created a great deal of confusion about the subject.

The linguists had somewhat accepted the dative or experiencer subject, but accepting all these as subject(s) was a big issue!

Typological Studies in Language

Non-nominative Subjects

Volume 1

edited by Peri Bhaskararao
and Karumuri Venkata Subbarao

Typological Studies in Language

Non-nominative Subjects

Volume 2

edited by Peri Bhaskararao
and Karumuri Venkata Subbarao

So, again a symposium on Non-nominative Subjects was organized at ILCAA, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies in December 2001.

The result of this symposium is the two edited books on the topic and some 28 papers by the intelligent minds in the field.

The phenomenon of non-nominative case marking has implications for a variety of syntactic phenomena such as agreement, antecedent-anaphor co-reference, control structures and conjunction reduction etc.

We will discuss almost all of these in the upcoming slides in the class

However, it is important to examine some examples first and problematize the whole issue and then discuss the solution!

1. māntri deś-ki seva karta he
minister-3MS-Nom country-Gen service do-prest-ind-3MS be-pres
 'The minister severs the country'.

2. is māntri-ne deś-ki kap^{hi} seva ki he
this minister-3MS-Erg country-Gen very service-N_f do-perf-3FS be-pres
 'This minister has done a lot of service for/ to the country'.

3. māntri-ko apāne deś-ki seva karni čahiye
minister-3MS-Dat his country-Gen service-N_f do-infim-F should
 'The minister should serve (for) his country'

4. māntri-me deś-ki seva-ka zəjba hona čahiye
minister-3MS-Loc country-Gen service-Gen enthusiasm-N_m be-infim-M should
 'The minister should have the enthusiasm of serving his country'.

5. māntri-pār deś-ki seva-ka b^har hota he
minister-3MS-Loc country-Gen service-Gen burden-N.m be-pres-ind-3MS be-pres
 'The minister has the burden of the service of the country'.

6. mātri-se deś-ki seva nāhi hog-i
minister-3MS-Instr country-Gen service-N.f neg be-fur-ind-F
 'The minister won't serve the country'.

7. mānti-ke live deś-ki seva-ka māhtva nāhi he
minister-3MS-Dat country-Gen service-Gen importance-N.m neg be-pres-indic
 'Minister has no interest in serving the country'.

8. is māntri-ka deś-ki seva-se koi vasta nahi he
this minister-3MS-Gen country-Gen service-inst any relation-N.m neg be-pres-indi
 'This minister has no relation with serving the country'.

The above nine examples in Hindi show different kinds of subjects and their grammatical properties.

This is an important issue and in fact it is a challenge in contemporary linguistics to deal with the notion of subject as shown in these examples!

We must unwind the clustering of properties that subjects display in the above examples ([Falk 2006](#)).

Falk(2006) is right when he says that it is important for the formalists to explain the clustering of properties that subjects display because they hint for some special representational properties that must be unique to different types of subjects.

We could understand his worry as without such representational uniqueness, the properties of subjects that set them apart from other elements of the clause would remain mysterious.

However, this very mysterious property of the subject demands an explanation and we are bound to ask a question:

‘what is a subject’?

Why is this a problem?

We know that the problem for ‘**a unified theory of subject**’ exists because different languages threat the issue differently.

For example, we have seen in our discussion of ‘Word-order typology’ that there are languages that do not need the overt mentioning of the subject in several contexts.

The so-called sentences in many incorporation-al languages are like words and the process of identifying a subject in such languages becomes further more complicated.

We can give an example from a language called *Greenlandic Eskimo*. For example- 'illuminiippuq' could be a word as well as a sentence in the language.

It is very difficult to explain whether this is a word or a sentence.

However, on the basis of the corresponding meaning given in English, we classify the example in different morphemes in following way:

<u>Ilu-</u>	<u>mi-</u>	<u>niip-</u>	<u>pug</u>
<u>house</u>	his	be-in	3rd person-singular-indicative
'He is in his (own) house'. [<u>Francis Katamba</u> : Morphology: pg-58]			

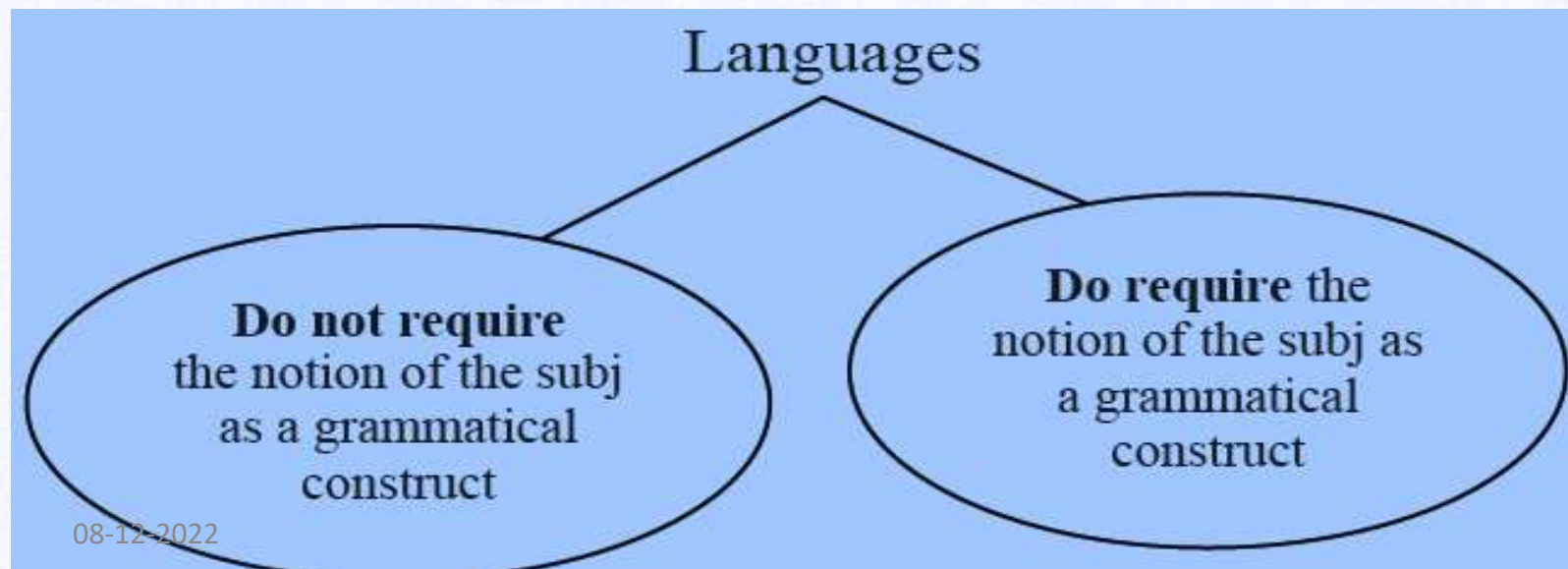
Although the sentence has morphologically been divided, we don't find any morpheme which exemplifies the subject.

Thus, we could say that in incorporating languages, subjects don't find any mention in their sentences.

So, to start with we could classify the languages of the world in two different types.

One where the notion of the subject is almost non-existent, and other where we need the notion of the subject as the part of the system of 'grammatical construct'.

Thus, these two distinct types of languages can be shown in the following diagram as:



The second group of languages where the notion of the subject is necessary should further be divided into two sub-categories.

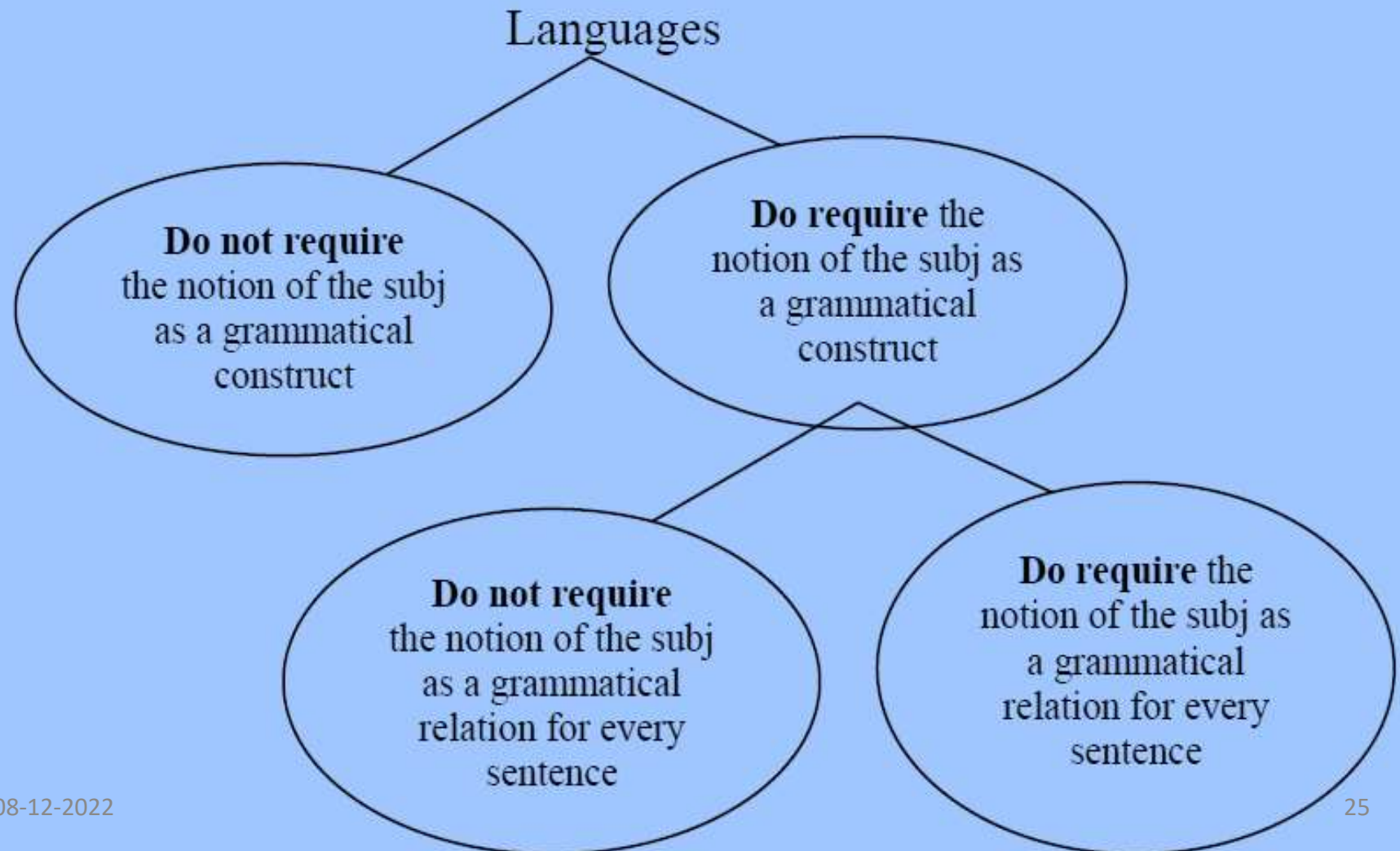
In the first sub-category, there will be languages in which the subject is required to be there as a necessary grammatical element in every sentence.

English and some other European languages will fall into this sub-group.

On the other hand, there are languages where we might have the notion of the subject as part of the system of the grammatical construct; however, we might not need the subject as the necessary grammatical element for each and every sentence.

Warlpiri, Hindi and many languages from Tibeto-Burman family of languages will come into this sub-type.

Now, let us include these two sub-type into our earlier classification of languages with regard to the notion of the subject:



The first sub-group of languages from the second group where the subject as a grammatical category is required for every sentence will consists of English, German, Spanish etc.
 For example: English: (recall Chomsky's EPP)

The boy-\emptyset	hit	the dog.
Det boy-3MS-Nom	hit-tran-pst	Det dog-3MS-Acc
'The boy hit the dog'.		

The boy	gave	his friend	flowers
Det boy-3MS-Nom	put-ditr-pst	Det friend-3S-Dat	flowers-3P-Acc
'The boy put the book on the table'.			

Spanish:

el	čiko	kaliente	el	perro
Det-M	boy-3MS-Nom	hit-Perf-3MS	Det-M	dog-3MS
'The boy hit the dog'.				

The other sub-group of languages from the second group where the subject might be very much conceptually the part of the sentence, but it is often dropped it in several instances.

The phenomenon is known as heavy 'pro-drop' in linguistics. Here is the example:

Warlpiri:

panti-rni
spear-3S

ka
aux-nonPst

'S/he is spearing him/her/it'.

Hindi:

jaldi kār-o, varēna garī nāhi pākār payē-ge
fast do-2S-imp otherwise train neg catch-V1 find-1Pl-fut
'You hurry up, otherwise we won't catch the train'.

So far so good, but we have not said anything about the 'basic' issue/question – 'what is a subject? '

If we know this, we could understand the 'Nominative subject' and of course, it won't be difficult afterwards to get to know what should be 'Non-nominative subject'.

Let us adopt a mixed bag of linguistic parameters or what Falk said the 'clusters of special representational properties' or simply some mechanisms which help us to define a SUBJECT:

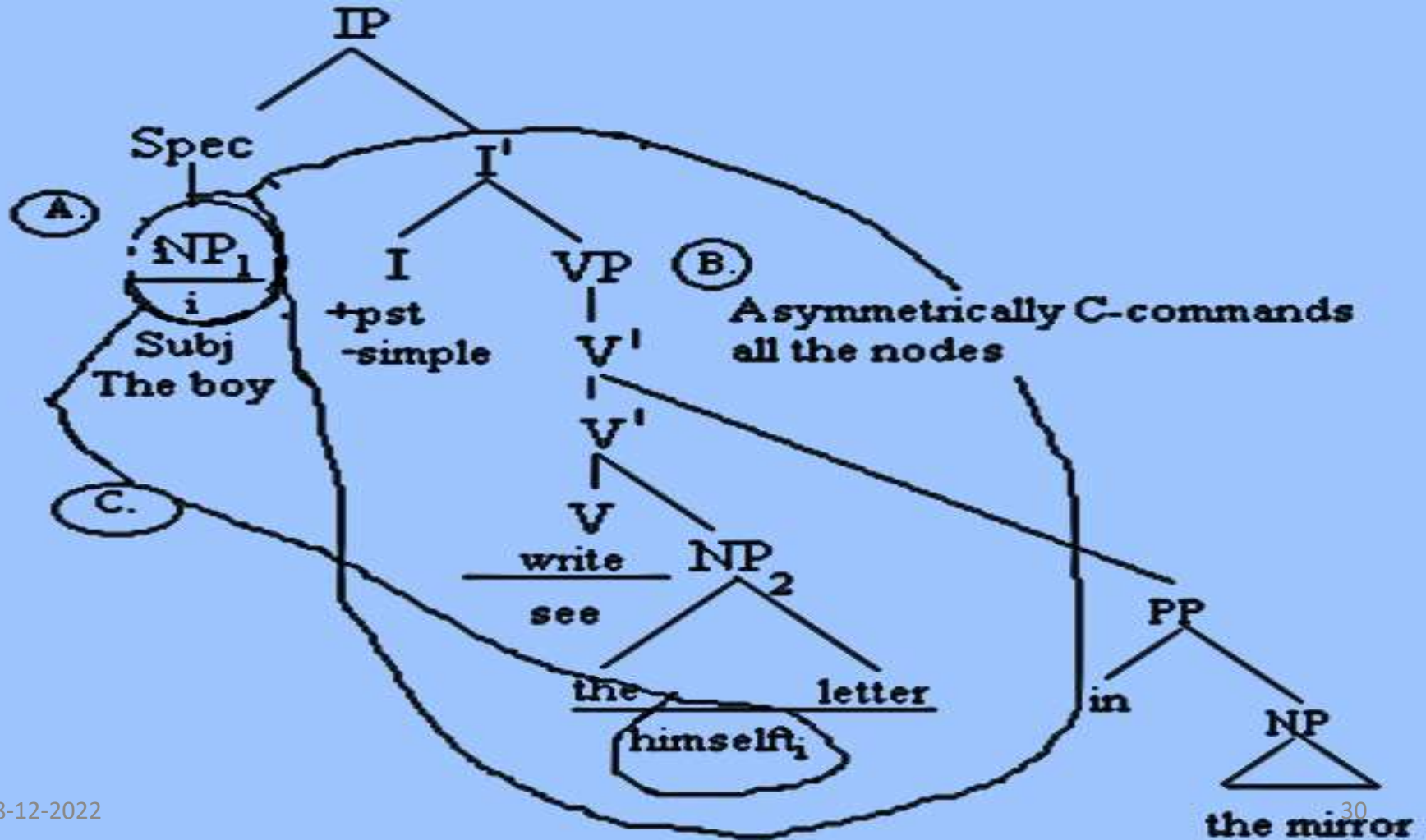
a. The subject generally occupies the first place,(first NP of IP) in a declarative sentence and in the languages which place the Subj as the first word.

- b. Following the condition mentioned in (a), the subject must be able to asymmetrically C-command all the elements in the sentence.**
- c. The subject must be co-indexed with an anaphor (if there is one).**
- d. The subject is the controller of a PRO in the sentence (of course the obj has this property, but subj gets a lead or occupies higher place).**
- e. The procedure of conjunction/disjunction REDUCTION can help to find out the subject.**
- f. A finite very in general agrees with the subject of the sentence.**
- g. The subject is the addressee of an imperative sentence.**

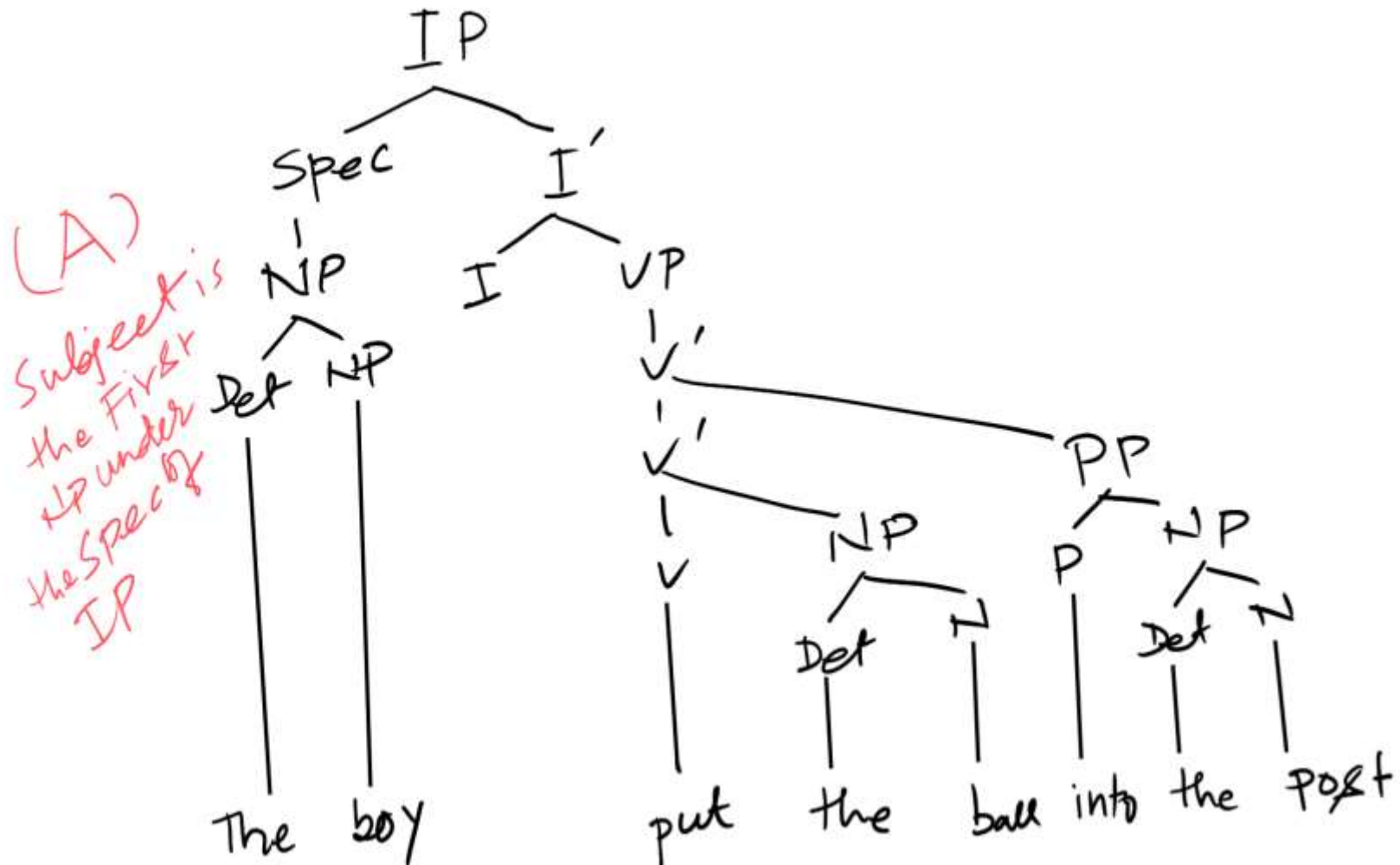
PS:

Students must be able to explain each of these features of subject. We can not go on explaining each of these concepts here, as this will take a lot of time and space. Also one must know these simple concepts in linguistics.

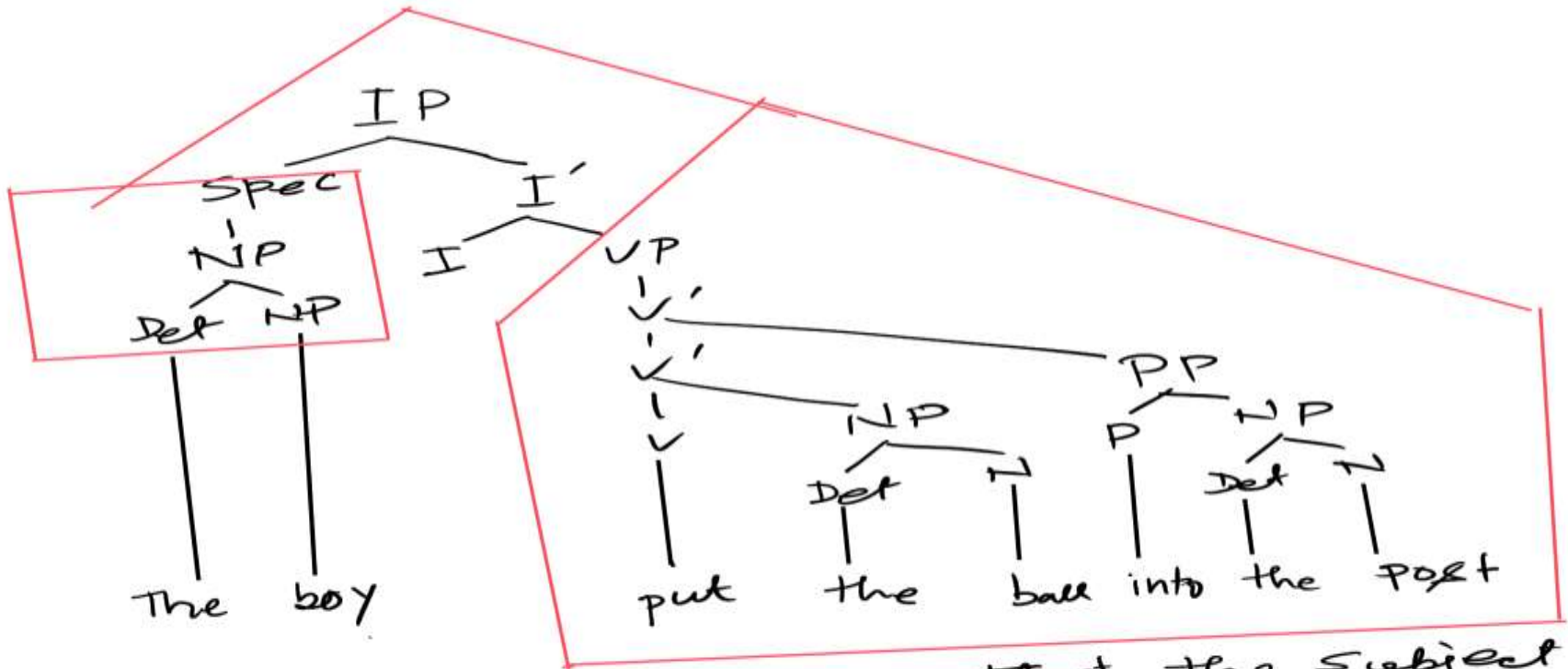
However, to make sense of what we are saying, we can thread in most of the representational properties of the subject in a tree-diagram and explain the discovery procedures for the subject.



a. Sub isNP1 under the SPEC of IP

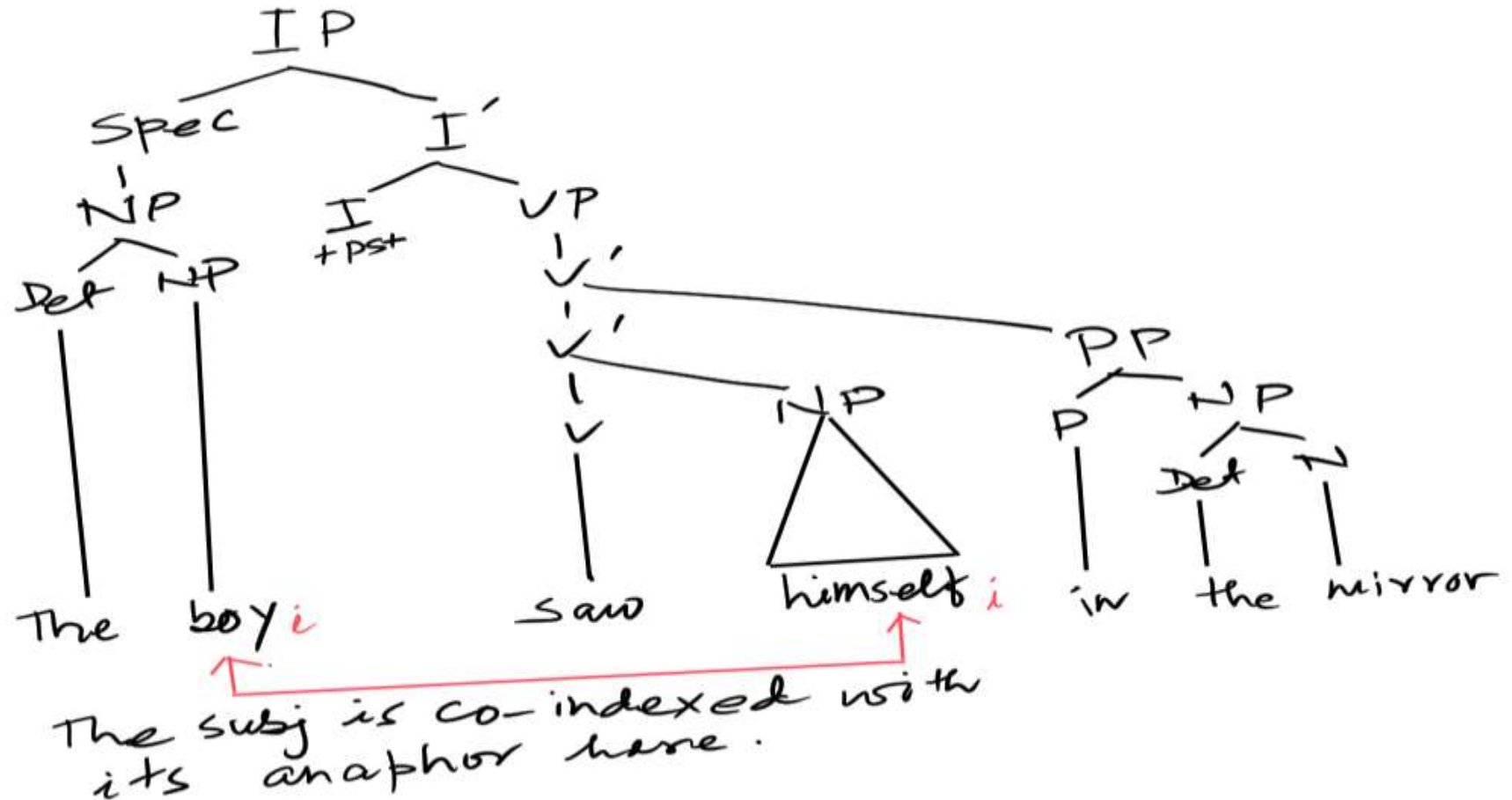


b. Subj asymmetrically C-commands all the nodes under VP

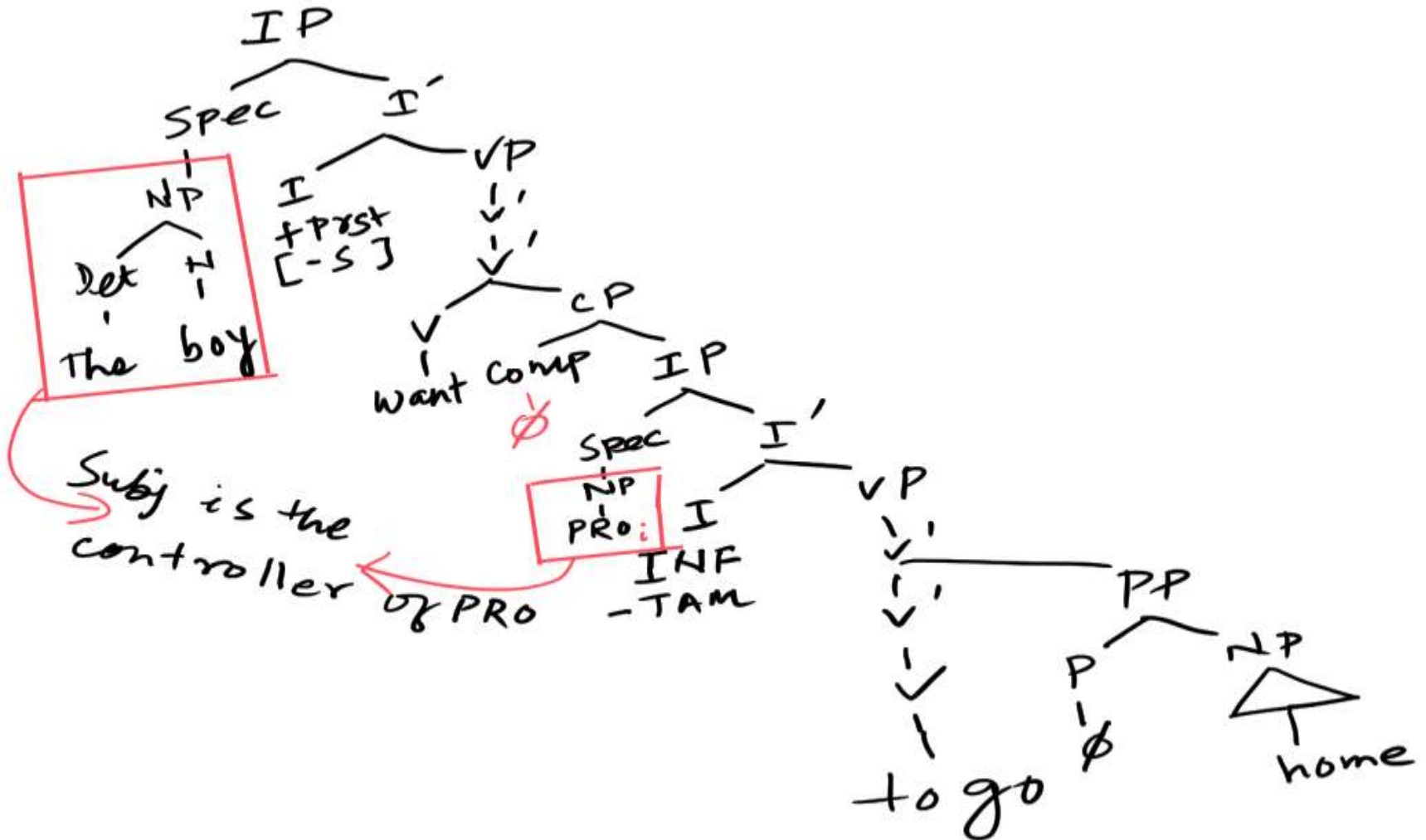


The red-lined marking show that the subject
 is a symmetrically C-commands all nodes
 dominated by VP.

c. Sub is co-indexed with its anaphor



d. Sub is the controller of PRO



In the earlier four slides with tree-diagrams on them, we saw that the formal classification of subject is done by (a) the first NP of SPEC, (b) subject asymmetrically C-commands other nodes, (c) subject is the antecedent of a reflexive and (d) the subject is a controller of PRO. However, all these are also shown in the messy tree-diagram on page 30 of the presentation. Let's talk about the diagram here in detail.

There are two sentences in the tree-diagram on page 30:

1. The boy wrote the letter.
2. The boy saw himself in the mirror.

The marking (A) suggests that the first NP in the spec position of IP is the place for the subject of the sentence.

The circled part of the tree-diagram indicating by (B) tells us that the subject NP asymmetrically C-commands all other constituents in the sentence.

The marking (C) suggests that if there is an anaphoric expression in the sentence, that anaphor is normally co-indexed with the subject of the sentence.

d.1. [I_i want [PRO_i to go home]].

In the above sentence, the subject is the controller of PRO.

There could also be a sentence such as

d.2. '[I want him [PRO to go home]]'

Here in the above example, the controller of the PRO is the direct object of the sentence.

However, the sentence in (d) is an example where the controller of the PRO is the subject of the sentence and it is one of the inherent syntactic features of the subject to be the controller of PRO.

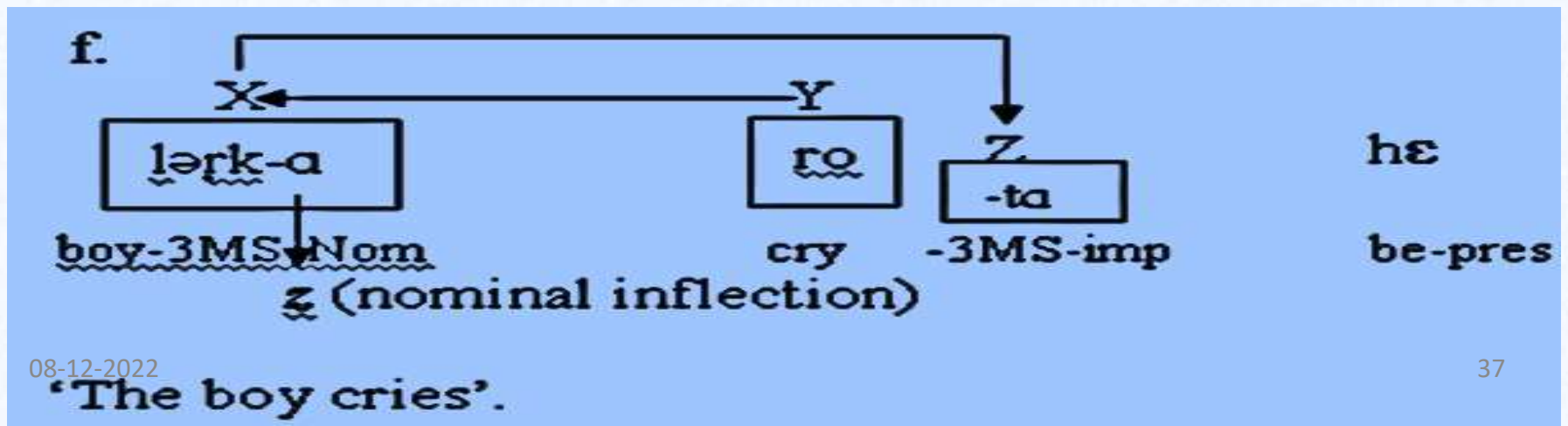
e. John_{sub} went home and ~~John~~ finished his work and ~~John~~ went to play cricket.

The example (e) shows a process what is known as 'Conjunction Reduction'.

The process of conjunction reduction assures the retrieval of the 'subject' in the sentence.

In other words, a proper name or a pronoun is not used too many times in a sentence if the sequential actions are carried out by the co-referential subject.

By the process of conjunction reduction, we replace the 'repeated proper name or pronoun' with appropriate indexing method, which are co-referential with the subject of the sentence. This is what has been depicted in the sentence.



The example (f) shows that a finite verb, in general, agrees with subject of the sentence.

One should bear this fact in mind that there can be a finite verb which might not agree with logical subject in a sentence but even then the notion of ‘logical subject’ will make us understand the subject of the clause.

g.

<u>G.</u>	<u>[pro]</u>	<u>Just</u>	<u>do</u>	<u>it !</u>
	You-2S-Nom	<u>adv</u>	verb	DO
	‘You just do it’.			

In the above example of English, the addressee of the sentence is the subject. This is true in most of the languages.

Most of the examples that we have discussed till now to exemplify the properties of subject, is the subject which appears with 'a Nominative case'.

Thus, the subject that takes the nominative case either covert or overt, is called a 'Nominative subject'.

Therefore, the other possibility which exists should say if there are subjects that occur with other case-forms than the nominative and these subjects qualify the tests of the subject-hood that we discussed in (a) to (g), such subjects are called 'Non-nominative subjects'.

However, one has to be very careful in stating that something with other than the nominative case will be called 'the subject'.

The 'grammatical and logical' distinction of the subject helps to overcome some of the problems that are encountered in the processes of applying the discovery procedures.

Once we understand the concept of ‘non-nominative subject’, we can go on illustrating the possibility of the case suffixes that can occur with the so-called logical and grammatical subjects in the sentence.

If we consider ‘non-nominative subject’ in Hindi, the following possibilities exist:

Non-nominative subject in Hindi:

Ergative case suffixed NP	= Ergative subject	} <i>Non-Nominative Subject</i> Most of these examples would be of logical subject.
Dative case suffixed NP	= Dative subject	
Experiencer case suffixed NP	= Experiencer subject	
Genitive case suffixed NP	= Genitive subject	
Locative case suffixed NP	= Locative subject	

Ergative subject:

a. ram-ne roṭi k^hα-y-i
Ram-3MS-Erg bread-3FS eat-perf-FS
'Ram ate the bread'.

Dative subject:

a. ram-ko muj^h-pər b^hərośα nəhi hε
Ram-3MS-Dat me-loc reliance neg be-pres
'Ram does not have trust on me' or 'Ram does not trust me'.

Experiencer Subject:

a. muj^h-se čəla nəhi ja rəha hε
I-1MS-Inst walk neg go cont be-prest
'I am unable to walk'. (PS: the case suffix is instrumental but the reading of the sentence is experiencer/dative).

Genitive Subject:

a. mer-a aṇa us-ko t^hik nāhi ləga
my-1MS-Gen come-inf him-Acc correct neg seem-3MS
'He did not like my coming'. Lit: 'My coming did not seem correct to him'.

Locative Subject:

a. muj^h-pər pərivar-ka boj^h hε
I-1MS-Loc family-Gen burden be-pres
'I have the burden of my family'.

Note:

1. The headings such as 'Genitive Subject, Locative Subject etc.' might not be considered as the grammatical subject of the sentence because the agreement phenomenon in some languages may not support these elements as the subject.

2. Also the issue of 'scrambling phenomenon' can put things under severe criticism, however, the case of 'dative subject and the ergative subject' can definitely be considered as the case of 'Non-nominative subject'.

3. One should be very careful about the notion of logical subject and grammatical subject in the discussion of 'Non-nominative subject'.

In many of the sentences, the grammatical subject is different and they are not in 'Non-nominative case'.

4. Students must try each of these sentences and check if all the seven criteria mentioned in the body text are met .

That 😊

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Subjects and Universal Grammar

An Explanatory Theory

Yehuda N. Falk

CAMBRIDGE

Table (2):

Relative Frequencies of the Order of S + O

Word Order	Languages	
	Number	%
SO	385	96
OS	17	4
Total	402	

Source: Ruhlen 1975

Word Order Distribution of Languages

Basic Word Order	Proportion of Languages	Examples
Subject-[Verb-Object]	42%	English, Indonesian
Subject-[Object-Verb]	45%	Japanese, Turkish
Verb-Subject-Object	9%	Welsh, Zapotec
[Verb-Object]-Subject	3%	Malagasy
[Object-Verb]-Subject	1%	
Object-Subject-Verb	0%	

Russell Tomlin, *Basic Word Order: Functional Principles*, (Croom Helm, London, 1986) page 22