Constituent Structure and Structural Relations: Overview

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Overview

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Tree Structure (AKA Phrase-Structure Tree, Phrase Marker)

A phrase-structure tree is a **diagram**, which exhibits the **syntactic structure** of linguistic expressions. Its basic elements are points and lines. The points are called **nodes** and the lines are called the **branches** of the tree. The nodes in a tree are labeled (e.g., NP, IP, V, etc.,) by names of syntactic categories (except for nodes at the bottom of a tree, but wait). The branches connect pairs of labeled nodes. A branch represents a simple structural relation between the pair of labeled nodes it connects. More complex structural relations may be represented in a tree by two or more branches in such away that a node at one end of a branch is **indirectly** related to a node at the end of **another branch** (as in the case of some precedence relations, wait now, see below). Any pair of nodes contained in a tree will be related by one of two different types of elementary relation, namely either by dominance or by precedence (which mutually exclude each other, see below). Dominance is the simpler of the two. Precedence is a little more complex (but still elementary, see above

and wait now, then see below). A tree structure has only one top node.

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For example:

(1)



Each node in the tree in (1) carries a label. The tree contains the following labeled nodes: A, B, C, D, E, f, g, and h.

The nodes at the bottom of a complete tree are terminal nodes: f, g, & h in (1). Non-empty terminal nodes are labeled with a lexical item (a word or other morpheme): f, g, and h in

All other nodes are **non-terminal**: A, B, C, D, and E in (1). Non-terminal nodes carry category labels: A, B, C, D, and E in (1).

The node labeled A **dominates** all other nodes. This is the top node. Node C dominates nodes D and E, but neither D nor E dominates C. Node B **precedes** nodes D and E, as well as g and h. Nodes can be **branching** or non-branching. Node A branches into nodes B and C; node C branches into nodes D and E. Node B is a **non-branching** node.

Mothers, daughters, and sisters

(1)

Two nodes B and C are **sisters** iff there is a node A (their **mother**) which immediately dominates both B and C. B and C are both **daughters** of A. A category X **immediately dominates** a category Y when X dominates Y and every other category dominating Y dominates X. In (1), A immediately dominates B and C, and C immediately dominates D and E, but A does not immediately dominate D or E, because C intervenes.

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Dominance

The relation between a category and its constituents: A category **dominates** all of its **constituents**. A node A dominates another node B iff A is higher up the tree than B such that you can trace a line from A to B going only downwards. When tracing downwards, you may (non-immediate dominance) or may not (immediate dominance) cross one or more intervening nodes between A and B.



The category VP in (1) dominates the categories V, NP_i, Det, and N.

VP **immediately** dominates NP_j, but it does not immediately dominate N since another category, NP, intervenes between VP and N.

V and NP_j are **immediate constituents** of VP.

Immediate dominance: A category X immediately dominates a category Y when X dominates Y and every other category dominating Y dominates X. **Immediate constituent:** When X immediately dominates Y, then Y is an immediate constituent of X.

The Dominance relation has the following logical properties:

- irreflexivity: A node does not dominate itself.
- asymmetry: If A dominates B, B does not dominate A.
- transitivity: If A dominates B, and B dominates C, then A dominates C.

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Precedence (or linear order of constituents)

Precedence is a binary relation between nodes in a tree. A **precedes** B iff A is to the left of B and A does not dominate B and B does not dominate A.



(1)

Node B precedes nodes C, D and E, as well as the terminal nodes g and h.

B does not precede f, since it dominates f. C, D and E do not precede B, since they are to the right of B. Also, A does not precede any of the other nodes since it dominates all of them. Node D **immediately precedes** node E: there is no intervening node between D and E, i.e. there is no node X such that X is preceded by D and precedes E. Node B precedes E, but does not immediately precede it, since there is an intervening node: D, which precedes E and is preceded by B. Node C does not count as an intervening node between B and E: although it is preceded by B, it does not precede E, since it dominates it.

C-command

C-command = constituent command. C-command is a binary relation between nodes in a tree structure

Strict c-command:

A category α c-commands a category β iff the category that **immediately dominates** α also dominates β , and neither α nor β dominates the other.

Or: A category α c-commands a category β if and only if the **first branching node** that dominates α also dominates β , and neither dominates the other.



C-command domain: The category that immediately dominates a c-commanding element α (= the minimal phrase that contains a c-commanding element α) is the c-command domain of α .

In the example, S is the c-command domain of NP_i and VP, and VP is the c-command domain of V and NP_j .

M-command

"m" in m-command stands for "maximal." The main difference from c-command is that we count only maximal projections.

M-command:

A category α m-commands a category β if and only if the **first maximal projection** that dominates α also dominates β , and neither dominates the other.

M-command domain: The smallest maximal projection that dominates an m-commanding element α (= the minimal maximal projection that contains an m-commanding element α) is the m-command domain of α .

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V in (3) m-commands both the NP *the student* and the PP *in the gallery* and what is contained in them.

The m-command domain of V is VP, since VP is the smallest maximal projection that contains V.

V c-commands (and m-commands) the NP *the student*, since the first branching node (V'_1) that dominates V also dominates the NP, but it does not c-command the PP *in the gallery*, since V'_1 does not dominate the PP, although it m-commands it, since VP dominates both.

P does not m-command V, because there is a maximal projection PP which dominates P and does not dominate V. Therefore, the m-command domain of P is PP, not VP, since PP is the smallest maximal projection that contains P.

Government

Government is a structural relation between a head of a phrase and its complement. A lexical head governs its complement in the phrase of which it is a head.

A lexical head is an X⁰ category and a complement is a phrase (an XP).



Binding

Binding is a coreference relation between NPs. An NP_i is said to bind another NP_j iff NP_i c-commands NP_j and they are co-indexed. An NP that is not bound is free.

Principles of Binding Theory

A. An **anaphor** is **bound** in its binding domain.

B. A **pronoun** is **free** in its binding domain.

C. All other NPs are always free.

Binding domain

The binding domain of α is the minimal phrase (NP or S) containing α and a possible c-commanding antecedent of α .



The following binding relations hold in (4) and (5): the NP *the boy* binds the NP *himself* in (4) and the (same) anaphor is bound by the NP *John* in (5).

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Head–Complement

The head–complement relation is a central notion in syntactic theory. It captures the following general insights:

- A head determines the properties of the phrase that contains it. (A phrase inherits certain of its grammatical properties from its head.)
- A head determines what else a phrase may/must contain in addition to the head.

Therefore, in general, we assume that

- every phrase is headed by some elementary syntactic category (V, N, A, Adv, or P) (= every phrase is projected by some head), and
- every elementary syntactic category heads a phrase (= every head projects a phrase).

These are very general assumptions about how morphemes of a language enter into phrase structure.

For example (3) VP V'_2 V'_1 PP V NP P' P P NPmeet the student in the gallery

- The V head of the largest containing phrase determines its category – this is why the topmost category is VP (and not PP, e.g., although VP contains a P; but this P is the head of a different phrase, PP, contained in VP).
- The V head *meet* requires an NP complement, cf.
- (6) a. *[vp meet] is bad, because it does not contain a complement.
 - b. *[vp meet [AP very hungry]] is bad, because it contains the wrong kind of complement (an AP).
 - c. [_{VP} meet [_{NP} the student]] is OK, because it contains a complement of the right sort (an NP).

All this because of grammatical properties of the V meet.

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A **complement** is a phrase (an XP, a maximal projection) that is sister to a head.



The NP *the student* is the complement of V in V'_1 and the NP *the gallery* is the complement of P in P'.

Adjuncts vs. Complements

Complements and adjuncts occupy different structural positions. A complement is sister to a head in a phrase (distinct from either), an adjunct is not. An **adjunct** is a **constituent** in an **adjoined position**.

For example



The constituent D in (7) and (8) is adjoined to A (as its sister), to yield another segment A_2 of the category A. In (7), D is adjoined to the left of A (left-adjunction), in (8) it is adjoined to the right of A (right-adjunction).

Contrast this with the complement position of C. C is complement of B in A (assuming that B is the head of A).

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PP in (3) is adjoined to V' (*meet the student*), to yield another instance of V' (V'₂, the same category, except a little "richer" than V'₁): $[_{V'}V'PP]$.

Adjunction does not "convert" a category into a different category, complementation does. <u>Adjunction</u>: [v, V' PP]. <u>Complementation</u>: [v, V NP]. Complements are typically **obligatory** constituents. Adjuncts are typically **optional**. Contrast:

	Complement (<i>the student</i>)		Adjunct (<i>in the gallery</i>)
a.	meet the student	C.	meet the student in the gallery
b.	*meet	d.	meet the student

Subject

The subject of a sentence is the category that occupies the specifier position of IP ([Spec, IP]). For example



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Object

An object is a **complement** which is selected and directly governed by a lexical head. **For example**



The NP *the student* is the object of the V *meet*. The NP *the gallery* is the object of the P *in*.