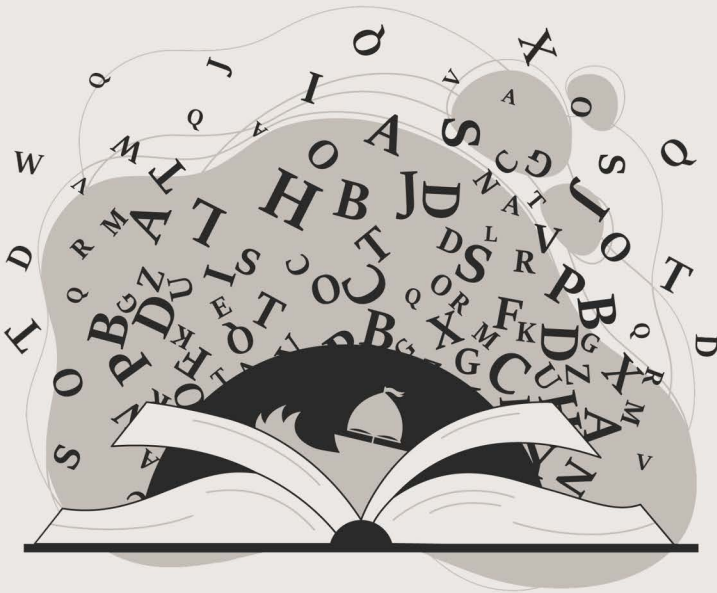




SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE

(AN ADVANCED GRAMMAR BOOK)



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PREFACE

Syntax is the field of linguistics that studies the structure and rules of sentence formation in a language. The purpose of this book is to provide a comprehensive and easy-to-understand introduction to syntax, with an emphasis on the generative theory developed by Noam Chomsky and his followers. The book also covers a variety of syntax topics, including grammatical categories, constituents, words, clauses, transformations, movement, and the role of syntax in language comprehension and production.

This book is intended for linguistics students, language teachers, and anyone interested in the study of syntax. This book does not require any prior knowledge of syntax, but a basic knowledge of linguistic analysis is assumed.

We hope that this book will be useful to readers who want to deepen their syntax knowledge and skills. We would also like to thank all the people who supported us, gave suggestions and expressed constructive criticism during the creation of this book. We recognize that this book still has many flaws and limitations, and we very much welcome the contributions and responses of all readers.

PematangSiantar, Desember 2023

Writer Team

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CHAPTER

INTRODUCTION

Books on syntactic structure have an interesting and important background in the history of linguistics. Chomsky is a central figure in the cognitive revolution, namely a paradigm shift in cognitive science that emphasizes the role of mental structures in understanding human behavior. Chomsky is also known as a political and social activist who criticizes US foreign policy and the global capitalist system.

His first book on syntactic structure was *Syntactic Structure*, published in 1957. The book on syntactic structure, was Chomsky's first work in the field of linguistics and was based on lecture notes he wrote for students at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in the mid-1950s. The book also introduces the concept of transformational generative grammar, which states that languages have a basic set of rules that can be transformed into more complex forms.

This book on syntactic structure had a major influence on the study of knowledge, thinking and mental processes, and was an important work for the emergence of the field of cognitive science. This book shows that language is a mathematical, precise, and recursive system that reflects the same characteristics of the human mind. This book emphasizes the role of innateness in language and suggests that humans have a natural ability to learn and use language.

Books on syntactic structure also show that language is a scientific object that can be studied objectively

and rationally. Books on syntactic structure have influenced many researchers and scientists in language-related fields such as psychology, philosophy, logic, mathematics, and other sciences. This book is a must-read for anyone who wants to learn more about Chomsky's linguistic theory and thought.

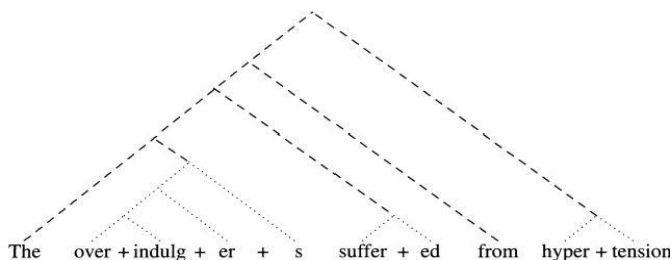
CHAPTER II

BASIC CONCEPTS IN SYNTACTIC LINGUISTICS

A. Delimitation Of Morphology And Syntax

The grammar component of morphology is limited to the analysis of individual word forms, but provides the basis for their syntactic composition in terms of their morphosyntactic categorization. The grammar component of syntax is limited to characterizing the composition of word forms into complex expressions, but depends on their morphological analysis.

Thus, the structural boundary between the morphology and syntax coincides with the boundaries between the word forms in the sentence surface: everything within a word form boundary is in the domain of morphology, while everything dealing with the composition of word forms is in the domain of syntax.



R. Hauser, Foundations of Computational Linguistics © Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2001

The tree structures of LA-morphology and LA-syntax both satisfy the SLIM-theoretic principles of surface compositionality(S)and time-linear composition (L).However, the time-linear adding of a complex word form like over+indulg+er+s in the syntax presupposes its prior time-linear composition in morphology.

Thus,even though LA-morphology and LA-syntax are based on the same structural principles,their components are separated in a modular fashion'because their respective time-linear compositions occur in different phases.This particular correlation of syntactic and morphological composition is in concord with the traditional view according to which complex morphological structures originate historically as "frozen syntactic structures"(H.PAUL 1920,Chapter 19).

The separation of LA-morphology and LA-syntax poses no problem even in border- line cases such as idioms.Critical cases can be handled either lexico-morphologically or syntactically because both components show the same incremental composition of surfaces and meanings₁.Which grammar component is appropriate should be determined by the structural properties of the phrase in question. For example,the phrase over-the-counter should be handled in the lexicon because of its use as a unit and its lack of internal variation,expressed orthographically by the hyphenation.The variant without the hyphens,on the other hand,should be handled in the syntax.

In German,a phrase like gang und gäbe² may at first glance seem to belong in the syntax because the phrase is written as three separate words.However,because gäbe is

like a bound morpheme which may not occur independently, the phrase should be handled in the lexicon. Technically, this may be achieved by an internal representation as *gang_und_gäbe*, treating the phrase as a single word form for the purposes of syntax. A syntactic treatment is generally motivated in idioms which (i) retain their compositional meaning as an option, (ii) are subject to normal variations of word order, and (iii) exhibit internal inflectional variation. As an example, consider German *seinen Hut nehmen*, which literally means to take one's hat, with the idiomatic meaning of stepping down from office.

Because this phrase obeys word order variations, as in *nachdem Nixon seinen Hut genommen hatte*, and shows internal inflectional variation, as in *Nixon nahm seinen Hut*, a compositional treatment in the syntax is the most appropriate. The idiomatic use can be handled by recording the paraphrase *stepping down from office* in the semantic representation of *nehmen*. Whenever this verb is used, the semantic component checks whether the object is *Hut*. If this is the case, the pragmatic component is provided with the paraphrase *stepping down from office* as an option.

1. This is in contrast to the nativist variant of generative semantics, which used transformations to syntactic deep structures, e.g., *persuade from cause to come about*.
2. This phrase is commented on in G. Wahrig's dictionary as "Adj."

B. Delimitation Of Morphology And Syntax

The nature of the morphology-syntax relation may be illuminated further by looking at different types of natural languages. This topic belongs in the domain of language typology, where synthetic languages with a rich morphology are distinguished from analytic languages with a rudimentary morphology. According to L. Bloomfield 1933, modern Chinese is an analytic language in which each word (form) is either a morpheme consisting of one syllable, or a compound, or a phrase word. An example of one syllable, or a compound, or a phrase word. An example of a synthetic language, on the other hand, is Eskimo, in which long chains of morphemes are concatenated into a single word form such as I am looking for something suitable for a fish-line (op.cit., p.207).

For Bloomfield the distinction between synthetic and analytic is relative, however, insofar as one language can be more synthetic than another in one respect, yet more analytic in another. As an alternative schema of classification he cites the isolating, agglutinative, polysynthetic, and inflectional types of morphology: Isolating languages were those which, like Chinese, used no bound forms; in agglutinative languages the bound forms were supposed to follow one another, Turkish being the stock example; polysynthetic languages expressed semantically important elements, such as verbal goals, by means of bound forms, as does Eskimo; inflectional languages showed a merging of semantically distinct features either in a single bound form or in closely united bound forms, as when the suffix *o* in a Latin form like *amo* 'I love' expresses the

meanings 'speaker as actor,' 'only one actor,' 'action in present time,' 'real (not merely possible or hypothetical) action.' These distinctions are not co-ordinate and the last three classes were never clearly defined.

L. Bloomfield 1933, p. 208

Despite the difficulties described,³ there remains the fact that some natural languages build up meaning mainly in the syntax (e.g., Chinese) and others mainly in morphology (e.g., Eskimo). This alternative exists also within a given natural language. For example, in English the complex concept denoted by the word form *overindulgers* may roughly be expressed analytically as *people who eat and drink too much*.

That meaning may be composed in morphology as well as in syntax provides no argument against treating these components as separate modules. A reason for their separation, on the other hand, is their being based on different principles of combination. Those of morphology are inflection, derivation, and compounding), whereas those of syntax are valency, agreement, and word order, as stated below.

C. Valency

The notions valency carrier and valency filler go back to the French linguist L. T. NIERE 1959, who borrowed them from chemistry. The valency positions of a carrier must be filled, or canceled, by compatible fillers in order for an expression to be syntactically and semantically complete. Prototypical valency carriers in the natural languages are the verbs. The verb *give*, for example, is a

three-place carrier because each act of giving necessarily requires (i) a giver, (ii) a receiver, and (iii) something that is given. This is the valency structure of the verb *give*.

The valency structure of a carrier is a basic, inherent, lexical property.⁴ For example, one may say *Susanne has given already* in the context of a charity. Despite the missing direct and indirect object, it follows semantically that there is something that Susanne gave and someone who received whatever Susanne gave. From the viewpoint of elementary propositions, valency carriers realize functors and valency fillers realize arguments in language. In addition there is the third basic type of (optional) modifiers. The systematic composition of valency carriers, valency fillers, and modifiers results in the functor-argument structure of natural language. It serves simultaneously as the basis of (i) syntactic combinatorics and (ii) semantic interpretation.

In LA-grammar, the structure of valency carriers is coded by means of composite syntactic categories, defined as lists of category segments. For example, the English verb form *ate* is analyzed as follows:

[ate(N'A'V)eat] The last segment (here V) is interpreted as the result segment, while the segments marked by ' (here, N' and A') are interpreted as valency positions. The category (N'A'V) represents a V-expression (i.e., results in a finite verbal expression) which requires a nominative N and an accusative A as valency fillers in order to be complete.

LA-grammar and C-grammar have in common that they describe the functor-argument structure of language in terms of valency positions which are canceled by appropriate fillers, whereby canceled positions disappear

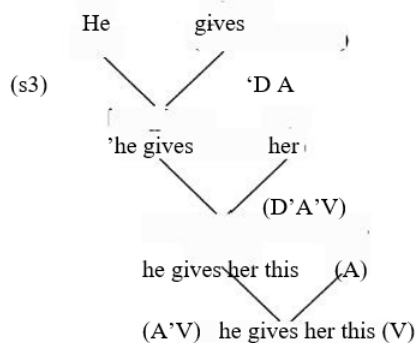
from the carrier category.⁵ Compared to C-grammar, which has only two rule schemata, however, the rule structure of LA-grammar is considerably more flexible and differentiated.

D. Agreement

The second combination principle of natural language syntax besides valency is agreement. Agreement violations are among the most obvious and most serious grammatical mistakes one can make in natural language, even though the intended meaning of the utterance is usually not really jeopardized.

A. AGREEMENT VIOLATION IN ENGLISH

Agreement interacts with valency in that a potential valency filler can only cancel a structurally compatible valency position. As a simple example of the functional interaction between a valency carrier and compatible fillers consider the following analysis of the sentence *he gives her this*, which shows the successive filling (and canceling) of valency positions in a left associative derivation.



The left-associative bottom-up derivation is represented in this and the following examples as a tree structure growing downward from the terminal string(input). The step by step canceling of valency positions is specified in the category of the sentence start, which shows at each step how many valency positions remain to be filled.

B. AN LA GRAMMAR

According to the start state STs, the derivation must begin with a word of category (S3) and the rule MAIN+FV (main constituent plus finite verb). The input condition of this rule requires that the sentence start must be of category (S3), which matches *he*, and that the next word must be of category (S3'D'A'V), which matches *gives*. The categorial operation of MAIN+FV cancels the S3' position in the valency carrier. The result category (D'A'V) characterizes a sentence start which needs a dative and an accusative in order to complete the semantic relation expressed by the verb. The rule package of MAIN+FV activates the rule FV+MAIN1.

According to the input condition of FV+MAIN1, the sentence start must be of category (D'A'V), which matches *he gives*, and the next word must be of category (D), which matches *her*. The categorial operation of FV+MAIN1 cancels the D' position in the sentence start. The result category (A'V) characterizes the new sentence start *he gives her* as requiring an accusative in order to complete the semantic relation expressed by the verb. The rule package of FV+MAIN1 activates the rule FV+MAIN2

According to the input condition of FV+MAIN2, the sentence start must be of category (A'V), which matches he gives her, and the next word must be of category (A), which matches this. The categorial operation of FV+MAIN2 cancels the A'position in the sentence start. The result category (V) characterizes the new sentence start he gives her this as an expression which does not have any open valency positions. FV+MAIN2 activates the empty rule package

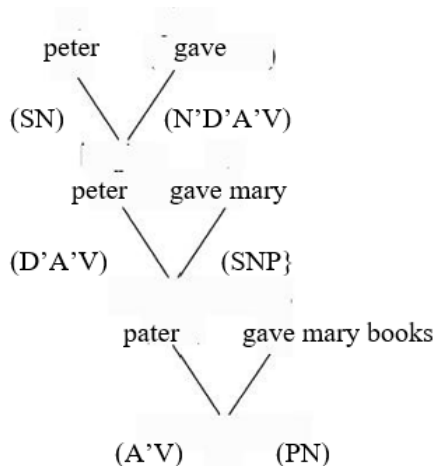
The final state ST_p characterizes the output of FV+MAIN2 as a complete sentence of the language' described by LA-Plaster. In an extended grammar, the sentence start he gives her this could be continued further, for example by a concluding full stop, an adverb like now, a subordinate clause like because she asked for it, or a conjoined clause like and she smiled happily. Thus, whether a given sentence start is a complete expression or not requires not only that its analysis constitutes a final state, but also that the surface has been analyzed completely. Even though LA-Plaster lacks the flexibility and generality that LA-grammars for natural languages normally strive for, it is fully functional as a parser, strictly time-linear, and descriptively adequate insofar.

C. FIXED WORD ORDER IN ENGLISH (LA-EI)

As in all natural languages, the verbs of English have an inherent valency structure. For example, by assigning the verb form gave the category (N'D'A'V) we express that this carrier requires a nominative, a dative, and an accusative to complete the semantic relation expressed. Compared to German, however, English has a fixed word order and a simple morphology. In LA-EI, the categorial pattern of the

valency carrier is (np'y V). The valency position to be canceled is decided by the carrier: it is the currently first position.¹⁶ This does normally not result in agreement conflicts because English noun phrases - except for a few pronouns - are not morphologically marked for case. For example, in *Peter gave Mary Fido* or *The man gave the woman a dog* there is no possibility of ambiguity or a case-based agreement violation.

The usual absence of case markings in English does not imply lexical ambiguity, which would be highly inefficient. According to the principle of surface compositionality, it implies instead that most English noun phrases have no case, as expressed by the filler segments SNP (singular noun phrase) and PNP (plural noun phrase). In as much as case is needed for semantic purposes, it is assigned to the English fillers by the respective valency positions they cancel. The definition-based handling of agreement! and the canceling of valency positions in the order prescribed by the carrier category is illustrated by the following derivation;



identity-based agreement and free word order.

LA-DI and LA-EI demonstrate that the elementary formalism of C-LAGs handles different instances of agreement as well as variations and restrictions of word order on a high level of generality, in linear time, and without a counterintuitive proliferation of rules, lexical readings, or additional components like transformations.¹⁸ The efficiency, flexibility, and parsimony of LA-grammar is due to its novel technique of matching variable-based rule patterns onto categorially analyzed input expressions using a strictly time-linear order.

CHAPTER III

PHRASES AND SYNTACTIC CONSISTUENS

A. Definition

Phrases and Syntactic Constituents are linguistic units that consist of one or more words that function as a single grammatical unit within a sentence¹. The constituent structure of a phrase or sentence refers to the hierarchical organization of the smallest forms of which it is composed into layers of successively more inclusive units.

- A phrase is a group of words that does not contain a subject and a verb and acts as a single part of speech in a sentence. A constituent is a word or a group of words that can be replaced by a single word without changing the grammaticality of the sentence.
- A phrase is a syntactic unit that consists of one or more words and has a specific grammatical function in a sentence. A constituent is a syntactic unit that can be moved, deleted, or substituted as a whole within a sentence.
- A phrase is a combination of words that forms a meaningful unit within a clause or a sentence. A constituent is a segment of a sentence that has a syntactic role or function and can be identified by various tests.

Within linguistics, a **constituent** is a unit of language that exists within a larger sentence. Constituents are a vital

part of Syntax, and each constituent must follow the general rules of Syntax. When we analyze the Syntax of a sentence, we conduct a process called Parsing, which involves breaking a sentence down into its constituents. Every sentence contains constituents - they are the essential building blocks that make a sentence a sentence. Let's now take a closer look at the definition of constituent.

Constituents are the units of language that work together to build a sentence. They can be morphemes, phrases, and clauses (we'll look at examples of each of these shortly). The vital constituents within a sentence are the subject and its predicate. A subject is who/what the sentence is about, and a predicate is the part of a sentence that adds detail or information to the subject (they usually contain a verb).

➤ Example:

1. "*The man with the old brown shoes is the manager.*"

In this example, we can see two constituents: the subject (*The man with the old brown shoes*) and its predicate (*is the manager*).

Larger constituents can be further broken down into their own constituents.

2. "*The man with the old brown shoes*" is a noun phrase that also contains the preposition phrase constituent "with the old brown shoes", This means that each sentence can contain multiple different constituents.
3. "the man with the old brown shoes is a manager"
"He is the manager", In the above example, we can see that the noun phrase "The man with the old brown shoes" is a constituent, as all seven words can be replaced

with the singular word he. We'll cover constituency tests in more detail later.

B. Function

The function of phrases and syntactic constituents is to build sentences that convey meaning and structure. Phrases and syntactic constituents can act as different parts of speech, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, etc. They can also serve as modifiers, complements, or arguments of other constituents.

- They can show the grammatical relations between the words in a sentence, such as who did what to whom, when, where, how, why, etc. For example, in the sentence "She gave him a book", the noun phrase "She" is the subject, the verb phrase "gave him a book" is the predicate, the noun phrase "him" is the indirect object, and the noun phrase "a book" is the direct object.
- They can express the semantic roles of the words in a sentence, such as the agent, patient, theme, goal, source, instrument, etc. For example, in the sentence "She gave him a book", the noun phrase "She" is the agent, the noun phrase "him" is the goal, the noun phrase "a book" is the theme, and the verb phrase "gave" is the action.
- They can indicate the syntactic category of the words in a sentence, such as noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, etc. For example, in the sentence "She gave him a book", the word "She" is a noun, the word

"gave" is a verb, the word "him" is a pronoun, the word "a" is an article, and the word "book" is a noun.

- They can modify the meaning of the words in a sentence, such as adding emphasis, contrast, comparison, specification, qualification, etc. For example, in the sentence "She gave him a book", the word "a" modifies the meaning of the word "book" by indicating that it is one of many possible books, not a specific or definite book.

C. Characteristic

Phrases and syntactic constituents have the following characteristics:

- They are built around a head, which is the word that determines the grammatical properties of the constituent. The head can be a morpheme, a word, a phrase, or a clause.
- They can contain other words or phrases that modify or complement the head. These are called dependents or modifiers.
- They can be identified by various tests, such as substitution, deletion, movement, coordination, etc. These tests show whether a word or a group of words can function as a single unit within a sentence
- They can have different syntactic functions, such as subject, predicate, object, complement, modifier, etc. For example, in the sentence "She loves him", the noun phrase "She" is the subject, the verb phrase "loves him" is the predicate, and the noun phrase "him" is the object.

- They can have different syntactic categories, such as noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, clause, etc. For example, in the sentence "She loves him", the word "She" is a noun, the word "loves" is a verb, and the word "him" is a pronoun.
- They can have different syntactic features, such as number, person, gender, case, tense, aspect, mood, voice, etc. For example, in the sentence "She loves him", the word "She" has the features of singular number, third person, feminine gender, and nominative case.
- They can have different syntactic relations, such as agreement, subordination, coordination, complementation, modification, etc. For example, in the sentence "She loves him", the word "She" agrees with the word "loves" in number and person, the word "loves" subordinates the word "him" as its object, and the word "him" complements the word "loves" as its argument.

D. Types

There are different types of phrases and syntactic constituents, depending on the head and the dependents. Some common types are:

- *Noun Phrase (NP)*: A phrase that has a noun as its head and can function as a subject, object, complement, or modifier of another noun. For example, "the Cheshire cat", "my dog Aristotle", "a book on the table".

- *Verb Phrase (VP)*: A phrase that has a verb as its head and can function as a predicate, a modifier of another verb, or a complement of a noun. For example, "bit the postal carrier", "mistakenly went home", "to read a book".
- *Adjective Phrase (AdjP)*: A phrase that has an adjective as its head and can function as a modifier of a noun, a complement of a verb, or a predicate. For example, "very happy", "tired of studying", "red and blue".
- *Adverb Phrase (AdvP)*: A phrase that has an adverb as its head and can function as a modifier of a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a whole sentence. For example, "very quickly", "too loudly", "fortunately".
- *Prepositional Phrase (PP)*: A phrase that has a preposition as its head and can function as a modifier of a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. For example, "on the table", "with her cousin's jacket", "after the party".
- *Clause*: A syntactic constituent that has a subject and a predicate and can function as a sentence, a modifier of a noun, a complement of a verb, or a coordinate of another clause. For example, "She loves him", "who just purchased a Jaguar", "that he was late", "and they lived happily ever after".
- *Determiner Phrase (DP)*: A phrase that has a determiner as its head and can function as a modifier of a noun, a subject, an object, or a complement. For example, "the Cheshire cat", "this book", "some milk".

- *Infinitival Phrase (IP)*: A phrase that has an infinitive verb as its head and can function as a modifier of a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. For example, "to see the world", "to be or not to be", "to err is human".
- *Gerund Phrase (GP)*: A phrase that has a gerund verb as its head and can function as a noun, a subject, an object, or a complement. For example, "seeing the world", "being or not being", "erring is human".
- *Participle Phrase (PP)*: A phrase that has a participle verb as its head and can function as a modifier of a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. For example, "seen by the world", "being late", "erring often".
- *Complementizer Phrase (CP)*: A phrase that has a complementizer as its head and can function as a modifier of a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. For example, "that he was late", "whether she likes it or not", "how to do it".

As we mentioned, constituents can be morphemes, phrases, or clauses. The smaller constituents (e.g., morphemes) combine to form larger constituents (e.g., phrases), which can again combine to form larger constituents (e.g., clauses or Predicates).

- ***Morphemes***

Morphemes are the smallest unit of lexical units; they can be free (can stand alone) or bound (cannot stand alone). In simple terms, free morphemes are individual words that cannot be broken down