

QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLEMENT CLAUSES

RMA-UvA 2008–2009 seminar Perspectives on Universals I

Practical issues

(i) For the processing of the data at a later stage it is essential that each example is provided with a full interlinear morphemic translation, following the *Leipzig Glossing Rules*.

(ii) It is important to use a unicode font when typing in the examples, so that the material is portable from one computer to the other.

(iii) A piece of information that is essential is a precise indication of the source of the examples. If the example is from a grammar, give the reference including the page number where you found the example using the format Name (Year: Page). If the example is provided by an informant, give the name of the informant using the format Name (pers. comm.)

(iv) If you do not have an answer to some question in the questionnaire, please indicate explicitly whether this is because you could not find an example or because the construction is impossible in the language concerned.

Questionnaire

1. General information

Language:

Sources (reference grammars and informants):

Data collected by:

Basic Constituent Order:

2. Complement clause types

This first part of the questionnaire is meant to lead to a description of the full range of expression formats used for complement clauses in the language. In order to arrive at comparable descriptions of the systems of complementation of all languages studied, a unified set of classifying parameters will be used. These classifying parameters are hierarchically organized, in such a way that each expression format can be provided with a numerical code indicating its position in the hierarchy. The result is the following taxonomy.

1. DIRECT SPEECH
2. NON-DIRECT SPEECH
 - 2.1 FINITE
 - 2.1.1 SUPERORDINATE MOOD
 - 2.1.1.1 INDICATIVE
 - 2.1.1.2 IMPERATIVE
 - 2.1.1.3
 - 2.1.2 SUBORDINATE MOOD
 - 2.1.2.1 SUBJUNCTIVE (Please indicate form relations with other moods and tenses)
 - 2.1.1.2 CONDITIONAL
 - 2.1.1.3 etc.
 - 2.2 NON-FINITE
 - 2.2.1 VERBAL
 - 2.2.2 NOMINAL
 - 2.2.3 MIXED

Each of the splits in this taxonomy is explained below:

1 / 2 DIRECT VERSUS NON-DIRECT SPEECH

The distinction between direct and non-direct speech will in general be easy to make. The basic criterion is that in subordination of direct speech the deictic pointers of the original utterance remain unaffected, whereas in non-direct speech they are adapted to the current speech situation:

DIRECT SPEECH

(1) He said: "I will go there"

INDIRECT SPEECH

(2) He said that he would come here

2.1/2.2 FINITE VERSUS NON-FINITE CONSTRUCTIONS

The basic criterion for finiteness is that the subordinate verb form in finite constructions is one that (i) allows the encoding of (most of) the categories characteristic of main verbs (Tense, Mood, Aspect, Person), while (ii) these categories are encoded on the subordinate verb form in the same way as they are on main verbs.

2.1.1/2.1.2 SUPERORDINATE VERSUS SUBORDINATE MOOD

A superordinate mood is one that can be used in main clauses, a subordinate mood one that can be used in subordinate clauses only, or with very few exceptions. In a subordinate mood the expression of tense and aspect distinctions may be more restricted than in a superordinate mood in the same language.

2.2.1/2.2.2 NON-FINITE FORMS

The classification of non-finite forms is complicated by the fact that each grammatical tradition uses its own terminology, where what is called e.g. a 'gerund' in a grammar of one language may be something totally different from the form that carries the same name in the grammar of another language. In order to avoid this type of confusion I here classify non-finite forms on the basis of the functions they may fulfill in the construction of clauses and noun phrases. The syntactic functions to be recognized are the following:

Verbal: A verbal non-finite form is one that can be used as the head of a non-finite construction, while having the governing properties of the corresponding finite verbal form.

Nominal: A nominal non-finite form is one that can be used as the head of a non-finite construction, while having (at least some of) the governing properties typical of nouns.

There are two important points to be noted with respect to this classification:

(i) Only those forms that can be formed productively in the language concerned should be considered, not lexical forms the formation of which is limited to a restricted number of items.

(ii) Non-finite verbforms may often be used in more than one of the functions listed here. Consider for instance the following examples:

- (3) a *Verbal*
The girl started smok-ing a cigarette
b *Nominal*
The girl's smok-ing of a cigarette irritates me

In order to deal with the polyfunctionality of non-finite verbforms these have to be classified for each of their functions, since for each of these functions the non-finite verbform may show a different syntactic behaviour.

2.2.1/2.2.2/2.2.3 VERBAL AND NOMINAL NON-FINITE FORMS

In order to determine whether a non-finite verbform is nominal or verbal, three of its properties are particularly relevant:

- (a) encoding of the arguments of the non-finite form (in so far as these can be expressed):
- nominal encoding: genitive, possessive, or associative case forms or adpositions on the arguments, and/or possessive markers on the non-finite verbform.
 - verbal encoding: other case forms or adpositions (nominative, absolutive, ergative, ...) on the arguments, and/or object markers on the non-finite verbform.
- (b) encoding of manner expressions:
- nominal encoding: adjectival modifier.
 - verbal encoding: adverbial modifier.

Consider the following example:

- (4) I dislike John's careless driving of the car.

The productively formed non-finite verbform *driv-ing* has three properties typical of nouns: (a) the subject *John* is in the possessive rather than the nominative case, the object *the car* is introduced by the possessive preposition *of* rather than being in the accusative case, (b) the verbform is modified by the adjective *careless* rather than by the manner adverb *carelessly*. Thus the subordinate verbform in (4) behaves like a noun in these different respects and should be classified as a nominal form.

Now consider the following example:

- (5) It is necessary for John to drive the car carefully.

The productively formed non-finite verbform *driv-e* has none of the nominal properties mentioned above: (a) the subject is introduced by the preposition *for*, which is not typical of the nominal domain, the object is in the accusative case, and (ii) the verbform is modified by an adverb. Thus the subordinate verbform in (5) behaves like a verb in these different respects and should be

classified as a verbal form.

The distinction between nominal and verbal forms is not always as clearcut. Consider example (6):

(6) I dislike John's carelessly driving the car

In this example only one of the nominal characteristics of (4) is retained: the subject is expressed in the possessive case. The object is now in the accusative case, and the subordinate verbform is modified by an adverb. Thus the subordinate verbform in (6) has both nominal and verbal characteristics. It is important to note that for the classification of non-finite subordinate constructions asked for in the questionnaire these intermediate forms should be listed as mixed ones.

FURTHER SUBDIVISIONS

Within most of the categories discussed above further subdivisions may be necessary. These can be added to the categories as needed

Question

Please list all possible complement clause types using the classification provided above. Provide examples of these complement clause types.

3. Alternatives for complement clauses

In some languages the following construction types are used **systematically** as complementation strategies, i.e. alternatives for complement clauses:

- Serial verb constructions
- Quotative constructions
- Relative constructions
- Appositional constructions
- Adverbial constructions
- Paratactic constructions

A construction is used systematically as a complementation strategy if (i) there is no complement clause type available or (ii) it is used frequently as a substitute for an existing complement clause type.

Question

If your language uses one or more of the construction types listed above systematically as a complementation strategy please list them here and provide examples.

4. Complement clauses and complementation strategies

Questions

For each of the classes of complement-taking predicate listed below please specify:

- (i) The complement clause type (given under 2) by means of which it can be realized.
- (ii) If (i) does not apply, or does not apply uniquely, the complementation strategy that is used as an alternative.
- (iii) An example sentence with a morpheme translation illustrating this use of the complement clause type or the complementation strategy.

In those cases in which more than one complement clause type or complementation strategy is used, please repeat this procedure until all complement clause types and complementation strategies used with this particular type of CTP are described.

If a complement clause may occupy different positions within the main clause, please indicate so and give examples.

If the complementizer may occupy different positions with respect to the complement clause, or may be dropped, please indicate so and give examples.

Please note

Complement taking predicates are classified in terms of their semantics, and may be instantiated by nouns, verbs, adjectives

Please choose your examples in such a way that it becomes clear whether or not there is tense copying in the language

1 **Utterance predicates: direct speech** (say)

2 **Utterance predicates: indirect speech: assertion** (affirm, tell, say)

3 **Utterance predicates: indirect speech: question** (ask, say)

4 **Utterance predicates: indirect speech: order** (order, tell, say)

5 **Utterance predicates: indirect speech: promise** (promise, threaten)

- 6 **Propositional attitude predicates: positive** (believe, think)
- 7 **Propositional attitude predicates: supposition** (assume, suppose)
- 8 **Propositional attitude predicates: negative** (doubt, wonder)

- 9 **Predicates of knowledge** (know)
- 10 **Predicates of acquisition of knowledge** (realize, learn)
- 11 **Predicates of loss of knowledge** (forget)

- 12 **Predicates of fearing** (be afraid, fear)

- 13 **Predicates of certainty** (be certain)
- 14 **Predicates of possibility** (be possible)

- 15 **Predicates of pretence** (pretend, act as if)
- 16 **Predicates of dreaming** (dream, imagine)

- 17 **Predicates of occurrence** (happen, occur)

- 18 **Desiderative predicates (wishing)** (wish)
- 19 **Desiderative predicates (hoping)** (hope)
- 20 **Desiderative predicates (wanting)** (want, intend, etc.)

- 21 **Commentative predicates** (regret, be happy that)

- 22 **Manipulative predicates** (force (someone to do something))
- 23 **Impediment predicates** (prevent/stop (someone from doing something))
- 24 **Achievement predicates** (manage, try)

- 25 **Immediate perception predicates** (see/hear something happening)

- 26 **Aspectual predicates** (begin, continue)
- 27 **Modal predicates** (be able to, have to)