CHAPTER 2
SURVEY OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents the Survey of Literature on Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase; their structure and functions. The chapter is divided into three parts; the first part of the chapter focuses on the Survey of Noun Phrase and the syntactic phenomena of nominal modifiers, which includes both pre-nominal and post-nominal like articles, demonstrative, adjectives, and relative clause structures. The second part discusses literature on Verb Phrase and verbal elements that includes tense and aspect, agreement and also the syntactic relation between verbs with their modifiers, adverbs. The third part is a Survey of works done on Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase in Khasi.

2.1. The Grammatical Concept of Phrase

According to Radford (1998), a grammar of the language is the competence of the native speaker of the language. Only a fluent native speaker of the language will know the proper formation and structure of sentence as he is well acquainted with the grammar of the language or the set of grammatical rules is already present in his intuition. Hence the task of the linguist as the author states in devising a grammar of a language is to formulate a finite set of syntactic, semantic, phonological and morphological rules which will generate the infinite set of well-formed sentence structures in the language. Further Radford (1998) is of the opinion that a Sentence is constructed from two set of categories i.e. word level like nouns, verbs, adjective, adverb, determiner, etc and phrase level like noun phrase, verb phrase, adverb phrase, positional prepositional phrase. These different words or categories combine together to form phrases, and phrases combine together to form sentences. He also explains that a phrase is a constituent inside a sentence, for example in a sentence a phrase
joins with the verb to make it one long complete sentence. Phrases have their own different functions in a sentence they are used as subjects, objects, complements, modifiers or adverbials. Every phrase has a central or main constituent which is called the head. These headed phrases include nouns, verbs, adjective, adverbs, etc, and these phrases are recognize by their heads like a noun-phrase is recognized by a head noun, and a verb-phrase is recognized by a head verb etc. According to Matthew (1981:146) a phrasal construction can be defined as any construction which has a head and a phrase as any unit which exhibits such a construction. For example a noun is the head of noun phrase, similarly the main verb is the head in a verb phrase, an adjective in an adjective phrase an adverb in an adverb phrase etc. The notion of a head is therefore independent of the main types of dependency within the phrase. Further Radford (2004) points out that a phrase is a combination or merging of two words or constituents together in which one word is the head example verb or noun and the other constituent may be its modifier. Tallerman (2005) also claims that the head is the most important word in the phrase. The author gives two reason as to why the head is the most important word in a phrase (2005:94) First, he says, it bears the crucial semantic information: it determines the meaning of the entire phrase; second, the head is the only word that has the same distribution in the entire phrase and the third property of the head is that it is an obligatory item in the phrase. The occurrence of head may be in the initial position like English or in the final position like Japanese, Turkish etc.

2.2 Phrase Structure Grammar

point out the reason as to the introduction of phrase structure rules which was introduce to study how constituents and different elements of sentence group together or join or combine together to form one complete and grammatical sentence. Brown and Miller (1982) also show that this phrase structure rule is of two forms or sorts: the X-->Y form which they called it context-free and the other is called context-sensitive as how is X represents depends on the symbols occurring with it. According to Haegeman (1991:83) phrase structure aims at bringing out the common properties of the different types of syntactic constituents such as NP, VP etc. The Haegeman (1991) further describes phrasal constituents like NP, VP, are lexically determined. These phrasal Constituents Verb Phrase or Noun Phrase, Preposition Phrase or Adjective Phrase have heads which are headed by the main or central element of the phrase they belong to: example a VP is headed by V, NP is headed by N, PP is headed by P etc. Cook and Newson (1996:4) are of the opinion that the study of phrase structure started since the 1930s. Linguists were of the assumption that sentences consist of phrases which are structural groupings of words leading to the conclusion that sentences have phrase structure making it possible for a sentence to be broken into phrases example NP and VP and these phrases does not end in phrases itself but they also contain other elements or smaller constituents that helps in the formation of a single phrases. The sentences cannot just be broken into phrase, it goes through a process of analysis called the phrase structure analysis then the phrase is extract and it is further broken into smaller constituents. The phrase and its constituents are represented in a tree diagram or through labeled bracket. The tree diagram below shows the representation of the sentence

i) *The child drew an elephant*
The child drew an elephant (fig. 2)

According to Fukui (2006:9) phrase structure rules express the basic structural facts of the language in the form of “phrase markers.” ii) The sentence the boy solved the problem is represented in the following tree diagram according to the rule of the phrase structure that follows.

Phrase structure rules:

i. \( S \rightarrow NP \,VP \)

ii. \( VP \rightarrow VN \)

iii. \( NP \rightarrow D+N \)

iv. \( D \rightarrow \text{the} \)

v. \( N \rightarrow \text{boy} \)

vi. \( N \rightarrow \text{problem} \)
vii. V-solved

For example the phrase marker in the tree diagram is generated by the phrase structure rules which indicates that the largest constituent, whose label is S, is made up of a constituent NP preceding the other constituents VP; that the NP consist of two constituents, determiners and noun; and that the VP is composed of verb and NP.

2.3. Functions of Nouns

There are ten functions of nouns and noun phrases in English are subject, direct object, indirect-object, object complement, prepositional complement, and noun phrase modifier, determinative, appositive, and adverbial.

2.4. The Structure of Noun Phrase

In a Noun Phrase the head is the noun that can be of different types of nouns and pronouns. Noun phrase includes elements like determiners, complements and modifiers, adjectives, preposition and different pronouns like personal pronoun, indefinite pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, reflexives pronouns interrogative pronoun, possessive pronoun. Noun phrase may consist of just one unit i.e a NOUN or two units DETERMINER + NOUN (Thomas 1993:81).

Sinclair (1972:168) discusses on the modifiers of Noun Phrase where a noun can modify a noun like in compounding nouns in which it operates as a single word. Sinclair (1972) also mentions that modifiers of Noun Phrases are of two types; pre-modifiers and post-modifiers. Modifiers that occur before the head noun are term as pre-modifiers. Examples of pre-modifiers in English are quantifiers; determiners which include deictic, definite and indefinite articles non-referring and possessive. Determiners are close class words they occur within a Noun Phrase to modify the noun, an adjective is also a noun modifier. On the other hand Post-modifiers are
modifier that occurs after the head noun. Example of post-modifier in English is a relative clause.

Leech along with Deuchar and Hoogenraad (1982: 57) state that Noun Phrase has the noun, pronoun, etc as a head. It also has both pre-modifier and post-modifier: pre-modifier includes determiners, adjectives, nouns, genitive phrases etc. Post-modifiers include prepositional phrase, and relative clauses and other modifiers like adjectives, adverbs and noun phrases. Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad (1982) also claim that in English post-modification there is in principle no limit to the length of Noun Phrases. Pronouns and determiners falls under word classes which are close class word in the Noun Phrase, but their functions are different; pronouns that function as heads include personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, Wh-pronouns, etc. On the other hand, determiners like articles, demonstrative-determiners, Wh-determiners, etc. function as modifiers.

Haegeman and Wekker (1985: 36) discuss that if a constituent has as its central element a noun or if the focus is on the noun particularly but not on the other elements the constituents is labeled as Noun Phrase where the noun is the head of the Noun Phrase. The NP or the Noun Phrase also has other elements before and after it. Some elements before the Noun Phrase like the, a, etc appears before the head noun but it is not that they take the place of the head noun but they just specify the Noun Phrase so they are term as specifiers of the Noun Phrase. Further Haegeman and Wekker (1985) also mention that there are other grammatical categories which precede the head and these are called or termed as determiners; determiners may be pre-determiner central determiner or post determiner and they functions as specifiers. Adjectives phrase may also precede the head noun as they are also modifier of the head Noun. Haegeman and Wekker (1985) also discuss on pronouns and their functions. As repetition of Noun
Phrase everywhere is unnecessary so to solve this, pronouns are use instead of Noun Phrase repetition. Pronouns like *him, her* are used to avoid repetition of Noun Phrase, these are termed as personal pronoun not all personal pronoun are the same they differ according to the number of persons, and gender. Pronouns can either be free inside a sentence or bound, So Wekker and Haegeman(1985) term pronouns which are bound as closed sets and free as open classes. Noun Phrase also has elements after the head and these are call as post-modifiers. Relative-clause is an example. The relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun. It plays an important role in post- modifying the head noun as it follows the head noun. The following diagram shows the structure of Noun Phrase in English as developed by Wekker and Haegeman(1985):

(Table 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>category</th>
<th>Pre-determiner</th>
<th>Central. determiner</th>
<th>Post-determiner</th>
<th>AdjP/…</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>S/PP/…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Poss pronoun</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dem pronoun…</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function Specifier</td>
<td></td>
<td>Premod</td>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Postmod</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wekker and Haegeman(1985)

Jackendoff (1991) discusses on the specifiers of NP, according to their syntactic and semantic properties.

Burling (1992) discusses on the similarity and variation of Noun Phrases in two languages i.e., English and Garo. According to Burling (1992: 257) all languages have noun phrases that serve in semantic roles such as agent, patient and instrument, and
that can act as subjects and objects of verbs. The author mentions that Noun phrases have additional constituents including determiners, numbers, possessives, adjectives, and relative clauses. He then divides these constituents or elements into different sub-heading and explains citing examples from both languages showing the similarities and variations cross-linguistically.

Lucy (1992) discusses the contrast of number marking of Noun Phrases in two languages i.e., English and Yucatec. According to Lucy (1992:24) nominal number marking involves various indications of the multiplicity, number, quantity, or amount of some object of noun phrase reference relative to a predication. Lucy (1992) mentions that Noun phrase is marked for number both in English and Yucatec and plural is marked by inflection in both the language and singular is marked by adjectival modification (determiners and/or quantitative adjectives) but overt expression is more important and obligatory in English and optional in Yucatec. English obligatorily marks plural for a wide range of lexical noun phrases whereas Yucatec optionally marks plural for a relatively small range of lexical noun phrases.

Jarvie (1993) shows that the important word in a Noun phrase is either a noun or a pronoun accompanied by determiners or modifiers and if the modifiers occur before the noun it is called pre-modifiers and if they occur after they are called post-modifiers, Relative clause usually take this position.

Jacobs (1995), gives a detailed description of Noun phrase Firstly, he discusses the structure of Noun phrase where it consist of determiner, complements, modifiers like prepositional phrase, adjective phrase etc. Secondly he discusses the functions of all the elements in the Noun phrase. Noun phrases are always built around a central noun, but they can have several additional constituents, including determiners, numbers, possessives, adjectives, and relative clauses.
Brinton (2000:169) shows that a sentence having a subject as its main element and this element appears to be a noun with its modifiers belongs to a phrasal category called Noun phrase where a noun can stand alone as a subject and also a pronoun can replace an entire noun phrase. Brinton (2000:169) also states that in a Noun phrase the noun is the obligatory element and is the head of all the other elements whereas the other elements are either optional or act as modifiers like adjective phrase, prepositional phrase, etc. determiners functions as specifiers ‘making more precise or definite the phrase that follows’. Determiners consist of demonstrative, articles, possessive, quantifiers, etc.,

According to Wardhaugh (2003:36) a Noun Phrase is a construction that typically has either a noun or a pronoun as its central constituent and is also the head. Other constituent or constituents present in the noun phrase are termed as modifiers, i.e., they tell something about it or describe more about it or give extra information about the noun phrase Wardhaugh (2003) further mentions that all the nouns in whatever position they occur are Noun phrases (NP’s) and some nouns can occur by themselves as complete Noun phrases like proper noun and plural count noun but some Noun phrases have an initial constituent that occurs before them. These constituents that occur before the noun are called as the determiners such as the, a, this, some, my, etc. There are also elements that occur before the determiners which Wardhaugh (2003:36) terms as pre-determiners. E.g. all, both, once, twice, etc. Then there are other constituents that follow the determiners which he terms as post-determiners. Examples of these are cardinal numbers and ordinal numbers. He further regards pre-determiner and post-determiner as subclasses of determiners and that some may occur alone with nouns. Other components which can act as modifiers are also present. E.g.
are nouns, Noun phrases itself, Genitive nouns, Prepositional Phrase, Relative clauses etc.

According to Fabb (2005:55) the best test for a noun phrase is that it can be replaced by a pronoun. Noun phrases can also have another noun phrase at the beginning which can be a genitive NP or an NP in the genitive case. Fabb (2005) also mentions closed class words like the, a, that, these etc. These closed class words belong to demonstratives which differ from articles. Quantifiers which also appear before the noun phrase are closed class words and so also the numerals. According to Fabb (2005) a noun phrase also contains a Relative clause.

iii) I read the book which you gave to me.

The sentence [which you gave to me] is the relative clause; and the relative pronoun ‘which’ introduces a relative clause.

According to Lockwood (2002: 42), a Noun phrase shows the existence of a noun in a phrase and its function. The noun in a Noun phrase is a phrase that can function as either a subject or object it can also take several adjuncts. These adjuncts may either follow or precede the head noun. Lockwood also mentions that the structure of Noun phrase is not the same in all languages. For example, English is different from Italian. He points out two striking differences between the two languages:

1. The positioning of ordinary descriptive adjectives, and
2. The treatment of possessives in relation to the determiner function.

Dryer (2004) makes a cross linguistic study of Noun Phrase where he distinguishes the three types of noun phrases ; simple noun phrase, complex noun phrase and noun phrases where the head noun is not present or headless noun phrase. Simple noun phrase contains nouns or pronouns with modifiers like demonstrative, articles, adjectives, numerals etc. In simple noun phrase he gives a detail description of the
functions of the different elements present. Firstly, he shows that noun phrases in many languages contain a single word which is either a noun or a pronoun. He also points out that a noun or a pronoun can occur without a modifier or it can stand alone in a noun phrase and still remains meaningful and that there are times when a pronoun takes the place of a noun phrase.

Complex noun phrase contains more complex modifiers like genitive or possessive modifiers and relative clauses. Dryer concentrates mostly on functions of genitive or possessive and clauses. About relative clause the author states that languages vary as to whether the relative clause takes the same form as a main clause. In some languages, the relative clause does not modify the noun, but is a clause containing a noun phrase that corresponds semantically to the head noun in English translations. Such relative clauses are often called internally-headed relative clauses.

Tallerman (2005:38) discusses the relationship of Noun phrase with determiners: determiners occurs only with nouns and it usually agrees with the properties of the noun example if the noun is in the singular form the determiner will also be singular and if the noun is in the plural form the determiner is also plural and they may occur initially or in the medial position depending on the structure of the language. Tallerman (2005) also discusses the roles of Noun phrase syntactically and semantically. According to Tallerman (2005:40), the semantic role of a Noun Phrase depends on the semantics of the verb in relation to the Noun phrases which are its arguments having their own syntactic functions (grammatical relations). Tallerman also mentions case marking where nouns or pronouns are marked nominative case if they are in the subject positions and accusative if they are in the object positions, etc.
2.5. Case

Lyons dates the study of Case back to Greek and Latin and it was the Stoics who coined the word Case. According to (Lyons, 1968:289) case was the most important of the inflectional categories of the noun, as tense is the most important inflectional category of the verb and that it was restricted to one particular inflectional category. Lyons states that case in Latin is ‘fusional’ with respect to inflectional in the noun. He describes that the syntactic functions of the cases in Turkish are very similar to the functions of the cases in Latin, but, they are marked by a suffix which (under the general principle of vowel harmony) is segmentable and constant for all nouns (ibid: 291).

Haegeman (1991) argues that the overt realization of case in full lexical noun phrases is restricted to the genitive. The overt distinction of NOMINATIVE and ACCUSATIVE forms in modern English is still found in the pronoun system, though there is case syncretism in English. There are languages for instance English where the structural position in which the Noun Phrase is located determines its case: subjects usually have nominative case and object Accusative case. They are called structural case.

Examples:

iv) *He hit him
*v) him hit he

In sentence (iv) ‘he’ is nominative and ‘him’ is accusative. Whereas the sentence in (v) is ungrammatical as the nominative ‘he’ is reserved for the Noun Phrase in the subject position of the finite clause.

Giorgi & Longobardi (1991) said that the important characteristic of a Noun Phrase is case assignment, several languages distinguish various cases. Elements with Overt
case features are mostly pronouns. Overt cases like nominative case is mark for subjective pronoun like i and accusative case is mark for objective pronouns like me. Jacobs (1993) shows that different Noun Phrases are assigned case by special suffixes which he called case marking suffixes: like the subject is marked by a nominative case suffix, an object is marked by an accusative case suffix etc. Blake (1994) gives a detailed study on case where he said that case is a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear to their heads, he discusses on the types of case in different languages. Further he talks about two major case system i.e. Accusative case system and Ergative case system. He states that ergative system is often considered rare and remote, but in fact they make up at least twenty percent of the world languages. He discusses on the mixed system in which some language employ both ergative and accusative case, though it is rare for a language to have both. He further discusses about local case i.e. case which express the notion of location (‘at’), destination (‘to’) source (from) and path (through) apart from these cases Blake (1994) also mentions other cases like commutative, sociative, and instrumental.

Napoli (1996) is of the opinion that in any languages the subjects of the tensed verb is assigned case, the subject gets a particular case called the nominative case and the direct object case called accusative, such languages are called nominative-accusative languages. For example in English where case is either mark on the subject or object position and what is use in the subject position is not use in the object position, or case that is marked for the subject position is not the same as the case marked for the object.

According to Tallerman (2005) case is always a property not of the head noun, but of an entire Noun Phrase. She points out that there are some languages in which the head noun itself undergoes morphological changes as in Latin.
2.6. Relative clause as Noun-modifier

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968) are of the opinion that Relative clauses are embedded in the noun phrase or Relative clause is generated from a Noun Phrase. Relative clause follows the Noun Phrase not the noun. Jacob (1995) defines Relative clause as a clause which is linked to the nouns with Wh-form of the relative pronoun like whom, who. Jacob (1995) further shows that Relative clauses in English are divided into two major forms: the restrictive relative clause and appositive or non-restrictive relative clause. Comrie and Keenan (1977) study the universal properties of Relative clauses by comparing their syntactic form drawing examples from large numbers of languages. According to Keenan and Comrie (1977) for any syntactic object to be a relative clause, it needs to specify a set of objects, or the domain of relativization can be expressed by the head NP in the surface and the restricted sentence by a restricted clause. They also point out that different languages differ in the way a noun phrase is relativized or each language have different strategies of relativizing the noun phrase according to the position of the head of the noun phrase; if the position of the head occurs on the left then it follows a post-nominal relative clause strategy; when the head occurs on the right then it is prenominal relative clause strategy and when the head occurs within the restricting clause then it is internal relative clause strategy. They develop The Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH) to express the relative accessibility to relativization of NP positions in simplex main clauses.

SU > DO > IO > OBL > GEN > OCOMP.

Burling (1992:261) is of the view that Relative clauses are constructed from sentences so that they can be subordinate to another sentence. On the functions of relative clause in noun phrase Burling (1992) also mentions the work of Keenan and Comrie which concerns relative clause. Further Burling is of the view that a relative clause allows
constituents of any degree of complexity to be incorporated into a noun phrase. An entire sentence can be turned into a relative clause that modifies a noun phrase. Relative clause in a sentence is introduced by a relative pronoun, relativization differs from one language to another; some languages allow objects only to be relativized and in some languages Burling claims that it is possible to relativize subjects, direct and indirect objects but on no other noun phrase. Burling (1992) shows that languages which restrict relativization on other noun phrase allow free passivization where passives move noun phrases within a sentence. Many languages have passive constructions that allow nouns other than the original subject to move into the subject position and this makes it possible for other noun phrases to be able to be relativized in those types of languages. In conclusion Burling said that relativization and passivization, when used together, can achieve close equivalent results in all languages.

Hopper and Traugott (1993:190) show that Relative clause in English and Hittite behaves just like adjectives hence they are in some cases (called adjectival clauses). Since the process of relativization differs from one language to another. Hopper and Traugott (1993) referring to Keenan and Comrie’s Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (1977:198) are of the opinion that the accessibility of highly grammaticalized forms of NPrel from left to right on the hierarchy is a function of the tendency to integrate relationships that are frequently established, and that functions on the left of the hierarchy are frequently established because they are natural discourse collocations.

Palmer (1994:98) also refers to Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy of Keenan and Comrie (1997, 1979) and according to Palmer (c.f. Keenan and Comrie) any language
that relativizes on the object will also relativize on the subject, which led them to develop a full hierarchy:

(1977:60) Subject>object>indirect object>oblique>genitive>object of comparison

Like Burling, Palmer also argues that even though examples are used from many languages to support their argument there are some linguists who do not accept their claim (c.f. Fox 1987). Relativization is not the same in all languages. For example; in languages with ergative pattern the relativization does not follow the same pattern as a nominative or accusative language. Hence there are many differences in Relative clauses across languages.

Bache and Neilsen (1997) discuss on the pronouns which help in realizing object and complement in Relative clause where the pronoun in the restrictive relative clause can be dropped or omitted and the place of realization is taken by ‘zero’. Whereas in non-restrictive relative clause the objects and complements are realize by overt pronoun.

2.7. Verb Phrase

The main verb in a Verb Phrase is a head verb. The first verb may be an auxiliary, a modal or a lexical verb in which person, number and tense are marked. Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968) are of the opinion that a Verb Phrase constitutes more than one element but one of them is the main element i.e. the verb. A verb in a Verb Phrase is either an intransitive with no complement or transitive with complements like Noun Phrase.

Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad (1982) discuss on the structure and functions of Verb Phrase. They are of the opinion that structurally, Verb Phrase consists of two kinds of elements; a main verb and an auxiliary verb, where the auxiliary verb is usually optional and the main verb follows it. Hence, the structure of Verb Phrase according to them is as follows: {AUX}{AUX}{AUX}{AUX}MV(1982:66). On the
functions of Verb Phrase, they state that VP always acts as a predicator in the clause (1982:66). Wekker and Haegeman (1985) also emphasized on the same fact that the Head of a Verb Phrase is the verb itself and elements like Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Prepositional Phrase etc are complements of the Verb Phrase and these verbs complements, are said to function as Direct Object, Indirect Object, Predicative Complement, etc. Further, Wekker and Haegeman (1985) also argue that these complements of the verb are obligatory constituents and they are selected by the main verb or the lexical verb.

According to Thomas (1993) lexical verbs are the main verbs, whereas the auxiliary verbs are just helping verbs of the main verbs. Auxiliary verbs indicate modality, aspect and voice. Modality is divided into primary and modal auxiliary. Aspect is divided into progressive and perfect aspect. Tenses (present, past and future) are marked on the main verb itself or by using auxiliary verbs. Thomas (1993) mentions that there are different classes of verbs. These verb classes have their own functions and rules that are applicable for their possible occurrences in a phrase.

Palmer (1976) is of the opinion that transitive verbs are two place predicates and intransitive verbs are one place predicates.

Fabb (2005:31) makes two assumptions to show what is inside the verb phrase or what a verb phrase contains:

(i) The verb phrase contains anything which follows the verb within the same sentence.

(ii) The verb phrase contains auxiliary verbs which precede the verb (i.e. words like might, could, should, have, be and do) and the negation word or negative particle.

A verb phrase may be finite or infinite. A finite verb is marked for tense, and the tense marking is either marked for present tense or past tense, whereas an infinite verb
makes no distinction between present and past tense. Bache and Nielsen (1997) are also of the opinion that when verbs function as predicicators, they may be finite or non-finite. When the verb is in finite form it is inflected for present or past whereas in the non-finite, the main verb is preceded by an infinitive marker to. The Verb Phrase contains elements like a modal verb, progressive aspect, perfective aspect, and passive voice and can have the following order:

Tense (modal) (perfective) (progressive) (passive) VERB.

2.7.1. Tense

According to Hockett (1958), tense typically show different location of an event in time. He argues that English verbs are inflected only for a two-way tense contrast, present and past; future time is expressed by other devices. Lyons (1968: 305) says that tense is related to time and that its essential characteristic is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence of the time of utterance (the time of utterance being ‘now’). Lyons says that tense is therefore a deictic category, which (like all syntactic features partly or wholly dependent upon deixis) is simultaneously a property of the sentence and the utterance. However, Lyons (1968) does not agree with the supposition that the three-way opposition of tense is a universal feature of language, because tense itself, is not found in all languages.

Palmer (1976) also agrees that, morphologically, English has only two tense i.e. past and present. He points out that English in a real sense has no future tense, but paradigm like I shall, thou will (you will), he will then we shall, you will, they will is purely grammarian’s invention. He is of the opinion that shall and will are modal auxiliaries functioning exactly as can and may; will is used for functions of future time. Comrie (1985:9), discusses tense as a grammaticalized expression of location in
time; where he says that present tense refers only to a situation holding at the present moment, past tense is location in time prior to the present moment and future tense locates a situation at a time subsequent to the present moment. Thomas (1993) like Lyons, argues that there are only two tense in English: present and past. Thomas (1993) says that future tense does not exist in English but is indicated by the use of auxiliaries, while present and past tense can affect the form of the main or lexical verb.

Jacobs (1993) claims that tense is the grammatical marking on verbs indicating time, as the time when the verb is spoken of and that the study is actually on the forms used to represent the notions of time by languages i.e. the verb form. He also differentiate time and tense while tense deals with form, time deals with meaning. Languages have certain ways to express time. Jacobs (1993) also claims that English has only two tense systems consisting of past and present tenses while few languages have a three-tense system. Further Jacobs (1993) argues that past tense verbs need not refer to past time, and present tense verbs often do not refer to the time at which the sentence is uttered. He says that the major function of tense is still to locate situations in time relative to some fixed reference point. He introduces two types of time reference i.e. the absolute time reference and the relative time reference. Bache and Nielsen (1997) says that tense is an assignment which is expressed by situations in any particular time. Tense in English, is inflectionally marked in two ways by -s and -ed.

According to Givon (2001), tense involves the systematic coding of the relation between two points along the ordered linear dimension of time: reference time and event time. Givon gives three major tense divisions, plus a fourth the divisions are as follows:
i) **Past**: an event (or state) whose event-time preceded the time of speech. ii) **Future**: an event (or state) whose event-time follows the time of speech. iii) **Present**: an event (or state) whose event-time is right after the time of speech.

iv) **Habitual event**: an event (or state) that either occurs always or repeatedly, or whose event-time is left unspecified.

### 2.7.2. Aspects

Aspects refer to the way in which a particular state or event is expressed in the verb or how it is viewed, e.g. its beginning, middle, or end, or its duration, continuation, or repetition. English has perfective and progressive aspects in its grammatical system. The perfective aspect covers a period stretching into the past beyond whatever time is indicated in the tense of the verb. It is realized by the auxiliary verb have and the past-participle of the following verb. The progressive aspect is realized by the auxiliary verb be and the present-participle of the following verb. Aspects have to do, not with the location of an event in time, but with its temporal distribution or contour (Hockett 1958:237).

According to Lyons (1968: 313), the term aspect was first used to refer to the distinction of ‘perfective’ and ‘imperfective’ in the inflection of verbs in Russian and other Slavonic languages. Lyons (1968) claims that English has two aspects which combine freely with tense and mood; the perfect and the progressive combine freely with one another. He points out the presence of the habitual aspect in English and says that there are verbs which do not occur with progressive aspect which he termed as non-progressive verbs like think, know, understand, hate, love, see, taste, feel, posses, own etc. Perfect aspect is shown in the verb phrase by means of the verb have. When have is used to indicate aspect, the verb immediately following it must be in the past participle form. Aspect indicates that the action of a verb is either completed or
continuing. Givon (2001) discusses three Aspectual contrasts: Perfectivity, sequentiaility or relevance and immediacy is an inherent property of all lexical verbs (or predicate). He divides the verbs (or predicate) into four major groups in terms of their inherent aspectuality. The grammar of perfectivity involves primarily the binary distinction between the perfective and the imperfective aspects. The perfective is functionally the most complex and most subtle grammatical aspect. He gives four features of Perfect: anteriority, perfectivity, counter-sequentiality and lingering relevance.

**2.7.3. Modality**

Lyons (1968:307) argues that Mood, like tense is realized when the verb is inflected or by auxiliaries. He emphasizes that interrogative sentences stand in contrast to declarative sentences by virtue of modality. Apart from command and interrogative, he mentions three scales of modality which may be relevant in which the ‘attitude’ of the speaker is grammatically marked in different languages. The first scale is of wish and intention. The second scale is that of necessity and obligation and the third is that of certainty and possibility. According to Bache and Nielsen (1997:324) modality is a qualification of an utterance whereby the speaker operates with alternatives to the actual world. Bache and Nielsen (1997) further claim that it involves two kinds of non-factuality i.e. epistemic which is concerned with probability, and deontic which concerns desirability. They argue that modality in English can either be expressed lexically or grammatically. When grammatically expressed, it includes both subjunctive and imperative moods.

Givon (2001) defines modality as an attitude of the speaker towards any proposition, by attitude he mean the judgment of the speaker. He points out two judgments: Epistemic judgment and Evaluative (deontic) judgment.
2.7.4. Adverbs

Adverbs can be defined on the basis of derivational suffixes. Christophersen and Sandved (1969:60) argue that adverbs can be derived by adding the suffix -ly and the word very to the adjective but some words ending with the suffix -ly and may not adverbs but may be adjectives. In order to know which word is an adverb, Christophersen and Sandved (1969: 60) claim that any word derived from the positive degree of an adjective by means of the suffix -ly is an adverb if the resulting form in -ly is incapable of being compared, or in other words an adjective becomes an adverb if the word which ends with the suffix -ly remains in the positive form and there is no degrees of comparison like the ones present in adjectives. Thomas (1993:23) is of the opinion that adverbs add information in relation to circumstances of manner, time, or place or they answer questions of how? When? Where? An adverb therefore, acts as a modifier of the verb. Thomas (1993:24) argues that adverbs work to narrowly define the sense of the verb by telling something of the way it is done. For example:

Ken snores loudly. (Thomas 1993: 24) Adverbs not only modify verbs, they also modify noun phrase and adjective too. Adverbs are of eight kinds they are:

1. Adverbs of manner
2. Adverbs of place
3. Adverbs of time
4. Adverbs of degree
5. Adverbs of certainty
6. Adverbs of frequency
7. Adverbs of interrogative
8. Adverbs of relative
2.7.5. Agreement

Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968) are of the opinion that agreement in English are of three types i.e., the auxiliary agreement, the second includes verb agreement, and the third is the verb suffix. According to Corbett (1988), agreement is widespread and varied phenomena. He identifies three types of agreement features i.e gender, number and person. Corbett (1988) further points out that agreement in gender are widespread, in which the adjectives may also agree with their head noun in gender. The gender system varies according to languages. The second feature of agreement is number. Number system also differs from one language to the other. It can either be a two number system i.e. singular and plural or three i.e. singular, dual and plural. The third agreement is on person. Cook (1996) defines agreement in English as to whether the verb agrees with the subject in number and person, for instance, if the subject is third person singular the verb agree with the subject by taking the agreement inflection -s as in the following sentence:

vi) *He play-s the piano very well’.*
(Cook, 1996)

Napoli (1996:297) is of the opinion that English is a subject-verb agreement language. The following are some examples which he gives from English.

Examples:

vii) *I mow grass*  

viii) *John mows the grass.*

The ‘-s’ of mows tells us that the subject of this verb is third person singular, as well as telling us that the tense is present. Napoli (1996) also mentions that English lacks agreement inflections the only agreement inflection is found in the 3rd person singular of the present tense.
Lyons (1999:86, 87) discusses agreement in terms of definiteness; he is of the opinion that in some languages the definiteness of a noun phrase is expressed by an agreement marker. He mentions that languages like the Uralic languages have object-verb agreement for example Hungarian shows two paradigms for each transitive verb. He is of the opinion that objects agreement and subject agreement features are inseparably fused together, in all Uralic languages object-verb agreement applies only to definite objects. In some languages agreement is shown in the verb-subject agreement e.g., Bantu languages. Lyons further discusses agreement in terms of direct object where the verb agrees with the direct object and also where verbs agree with their subjects for person and number, and the agreement features corresponding to subject and object are fused together into a single agreement morpheme. On Verb-object agreement Lyons said that Verb-object agreement is often considered to be less common than verb-subject agreement and the verb-subject is more wide-spread than verb-object agreement but in some languages subject agreement is limited. He also points out that Verb also shows agreement in the indirect – object some languages have indirect- objects agreement where it is mark by a dative clitic. Again Corbett (2003 c.f. Steel 1987), says that the term agreement commonly refers to some systematic covariance between a semantic or formal property of one element and a formal property of another.

Radford (2004) discusses agreement in terms of C-command where tense auxiliary agrees with either a noun or pronoun (nominal), tense auxiliary agrees with the nominal only if it C-commands the nominal. According to Radford (2004) an auxiliary is first/second if it agrees with a first/second-person subject, but third person otherwise; it is plural if it agrees with a plural subject, but singular otherwise. This
means that a third-person -singular auxiliary can arise either by agreement with a third
-person-singular or it doesn’t agree with anything.

There is also the determiner agreement which include articles, demonstratives, and
quantifiers do agree with their NP complements in many languages, another sort of
determiner that clearly shows person agreement in many languages is the possessive
determiner, which merges with a specifier. Possessive determiners do agree with the
possessor in many languages. King and Dalrymple (2003) mentions determiner noun-
agreement where the determiner agrees with the nouns where singular determiner
goes with singular nouns and plural determiners go with plural nouns. Baker (2008)
discuss agreement of the lexical categories like nouns, verbs and adjectives etc. in his
discussion he developed a theory of universal agreement which applies equally well to
all syntactic categories which include nouns, adjectives, adpositions, determiners,
complementizers and also verbs. Baker (2008) universal theory of agreement shows
two result

(i) That agreement can be upward as well as downward;

(ii) Person agreement needs a more strictly local syntactic relationship than other
kinds of agreement do (ibid p.g:244).

He further argues that once the study of the different categories that shows agreement
is clear two typological results can also become clear they are:

(i) The agreement bearing functional heads behave rather differently from one
language to another with respect to the precise conditions under which they agree.
(ibid p.g:244).

(ii) all of the agreement bearing heads in a given language tend to work the same way
with respect to these conditions (ibid p.g:244).
2.8. Survey of literature on some linguistic works done on Khasi

This unit presents the review of existing literature on aspects of noun phrase and verb phrase in Khasi.

Nagaraja (1985) provides an exhaustive analysis of Khasi based mainly on structural model. He gives a brief discussion about the phonology and syntax of Khasi. In syntax, he discusses nouns and their derivations, pronouns, demonstratives, interrogatives and the different types of noun phrase. He also analyses verb class and verb phrase. Classification and description of adverbs and adverb phrase, prepositions and prepositional phrase are also present extensively. Finally, he explains the different functions of phrases and how sentences are formed in Khasi.

Sten (1996) discuss the different phrases in khasi using the phrase structure rules. He also discuss on clauses.

2.8.1. Noun Phrase in Khasi

Jyrwa (1988) presents a descriptive analysis of Noun phrase in Khasi and claims that a noun phrase in Khasi contains constituents occurring on both left and right side of the noun phrase. Constituents on the left of the noun phrase are called pre-modifying constituents and constituents occurring on the right of the noun phrase are called post-modifying constituents. This, she argues, is because “Khasi Noun Phrases are endocentric in nature.” The discussions and analyses done by Jyrwa (1988) focuses mainly on the modifiers, and their functions in the noun phrases. For example the study of Gender Number Marker (GNM) u/ka/ki/3sm/3sf/3Hon/3p as obligatory noun markers occurring immediately before a noun word; the study of pronominal adjectives where they may occur immediately before GNM; distributive particles especially in the reduplicated form example u/ka/ki/i+wei pa u/ka/ki/i+wei=u-wei-pa-u-wei ‘one after another’ quantifiers (cardinals) and quantitative adjectives like
baroh ‘all’ may co-occur with cardinal numerals and classifiers example baroh-ar-ngut ‘both’ khindiat ngut ‘few +human classifier’ etc. The post-modifiers include genitive clause marked by ba, la, jong, and la jong. Prepositional phrase also occur as post-modifier constituents, ordinal numerals also fall under the position of post modifying constituents related to nouns by ba.

Temsen (2006) discusses embedded clauses in Khasi which includes relative clause, adjectival clause, and adverbial clause and complement clause. Khasi has both finite and non-finite complement clauses. Apart from the other clauses discussed and analyzed Temsen (2006) argues that relative clauses in Khasi are post-nominal external relative clauses and the language does not have relative pronouns contrary to the claim of other scholars. The author also gives a detail study on the numeral classifiers of Khasi. Temsen (2006) classified classifiers in Khasi into sortal and mensural. Sortal includes both Ḟuṭ and tilli. Ḟuṭ is used for classifying [+human] and [+living] and tilli is used for classifying [-human] nouns and also for corpses. On the other hand mensural classifiers indicate measurement of countable or mass nouns. Where she categorizes each classifier differently and explains their positions and functions.

Bedell (2011) discusses on the syntax of Khasi questions citing examples only from the Gospel of John as found in the translated version of the Bible. The structure of the question sentences, possible occurrence of the question words, the question as to whether the question sentence is marked with a question marker or marked by intonation, are the main focus of his work

2.8.2. Case in Khasi

Case in khasi is discussed by Pryse (1855), Roberts (1891) Singh (1990) gives a very brief discussion about case in Khasi. He claims that there are eight cases in Khasi i.e.
nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative, vocative, and the case of instrument.

However, data provided in Singh’s (2008) do not seem to be acceptable by most Khasi speakers, as in the following example of instrumental case (c.f. Singh)

da u lum (by, with the hill)
lum here refers to a hill so a hill cannot be an instrument to be used for doing something. We can say e.g:

34) ṭa .eclipse da ka tari
   1SG cut fruit INS 3SGF knife
   ‘I cut fruit with a knife’

Kharmalki (1992) also discuss on case in Khasi. Where she points out that Khasi is not an inflectional language but case is an inflectional category (c.f. Lyons) so the study of case in Khasi are realized by preposition. She further discusses each cases, their position and functions in brief citing examples from the language.

2.8.3. Tense in Khasi

Robert (1891) argues that there are three tense in Khasi i.e. the present past and future. Although some authors like, Sten (1987) claims that there is no tense marker in Khasi which makes it a tense less language but it does have time markers. He supports his argument showing that verbs in Khasi are not inflected for tense as it does in English or in other languages that have tenses. Further Sten assumes that the use of auxiliary la in Khasi is not restricted to past time reference alone it is also use to refer to immediate future as well as in the following example:

ix) nga la wan
   ‘i am coming’

x) i pa i la wan
   ‘daddy is coming’
In sentence (ix) the respondent is in fact in the process of going to a place and in (x) the ‘daddy’ is in fact in the process of going to a place. He says that because the verb does not change its phonemic or phonological content when referring to the present and the past times, Khasi verbs does not have past tense. Robert (1891) explained that the future tense is indicated in two ways: First, by prefixing person, number and gender with yn, and Second by the use of sa but according to Sten sa belongs to a subclass of verbs known as modal auxiliaries which fit in the paradigm BE or HAVE in English. Kharmalki (1992) also agrees with Sten as to that Khasi is a tense less language but do have markers which mark time. These time markers usually occur before the main verb and they are used to mark past and future time but not the present, making the present time as unmarked. Jyrwa (1995) claims that there are two tense markers in Khasi, i.e. la marked for past tense and yn/n marked for future tense. Lyngdoh (2012) categorizes tense in Khasi into future and the non-future; where the non-future includes present tense and the past tense.

2.8.4. Adverbs in Khasi

Adverbs consist of the largest class of words in the Standard Khasi vocabulary. Pryse (1855) claims that there three adverbs in Khasi; adverbs of time, adverbs of place and adverbs of manner. Whereas Roberts (1891) is of the opinion that Khasi exhibits four types of adverbs; adverbs of time, adverbs of place, adverbs of manner and adverbs of certainty. Simon (1978) discusses adverbs in Khasi where Adverbs consists the largest class of words in the Khasi vocabulary. Simon (1978) distinguished the adverbs into six types: spatio-temporal adverbs, descriptive adverbs, adverbs of manner, adverbs of quantity, model adverbs and phonaesthetic adverbs. He further classifies spatio-
temporal adverbs into positional and temporal adverbs. Sten (1987) firstly discusses on the richness of the adverbs in Khasi language he then gives the position and function of the adverbs; that an adverb which follows the verb modifies the verb; when an adverb follows the adjective or nouns it modifies the adjectives or the nouns. There are instances where it precedes the verbs or noun or pronouns etc. Singh (1990) also mention four types of adverbs in Khasi which includes; adverbs of time, adverbs of manner, adverbs of place and adverbs of cause assertion. According to Shangpliang (2013) in Khasi language an adverbs can qualify the general meaning of not only a verb, but also that of an adjective. Further Shangpliang (2013: 84,89) claims that adverbs in Khasi not only qualifies the language but excite the senses of the speaker or reader to discern or apprehend the almost exact picture of a thing or an act described, thereby, reducing the lengthy description or attribution needed.

2.8.5. Agreement in Khasi

A descriptive study of agreement in Khasi has been done by Bedell (2011) where he shows that Khasi is a subject verb agreement language and that it also has agreement markers which are the articles u/ka. The present of agreement markers differs according to the persons of the personal pronoun. If the pronoun is in the 1st person the agreement marker is the subject itself or is covert unlike the 3rd person where the agreement marker is overt. Subbarao (2012) also claims that Khasi exhibits agreement but only subject agreement where the personal pronouns and agreement clitics are homophonous.

2.9. Conclusion

The overall conclusion that is drawn from the survey of literature is that every phrase has a central element that is the head which can either be a Noun in a Noun Phrase or a Verb in a Verb Phrase. The central element or the head is accompanied by different
elements or constituents which are either complements or modifiers and their position or occurrences can be before or after the head word. The relationship of these phrasal heads with their constituents depends on the structure of the language.