THE MORPHOSYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF CASE AND ADJUNCT IN ASSAMESE

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CERTIFICATE

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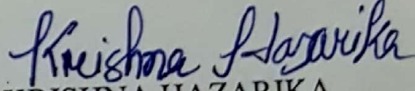Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi-110067

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This thesis titled **"The Morphosyntactic Analysis of Case and Adjunct in Assamese"** submitted by me for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy, is an original work and has not been submitted so far in part or in full, for any other degree or diploma of any University or Institute.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to

The memory of my late Grand Parents

Mr Moneshwar Hazarika and Mrs Sumala Hazarika.

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Again, I wish to pay a warm gratitude to my parents and the other family members for their unwilling love, unfailing support and blessings. I also specially thank my brothers Adittya and Abhijit for their love and best wishes.

Finally, I thank almighty for blessing me in every walk whenever I want.

Krishna Hazarika

List of Abbreviations

1	–	1st person
2	–	2nd person
3	–	3rd person
ABL	–	Ablative
ACC	–	Accusative
Adv	–	Adverb
Adj	–	Adjective
Cl	–	Clause
CL	–	Classifier
CP	–	Complementizer phrase
C	–	Complementizer
DAT	–	Dative
EMPH	–	Emphatic Marker
EPP	–	Exceptional Projection Principle
ERG	–	Ergative
FUT	–	Future
F	-	Feature
GEN	–	Genitive
GB	-	Government and Binding Theory
I	–	Inflectional head
INF	–	Infinitive
IP	–	Inflectional Phrase
MOD	–	Modal
MP	-	Minimalist Program
NF	–	Non-finite
NMZ	–	Nominalized
NOM	–	Nominative
PERF	–	Perfective
PRES	–	Present
POSS	–	Possessive
PROG	–	Progressive
PL	–	Plural
PST	–	Past
Rel.Cl	–	Relative clause
S	–	Subject
SG	–	Singular
TP	–	Tense Phrase
T	–	Tense head
uF	-	Uninterpretable feature
VP	–	Verb Phrase
V	–	Verb
φ	-	Zero

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Chapter 1

Introduction: A review of Assamese Language and Existing Literature

1.1 Overview

The main aim of this chapter is to familiarize the major Aspects of Assamese morpho-syntax along with a brief idea about the existing language. This chapter concern the typological features, most commonly based on phonological, morphological and syntactic feature. In phonological features we go through the concept of vowel/consonants distinction, whereas in morphological features morphology will be discussed in terms of grammar of word of a language. Again, as we observe syntactic features first we will concern with the word order features after that the major analysis related to this dissertation will be discussed step by step.

The first section deals with the existing structure of Assamese as mentioned above. The second section reviews a bit about the concept behind this dissertation by a review about existing literature in the work with the methodology as well.

1.2 The Assamese Language and Its Characteristics

Assamese is mainly the language of Assam spoken by speaker as vernacular and it's the official language of Assam. Assamese is also considered as a spoken language in states of the north-eastern India. So, except Assam, the other states of north-eastern India such as Assam are like Arunachal, Meghalaya, Nagaland also used Assamese. Assamese refers both to the language and the speakers. The word 'Assamese' is an English one based on the anglicized form 'Assam'. Natives call it ɔxɔmiya (ɔxɔm+iya) meaning 'belonging to Assam.' It is a descendent of the Magadhan group of the Indo-Aryan family of languages. Assamese as a first language is spoken by 15.3 million people and including speaker who speak it as a second language, a total of 20 million (as per Census Report 2011) used it specially

in the north-eastern state of Assam. It is one of the languages recognized and listed in the 8th Schedule of the Constitution of India. It gradually evolved from the Sanskrit language about the 7th century AD. Though, the language originated in 7th century but it is assumed that its influence on literature come in the early 14th century. From, that time onwards pure Assamese language with its structured forms evolved (Goswami, 1983). Assamese script is derived from Brahmi script but they used their own script that's Assamese script. The script does not bear any distinction between lower and upper case. Assamese script is syllabic and alphabets almost same as used by Bangla and Manipuri Language.

Assamese has quite a number of varieties and sub-varieties. Under this language several regional varieties are typically recognized. But in absence of proper linguistic survey in Assam the name of the varieties differs from study to study. Besides varieties a number of basilecsts have developed because of language contact with other TB languages surrounding Assamese; of these Nagamese and Arunachalese or Nefamese are widely known. There exists a chain of mutual intelligibility among them. So, Banikanta Kakati (1941) has divided the Assamese varieties into two major types. They are:

a) Eastern Assamese.

b) Western Assamese.

However, recent studies have shown that there are four variety groups under Assamese language, listed below from both varieties. They are:

1. Eastern Variety: Eastern varieties are distributed from Sadiya to almost Golaghat. Among them, the jorhotiya and xiboxagoria have the characteristic that differentiates all eastern variety from others is the tendency to not pronounce r-sound in informal situations. So, you would hear someone say "loa-suwali" instead of "lora-suwali" (**boys and girls**), "ghɔoloi jao" instead of "ghɔroloi jao" (**I am going home**)

2. Central Variety: The Central variety is spoken in Nagon, Marigaon, Sonitpur, and even in Lakhimpur and Dhemaji. The Central variety is spoken in Central Assam and the North Bank Districts to the east of Tezpur. The use of words such as kahanikoi, kahaniba, instead of katia '**when**' pase instead of pise '**instead of**' mithoi again instead of gur **'sugar candy'**etc.

3. Kamrupi Variety: Ranges in the old Kamrup district from immediately east of Guwahati to the boundary of old Goalpara district. This area also includes Mangaldoi and all of Darrang district. The Kamrupi variety is also called "Dhekeri" by some in informal terms.

4. Goalparia Variety: After Kamrupi variety Goalparia variety is another variety under western variety. This variety is specially, spoken in Goalpara, Dhubri, Kokrajhar and Bongaigaon districts.

So, Assamese is considered to be broadly contact language with it emergence as a lingua franca and enabling communication between Assamese communities in different areas to different varieties. In addition, Assamese has their several own mutually intelligible varieties; such as Borpetia variety, a variety that belongs to western part of Assam. Therefore, the description of Assamese attempted in the present dissertation must be considered as description of its standard variety; Standard Assamese closely related to the places Sivsagar, Jorhat, and Golaghat.

1.3 Typological Features of the Language
The typological study of linguistics is a subfield of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural and functional features. Typology distinguishes languages on the basis of different types, "to typologize languages, i.e. to assign them to different types, it is necessary that there should be differences among languages" (Comrie, 1989). Languages can be classified based on different kinds of criteria. The most common are based on phonological, morphological, or syntactical criteria. Like others Assamese language is also classified according to their typological features. Here in this section, we shall briefly discuss the idea

behind Assamese phonology, morphology, syntax and also try to present the phonological, morphological and syntactic characteristics of the language.

1.3.1 Phonological features

Phonology is the study of significance speech sound that incorporates to a language. In case of Assamese phonology, it has twenty-three consonants and eight vowels as segmental phonemes. Among all consonant phonemes, the voiceless velar fricative /x/ is a unique and typical phoneme in nature which is not found in any Indian languages. Then again, we found Consonant clusters that occurs sound initially, medially and finally. Clusters of two or three consonants may be permitted initially and medially, while clusters of two consonants only may occur finally (Goswami and Tamuli 2003). Out of the eight vowels the vowels in Assamese neither has short vowels nor has long vowels as it does not maintain the length distinctions among the vowels. They are nasalized when occur after any nasal consonant. In addition, Assamese as a language of parental family Indo European Family got a unique phonological feature that the language has lack of retroflex sounds. Instead it the language has all pattern of sound system, labial, alveolar and all unlike other Indo Aryan languages. Therefore, the vowels and consonants system of Assamese is as in the diagram below:

Table 1: Vowel System in Assamese

	Front	**Central**	**Back**
High	i		ʊ u
Mid	e		O
Mid	ɛ		ɔ
Low		A	

Source: http://www.languagesgulper.com/eng/Assamese.html

Table2: Consonants System in Assamese

		Labial	**Alveolar**	**Palatal**	**Velar**	**Glottal**
Plosive	Voiceless	p p^h	t t^h		k k^h	
	Voiced	b b^h	d d^h		g g^h	
Fricative	Voiceless		s	X		h
	Voiced		z			
Nasal		m	n		ɳ	
Liquid			l r			
Glide		w		J		

Source: http://www.languagesgulper.com/eng/Assamese.html

1.3.2 Morphological features

Assamese is a morphologically rich language. The morphology is largely represented by inflectional features. In the language secondary form of words are frequently obtained by merging of root words and by affixation. The form of inflectional and derivational morphology is achieved through affixation, and that is the use of prefix and suffix in the language. In Assamese, suffixes are more in number than the prefixes. Assamese suffixes are used with verbs to convey tense, person and with nouns and pronouns convey case, number, and gender too. They also go with other words such as adjectives and adverbs to indicate quality and quantity of a word. Apart from the inflectional suffixes there are several derivational suffixes too. There are three productive process of nominal construction is derivational morphology. They may as affixation conversion and compounding. The process affixation in derivational morphology includes both prefixation and suffixation.

Table 3: Set of Derivation Morphology in the Process of Affixation

Noun	**Prefix**	**Suffix**	**Derived Noun**
kɔrmi 'hard worker'	ɔ-		ɔkɔrmi 'lazy worker'
d^{h}ɔn 'money'		-i	d^{h}ɔni 'rich person'

Conversion another process where some adjective and verb sometimes plays as noun without any morphological change but based on the context and such type of noun construction is comes under conversion noun. As in

(1) ghɔr-tu-r   uschota   kiman as-e?

   house-clf-gen height how much be-3?

    'What is the height of the house?

Next, Compounding is a very productive way to formation of noun in Assamese language. The elements of noun compounding may be N+V, A+N, N+N etc. Such as:

(2) N+V - Pani 'water'   +loga 'want-NF'   Paniloga 'influenza'

   A+N -   bor 'big'   + git 'song'   borgit 'the noble numbers in Assamese'

   N+N-   xahitya 'literature' + xobha 'meeting'   xahityaxobha 'literary society'.

Besides these, we some other specific features that highly inflected in Assamese. They are as follows:

(i) Assamese morphology does not grammatically inflect for number and gender:

(ii) Definiteness in Assamese is expressed by a set of definitive morphemes that are suffixed to nominal, numerals and demonstrative pronouns. For e.g; tini-ta bɔstu 'three things'

(iii) Assamese genitive case marker is come between two nouns; (e.g:ram-ɔr kitap "ram's book")

(iv) The nominative and accusative cases are overtly marked

(vi) The agreement marker agrees with finite clause.

1.3.3 Syntactic features

This section presents a brief introduction about the syntactic structure in terms of grammatical unit, the clause, the sentence structure, word order and all existence found in Assamese grammar. Assamese is syntactically a head-final language with postpositional case marking. Some postpositions are associated with grammatical function, some with specific roles associated with the meaning of the verb. It is also observed that the main verb in the language always precedes the auxiliary verb with other various structure of a noun phrase where the NP always precedes the postpositional marker and the modifier precedes the noun. From the aspect of syntax in Assamese is a non-configurational language in the sense that it allows the order of phrases within a sentence to be syntactically free. Such as 3-5

(3) rabin-e   kitap-kʰɔn   porh-il

   rabin-NOM   book-CL   read-PST3

  'Rabin read the book.'

(4) rabin-e porh-il kitap-khɔn

(5) porh-il   kitap-khɔn rabin-e.

Besides this relatively free word order Assamese non-configurational indicates its frequent pro-drop nature; where the pronominal subject to be unexpressed. As the in the sentence 6.

(6) kali   kɔr-il-u   eitu

   ɸ   yesterday   do-PST-1 it.

  'I did it yesterday.'

The subject of language usually takes nominative case and it is frequently marked by an inflectional suffix -e when the subject act as an agentive role and it is unmarked when the subject doesn't act as agentive role. But in some case the subject

is marked for accusative case and genitive case too. But mostly in Assamese object is marked for accusative case with the inflectional marker -k; when, it refers to a human object. If the object doesn't refer to a human object the Accusative case is stays unmarked.

If we turn to the clause structure in the language, the subordinate clause structure is identified by using of the subordinator je and buli which occurs both clause initial and clause final position. A subordinate clause either precedes or follows a main clause. Again, coming to the concept of scrambling proposed in Ross 1967, as mentioned above Assamese is belong to the class of non-configurational language; so Assamese also exhibits scrambling. In Assamese scrambling instantiates the scramble of PP, and of NP in IO and DO positions.

1.4 Introduction to the Topic

This dissertation discusses the main case systems and adjunct construction in natural language by highlighting some interesting accounts mainly based on Assamese data. We mostly find that the majority of languages are divided into two categories based on case systems:

    a) Nominative/ Accusative

    b) Ergative/ Absolutive.

This division is most common for all over the languages in the world. Like many of either type, Assamese is considered as a nominative-accusative language. But as we all know that case is a grammatical category that identifies the syntactic relationship between nouns in a sentence. The study nominative -accusative or ergative-absolutive case system is not sufficient to explain the exact nature of the distribution of case manners in the language. Sometimes language like Assamese case markers are not a mandatory part of a nominal constituent, they behave as optional category like adjunct in a structure. So, through this we try to give some details regarding morphosyntactic aspect of case and adjunct in Assamese language.

1.4.1 Main Objects of Study

This dissertation is meant to serve as an analytical introduction to various notions of case and adjunct within modern theoretical linguistics. The research is carried out within the generative framework which will describe the morpho-syntactic alignment of case and adjunct in Assamese with respect to the argument and adjunct structure.

The analysis of case morphology of Assamese can be explained in terms of argument. The case of a subject NP is always overtly expressed, but the object NP may not always have an overt realization depending on the animacy. The object NP is marked for accusative when it's a [+Human] or [+Definite]. Hereafter, there are many evidences that makes case system more complicated to understand, which has not been satisfying comparing the abundance of studies approaching it. So, purpose of the research is to provide a detail account of the case system in Assamese with its all related aspects that's fit to the constructional framework.

The present analysis is based on the aims of describing the morphological and syntactic features of case and adjunct in the language. Case is defined as a grammatical category which is determined by the syntactic or semantic function of a nominal. In the language Assamese case is realized in the form of postpositions, when these postpositions take nouns structurally form phrases. Therefore, they are called postpositional phrases. Postpositional phrases are made up of a noun phrase followed by a postposition. Again, adjuncts in Assamese are those forms that modify the action of the verb and the description of the noun. In other words, adjuncts describe the manner, time and place of accomplishment of action of the verbs and also clarify a noun by giving some information about size, shape, colour and all. But in Assamese language provides a correlation between the morphology of case and adjunct. With this goal in mind we will describe, explain, and analyse the case system and adjunct construction in Assamese.

Indeed, we want to see the language how serves as an important contribution into our understanding of this grammatical component, by giving us access to better understanding of the human language in general.

1.4.2 Review of Literature

The analysis of case grammar of a language in Indian grammar is emerged a long back ago with Pannian Asthadhayi, and till date it emergence has a necessity to language analysis. Simply case is a grammatical category that inflected to a noun or pronoun of a language by addressing the semantic and syntactic functions which they imply. It is also assumed that the earliest analysis of grammatical case has an equivalent with Panini's karaka theory. However, in recent theories defining case is very complicated as they serve different meaning for different things in different languages and for the different researchers who work with variant theoretical orientations and therefore, as Butt (2006) points out -we do not have a well-defined understanding of the notion of case.

Considering this point, we see the definitions of the phenomena case Barry J. Blake (1994) begins his volume with the definition of case as 'a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear to their heads.'(Blake1994:1). Halldor Armann Sigurðsson sees case as 'a relation between a DP (or an argument) and its syntactic surrounding,' which could be semantically associated or not (Sigurðsson 2004). But the idea of semantic roles associated with grammatical cases got the most vivid realization, when Fillmore's (1968) paper The Case for Case was Published. Thus, we got an introduction to the notion of case as well as the function of case that it is the identification of a noun phrase's function or grammatical relation in the sentence. But the idea case is obviously a lot more nuanced than what is captured by the above statements. The linguist believed there is more detailed understandings of case which provide accounts for the facts of the languages of the world. So, we have work by researchers like Blake (2004) who said "Case is a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear to their

heads. Traditionally the term refers to inflectional marking, and, typically, case marks the relationship of a noun to a verb at the clause level or of a noun to a preposition, postposition or another noun at the phrase level. The term case is also used for the phenomenon of having a case system and a language with such a system is sometimes referred to as a case language." Therefore, the research the case system in language is taken into account.

It has been recognized in the overview of approaches to cases in more recent grammatical theories case is the universal phenomena of human language (Chomsky 1981 after suggestions made by Jean-Roger Vergnaud), which however, is not overtly expressed cross-linguistically. In order to account for the phenomenon of case in these languages the notion of abstract Case (also known as deep Case) was introduced, which also covers the difference between languages with null case marking and morphological case marking. Dixon (1994) argues that "all languages work in terms of three primitive relations" – S (the subject NP of an intransitive verb), A (the subject NP of a transitive verb) and O (the object NP of a transitive verb). On the basis of these primitive relations with syntax and semantic a language is morpho syntactically marked for case. Thus, two pattern of case systems is found which is mostly used when in the world's languages are discussed, namely nominative-accusative and ergative-absolutive. Next, we turn to structural and inherent case. The distinction Chomsky (1981) again made is that the "structural Case in general is dissociated from θ-role; it is a structural property of formal configuration; inherent case is presumably closely linked to θ-role."

Moreover, as we keep our eyes on morphosyntactic processing and understanding of case in Indian grammar is influenced by Sanskrit grammar which has been explored a many years ago. In such grammars most of the Indo-Aryan case system is described. As such Assamese belongs to an Indo-Aryan languages Assamese grammar is also influence by Sanskrit grammar. This is proven by when Satyanath Bora (1960) distinguishes between case (karaka) and case marker (bibhakti) and speaks of six types of karaka (Karta, karma, karan, sampradan, apadan and

adhikaran) and seven types of bibhakti in Assamese. Karta is the doer, and the grammatical subject of the sentence. Karma is usually the grammatical object of the sentence that is affected by the verb (action). Karana corresponds to the instrumental case whereas Sampradan corresponds to dative. Apadan refers to the goal or source of things. Adhikaran corresponds to locative. Kakati (1962) states two case marking devices in Assamese: independent postpositions and agglutinative case-ending. This brings as a new insight for case system of Assamese data.

However, regarding my topic there is no works found in Assamese literature as well as in other literature too. Since case and adjunct are one of the mostly studied area in generative syntax, reviewing Assamese literature, the available research works in this aspect includes Manmee Bhattacharjya "Case Markig in Assamese: Morpho-syntactic and Semantic Analysis." EFLU- Hyderabad. (2012), Amritavalli, R and Sarma, P.P. "A Case Distinction Between Unaccusative and Unergative Subjects in Assamese", Snippets. (2002), Marry Pujari "Case Marking in Assamese" Languages of the North East. CIIL, India Publication. (1997). Debajit Deb,"On Case Marking in Assamese Bengali and Oriya", International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature. (2012), Haddad, Youssef A "Adjunct Controls in Assamese and Telgu", University of Florida. (2007).

After surveying of existing literature, it was found that no work related to the present topic has been undertaken so far by any scholar in Assamese language. And neither of these above mentioned works clearly emphasize on the morphosyntactic analysis of case and adjunct equally. Therefore, more study on this subject matter is highly required to find out the exact morphosyntactic analysis of case and adjunct inflection in the language. Hence, hope the proposed research able to give a new insight in the language analysis and as well as in the field of linguistics.

1.4.3 Methodology

The study of this current work is carried out within the framework of descriptive grammar, a framework for describing the sentence structures of a language. Here, this framework is used to describing the grammatical units or linguistics units that have both morphological and syntactic properties. In another word the study is based on the morphosyntactic analysis of the language. It is a corpus base analysis.

The present analysis is based on both the Primary and Secondary data collected by me. For primary data a multiple number of word list and sentences of different types such as declarative, negative, interrogative, imperative, etc. has been elicited from the native speakers, data for the present purpose collected from upper part of Assam specially from Jorhat, Sivsagar, and Golatghat district which is recognized by all the variety around Standard Assamese (henceforth SA). Having through the process of i. Selection, ii. Cordification, iii. Elaborations of functions and iv. Acceptance. The study is largely based on the observations of the informants of different age groups and gender. The most of the primary data being presented here is collected in my field work of February,2018 in area of Jorhat, Golaghat and Sivsagar district of Assam and other a few data collected from the secondary resource for the purpose of descriptive convenient. However, for writing the dissertation as secondary source a number of books and articles related to morphology and syntax have been referred.

1.5 Chapter Division

This first chapter is the introduction chapter which outlines introduction of Assamese language then introduces the typological features with phonological, morphological and syntactic features that related to the language. Again, this chapter gives a brief description of literature review, introduction to the topic and also laid down the objective of this study, after that touched the methodology part as well as the sources of data used by the dissertation. Next in chapter 2 discussed theoretical background of this dissertation which will serve as the basis of the analysis of the Assamese case system and adjunct construction presented in this dissertation.

Discussing this we try to give a glace on the developmental theory and also on the structural representation of the case and adjunct has gone changed. The third chapter will be followed by a descriptive discussion on the account related to case and adjunct. For this we look at the basics of case and adjunct where we will talk about argument and adjunct role with respect to case marking. The forth chapter will be the analytical chapter consist of the analyses of the Cases and adjunct in the language in line with the theoretical developments in Linguistics regarding the issue of case system and adjunct construction. The Chapter 5 and the final chapter will be discussions of the conclusions that can be drown from the course of study.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Background: A Discussion on Morphosyntax

2.1 Overview

This chapter covers primary parts of this dissertation by reviewing a detail on the theoretical framework that is used to inform this study. This chapter talks about the syntactic features. This is due to the close inter-relationship between the two linguistic elements where, morphology is used for the study of the internal structure of words, and syntax involves dig out the rules of grammar which are used for ordering and connecting words to form phrases and sentence.

2.2 Existing Literature in Morphosyntax

Generally, morphosyntax is a linguistic term which refers to grammatical properties which has both morphological and syntactic features together. But later with time this morphosyntactic analysis become an existing branch of linguistic study. A number of studies have referred as done the morphosyntax among these main work by most prominent ones include; Crystal (1980), Anderson (1986), Halle and Marantz (1993), Marantz (1992), Halle and Keysler (1993), Harley and Noyer (1999), Embick and Halle (2001) and Kibort (2007). Their focus is to describe morphosyntax as that part of morphology which covers the relationship between syntax and morphology and make morphosyntax a powerful tool for explanation why a word is included in a particular grammatical category.

Moreover, the first question in morphosyntax is arise what relation morphology should bear to the syntax may be comprehensively considered vis a vis. So, through this approach linguist try to identify the major area where syntax and morphology interface. For Anderson (1986) in linguistics aspects of morphosyntactic interface has come to investigate the agreement properties or aspects of the exact form of a word which are determined by reference to the properties of some other word in the same structure. Then, using of inherent properties which must be accessible to whatever rule, may assign agreement properties to other words in corelated

agreement (e.g. gender and noun). In using configurational properties on the basis of the larger structure in which a word appears. At last in Phrasal properties: on basis of the structure of phrasal domains but realized on particular words within these domains. He in his further studies also asserts that these investigation properties fall under the research of inflectional morphology; this is because Inflectional morphology consists of exactly those aspects of word structure that are syntactically relevant, in the sense of being determined by or are accessible to syntactic rules.

After that inflectional morphology becomes a most relevant concept for making out the problem how the word relates to other words in a construction than to the lexical item itself and linguists take it as an obligatory part of linguistics study. Harley and Noyer (1999) says inflected language form natural linguistic classes which is associated with the grammatical categories, prime examples are tense, aspect, and mood, which are relevant to verbs, as opposed to case, which is relevant for nouns. So, in (2001) Embick and Halle also states that if a new lexical item enters a given syntactic class, it will inherit all the associated inflectional morphemes; like if a language inflects its nouns for number and case, all nouns will obligatorily express these categories. Hence, they are considered as the necessary participatory for interact with the meanings of the lexical items they are attached to as well as with other elements in the constructions.

Toward the same Marantz (1992) slightly changed the concept as a morphological rule is inflectional and it obeys the projection principle, which licenses it to apply in the syntax. Then supporting this statement Harley and Noyer (1999), paraphrased it by saying inflectional morphology is a theory just how much interpenetration of the morphology by the syntax there is, or vice versa. But with development time Halle and Marantz (1993), Harley and Noyer (1999), Embick and Halle (2001) keeps their eyes on word formation where syntax and morphology interface and found two primitive elements in grammar one talks about syntactic derivation and another is about word formation, and in further this corresponds the standard distinction of lexical category and functional category. During the discussion on the notion morphosyntax Marantz (1992) following the modularity hypothesis says that

grammar alone doesn't explain the formal properties of grammar, or why words are included in particular grammatical categories. To investigate why a word is included in a particular grammatical category is the morpho-syntactic study is necessary.

Hence the notion of morphosyntax is introduced in linguistics and linguists used to teased out the existence features where syntax and morphology interface.

2.3 Morphosyntactic Features

Morphosyntactic features are the properties of a word to which syntax is sensitive. Classification of linguistic elements according to their inflectional form[1] is an important part of language description and syntactic theorization. Linguistically, the study of this inflectional form in classical grammar approach grammatical analysis is essentially a problematic issue as they are involved in two parts – one which are assigned to word classes and then other in terms of their "accidents" or properties. Therefore, such properties referred to as features or categories, that express what is shared by different linguistic elements and for features all we know being relevant to syntax, with the requirement of agreement and government. Such as the features of gender, number, and person are typically involved in agreement, and the feature of case is typically involved in government.

In the discussion of morphosyntactic features 'number', 'person', 'case' or 'tense' are often referred through either agreement or government relation. To deal with these forms we have to recognize that features are meanings or functions which are correlated with different forms of inflected words. Therefore, the inventory of these features depends on the differences in morphological form, and semantic interpretation. For example:

(7) Lɔra kaita ahil.

  lɔra-CLS.Pl come.PST.3

  'The boys came.'

---

[1]   Here inflectional form is the shape of a word.

In (7) Assamese the verb grammatically agrees in person. Now this sentence shows that here words are in an agreement relation. The agreement which is a syntactic operation has at its disposal the morphological features.

2.4 Morphosyntactic Theory

We just saw that morphosyntax identifies a number of areas where morphological forms determine the arrangement of syntactic structure. In arranging the elements of syntactic structure in morphosyntactic notion syntactic theory plays a vital role. So, here we try to give an overview on the theoretical development during its time.

2.4.1 From Transformational to Minimalist Approach: An Overview

The theory of syntax has had many different names throughout its development. But, we basically keep an eye on the development from transformational to minimalist including government and binding theory.

2.4.1.1 Transformational Grammar

The transformational grammar is a theory of how grammatical knowledge is represented and processed in the brain. Developed by Noam Chomsky in the 1960's, the transformational grammar consisted of two levels of representation of the structure of sentences: an underlying, more abstract form, termed 'deep structure', and the actual form of the sentence produced, called 'surface structure'. To ensure that transformations do not over generate, only conditions are built into their definitions.

2.4.1.2 Government and Binding Theory

Government and Binding theory thoughts that all human beings are born with some inherent ability, or a cognitive ability to acquire language and this inherent ability comprises a computational system and a lexicon. This computational system selects items from the lexicon and forms a derivation in accordance with X-bar Theory.

Another assumption is that the grammar of a language has four levels of representation: DS, SS, Logical Form (LF), and Phonological Form (PF).

DS is an internal interface level that relates the computational system to the lexicon. At this level, lexical items are inserted into a phrase marker in accordance with the Projection Principle and Theta Theory. The Projection Principle as stated in (i) ensures that the Deep Structure thematic information is preserved at all four levels of representation. Theta Theory dictates that all thematic positions are filled. Subsequent movement into a thematic position is disallowed as it violates the Theta-Criterion (ii).

(i) Projection Principle:

Representations at each syntactic level (i.e., LF, and Deep and Surface Structure) are projected from the lexicon, in that they observe the Subcategorization properties of lexical items. (Chomsky 1981:29)

(ii) Theta Criterion:

Each argument bears one and only one theta role, and each theta role is assigned to one and only one argument. (Chomsky 1981:36)

Again, if we look at Government and Binding theory a bit deeply it is a modular grammatical theory which holds that the grammar is made up of several modules: Case Theory, Binding Theory, Phrase Structure or X-Bar Theory, Movement Theory, Control Theory, Theta Theory, and Trace Theory. Each module is distinct and subject to constraints and well-formedness requirements. What is common to all of them is that they are all relational. They require interaction between two elements. For example, Case Theory requires a case assigner and a case assignee. And the purpose behind the different modules is to capture the more specific, more abundant, and seemingly unrelated grammatical rules that describe individual syntactic structures and to capture them with more general grammatical principle.

2.4.1.3 Minimalist Program

In this section we would explain and develop an approach to generative syntax which is referred to as the Principles and Parameters framework; within this

approach elaborate the core concepts of what is usually referred to as Government and Binding Theory but by re-think all the conceptual foundations on which GB was built. So, the minimalist approach of theoretical syntax, is a part of syntactic system that used to optimized the system and in order to ensure that the system did not overgenerate or undergenerate. As doing this the principle of economy is the major driving source of this framework. In other word minimalist is observable phenomena that accounted only by the most primitive means, which process would reflect the natural language acquisition rather theory-internal solutions to the problem in construction alike GB. Within this system, a linguistic expression is defined as the pair (π, λ) - which corresponds to (PF, LF). The PF and LF are here the comprising constituent as language faculty said i. e. lexicon and computational system, and where lexicon specifies the items chosen to enter the computation, altogether with their characteristics, that makes responsible for the language variation. But lexicon carries only information which cannot be predictable by principles and so computational system arranges the items introduced to it from the lexicon. Therefore, minimalist seen syntax as a computational system whose properties are there to ensure an analysis that allows the correct semantic interpretation and pronunciation of a clause. Regarding this they introduced a general representation of economy principle which covers both level. This general constraint is call Full interpretation. For apply Full interpretation in c-selectional features in minimalist approach focus on some conditions. They are as below:

The Checking requirement:

Uninterpretable (c-selectional) features must be checked, and once checked, they can delete.

Checking under sisterhood:

An uninterpretable c-selectional features F on a syntactic object Y is checked when Y is sister to another syntactic object Z which bears a matching features F.

In action we have a tree as follows:

Figure 1: Interpretable and Uninterpretable element in MP

```
              X
            /  \
          /      \
      Y [UF]     Z [F]
```
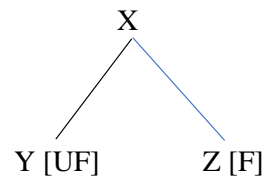
In English we find:

(8a) He is a good boy.

(8b)
)

```
              VP (is)
             /      \
        Adj.P         NP
                     /   \
                  Adj      N
                   |       |
               good[UF]  boy [F]
```
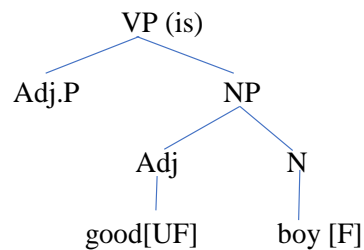
It is noticeable that the feature F on 'good' is uninterpretable by prefixing it with u. Now, by the statement in figure (1), uF on good must be checked and its gets to be checked by being in a syntactic relation with another F feature.

With this sense of checking, we project the c-seclectional features into hierarchical structure. For it minimalist approach applies some syntactic operations.

2.4.1.3.1 Merge, Agree, Move and Adjoin

In this section we discussed some new terminology that used in Minimalist Program.

(a) Merge:

Merge is a syntactic operation that projects the lexical items into a new object and then giving rise to hierarchical structure. It only applied when constituents are triggered by selectional features as follows:

Figure 2: Operation Merge

```
        V
       / \
   V[uN]   N
```
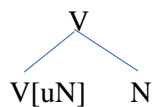
(b)Agree:

Features can either be interpretable or uninterpretable. All uninterpretable features have to be eliminated from the derivation before it reaches interface levels. Uninterpretable features are eliminated or deleted by means of another operation, Agree. Agree establishes an agreement or checking relation between two items V and N where V has uninterpretable features and N has interpretable features and the features of V are eliminated. The structure in (9) below illustrates an instance of long distance agreement between V and N:

(9)

```
              V
             / \
            /   \
    burn[V,uN]   NP
                /  \
               /    \
       letters[N uP]  PP
                     /  \
              to[P, uN]  Peter[N]
```
Agree
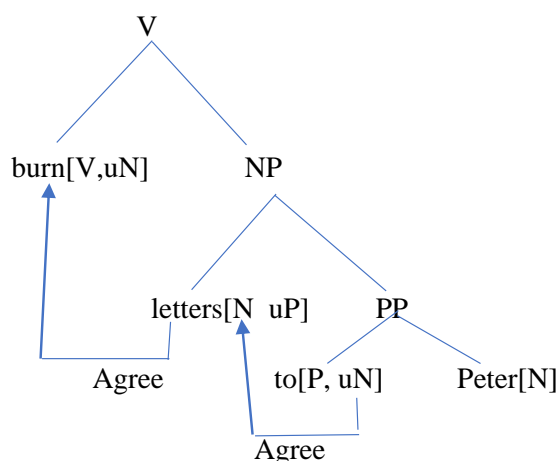
Agree

(c) Move

Another operation is move, combines agree with merge. Move establishes an agreement or checking relation between an uninterpretable feature of V and a corresponding interpretable feature of N, by merging N to a projection headed by

V. The difference between agree and move is that while in agree, the features of V are eliminated when both V and N remain in their original positions, in move they are eliminated by raising N from inside of VP to VP. This is illustrated in (10) where N moves to VP:

(10)
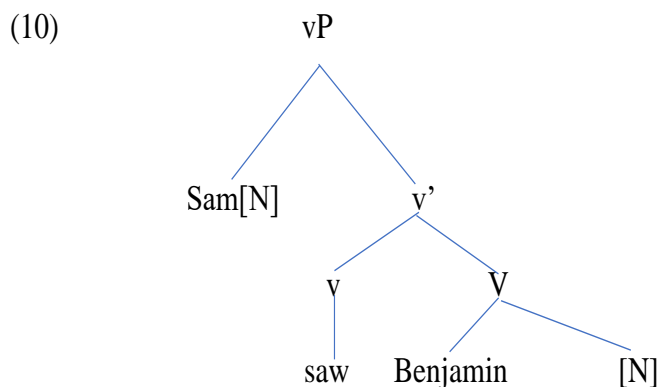
(c) Adjoin:

Adjoin is the last basic operation which inserts a phrasal object into another phrasal object at its outmost level. It does not create a new object, it expands one of the old one by stretching its outermost layer into two parts and inserts the adjoined object between them. The properties of adjoined elements that follow from this approach are that they always hierarchically outside complement and specifiers, that they may not appear on either side of the phrase they adjoined to that they do not receive ɵ-role. This is as in (11)

(11a)   (11b)
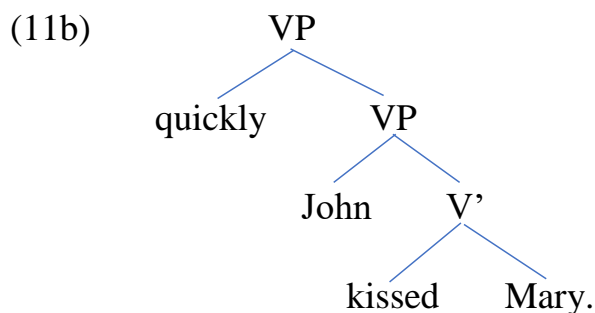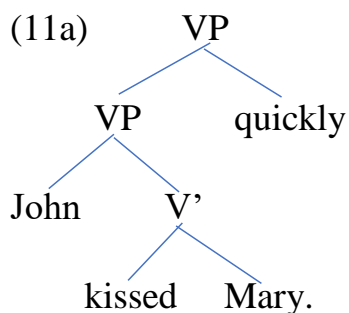
2.5 Distribution of Case and Adjunct in Different Approach

This dissertation is restricted to the morphosyntactic analysis of case marking and adjunct construction and therefore here we only focused on the theoretical aspect related to case and adjunct.

2.5.1 Case in Recent Theories

This section gives an idea about the approach of case in grammatical theories which view it along the distinction of morphological versus abstract case; and structural versus inherent case. Earlier Chomsky (1981 and subsequent work) and many others have been proponents of the idea that case is a universal feature of language; but all are not overtly expressed cross-linguistically. So, the notion of Abstract Case was introduced, which captures the difference between languages with null case marking (Chinese, Thai, etc.) and morphological case marking therefore M (orphological) case; and found all-natural languages, therefore, have abstract Case, while, M-cases are only marked overtly by some of them.

The further distinction within the types of cases is into Inherent and structural case, this type of cases distinction mainly based on the differentiation between subjects and objects within the clauses. Such as the distinction can be summed up in the words of Chomsky (1981):

"Structural Case in general is dissociated from θ-role; it is a structural property of formal configuration. Inherent case is presumably closely linked to θ-role."

However, here more theoretically we come to know that structural case is the assignment of case to nominals on the basis of their structural position in the syntactic tree. For instance, English nominative case is assigned to the argument in the Spec of TP. As this a case signals primarily structural, rather than primarily

semantic relationships, and is independent of thematic roles. Chomsky (1981) introduced the term structural case for abstract case that is predictably assigned, under government at S-Structure, by heads of certain syntactic categories. As part of the initial formulation of GB structural case assigners were identified as heads of [-N] categories: V, P, or finite I. Thus, Chomsky's (1981) early GB system four cases are mentioned as Structural with reference to their governors: Nominative, which was governed by AGR; Objective, which was governed by the verb (V[__NP]); Oblique, which was governed by the P head of the prepositional (in English) phrase PP, and also Genitive, governed within the noun phrase NP: [NP__ X']. However, genitive case also considered as inherent case due to semantic import of marking the Possessor. So here we a bit know that inherent case is a case which is semantically associated with the predicate that licenses it. But this would be clear to us when Fillmore's The Case for Case (1968) discussed the following understanding regarding the interplay of semantics and structure with Case:

"In the past, research on -Case has amounted to an examination of the variety of semantic relationships which can hold between nouns and other portions of sentences; …what is needed is a conception of base structures in which Case relationships are primitive terms of the theory…"

Like this Fillmore provides us they must needed development of the theory. However, his paper is not a perfect analysis of this matter as he was faced to answer many questions and suggestions were given in his paper. But he is the leading figure who discussed this matter in boarder sense. He states that case relationships needed for cross-linguistic analysis included:

"Agentive (A), the case of the doer of the action identified by the verb, typically animate.

Instrumental (I), the case of the inanimate force or object that involved in the action or state identified by the verb.

Dative (D), the case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb.

Factitive (F), the case of the object or being resulting from an action identified by the verb; or understood as a part of the meaning of the verb.

Locative (L), the case which identified the location of the state or action identified by the verb.

Objective (O), the semantically most neutral Case, the Case of anything representable by a noun whose role in the action or state identified by the verb is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself; conceivably the concept should be limited to things which are affected by the action or state identified by the verb. The term should not be confused with the notion Direct Object, nor with the name of the surface Case synonymous with Accusative."

While Fillmore's (1968) study fails to precise the determination of thematic roles there many alternative accounts raised against it, among them Dowty's (1991) notion of proto-roles is important one. For him "the traditional system of discrete roles is not the best theory for defining the domain of thematic roles and its link to the problem of argument selection." So, making his discussion easier he divided the roles into two types namely proto-agent and proto patient. According to him both types of role are characterized by "a set of verbal entailments". In another word an argument of a verb may bear either of the two proto-roles, or both, to varying degrees, according to the number of entailments of each kind the verb gives it.

Moreover, the debate regarding this is still going on, but there is no strong alternative argument is found to thematic roles in some form or the other. Therefore, the generally used thematic roles are defined below (Haegeman 1994):

"**Agent/Actor**: who intentionally initiates the action expressed by the predicate.

Patient: is the person or thing undergoing the action expressed by the predicate.

Theme: is the person or object moved by the action expressed by the predicate.

Experiencer : the entitiy that experiences some state expressed by the predicate.

Benefactive/ Beneficiary: the entity that benefits from the action expressed by the predicate.

Goal: the entity towards which the activity expressed by the predicate is directed.

Source: the entity from which something is moved as a result of the activity expressed by the predicate.

Location: the place in which the action or state expressed by the predicate is situated."

Fillmore's work also served as the basis for much of the theorization that formed a part of the GB framework. This includes the notion of Deep structure, wherein thematic roles would be licensed, and that each case relationship (what is now called theta-role) should occur only once in a simple clause. This later came to be known as the Theta Criterion: "Each argument bears one and only one theta-role, and each theta role is assigned one and only one argument."

In addition, case in more theorized view all languages have a set of Abstract Cases; which are manifested morphologically only in some of them. This argument is expressed in the GB framework in terms of the Case Filter given below:

Case Filter:

"Every overt NP must be assigned Abstract Case" (Haegeman 1994)

But the case filter is a surface structure restriction on case assignment and the Deep structure also has an important role to play since Thematic roles of the verb are discharged here, and as we have mentioned above these are central to the assignment of inherent case. Whatever, case assignment in GB is a function of the syntactic notion of government as below:

Government

A governs B if and only if

i. A is a governor

ii. A m-commands B

iii. No barrier intervenes between A and B   where,

a) Governors are the lexical heads (V, N, P, A) and tensed I

b) Maximal projections are barriers.

Hence, case in GB is assigned under Government; and NPs/DPs enter the derivation without Case. As per this the structural configurations Nominative Case is assigned in [Spec, Head] configuration by the tensed I, and Accusative Case by the verb to its object argument under government.

Finally, case Assignment in GB can be summed up like this:

α assigns Case to β if and only if

a) α is a Case Assigner (V, P or tensed I)

b) α governs β.

This rigorous work severs as the basis for further work in the discipline of Linguistics and fed directly into the Minimalist Program. The minimalist program with respect to the assignment of case the mechanism employed is radically different from GB. Here, nominals enter the derivation with case features, which are uninterpretable and unvalued, and need to be checked and valued respectively by heads which bear the opposite values for the same case feature for the derivation to converge. This is followed by the Checking Requirement from Adger (2002):

"The Checking Requirement:

Uninterpretable features must be checked, and once checked they delete."

Adopting Adger's (2003) checking requirement features on elements in MP are [interpretable] and [uninterpretable]. However, for case the initial assumption was to consider both the elements to be bearing uninterpretable feature. So, for inherent case, the case feature on the nominal was considered to interpretable, since it is

thought to be selected from the lexicon with the case value already assigned. But feature variation is also observed here via Agree relation.

2.5.2 Adjunct in Different Approach

The structural representation of the adjunct has been changed in the generative syntax. The transformational account of adjunct syntax actually begins with adjectives, rather than both adjective and adverbs, as first proposed in Chomsky's Syntactic Structures. The linguists of that time believe the surface constituents of adverbs are derived from deep structure adjectival paraphrases as in (12) and (13).

(12a) John drove his car carelessly.

(12b) John was careless at driving his car.

(13a) Frankly, John is an idiot.

(13b) I am being frank in saying that John is an idiot.

However, at a later stage adverb is itself to be regarded as an important constituent. It was established that such constructions exist without plausibility of adjectival paraphrase. For instance:

(14) a. The men were individually asked to leave.

b. *It was individual that the men were asked to leave.

Here in (14) we observed that (14b) does not adequately captures the semantic sense of the adverb in (14a).

Again, this theory states that adverb can occur in at least three positions; sentence initially, between subject and main verb and sentence finally.

After this, it talks about the manner adverb that they modify the verb and they are structurally represented as the constituents of VP. For this reason, manner adverbs are sometimes called VP-adverbs. The claim that manner adverbs are constituent

VP is confirmed by the fact that they can be displace along with the constituents of VP as shown in (15)

(15) Mina runs fast.
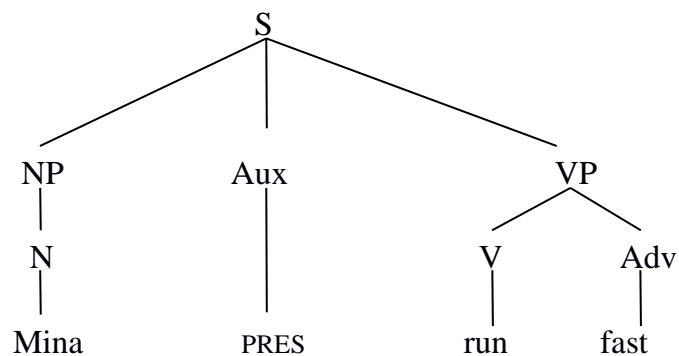
```
                              S
              ┌───────────────┼───────────────┐
             NP              Aux              VP
              │               │           ┌────┴────┐
              N               │           V        Adv
              │               │           │         │
            Mina            PRES          run       fast
```

Transformational approach also claimed that adverbs are the modifier of the whole sentence rather specific constituent of the sentence, (Ouhalla, 1994). This claim can prove by the structure like (16).

(16) a. Evidently, John fixed the car.

    b. John fixed the car, evidently.

Here, the adverb evidently refers to a situation which suggests that 'John indeed fixed the car'. In this case adverb is said to modify the whole sentence rather than a specific constituent of the sentence.

In addition to the adverbs discussed finally, linguists talk that this category have an adverbial function. The most prominent examples of these adverbial functions are related to place and time.

Next, with time we found VP adverb is one among the non-subcategorized categories. The PS rule which generates them is reproduced in (17):

(17) VP→ (ADV) V…… (ADV)

Technically adverbs are not core element of the lexical categories they modify, so they adjoin to the phrase or excluded from the single- bar domain (V') in the representation of VPs. More formally, adverbs are said to be a given category in terms of adjoined to a projection of the verb. The adverbs are adjoined to VP or V' on the basis of the order in relation to Aux element and the verb suggests as shown in (18):

(18) The army totally destroyed the city. (Taken from Adger,2002)
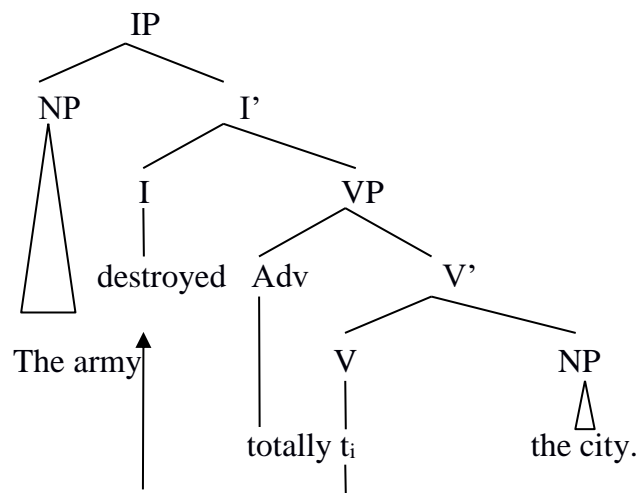
In (18) we observed that Adv is both the sister and the daughter of V'. This is the property of adjunct that distinguishes them from complements and specifiers. Complement are the daughter of X' and sister of X. On the other hand, specifiers are the sister of X' and the daughter of XP. The important aspect of the adjunction structure illustrated in (12) is that it enables us the extra information about the event. The fact, adverbs are neither complements or specifiers of verb, they modify.

2.6 Summary

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical aspect related to case and adjunct to reader. With this purpose in mind we look at the syntactic theories that are being changed or modified. The GB theory was developed from TGG in the generative syntax with many stages involved. Like the theories have changed in due course of time, the structural representation of the case and adjunct has also gone through many changes in generative syntax. So basically, from this chapter we come to know that both theory and representation capture a wide range of interpretations endowed in the literature in variant ways as it is manifested in the world language.

Chapter 3

Some Prevailing Accounts of Case and Adjunct: A descriptive Overview

3.1 Overview

This chapter talks about the affecting role of the alignment of case and adjuncts in morphosyntax with various constructions based on some dependent-marking in Assamese language. We know that case system in Assamese explained as nominal inflectional category where a few suffixes act like a case marker. But sometimes these suffixes behave differently. So, to make out this point this chapter outlines the aspects of Assamese morphosyntax that are related to this phenomenon.

3.2 Case System

Before starting this section, we need to know the concept of case, as to what is case? In general, the notion of case has meant different things for different languages and for the different researchers who work with variant theoretical frameworks. The term Case derives its etymology from Latin Cadere 'to fall', which is in turn a translation of the Greek ptosis 'fall' and the names of the cases, such as Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Ablative, Vocative are the original Latin names, translated from Greek by the Romans. Following this we can assumed that the western tradition of describing case systems is trace back from Greek and Latin. For Greek and Latin study case was marked on nouns with some morphological affixes and were tied up with some semantic functions. It was these semantic functions which formed the basis for the naming of the cases. However, the proper analysis of the grammatical case dates back to 6th. century BC with Panini's Ashtadhyayi. The Paninian Grammar puts an emphasis on the correlations of grammatical encoding of semantic relationships within the clause, which became known as karaka theory. So basically, it was Panini grammar in Indian grammar who introduced the idea that grammar reflects the semantic relationship between the entities in the world. Like this grammar in the Indian tradition have developed more than the western tradition in the study of case and semantics. It can be seen from the numbering of semantic role in determination of morphological case in Indian

grammar as opposed to direct marking of case with some semantic sense as in case discussion of western grammar.

Later Pannian grammar advocates that the verb as the head of the clause, and therefore has a role in assigning nominal dependencies, realized by the system of six karakas. From then the grammatical cases can be correlated with these karakas in semantic functions they perform in respected proposition. Here we presented the scenario of these relationships where one represents the Sanskrit case system through a declined noun, and the inventory of the karakas with their main semantic implications.

Table 4: Case System in Sanskrit (adopted from Blake 1994)

Sanskrit Case	Linguistic Terms
devas	Nominative
devam	Accusative
devena	Instrumental
devaya	Dative
devat	Ablative
devasya	Genitive
deve	Locative

Table5: Karaka Roles with their western equivalent & their Definition (But 2006)

Karaka Roles	Linguistic Names	Definition
kartṛ	agent	the independent one
karman	patient	The things desired by agent
karaṇa	instrumental	The most effective means
sampradaṇa	goal	The item in view through the karman

apadana	source	The fix point from which something recedes
adhikaraṇa	locative	location

Paninian rule system has some relative flexibility in karaka-case correspondences, so sometimes an instrumental case can be default realization of an agent, and the accusative of the patient until these rules are rechecked by more idiosyncratic grammar-internal and lexical factors to the effect that agent can be realized as Nominative or Genitive. The idea of semantic roles associated with grammatical cases is noticed when Fillmore's 1968 paper "The Case for Case" is discussed. Thus, this time could be considered as the turning point to analyse case in recent theory.

Regarding the notion of case linguists have provided various definitions. In *An Introduction to Language* Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams (2003) define Case as:

"A characteristic of nouns and pronouns, and in some languages articles and adjectives, determined by the function in the sentence, and generally indicated by the morphological forms of the word."

This statement defines case as a feature of a noun or pronoun and sometimes an adjective. But this is just a primary notion there are many more about the subject case. Looking forward the notion case we find the understanding given by Blake (2004) who begins his book Case like:

"Case is a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear to their heads. Traditionally the term refers to inflectional marking, and, typically, case marks the relationship of a noun to a verb at the clause level or of a noun to a preposition, postposition or another noun at the phrase level."

By taking these definitions as our understanding of case the term case is used for the phenomenon of having a case system of marking dependent nouns. Therefore, in this section the notion case will be described in case system, as cases having a

sense of case form, is an inflected form of noun. Cases usually uses as a set of variations in the form of a noun or its associated categories with the dependency relations marked accordingly to the system employed in a particular linguistic system. Since Assamese is a nominative-accusative language, the intransitive and transitive subject are marked by the same case that's the nominative, with the transitive object being marked by the accusative as in the examples 19-20:

(19) mohɒn-e zɒdu-k pit-il-e

    Mohan-NOM Jadu-ACC hit-PST-3

    'Mohan hit Jadu.'

(20) zɒdu-e dour-il-e

    Jadu-NOM run-PST-3

    'Jadu ran.'

Like nominative-accusative system based on the marking of subject and object we find another system is ergative-absolutive. In this system the subject of an intransitive clause is treated in the same way as the object of a transitive clause, and differently from transitive subject. As in Hindi sentences (21-22):

Hindi[1]:

(21) raam-ne   ghar-∅   de-diyaa

   Ram-ERG house.ABS give-PFV.M

   'Ram gave the house.'

(22) mohan-∅   bhaag-aa

    Mohan-ABS   run-PFV.SG.M

    'Mohan ran.'

Based on the above observation of the Assamese and Hindi data it is clear that case system differs from one other in subject and object marking. So, based on this

marking unmarking subject and object there are also languages displaying mixed system, also called split-ergative or active- system. So, at this point we can assume that the study of case system is the study of identifying case form in inflectional noun.

3.2.1 Morphosyntactic Preliminaries of Case

Case is a grammatical category determined by the syntactic or semantic function of a noun or pronoun. Case exhibits an interface of morphology and syntax. The case system in English for instance is not morphologically distinct but it has syntactic evidence. Following Zograf (1990, Butt 2006 also mentioned;10) three layers of case marking elements may be distinguished; inflectional case, primary postposition, secondary post position. Traditionally inflectional case refers to the case marks that established relationship of a noun to a verb at the clause level or of a noun to a preposition, postposition or another noun at the phrase level. In Assamese nouns get inflected for its features number and gender but are not grammatical. With these features and for convenience of describing case system in Assamese inflectional case marking can divided into two cases as in figure

Figure3: Inflectional morphology
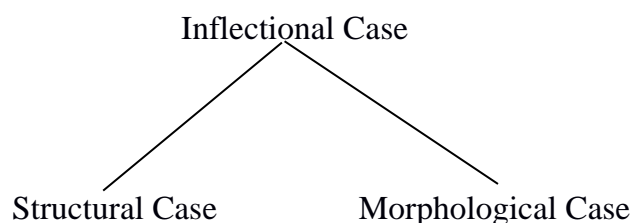
The distinction between structural and morphological case is only about the morphological and other cases collectively oblique case, not about the whole paradigm of cases in Assamese. The nominative covers the direct case related to subject and object in the language. The nominative case basically indicates the named entities, but in most of the languages the nominative does not bear overt morphological marking. In such languages the nominative case is carried with the

bare stem. On the other hand, the oblique case refers the indirect use of case with indirect object and specific animate direct objects.

From this observation we come to know that Assamese inflecting marker agrees with the noun head in number, gender and direct/oblique form.[2]

Now, the second layer mentioned above is primary post-positions that's the oblique case of a noun phase, which attached to the noun or noun phrase as in cliticized form not as an affix (Butt and King 2003, Mohanan 1994a, Payne 1995). Such as in Assamese language case markers

nominative [ɸ/-e]

accusative [-k]

genitive [-r]

Ablative [-loi]

locative [-t]

instrumental [-re]

There is also another third layer of element for case marking in the language that is the secondary post position. The secondary postpositions are the element that come after the primary postposition or the first oblique form. In Assamese this type of positions is as below:

(24)   kɔlɔm -e   -re

       pen-   primary postposition -secondary post position

                    'by pen'

So, the final element for Assamese case marking system is:

Nominative→Oblique case of primary postposition→ oblique case of secondary postposition

---

2   . The "gender" in Assamese is realised lexically with some bound morphemes. The morpheme is always preceded by a classifier)

3.2.2 Case Relation

Case typically marks the relationship of a noun to a verb at the clausal level, or of a noun to a preposition or postposition or another noun at the phrasal level. In most of the morphologically rich and complex languages, case is described as a nominal inflectional category where certain suffixes act as case markers.

After the discussion about case another distinction comes between case and case relation or the grammatical relation they shared. This term purely refers to the syntactic relations such as subject, direct object, indirect object. But all of them encompass more than one semantic role and they directly refer to semantic relation by talking about source, location and all. So, case morphology in linguistics further divided into two competitive terms syntactic and semantic relation. Although different term pairs have been used for these two classes of cases:

    a. Grammatical cases Vs Semantic cases by Blake (1994:32)

    b. Relational cases Vs Adverbial cases by Bergsland (1997)

    c. Grammatical cases Vs Concrete cases by Jespersen (1924:185)

    d. Core cases Vs Peripheral cases by Blake (1994:34)

    e. Abstract cases Vs Concrete cases by Lyons (1968:295)

The distinction is made in different ways by different authors and for different languages, but the basic intuition behind it seems to be the same. Although the most recent distinction recognized by generative grammar related to formalism is used. They are

<div align="center">

1.Morphological Case and

2.Abstract Case

</div>

As we mentioned above the two versions of case are quite distinct, as morphological case (such as accusative, ergative, dative, genitive, and sometimes also partitive) reflects the ranking of arguments while abstract case (such as instrumental,

comitative, locative, directional) reflects the ranking of adjuncts; by encoding a semantic relation of its head.

Grammatical relations do not necessarily require being in one to one correspondence with cases. Grammatical relation of case primarily related to the marking of the subjects and objects. In the grammatical pattern of nominative-accusative, the intransitive and transitive subject are marked by the same case that's the nominative, with the transitive object being marked by another case – the accusative. In ergative-absolutive a grammatical pattern in which the subject of an intransitive clause is treated in the same way as the object of a transitive clause, and differently from transitive subject. So, by focusing on syntactic functions, however, it was felt that several important kinds of semantic relationship could be represented, which it would otherwise be difficult or impossible to capture.

3.2.3 Case Marking

According to Dixon (1994) all languages work in terms of three primitive relations; S (for the subject of an intransitive verb), A (for the subject of a transitive verb) and O (for the object of a transitive verb). And on the basis of these primitive relations with syntax and semantic a language is morpho syntactically marked for case. "Some languages opt to group together A and S functions and treat O function differently, in which case the language will have a nominative-accusative system. Other languages prefer to treat S and O alike and A differently, in which case the language will have an ergative-absolutive system" (Dixon, 1994).

The distinction can be described as follows:

Nominative-Accusative   Ergative-Absolutive

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \\ S \end{array} \right. \quad O \qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad \begin{array}{l} S \\ A \quad O \end{array} \left. \right\}$$

In nominative languages the subject NP of an intransitive sentence (S) and the subject NP of a transitive (A) are marked for the same case which is different from the object NP of a transitive sentence (P). Whereas in ergative languages, the subject NP of an intransitive sentence (S) is marked different from that of A and O which are marked for same case.

Case marking in Assamese is not uniform always. There are lot of evidences from which we can formalize a hypothesis that can account for a more general explanation regarding the same. In Assamese for example, the S and A are marked alike whereas O is different:

(25) mohan-e bina-k mat-is-il-e
     mohan-NOM bina-ACC call-NF-PST.3
     'Mohan called Bina.'

(26)   mohan-e hah-is-il-e
     mohan-NOM hah-NF-PST.3
     'Mohan laughed.'

But in some cases, however we see that S and O are alike and A is marked for case:

(27)   bagh-tu-e   harina-tu   mar-il-e
     Tiger -CLF-NOM   deer-CLF   kill-PST.3
     'The tiger killed the deer.'

(28)   harina-tu   mɔr-il
     Deer-CLF   die-PST
     'The dear died.'

(29a) lɔra-tu   kali   ah-il.
    boy-CLS   yesterday   come-PST
  'The boy came yesterday.'

(29b) lɔra-tu-e   manuh-tu-k   mat-il-e
    boy-CLS-NOM   man-CLS-ACC   call-PST-3
    'The boy called the man.'

In above examples (29.a.) has no overt case marking for S, but in (29.b.) A has marked for nominative case by adding -e while O has also marked for accusative case with -k and like this in we just find the sense of tripartite system for case marking in Assamese.

Another possibility for case marking by grouping S, A, and O, namely for A and O to have the same form, while S has a different one. This possibility is rare; found in some Iranian languages of the Pamir region, though restricted to some pronouns (Payne 1979). Linguists found an important possibility of case marking by splitting the S between agent like and patient like instances which we may symbolize as:

Figure4: Splitting S between Agent and Patient
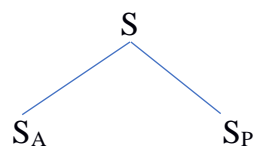
After split semantically, S_A groups with A whereas S_P groups with P. Russian linguist Georgij(1981) termed this system as active-inactive system. Later on, many linguists use these in different names like agentive-patientive or stative-active and so on. This system is well known for person marking with verb, although it is slightly found with case marking as well. The active-inactive system of case marking is found in a very limited number of languages; they are like Drehu (Oceanic; New Caledonia; Moyse-Faurie 1983), Basque (Hualde and Ortiz de Urbina 2003: 364), Georgian, and Imonda (Border family; Papua New Guinea; Seiler 1985). The example of this system is below from Georgian (WALS page; Chapter 98):

(30) <u>Georgian</u> (<u>Harris 1981</u>: 40)

a. vaxt'ang-i   ekim-i   iqo

    Vakhtang-   doctor-   be.aor.3sg
    pat   pat

'Vakhtang was a doctor.'

b.   nino-m   daamtknara

     Nino-agt   yawn.aor.3sg

     'Nino yawned.'

c.   nino-m   ačvena   surat-eb-i   gia-s

Nino-agt	show.aor.3sg>3sg>3sg	picture-pl-pat	Gia-dat

     'Nino showed the pictures to Gia.'

As shown by the data and the previous analysis done by the linguists (30a) the more patient-like S of the copular verb stands in the inactive case, while in (30b) the more agent-like S of 'yawn' stands in the active case. The active case is also used for the A of (30c), the inactive case for its P. Based on these information, it is clear that Assamese language has not found any such type of information for case marking.

Notions such as agent and patient, case alternations, which exhibit systematic semantic contrasts, demonstrate that case assignment is intertwined with semantics. Thus, we get four systems of case marking respectively: Nominative-Accusative system, Ergative-Absolutive system, Tripartite system, and Active-Inactive system and this is become a general issue in as much case alternations occur across languages.

3.2.4 The Optional Use of Case Marker

That some case markers in Assamese function as adjuncts is discussed in this section. Let us take the nominative case marker to look at the first. The nominative case marker '-e' aligns with the 3rd person marker in Assamese. For example:

(31)   ram-e   b^{h}at   k^{h}a-l-e
        Ram-NOM   rice   eat-PST-3
        "Ram ate rice."

(32)   bagʰ-tu-e   hɔrina-tu   mar-il-e
           tiger-CLF-NOM   deer-CLF   kill-PST-3
           "The tiger killed the deer."

In (31) and (32) the NOM '-e' is alligned with the 3ʳᵈ person marker '-e'. Similarly, the nominative case marker changes to '-i' (allomorphic variation) if the agent name is vowel ending. However, there are instances where the nominative is not overtly marked, the case marker '-e' is not realized. For example:

(33)   ram   xu-l-e
           Ram   sleep-PST-3
           "Ram slept."

(34)   am   dour-il-e
           Ram   run-PST-3
           "Ram ran."

(35)   ram   gʰɔr-ɔlɔi   gɔ-l
           Ram   home-ALL   go-PST
           "Ram went home."

In the above examples, which are intransitives, the nominative case marker '-e' is not overtly marked.

Now, if we look at the instrumental case marker '-re (-ere)', there are instances when we can see the case marker not coming in the core of the clause, rather in the adjunct part. For example:

(36a)   xi   bas-ere   gʰɔr-ɔlɔi   gɔ-l
           he   bus-INS   home-ALL   go-PST
           "He went home by bus."

(36b)   xi   bas-ɔt   gʰɔr-ɔlɔi   gɔ-l
           he   bus-LOC   home-ALL   go-PST
           "He went home by bus."

Comparing (36a) and (36b) the instrumental case marker (-ere) becomes an adjunct and more frequently the locative case (-ɔt) marker is used.

Moving on to the allative case marker '-lɔi' which has three allomorphic realizations '-lɔi,' '-ɔlɔi,' and '-le'; this again becomes part of the adjunct. This assumption can be described with some suitable examples as follows:

(37a)   manɔx zurhat-ɔlɔi   gɔ-l
       Manas Jorhat-ALL   go-PST
       "Manas went to Jorhat."

(37b)   manɔx zurhat gɔ-l
       Manas Jorhat go-PST
       "Manas went to Jorhat."

This partly depends on the choice of the speaker and partly on the conversation, the way someone gets a query. Consider the following conversations

Speaker 1:

(38a) ɔi   kɔt   za-ɔ
      hey   where go-2
      "Hey, where are you going?"

Speaker 2:

(38b) gʰɔr   za-u
      home   go-1
      "I'm going home."

Speaker 3:

(39a) kɔlɔi/keni/kunpʰale   za-ɔ
      where   go-2
      "Where are you going?"

Speaker 4:

(39b) gʰɔr-ɔlɔi   za-u
      home-ALL   go-1

"I'm going home."

From the above set of examples, we see that the allative case marker does function as an adjunct depending on different contexts. So, it will not be incorrect to say that case markers do not strictly form part of the sentence structure.

3.3 Adjunct Construction

Adjuncts are the constituent shown to be open and optional to a sentence both in syntax and semantics. Adjuncts are an integral part of the sentence, which provide the reader with information which is additional to that contained in the subject, verb, object or complement. An adjunct is the non-argument part of a clause the absence of which does not affect the meaning of the sentence. Consider the examples from Assamese:

(40)　ramen-e　　　bʰal-koi　　　ko-l-e
　　　ramen-NOM　nice- Adv.Suf　speak/say.PST3
　　　'Ramen spoked nicely.'

(41)　bʰal-koi　　　　ramen-e　　　ko-l-e
　　　nice-Adv.Suf　　ramen-NOM　speak/say-PST.3
　　　'Ramen spoked nicely'

(42)　ramen-e　　　ko-l-e　　　　bʰal-koi
　　　ramen-NOM　speak/say.PST.3　nice-Adv.Suf
　　　'Ramen nicely spoked'

(43)　ramen-e　　　ko-l-e
　　　ramen-NOM　speak/say.PST3
　　　'Ramen spoke/said'

Observing these examples here we find that adjunct is the element which can sits in any position of a sentence be it sentence initially, medially or finally, and we can remove the element of adjunct from the sentence without making the sentence incorrect. So, it is an optional element of a sentence structure.

If we talked about the construction of adjunct in a language most of the adjuncts in the languages are identifiable by the derivational suffixes they carry such as in English the Adv.Suf {-ly} and {-ful}; again, in Assamese {-e} and {-koi}. Thus, the adjunct creation relates purely morphological properties. But this can't be correct. Consider

(44) sita ajon-i   dʰuniya suwali.
     sita CLS.F   beautiful girl
     'Sita is a beautiful girl.'

In this example the adjunct dʰuniya never inflected with the suffixation rather the category adjective functions as an adjunct in the sentence. Therefore, adjunct are elements that are somehow incorporated into a sentence not via checking relation.

The category for the adjuncts in (40), (41) and (42) is adverb. To discuss the construction of the optional and modifying constituent adjunct is not an easy task. This claim is based on a superficial observation that "adjectives modify nouns, while adverbs modify other categories". Theoretically, the term adjunct in transformational grammar begins with adjectives, rather than adverbs, as first proposed in Chomsky's Syntactic Structures. The linguists of that time believe the surface constituents of adverbs are derived from deep structure adjectival paraphrases as in (43) and (44).

(45a) John drove his car carelessly.

(45b) John was careless at driving his car.

(46a) Frankly, John is an idiot.

(46b) I am being frank in saying that John is an idiot.

But, as per time change it is realized that adverb is itself an important constituent, to which construction exist without plausible of adjectival paraphrase. For instance:

(47) a. The men were individually asked to leave.

b. *It was individual that the men were asked to leave.

Here in (47) we observed that (47b) does not adequately captures the semantic sense of the adverb in (46a).

Transformational approach also claimed that adverbs are the modifier of the whole sentence rather specific constituent of the sentence, (Ouhalla, 1994). This claim can prove by the structures like in (48).
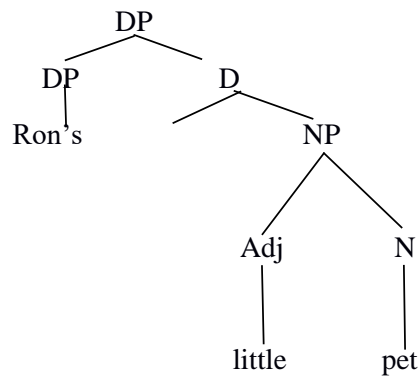
(48) a. Evidently, John fixed the car.

b. John fixe the car, evidently.

Here, the adverb evidently refers to a situation which suggests that 'John indeed fixed the car'. In this case adverb is said to modify the whole sentence rather than a specific constituent of the sentence. In addition to the adverbs discussed finally. Later in GB theory it proves that Technically adverbs are not core element of the lexical categories they modify, so they adjoined to the phrase or excluded from the single- bar domain (V') in the representation of Vps.

The property of adjunct that distinguishes them from complements and specifiers is that complements are the daughter of X' and sister of X. On the other hand, specifiers are the sister of X' and the daughter of XP. This is an important aspect of the adjunct structure that it carries the extra information about the event. The fact is that adverbs are neither complements nor specifiers of the verb they modify.

Now if we will look briefly at adjunct of DP, we will find that adjective semantically behave as modifier like an adverb as in (49):

(49) Ron's little Pet

```
              DP
          ╱        ╲
        DP           D
         │         ╱    ╲
       Ron's            NP
                      ╱    ╲
                   Adj      N
                    │       │
                  little   pet
```

Indeed, the adjunct is an optional syntactic object constitutes of adjective and adverb with their function of modifying to other syntactic categories. But this is not the absolute structure of an adjunct as it functions both morphologically and syntactically.

In most of the languages adjectives and adverbs may better be defined syntactically rather than morphologically. Thus, if we observe morphologically Assamese adjectives are not inflected for gender, number, where Assamese adverbs are as well neither inflected for gender, number nor for TAM and voice. Also, they not regularly inflected for case. But some of Adjectives are inflected for NOM, ACC, GEN, LOC and some of adverbs are inflected for DAT, GEN and LOC case. Besides these adjectives and adverbs both can be sometimes formed with the help of a case marker. For instance, the instrumental case becomes an adjunct – xi kotari-re am-tu kat-il-e "he cut the mango with a knife," here -re is the instrumental marker which forms part of the adjunct kotari-re and is an optional category. In Generative theory, the analysis of the Thomas Ernst refer Adverbial expressions are an adjunct.

3.3.1 Functions of Adjunct

Adjuncts are the elements that are distinguished from other category through their morphological characteristics and syntactic and semantic functions. So, when we talk about the functions of adjunct both the semantic and syntactic functions fall under the term and then the boundary between adjuncts and complements is somehow included. But the problem of analysing the functions of an adjunct is when

an adjunct can also function as complements, while making a very similar semantic contribution; again, adjunct as a modifier there is no clear limit how many semantic classifications we can identify; and the last problem is that the different kinds of adjuncts sometimes actually overlap: a single constituent can function as two different kinds of adjunct simultaneously.
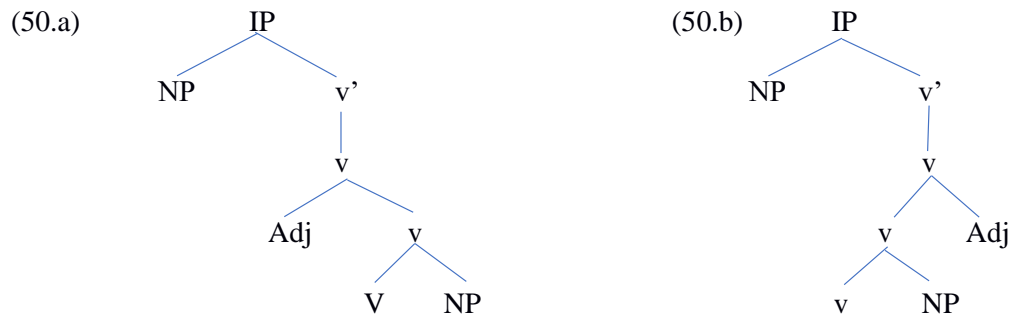
In general, the syntactic function of adjunct in a sentence is that an adjunct provides information about speaker's judgment or evaluation on the situation described in the clause as in the former, and epistemic condition on the clause as in the latter. Simply the syntactic function of adjunct is that it functions as an element of the clause as adjunction or they are integrated into an element of the clause as modifier not as a core element.

Adjuncts are usually treated as one-place predicates and often sub-classified with respect to distinct conceptual notions like:

(a) TIME: /etia/ now, /ketiaba/ sometimes, /kali/ yesterday.

(b) MANNER: /lahe lahe/ slowly, /bhalkoi/ well.

(c) DEGREE: /ɔtikoi/ extremely, /bɔrɔnsɔ/ rather.

(d) CAUSE: /eteke/ therefore.

(e) MOOD: /kizani/ probably.

(f) COLOUR: /ronga/ red

(g) SIZE: /dangor/ big

(h) SHAPE: /suti/ short

The notions mentioned above corresponds a very rough idea about syntactic and semantic integration. The manner adjuncts generally take the form of AdvPs or PPs and these adjuncts are closely related to the VP and semantically associated very clearly with the verb. However, the function of an adjunct is neither semantically nor syntactically required by the verb in the clause. As a non-argument, it does not appear in the core of the clause but appears in the periphery. Syntactically adjuncts are very different from the non-actor agents and non-actor patient themes because

as they are not arguments of the verb, and so have no opportunity to be agent or patient. Being optional, ADJs are not subcategorised for by the verb, so do not appear in the verb's lexical entry as in (50a) and (50b)

(50.a)
```
            IP
          /    \
        NP      v'
                 |
                 v
               /   \
             Adj    v
                  /   \
                 V    NP
```

(50.b)
```
            IP
          /    \
        NP      v'
                 |
                 v
               /   \
              v    Adj
            /   \
           v    NP
```

Here, the adjuncts are appeared via the last syntactic operation Adjoining. Adjoining is a basic operation which inserts a phrasal object into another phrasal object at its outmost level. It does not create a new object, it expands one of the old one by stretching its outermost layer into two parts and inserts the adjoined object between them. Hence an adjunct can adjoin in any position of a sentence structure and with its appearance like (50a) and (50b) and depending on the occurrence in the sentence an adjunct may function as a modifier or a specifier in a sentence. So, the next sections discuss briefly of the syntactic function of an adjunct as modifier and specifier though it has many more semantic functions also.

3.3.2 Adjunct as a Modifier

Adjuncts bear the role of modifier in a structure. For example, in English

(51) Rita sadly called Ramesh.

Here in this sentence the two ɵ-role Agent and patient that are assigned by the verb call are Rita and Ramesh. The other important constituent (sadly) does not receive any theta role from the verb or else in the sentence. The adjunct thus plays a modificational role rather an argument role. An adjunct modifies both a verb and a

noun in a sentence so for better understanding adjunct as modifier divided into two parts:

a.   Adjunct as modifier of Noun and other categories

b.   Adjunct as modifier of Verb

Traditionally adjectives and adverbs are modifiers modifying nouns and verbs respectively. The more detail function of an adjunct is its attribute as a modifying form, word, or phrase which depends on another form, word, or phrase, being an element of clause structure with adjectival function and later adverbial function.

However, if we go by syntactic descriptions we find that APs and PPs act as a modifier of nouns and adjoin within the NP but do not adjoin with the DP can due to the fact they never preceded determiner and modifies a Pronoun.

(52. a) * red the rose

(52.b) *the man in blue the shirt

But certain adverbs precede the DPs and they might analyse as DP adjunction. For example, in English:

(53.a) only a girl can understand.

(53.b) always a boy does this.

This observation doesn't make a clear distinction whether an adjunct element is a part of a DP or not. With the observation in detail we found that they were inside the DP.

(54.a) these problems are only a girl can understand

(54.b) For all always a boy does this.

So, it would be consistent with the idea that these modifiers are not part of the DP at all but occupy separate positions in the sentence. There is also an exception that

sometimes quantificational determiners are preceded by adverbial modifier as follows:

(55) almost all men take the certificate.

In the study of the syntactic position of a modifier adjunct category there is a debate going on about the structural position of an adjunct because of previous analysis on adjunct which found three positions for an adjunct among the functional heads, one is an adjunct of the NP or VP and another is the specifier position of the NP/VP. The linguists argue that adjuncts are modifiers in a phrasal level construction and are heads in the functional domain, others argue that modifiers can be functional heads in some cases but can also be adjoined to the phrase.

Regarding this many linguist explained in various ways, among these Travis (1988); Sportiche (1994) and others. For them, Modifiers are the heads in the functional structure of a sentence and they features as head in Syntax. According to Travis adverbs do not project a full phrase; instead they are allowed as bare heads within the TP or VP projection. For instance
(55) Rajib quickly ate the apple.

The TP hypothesis that subject will be in the specifier of the TP:

(55)
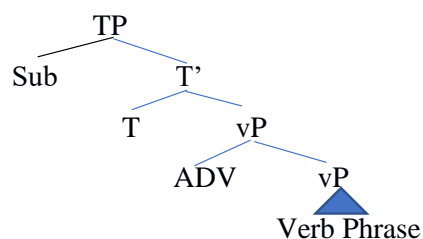
In addition, we find that adverb like 'quickly' doesn't precede the modal verb as in

(56) * Rajiv quickly may ate the apple.

This is because subject is the specifier of TP as in (55) which is the modal verb raised to an adverb have to adjoined to phrase, there is no slot for adverb in (56). The observation outlined their many structures where the adverb /adjunct adjoined in the sentence. They do not have a fixed place of occurrence in the sentence. They may have occurred any position of a sentence. So, here we straightforwardly found that adjunct don't project itself rather they modified.

3.3.3. Adjunct as Specifier

As mentioned earlier adjuncts are considered as the modifier of a noun and verb of a sentence without being obligatory constituents. They do not have a fixed place of occurrence in the sentence. They may have occurred at any position of a sentence. In case of transitive construction position of adjuncts found in all position, although position (4) is sounds odd. But in intransitive construction position of adverb is only restricted to (1) and (2) including most of the adjuncts.

But here in this section we would like to discuss the function of an adjunct as specifier. In generative approach Chomsky states that adverbs are occurs as specifiers of the functional categories TP. Whatever, if we take into consideration of the phrase structure theory given by Chomsky (1995), according to this model of phrase structure, adverbs could be either specifiers or adjoined phrases. So, when we discussed ө-roles with relevant to syntactic analysis we find several ө-roles like agent, patient, experiencer, theme or topic, beneficiary or recipient and so on. In sentences, ө-roles are assigned by heads as in (57):

(57) rumi-e   sxoday kitap   poh-e
     rumi-NOM   always book   read-3
     "Rumi always reads book."

When we talk about the position of adjunct in tree we come to know that adjuncts are not triggered by merge because it is applied only when elements are selectional in features. The system of how an adjunct incorporated into a phrasal structure is still a tough area of linguistic research.

Figure 5: Adjunct as Daughter of XP (Adger, 2002)
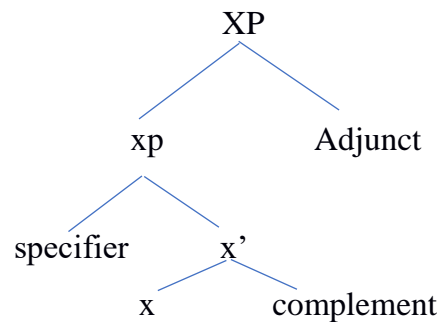
Moreover, as adverbs are base generated adjunct of VP and vP. As in Assamese:

(58) gita-k   nila-i   bohut   pit-il-e.

    gita-ACC nila-NOM   many   hit-PST-3.

  " Nila hit gita very much."
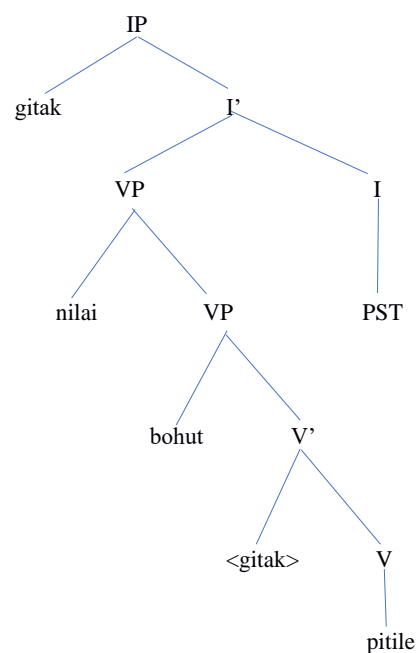
The subject will be in the specifier of TP and the adverb appears in the specifier of vP. The structure of this as follows.

(59) babu-e   kali   lila-k   mat-is-il-e.
      ramen-NOM   yesterday   lila-ACC   call-PST-PERF-3.
     "Ramen called Lila yesterday."

```
                        TP
                       /  \
                  Ramene    T'
                           /  \
                         vP     T
                        /  \     |
                     kali    vP   matisile
                            /  \
                    <ramene>     v'
                                /  \
                              VP     v
                             /  \    / \
                         lilak  matisile[uInflPst]<matisile> <lilak>
```
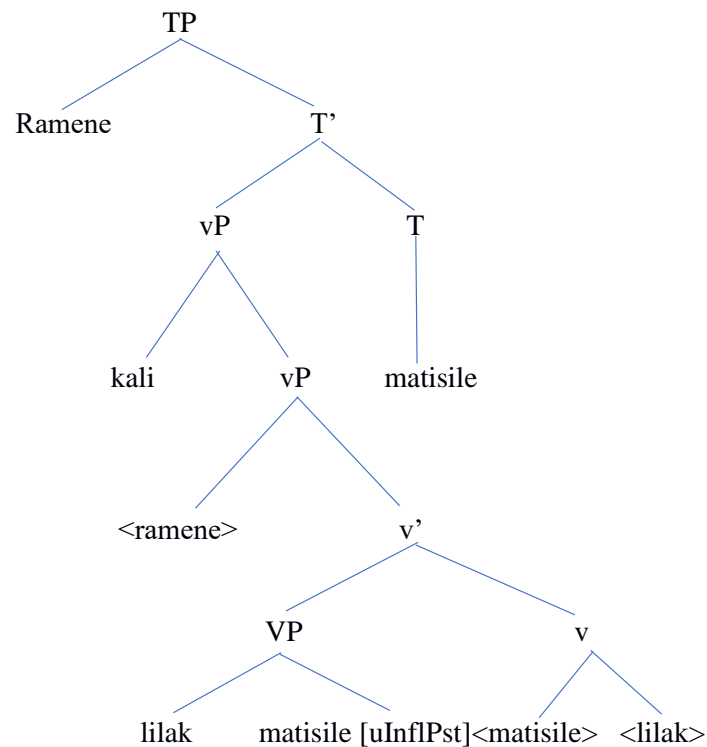
Relevant to this discussion we find that in Assamese language adverb can appear in both VP and vP position. The VP adverbs like xunkale 'quickly', lahe lahe 'slowly', azi 'today', iyat 'here' manner, time, place. Interestingly for them the place of their occurrence is at the start of the whole sentence:

(60) khub-xombhob   xi   guwahati-loi   za-bo.
    Most- probably   he   guwahati-LOC go-FUT.3.
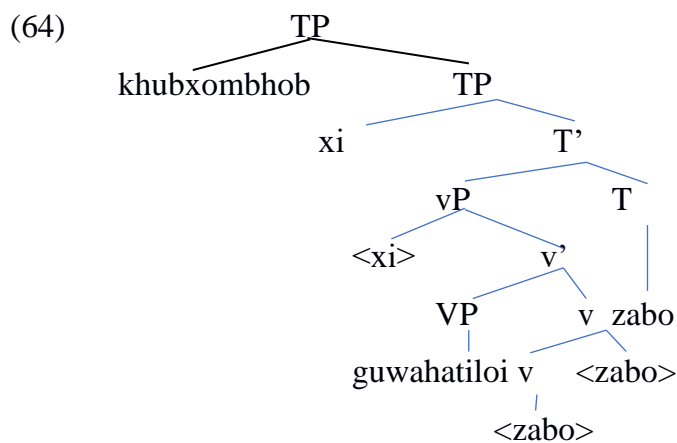   "Most probably he will go to Guwahati."

(61) hoy-tu   madhu-e   kam-tu   kor-il.
     be-EMP   madhu-NOM work-CL   do-PST.3
    "Perhaps, Madhu did the work"

Moreover, in addition to these examples in Assamese these adverbs also occupy other positions as in (62) and (63)

(62) xi khub-xombhob   guwahati-loi   za-bo.
     he Most- probably   guwahati-LOC   go-FUT.3.
     "Most probably he will go to Guwahati."

(63) madhu-e   hoy-tu   kam-tu   kor-il.
      madhu-e   be-EMP   work-CL   do-PST.3
      "Perhaps, Madhu did the work"

However, if we look at the structures of (60) and (61) we easily comprehend that the adverbs are adjoined to TP. But if it is so the EPP is not satisfied with its rule. Therefore, TP create an adjunct structure within TP so that the subject feature can also appear in the spec of TP as in follows:

(64)

```
                    TP
         khubxombhob        TP
                      xi         T'
                            vP        T
                        <xi>    v'
                           VP      v  zabo
                      guwahatiloi v   <zabo>
                              <zabo>
```


From this analysis we know that an adverb can adjoined to the specifier position of TP to satisfy the EPP features.

3.4 Argument and Adjunct

Generally, the distinction between argument and adjunct is distinguished as the core and periphery distinction. The adjunct is not part of the core of a clause or sentence, but it forms the non-participant role. For example, the PP in a sentence:

(65) I wrote my paper on Monday.

The PP 'on Monday' is an adjunct in the sentence. This PP is not part of the core so it is not an argument. However, the PP is not always an adjunct. This needs to be clarified that if there is a PP it does not necessarily have to be an adjunct. If the PP is directly affected by the predicate then it forms part of the core argument structure. For example:

(66) You rely on him.

The verb 'rely' takes a PP argument, so the PP 'on him' is a complement of the verb. However, the distinction between adjunct and argument is an analytical option for both syntax and semantics. Hence, the linguists study the term "argument" as "complement" unless the argument is a subject, and the term "adjunct" as "modifier"; therefore, in some traditions considered the terms argument and adjunct are restricted to the syntax and complement and modifier are restricted to the semantics. The syntactic classes, PPs/AdvPs/NPs and NPs/AdjPs, are commonly used to reflect adjuncts and complements as two significant syntactic functions respectively. But these category does not clarify what means by an argument; neither does recognize a concept such as adjunct. Some scholars commonly point to the main characteristics that identify arguments: they are semantically core participants of the activity or state denoted by the verb, and they are syntactically obligatory. For example:

(66) The child kicked a ball in the park.

As actively engaged in the activity or action denoted by the verb are the child is the kicker and a ball is kicked, whereas in the park merely denotes place about the entire

event happened or expression of the event and therefore it is not specific to or required by the verb itself. So, the child and A ball are arguments in (66) in the park is an adjunct.

So far, argument structure assume that arguments are, in some sense, necessary constituents; deleting them should lead to ungrammaticality or some kind of deviation. "The notion of semantic core participants does not always align with the arguments that are expressed in the syntax" (Jackendoff 2002). For example, expletive subjects are not semantic arguments of the verb. Whether or not an argument is obligatory seems to be a syntactic criterion, and the syntax can also place other requirements on arguments that seem independent of semantics. To explain this, point the dichotomy between arguments and adjuncts is the main discussion of theories that have developed. In GB, two central principles constrain the distribution of arguments: The Theta-Criterion and the Projection Principle (e.g., Chomsky 1981). Together, these principles enable us to collect the information about the verb's arguments is represented at every level of syntactic representation. For these principles, the verb lexically specifies the number of theta-roles (thematic roles) it assigns. This information must be present at every stage of the derivation (the Projection Principle). These core grammatical principles do not cover the presence and distribution of adjuncts. Thus, the difference between arguments and adjuncts is also crucially signalled in the structural representation, which is central to both GB and MP.

Arguments occupy specifier and complement positions, whereas adjuncts are adjoined: their sister phrase is the same as their mother phrase ("Chomsky-adjunction"). However, there are several views on exactly how arguments and adjuncts differ in the phrase structure. For some arguments are part of complex labelled structure defined by the verb whereas adjuncts are just a modifying category which interconnected to the structure. Despite these theoretical differences, the approaches to argumenthood within GB and MP seem to have some other argument-adjunct distinction which is in general important across different versions of the framework.

Though most of the work in generative grammar has focussed on argument NPs, it is also assumed that adjunct NPs such as many locative, time, and frequency expressions needs case. Of course, there would be a problem that adjunct is much freer in their distribution than an argument, and there has been no consensus on how they are to acquire case. So, the primary assumption is about that when they appear as an object of an adposition; the adposition assign case and for the case of bare NP adjunct:

(a) Adpostional case

(b) Semantic case

(c) Structural case

(d) Assign by own self.

There are ample number of evidences that show adjunct case. For example:

(67) tumi   itimodʰye   amar lɔgɔt emah   kam   kɔrila.
     you   already   we   with   one month   work   do.PST.2hon.
     'you have already been working with us for a month.'

So, the structural representation of this sentence is as following:
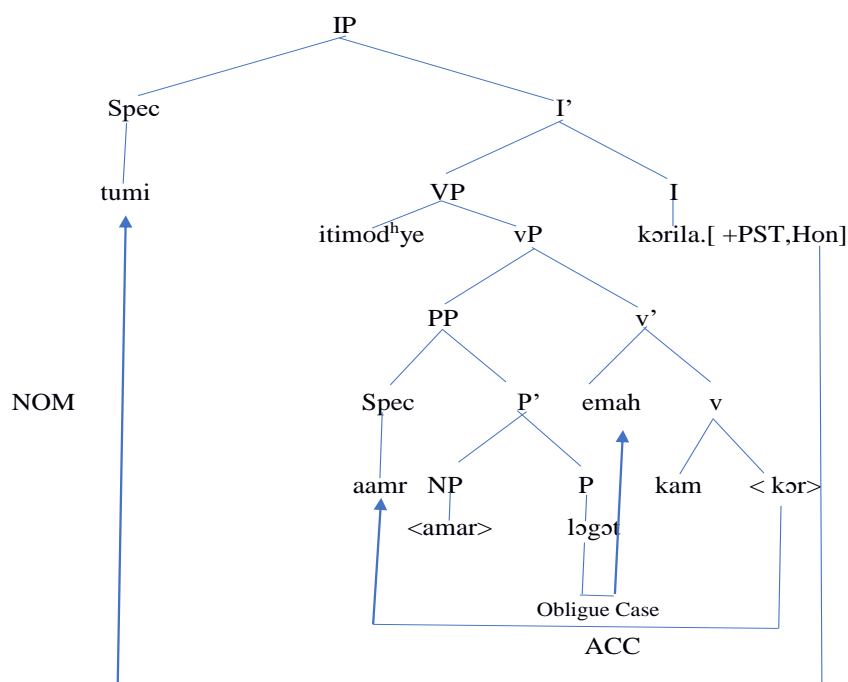
In example (67) we observed that the adjunct received oblique case via adposition.
Next, we take another example from Assamese as follow:

(68) tumi emah-u　　　　　　amar　ləgət kam　　nai-kora
　　 you one month-ADV PART　　us　　with work　NEG.do.PST3
　　 You haven't been working with us even a month.
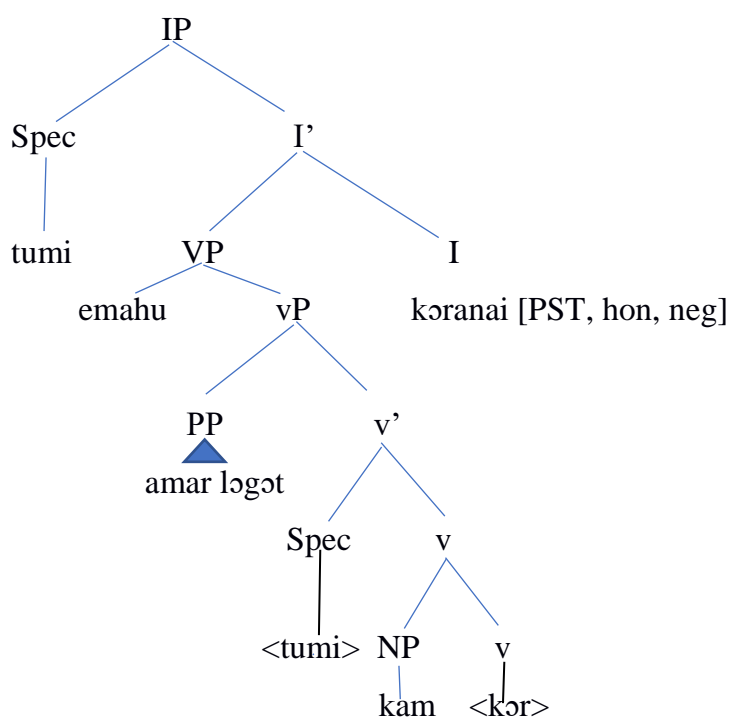
In this example (68) structurally assigned case in adjunct changed the position with
the scope negation and the same effect shown to the adjunct emah. But the PP inside
the structure is unaffected in the way of negation insertion. Thus, indicating the
example (68) with adjunct *emah* is not assigned case by empty position and that also
proves adjunct assigned adpositional case.

3.5 Summary

In this chapter we discussed about the case systems and adjunct and how they form part of the sentence structure. Briefly we notice that case in Assamese are morphologically marked and it accounts for the syntactic structure of the clause. Besides this the case marking is not always uniform in the language. Then we described the analysis of adjunct how they are formed and their function in the language. Thus, observing both the major constituents I start off this chapter with the analysis how argument and adjunct behave in syntactic structure as well their case assignment respecting to case marking.

Chapter 4

Processing of Assamese Case and Adjunct in Morphosyntax

4.1 Overview

This chapter cast on the processing of Assamese case and adjunct in Morphosyntax. In the present work we discuss case marking in the broad sense, that's the pair between morphological cases and adjuncts. But in the sentence processing literature, linguistically there has been a distinction between argument and adjunct. Arguments typically designate a central aspect of an action, and adjuncts typically designate some other noncentral aspect of the action (Radford, 1988), as shown in (69a) and (69b).

(69) a. The doctor lectured on heart disease. Argument PP

   b. The doctor lectured on Sunday. Adjunct PP

It is generally believed that the arguments that a specific verb can take are lexically specified, but information about adjuncts is not lexically specified, because their occurrence with verbs is relatively unrestricted. The linguistic distinction between arguments and adjuncts has ramifications in the realm of sentence processing. So, through this chapter try to investigates the processing case system with morphosyntactic analysis in terms of argument and adjunct alignment in Assamese. Assamese is a nominative-accusative language of the inflecting type, with the basic word order of SOV (subject–object–verb). In addition, word order is not a good indicator of the grammatical relations of arguments, owing to the fact that the language has a re-ordering operation called 'scrambling,'. Thus, in Assamese, postnominal case markers are used to indicate the grammatical status of arguments, as well as sometimes of adjuncts. In the analysis of argument realization in Assamese, it is necessary to find how arguments are morphologically marked. Since Assamese is categorized as a nominative-accusative language, it provides much

more varying argument patterns than those expected from its typological character as a nominative-accusative language.

4.2 Processing of Case and Adjunct: A morphosyntactic Study

The discussion of Assamese case processing starts from the statement that Assamese belongs to the nominative-accusative language type as a general rule that the subject of a transitive verb is treated in the same way as the subject of an intransitive verb, and differently from the direct object of a transitive verb in terms of their case marking. But morphological case in Assamese explained as nominal inflectional category where a few suffixes act like a case marker. However, for Dixon (1994) the case marking system of world languages can be divided into two categories, one is on syntactically based system which marks the NPs according to their function and another one is semantically based system which mark on NPs as per semantic function. So, we found that the NP in case marking process plays a very important role by inflecting for case. Beside the case in Assamese noun shows inflection for gender, number, as well for allocation or personal relationship also. Thus, in Assamese a fully inflected noun may contain the following constituents:

Noun Stem +Gender+ Number+ Allocation +Case

Moreover, our focus of interest of this section is the processing case and adjunct in Assamese. As I mentioned earlier in chapter 3 that in Assamese some case markers function as adjuncts. So, it is obvious that there must be a morphosyntactic process involved and these occurrence process will be discussed in the below sections.

4.2.1 Assamese Morphosyntax

Morphology studies the inherent features of the structure of a word and their forms in different uses and constructions as well as it gives information about word's semantic and the syntactic role that it plays in a sentence. Mostly morphological

analysis will be discussed in terms of inflectional morphology and derivational morphology. However, like other Indo-Aryan language family Assamese is a highly rich language with its morphological features; especially with inflectional morphological system. The grammatical categories for which verb class undergoes inflection in most of the languages are person, tense, aspect, and mood; whereas the noun class is inflected for gender, number, and case. Among the noun class in the Assamese language number and gender are not grammatically marked. Hence, in grammatical marking relation case morphology provides various information about a language structure. This is generally accomplished in natural language by case-marking, which marks roles of noun-phrases in respect to verbs and other function-like expressions. Case-marking is implemented in various languages, in various ways including word-order, inflection, and adposition.

The case-marking morphology or case morphology in Assamese is predominant in that almost all the case types and in most occurrences; they are marked distinctly at the morpheme level. As I mentioned earlier, the subject NP in Assamese may be inflected for case syntactically and for number and gender morphologically. Since number and gender are not grammatical but lexical in the language. These Phi-features are not grammatical in Assamese but the person is grammatical. Besides Assamese exhibits a rich inflectional morphological but also has agglutinating features in classifiers and case markings. Let us consider a set of examples:

(70)   manuh-bur   boh-i as-e

       man-DCM   sit-NF EXST-3

       'The men/people are seating.'

(71)   lora-keitaman   ah-is-e

       boy-PL   come-ASP-3

       "Some boys are coming.'

(72) moi tv sa-i as-u

I TV see-NF EXST-1

'I am watching TV.'

(73) manuh-zon-i-e kotʰa pat-i as-e

man-CLF-F-NOM talk tell-NF EXST-3

'The woman is talking.'

As exemplified above from the data in hand, it is clear that in Assamese number and gender are not grammatical but lexical. Whereas person is grammatical. Besides there is always a parallel alignment between the '-e' of the subject NP and the '-e' of the verb. This shows a very clear morpho-syntactic allignment of case marking and person marking which are grammatical. As such there are 3ʳᵈ person markers in Assamese:

Table6: Person Markers in Assamese

	Singular	Plural
1ˢᵗ Person	u	u
2ⁿᵈ Person	-a/-i/-o/-e	-a/-i/-o/-e
3ʳᵈ Person	e	e

In the 2ⁿᵈ person there are allomorphic variation based on honorificity and tense/aspect.

So, in the succeeding section we want to discuss some morphological point regarding case marking in Assamese which can help the researcher of linguistics to rethink about the established idea of case marking morphology in Indian Languages.

4.2.2 Morphosyntactic Account on Case Assignment in Assamese

As mentioned above number, gender, and case are the three major grammatical constituents of noun in Assamese. We observed all categories are manifesting in morphological and syntactic levels as in table (7).

Table 7: Morphosyntactic Manifested Categories

Grammatical Categories	Levels of manifestation	
	Morphological	**Syntactic**
Gender	Morphologically reflected	Not syntactical
Number	Morphologically reflected	Not syntactical
Case	Morphologically reflected	Syntactically reflected

So, among all this case is much governed by syntax as a means of formal marking of grammatical relations on noun and inflectional property of words. In Assamese, usually case relations are expressed by bound morphemes; either by the covert form or by post-positions. Hence found that case is a morphological feature in Assamese and from the theoretical aspect like GB found case is a syntactic element where case theory deals with the assignment of abstract case and its morphological realization. They are later considered as structural and inherent case. So, here in this section we explore the morphosyntactic feature related to case assignment in details.

From many years of generative syntax, the morphosyntactic analysis of case assignment in natural languages has received a special attention in general and in Assamese too. So, following Chomsky's analysis on case assignment we understand that nominative case on subjects is licensed under the Agree relation with T, while accusative Case on objects is licensed under the operation Agree with the v head. Moreover, in Assamese it is observed that the structural case (Nominative and Accusative) is present in the case marking system and are morphologically realized. Since the overt case marking on nominal categories is an important morphosyntactic characteristic of the language, the overt nominative

marker is basically [-e] and the accusative marker is [-k] though they have some other allophonic variations.

Moreover, in this study we review exhaustively the theory by which the all Assamese cases are assigned under government and case binding. Nominative-Accusative as a structural case in Assamese categorizes intransitive verbs in two types based on the illustrate difference structural case maker Nominative marking. They are as below:

Verb Class 1: Intransitive verb: (a) Unmarked Subject

(b) Marked Subject

verb class (1a): xu- 'sleep', mor- 'die', aah- 'come', boh- 'sit', upaj- 'be born', jie- 'live', baas- 'be safe', ut^h- 'get up', jaa- 'go'

verb class (1b): naas- 'dance', xator- 'swim', hah- 'laugh', juj- 'fight'

We see Verb class (1a) such as xu 'sleep' doesn't require overt marker for nominative Subject and thus represents the unmarked class of verbs. Verb class (1b) requires overt marker for nominative subject. In other word verb class (1b) naas 'dance' allows an overt nominative case marker with the subject. Hence, these are marked case system of intransitive verbs, and thus establishes a new rule for the structural case of Subject marking in Assamese, namely overt and covert nominative cases.

Again, if we look at the Verb class 2 i.e. transitive verb we see that they find the subject mostly marked for nominative case in sentence structure. Though there is an exception the 1st person pronoun does not occur any change. Some example of transitive verb that operates overt case marker for subject are as follows:

Verb Class 2: Transitive verb: a. Marked Subject

verb class (2): maar- 'beat'/ 'kill', sa- 'see', kat- 'cut', juka- 'tease', likh- 'write', kha- 'eat'

Thus, analysing the verb class (2) we noticed that verb like maar 'beat/kill' obligatorily have a nominative subject and important fact is that their second argument is an object and it has an overtly marked accusative case in Assamese. This classification of intransitive and transitive verb base on case marking can summarized in the table:8

Table 8: Verb Class by Case Marked

Verb Class	Case of Subject		Case of Object	
	Marked	**Unmarked**	**Marked**	**Unmarked**
Intransitive	√	√	×	×
Transitive	√	×	√	×

The table shows the categorization of nominative case for the subject and the accusative case for the object as the structural cases. The nominative case in Assamese is not literally related to the specific theta role and that has a functional projection such tense/ aspect that has case features assigned nominative case.

(74) sumon-e   xib-ɔk   puja   kor-e
     Suman-NOM   Shiva-ACC   worship   do-3
     'Suman worships Shiva.'

To account for case assignment following Chomsky we find as shown in (75)

(75)

```
                              TP
                    ┌──────────┴──────────┐
                  Spec                    T'
                Sumon-e         ┌─────────┴─────────┐
                               vP                   T
                        ┌──────┴──────┐          kɔre   [F Case feature]
                      sibɔk          v'
                              ┌───────┴───────┐
                             VP                v
                      ┌──────┴──────┐         kɔr
                 < Sumon> (Sub)    V'
                              ┌─────┴─────┐
                         Puja (I.obj)     V
                                    ┌─────┴─────┐
                               <Sib >(D.obj)   <kɔr>
```
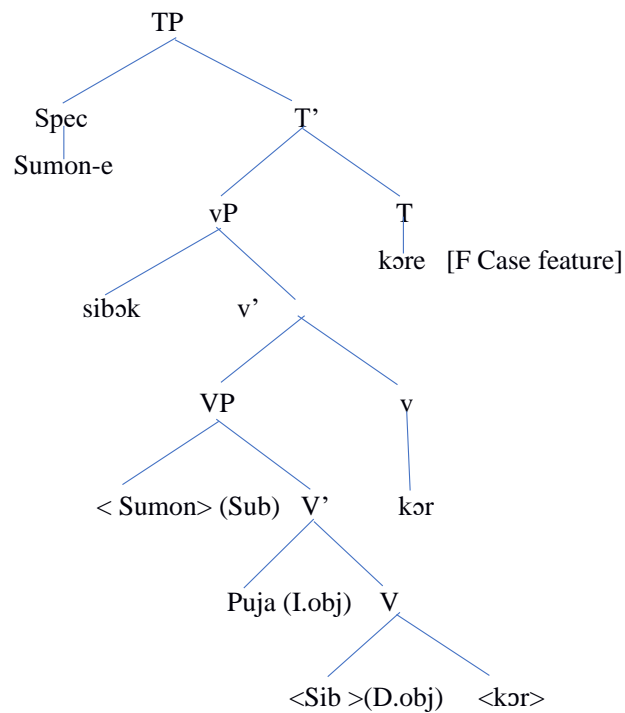
Here in (74) we observed that it is not the vP that assign nominative case but rather that tense/ aspect head assign nominative case to the subject DP of the transitive verb via agree; and the subject later move to spec position TP to fulfilled the requirement EPP feature. So, on account of this structure nominative is structural case on the base of marking features on Nominative case.

This structure also means the object in Assamese does not undergo any movement from its base position Spec of vP.   Furthermore, the lexical verb moves to the functional category to receive tense feature then object NP later agrees with the Verb the head phrase and verb assigned   accusative case to it. Thus, we summed up this section that the syntactic operation agree relation established is both nominative and accusative case assignment and like this all uninterpretable features such as, [u Case] and [u ɸ-features] are valued and get eliminated in the structure.

4.3 Assamese as a Nominative-Accusative Language

In previous chapter we discussed the prevailing account related to case marking system in which most of the world's languages mainly varying between nominative-accusative case system; though there are another important dichotomy like ergative-absolutive exist. Here, we are going to discuss that the case system in Assamese is of the nominative-accusative type as it is exemplified below.

Syntactically Assamese is an accusative language which is evident from a lot of syntactic operations. Firstly, in a transitive sentence, the subject NP is marked by the nominative case marker and the object NP is marked by accusative case marker.

(76)   mohan-e   hari-k   matisil
        Mohan-NOM Hari-ACC   called
        'Mohan called Hari.'

(77)   mohan-e   kitap-khon   kak   disil
        Mohan-NOM book-CLF   whom gave
        'Whom did Mohan give the book to?

In the above examples, it is syntactically clear that the language has nominative-accusative system. Although there are many instances when we see deviation of it.

The case system in Assamese labels it as an accusative language. However, it is not always consistent. In certain contexts, the accusative or sometimes the nominative is not realized. For example:

(78)   mohan-e   am-tu   kha-l-e
        Mohan-NOM mango-CLF   eat-PST-3
        'Mohan ate the mango.'
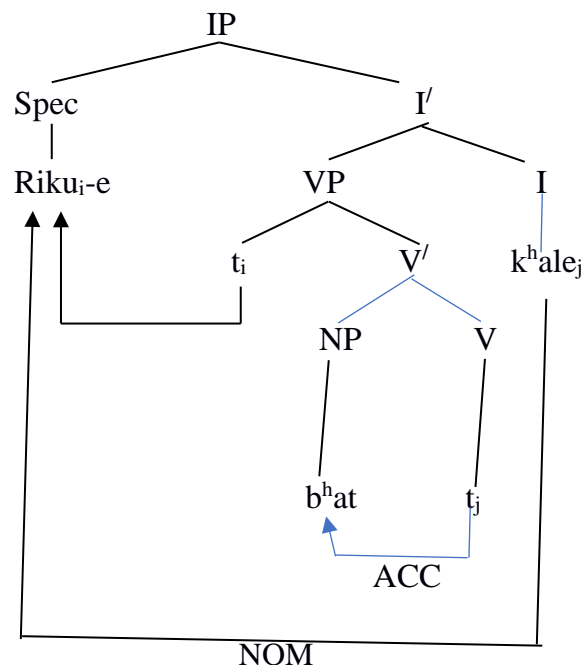(79)   hari-e   kukur-tu   pit-il-e
        Hari-NOM   dog-CLF   hit-PST-3
        'Hari beat the dog.'

This is how language is used in a way that is not at par with the theoretical framework. Besides this, cases in Assamese theoretically have been divided into three main groups with respect to their overt marking as

a. Unmarked

b. Primarily Marked

c. Secondarily marked.

Proposed three layers of case marking discussed in the previous chapter, applied to the language. So, the present analysis is on a notion of case as a nominative-accusative system, being part of GB. Following GB the nominative case is assigned in [Spec, Head] configuration to the argument in Spec IP by the tensed I; the accusative case is assigned to the complement of V. Since the syntactic Tree for Nom-Acc case in GB using Assamese language as following:

(80)

IP
Spec   I$'$
Riku$_i$-e   VP   I
          t$_i$ V$'$ k^{h}ale$_j$
              NP   V
              b^{h}at   t$_j$
                  ACC
          NOM

As mentioned above we found that 'I' satisfies the conditions for government since it is a governor and it m-commands the NP Riku-e in its Spec position and no barriers intervene. Furthermore, being a case assigner, it can assign nominative case

to this NP. Then accusative case is assigned to the complement of V- the object argument bʰat - by the verb which is the governor of the NP. Since this head V also m-commands the no barriers intervene all the conditions for government are met. Thus, V is a case assigner which assigns accusative case to bʰat. Thus, it confirms our hypothesis that we are dealing with accusative/nominative system in Assamese language, in its pure form, not displaying traces of mixed (active/split) systems.

But when we analyzed the data thoroughly Assamese appears some confusion in case marking. Like nominal inflection -e marked only on unergative subject as

(81) ramen-e khahe/ kahibo/kahil

    Ramen-e cough/ will cough/ coughed.

If we come to the next example we find that Assamese subject of transitive verb is also marked with the inflectional -e as in (82)

(82) Ramene   kam-tu   kore/ koribo/koril

    Ramen-e work-CLS   do/ will do/ did.

From the example (81) and (82) it is clear that other verbs whose subject falls into this classes they are either unergative or nominative case and in addition these also institution that the non-occurrence of -e is related to the unaccusativity, Such as

(83) Gʰɔt-tu   pore/poribo/poril

    Pot-CLS   fall/ will fall/ fell.

So, found in example (81) and (82) only unergatives and transitive's have real subjects in the sense that they are used as external argument. And in (88) found the subjects of unaccusatives are underlying objects. Traditionally the ɸ case on subject of the verb is absolutive and the construction like (81) and (82) is nominative

(Guswami1982:264). Thus, following this Assamese doesn't postulated any ergative case. But there are many reasons to called -e as ergative, from Guswami's (1982) observation -e express instrumental case like (84)

(84) kɔlomere

'By pen.'

Above example also implies that -e is linked to agentivity and is also accordant with its compatibility unaccusative subject as alike Hindi ergative marker -ne. So, these all evidence found from the data leads to the assumption that -e is an ergative case in Assamese. So, we can apparently, say that the case system Assamese is basically nominative-accusative. But if we go through morphologically then has found a mixed 'nominative-ergative case system (R. Amitawali 2002) which has an ergative an absolutive and an accusative.

4.3.1 Case in Assamese

The constituent orders of Assamese language are SOV. Although Assamese is a non-configurational language as almost all the orders can be and are used due to the flexibility of the order which is called scrambling. Morphosyntactically, the most important characteristic of this language is the case marker, which is added inflectionally after the noun or pronoun. The Assamese case system still has case specified as well as overtly case-marked word forms. So, this section gathers Assamese case markers, which are inflectional in nature. To treating these inflectional categories as case marker is provided in the section following this inventory. The following analysis recognizes two ways of 'basic' Case marking in Assamese- synthetic and analytic.

Case markers are primarily presented in most of the languages. Following inflectional category Massica (1991:231ff.) identifies three layers for inflectional category where Layer I consists of inflectional affixes characterized by declensional differences and singular/plural difference but this missing in Assamese and other

Eastern IA languages. This case marking system in language includes seven inflectional form based on their used as listed in the table below:

Table 9: Case marker in Assamese

Nominative	Accusative	Dative	Genitive	Locative	Ablative	Instrumental
Ø, -e	-[ɒ]k (animate)	-[ɒ]lɔi	[ɒ]r	[ɒ]t	[ɒ]pɒra	-ere, -re

In Assamese case marked inflectionally, as the case marker is integrated into the noun. Assamese cases are overtly marked on nouns and pronouns. Case marking may take the form of an affix or the form of a preposition/postposition or a mixed form. Whatever we will now be discussing these cases and case markers in detail along with various examples from the language.

(1) Nominative

Nominative case is defined as the grammatical relation of a subject NP to the verb which typically refers to the agent. Nominative is also called naming case used for the subject of a clause. Formally nominative case in Assamese marked for the subject of transitive verb and a few subjects of intransitive verb whereas subjects of most of the intransitive verbs lack overt markers. So, it is considered the most basic form of structural case. For example:

(85) adi-e   suwalijonik   matise

    Adi-NOM   girl-CLS-ACC   call-ASP-3

    'Adi is calling the girl.'

(86) sita-i   kamtu   kɔrile

    Sita-NOM work-CLF   do-PST.3

'Sita did the work.'

(87) Pubali   xule

    Pubali   sleep.PST.3

  " Pubali slept."

(88) Pubali-e kahil.

    Pubali-NOM cough-PST.3

   'Pubali coughed.'

So here in example (85) and (86) we find that the nominative case marker "e" or "i" is marked for the subject and this is only one of the possible cases that can be associated with the argument to the subjects in Assamese. Again, coming back to data we find that nominative case is associated with the agent thematic role as can be seen in sentences (87) and (88) above. Instead of this the nominative case is also associated with subjects which bear the experiencer thematic role as well like (89).

(90) polie batorikhɔn pohile.

   Poli-NOM newspaper-CLS porh-PST.3

   'Poli read the newspaper.'

(2) Accusative

Accusative case is assigned by the verb to its internal argument which is usually the object NP. The accusative case marker in Assamese is '-k'. One of the basic function of the accusative case is that of identifying the patient. Structural accusative case in direct object position identifies the thematic role. Like many other nominative-accusative languages, in Assamese also the accusative case remains morphologically unmarked in many contexts. Malchukov (2006) argues that passives are found mostly in nominative-accusative languages while antipassives

are found mostly in ergative languages. In Assamese the object is case marked depending on the animacy level. For example:

(91a) manuh-zon-e   kukur-tu   kʰed-il-e
       man-CLF-NOM   dog-CLF   chase-PST-3
       "The man chased the dog."

(91b) kukur-tu-e   manuh-zon-ok   kʰed-il-e
       dog-CLF-NOM   man-CLF-ACC   chase-PST-3
       "The dog chased the man."

(91c) moni-e   bina-k   kʰed-il-e
       Moni-NOM   Bina-ACC   chase-PST-3
       "Moni chased Bina."

From the above examples it is clear that the object is case-marked when its animacy is as high as or higher than that of the subjcet. In (91a) the dog is lower in animacy with respect to the man, that is why the dog is not case-marked.

(3) Dative

Dative case is assigned to the recipient in an argument structure. Thus, dative is regarded as the case of the indirect object. The dative case marker in Assamese is '-loi' as exemplified below:

(92)   tai   muloi   ekʰon   kitap   anisil
        she   1SG.DAT   one.CLF   book   brought
        "She brought a book for me."

(4) Genitive

Genitive case marks the possessive relation as well as the head-dependent structure of genitive and noun. In Assamese the case marker '-r' is regarded as the genitive case marker. For example:

(93)   mur   kitap

      my   book

(94)   ram-or   kitap

      Ram-GEN   book

      "Ram's book."

(95)   nira-r   kitap

      Nira-GEN   book

      "Nira's book"

However, the distribution of this genitive case marker is not only limited to such functions. The case marker '-r' is also attached to the ablative constructions in Assamese. This is exemplified below:

(96)   tai   iskul-r   pora   ahil

      she   school-GEN   ABL   came

      "She came from school."

Again, it is also used for temporal relation:

(97)   kali-r   batori

      yesterday-GEN   newspaper

      "Yesterday's newspaper."

Then for comitative constructions:

(98) bina rina-r   lagat biya-loi   gol
      Bina Rina-GEN   with   wedding-ALLwent
      "Bina went to the wedding with Rina."

As the constructions above show, the genitive case marker in Assamese has a widespread distribution.

(5) Locative

The locative case marker in Assamese has even more functions than any other case markers. Locative case is the one which identifies the spatial relation of an NP with respect to its location. For example:

(99) kitap-k^{h}on   tebul-ot   as-e
      book-CLF   table-LOC   EXST-3
      "The book is on the table."

The tangible notion of space is denoted by the locative case markers. The same locative marker is also used to identify abstract space:

(100) kot^{h}a-tu   mur   mon-ot   as-e
      talk-CLF   my   mind-LOC   EXST-3
      Lit: A thing exists in my mind.

(6) Instrumental

Instrumental case is used to indicate how something is done. It is assigned to an NP usually a complement which indicates the instrument or means by or with which the

subject achieves or accomplishes an action. As mentioned earlier the instrumental case marker in Assamese is '-re/-ere'. For example:

(101) xi   bas-ere   kolez   zai

       he   bus-INS   college   goes

       "He goes to school by bus."

(7) Ablative

Ablative case is the one which shows the source of an event. In Assamese '-r pora' together is regarded as the ablative case. For example:

(102) xi   gʰor-or   pora   ahise

       he   home-GEN   ABL   coming

       "He is coming from home."

Besides the above-mentioned case markers there is also another inherent case in Assamese – allative – which is usually marked by the case marker '-loi'. However, it is also not used consistently in spoken form. For example:

(103a) xi   gʰor-oloi   gol

       he   home-ALL   went

       "He went home."

(103b) xi   gʰor   gol

       he   home   went

       "He went home."

As such Assamese is quite rich in case morphology. The case assignment is determined by the structure of the clause. The verb assigns nominative case to the subject NP and the INFL assigns accusative case to the object NP.

4.3.2 The primary usage of case is to mark grammatical relations

The case marking of subject NP and the Object NP of a transitive sentence is influenced by extra-linguistic feature like animacy and linguistic feature like definiteness. For example:

(104) mohan-e   kukur-tu   khed-il-e

Mohan-NOM dog-CLF   chase-PERF-e

'Mohan has chased the dog.'

In this context the object NP is not definite so no case marking for an indefinite non-human object. If the non-human object is definite then it gets inflected for the accusative case:

(105) mohan-e   amar   kukur-tu-k   pit-il-e

Mohan-NOM our   dog-CLF-ACC   beat-PERF-3

'Mohan has beaten our dog.'

Thus, the accusative case marking becomes optional in such contexts. The nominative case marker is also absent for pronouns as well as in intransitive sentence.

(106) xi   am-tu   kha-l-e

he   mango-CLF   eat-PERF-3

'He has eaten the mango.'

(107) mohan   xu-l-e

　　　　Mohan   sleep-PERF-3

　　　　'Mohan has slept.'

However, in some actions like run the subject NP is marked for nominative:

(108) mohan-e   dour-il-e

　　　　Mohan-NOM run-PERF-3

　　　　'Mohan has run.'

These instances show the inconsistent marking of case in Assamese.

4.4 Adjunct in Assamese

Adjunct refers to the optional part of a clause or a sentence. It carries the extra information about an action or an event. It generally provides information about time and space etc. Adjunct consists of adverbs and adjectives. Adverbs emphasise on verbs and adjectives modify nouns. Syntactically adjuncts occupy the place of complementizer. In X-bar theory –

[XP [Spec[X'[X Comp]]]]

In Assamese the position of adjuncts is generally to the left of X, i.e.

The diagram is a representation of a typical adjunct in Assamese. For instance,

(109) xi   kotari-re   am-tu   kat-il-e

       he   knife-INS   mango-CLF   cut-PST-3

       'He cut the mango with a knife.'

The adjunct 'kotarire' is placed in the comp position of V/. The comp is placed to the left of X/. This adjunct has the instrumental case marker '-re' attached to the NP 'kotari'.

Adjunct is usually thought of being an optional element within the argument structure of a clause. This optional element has multiple realizations – adverb, adjectives, adpositions. Adverbs constitute the optional position in a sentence structure. The position of the adverb is determined by the verb and/or the type of adverb. Basically, adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even the whole sentence. Jackendoff (1972, 1977) provides a distributional classification of adverbs in English.

4.4.1 Adverb

Assamese adverbs formed by derivations. These adverbials indicate different manners of an action or an event. As shown in (109) the adjunct indicates how the particular action of cutting is performed. Some adverbial constructions are given below:

(110) [NP[xi] VP[ADV[dʰunia-koi]   V[pohe]]]

       he   beautiful-AFX   reads

       "He reads well."

(111) tai   poripati-koi   tʰake

       she   neat-AFX   stays

       "She lives neatly."

(112) xi   xoroh-koi   kʰai

       he   lots-AFX   eats

       "He eats a lot."

These examples show how the adverb is formed from adjectives with the class-changing derivation '-koi' in various types of adjectives and constructions.

4.4.2 Adjective

Adjective is the category which forms part of the complement in a sentence structure. Adjectives are usually part of the NP. In Assamese adjectives can be predicative as well. This will be exemplified with some suitable examples.

(113) xi   eta   NP[AP[A[bʰal]] N[lora]]

       he   one.CLF   good   boy

       "He is a good boy."

(114) NP[mas-tu]   AP[bʰal]

fish-CLF   good

"The fish is good."

In (114) the adjective functions as a predicative.

4.4.3 Adpositions

Assamese has adpositions which follows the noun or NP in a sentence. However the number of adposition is very less. The adpositions function as the realizations of the cases – ablative, commitative, locative – and other spatial relations. For example:

(115) bina rina-r   lagat bozar-oloi gol
    Bina Rina-GEN with market-ALL went
    "Bina went to market with Rina."

(116) teu uporot   as-e
    he upstairs   EXST-3
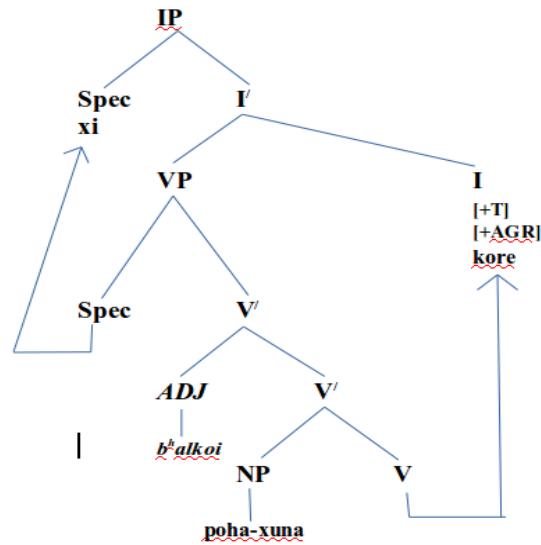   "He is in upstairs."

In (115) the adposition lagat functions as comitative case and in (116) uporot functions as locative case.

The structural position of adjunct in Assamese is illustrated below:

(117) xi b^{h}alkoi   poha-xuna kore
    he well   studies   does
    "He studies well."

IP tree diagram:

- IP
  - Spec: xi
  - I′
    - VP
      - Spec
      - V′
        - ADJ: bʰalkoi
        - V′
          - NP: poha-xuna
          - V
    - I [+T] [+AGR] kore

The adjunct in Assamese as shown in the diagram is inside the VP is placed to the left of the V′. However, this position is not consistent because the adjunct can be placed at any place in the sentence. Since Assamese is a relatively free word-ordered language, especially in terms of scrambling, this variation does not pose much of an issue in determining the structure of a sentence.

The adjunct which is the optional element in an argument structure has been studied by linguists of all groups from generative to functionalist and to cognitive. One of the fundamental distinctions in natural language syntax is that of an argument and an adjunct.

(A) Argument–   obligatory, selected, fixed, core

(B) Adjunct –   optional, unselected, flexible, peripheral, modification

Figure6: Adjunct in X-Bar Theory

- XP
  - X
  - YP
    - Y
    - ZP
      - Z
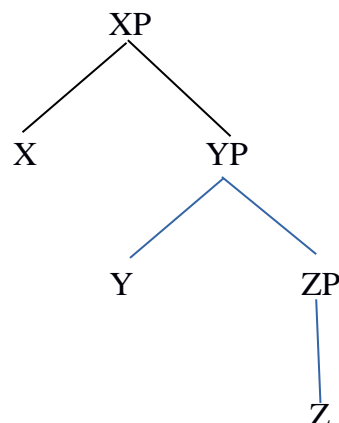
Y = Adjunct

Z = Argument

Adjunct does not fulfill selectional requirements. As such adjuncts may be said not to be selected. Instead, one may say that adjuncts themselves select the type of their host. For example:

(118) rina-i   {bina-loi}   sah   bonale
       Rina-NOM   {Bina-DAT} tea   made
       "Rina prepared tea for Bina."

In this instance the beneficiary Bina is an adjunction. The constituent to which the element binaloi adjoins must be one which describes a volitional action.

4.5 The Notion of Adjunct in Theoretical Frameworks

There is a confusing array of proposals to get a theoretical grip on the adjunct notion. This holds both in syntax and semantics. Adjuncts thus can be divided into complementary subclasses. Different theories within the generative framework provides different explanation of the adjunct notion. Now we will look into the subclasses within adjuncts – attributes and adverbials.

4.5.1 The Dichotomy of Attributes and Adverbials

The dichotomy of attributes and adverbials is the best-known partition of the adjunct or modifier class. Attributes are said to be the adjuncts of nominals and adverbials are adjuncts of non-nominals. The second-level dichotomy of adverbs vs. adverbials usually concerns the phrasal status of the adjunct: adverbs are words/terminal nodes whereas adverbials are phrases. However as mentioned earlier each adjunct within an NP is not always an attribute. It may sometimes be an adverb. For example:

(119) dʰuniakoi   kua   kahini-tu
        beautifully   tell.NMZ   story-CLF
        "the beautifully told story"

This complex NP contains the adverb dʰuniakoi which is not an adverbial adjunct. As such a clear distinction is difficult to be made between an attribute and an adverbial.

4.5.2 The Cases

As discussed in the previous sections of this chapter the case alignment in Assamese is a clear instance of morphosyntactic description. The case system in Assamese is more morphological than syntactic. Each case has its case-marked realizations in NPs. However, the pronominals in Assamese are not overtly case-marked but they carry the syntactic relation of the case. Moreover, the case markers overlap in some instances. For instance, the case marker '-loi' is marked for dative as well as allative, the case marker '-k' is marked for accusative as well as dative. Consider the following instances:

(120) tai   biya-loi   gol   [ALLATIVE]
       she   wedding-ALL went
       "She went to the wedding."

(121) tai   bina-loi   kitap anile   [DATIVE]
       she   Bina-DAT   book brought
       "She brought a book for Bina."

(122) tai   moni-k   matisile   [ACCUSATIVE]
       she   Moni-ACC   had called
       "She had called Moni."

(123) tai   moni-k   kitap-kʰon   dile   [DATIVE]

      she   Moni-DAT   book-CLF   gave

      "She gave the book to Moni."

These instances show that the dative case in Assamese is marked by two case markers which are also case markers of the allative and the accusative case. This overlapping of case markers gives rise to another empirical investigation as to identify whether Assamese indeed have a dative case or not; whether it indicates that the recipient of a transfer is regarded as that of an accusative or allative. For the limitation of this present dissertation we will skip these questions for further studies.

4.5.3 The Adjuncts

Adjunct in Assamese has a widespread distribution as discussed earlier with respect to case markers and spatial nominals. There are enough empirical evidences that show that some case markers are not always overtly marked and some other spatial nominals are just optional element in an argument structure. The morphosyntactic analysis of adjunct in Assamese shows evidences that is at par with the case marking system in the language. As such it provides a correlation between the morphology of case and adjunct in Assamese. For instance:

(124) tai   laz-ot   roŋa~siŋa   porisil

      she   shame-LOC   reddish   fell

      "She turned red with shyness."

(125) tai   roŋa~siŋa   porisil

      she   reddish   fell

      "She turned red with shyness."

The word 'roŋa-siŋa' only collocates with this particular situational construction. Thus 'laz-ot' becomes an adjunct because without this also the sentence will mean the same.

Then again consider the following spatial nominal construction:

(126) xi   gʰor-or   bʰitor-ot   as-e

he   house-GEN   inside-LOC   EXST-3

"He is in the house."

(127) xi   gʰor-ot   as-e

he   house-LOC   EXST-3

"He is in the house."

In (126) the spatial nominal bʰitorot is used and in (127) it is not used and yet they both mean the same. Thus, it makes bʰitorot an adjunct.

Beside these the adverbials and attributes as discussed earlier are morphologically marked in the language. The syntactic function of these are performed by the morphological indication that the particular linguistic unit carries. For example:

(128a) ram-e   kʰor-koi   kʰujkahe

Ram-NOM   quick-AS   walks   [AS = adverbial suffix]

"Ram walks quickly."

*(128b) ram-e kʰor   kʰuj kahe

The ungrammaticality of (128b) shows that the morphological indication is necessary for marking an adverb. Such morphosyntactic alignment of adjunct in Assamese is consistent among all types of adverbial structures.

4.6 Summary

To sum up this chapter it is noteworthy that case and adjunct in Assamese as syntactic relation and categories are highly motivated by the morphological realizations of them with different case markers and affixes. Moreover, it is quite interesting to notice the overt realization of case since Assamese exhibits inflectional and agglutinating morphology.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.0 Overview

This chapter is about the conclusions that are drawn from this dissertation. The sections of this chapter are divided as follows the first section tries to give a summary of the dissertation with finding the purpose of this study. The second section draws the conclusion from the findings guided by the objective of the study. The last section tries to portrait some limitation of this study as well as suggest some possible areas which can be looked into for future research.

5.1 Findings

This present research was carried out for a morphosyntactic analysis of Case marking and Adjunct construction in the Assamese language with the vision of giving a proper structure to the language. For this it is guided by the following objectives

1. To understand the aspects related to the notion of case and adjunct.

2. To contribute to the comprehension of this aspect of grammar by examining a language which has not been studied in detail before.

3. To show that adjunct constitutes an important lexical category in the morphological structure of Assamese as well as for the syntactic study of the language.

4. To establish the distinction between argument/adjunct within a structural framework.

5. To establish a correspondence between case markers and adjunct and to analyze whether some case markers can be optional or behave like an adjunct in some particular structures.

The case in Assamese is marked extensively and overtly by morphemes, i.e. 'suffixes'. The syntactic features of the language require overt morphology to be

present with respect to case. The case system in Assamese has been discussed elaboratively in the dissertation. Based on my research we found that case morphology in Assamese is not always consistent. Though syntactically Assamese is a nominative-accusative language, there are lot of instances where this does not hold true. For instance, in a sentence like 'The tiger killed the deer' or 'He chased the dog' the object NP or the patient in Assamese is not marked for accusative case. Again, in a sentence like 'He slept' or 'He ran' the subjcet NP is not marked for nominative case in Assamese. However, except some structures like these case-marking is a requirement in Assamese case system.

There are instances where the case-marker becomes an optional requirement or it can be said to be an adjunct. In allative constructions the case-marker is redundant. For example, in a structure like 'He went to Delhi' the allative case marker be an adjunct:

xi	dilli-loi	gol		xi	dilli	gol
he	Delhi-ALL	went		he	Delhi	went

However, if the pateint of a transitive is a definite non-human then the object NP is marked for accusative. When the animacy of the object is either higher or as high as the subject then it is marked for accusative. This shows that animacy does have a role to play when it comes to morphological case-marking in Assamese. These things are discussed in Chapter 4 with suitable data analysis.

An adjunct is an optional part of a structure. Adjunct in Assamese typically positioned to the left of $X^{/}$ within X-bar theory. Structurally the adjuncts in Assamese are of two types – adverbs and adjectives. Adverbs are formed by affixation with usually adjectives. Assamese has some postpositions along with the case markers discussed in previous chapters. Thus, these postpositions function as adjuncts in a PP like structure.

Adjunct is the optional category in an argument structure. As such it does not fulfill selectional requirements. The redundancy of an adjunct does not affect the core

meaning of a sentence. In fact, different structure requires different types of adjuncts. Assamese exhibits morphologically rich adjuncts. Since it is a relatively free word order language the structural position of the adverbials is also flexible.

5.2 Conclusion

This dissertation gives a detailed description of my research on morphosyntactic case alignment and how adjunct is placed within the argument structure of Assamese in terms of case marking. The research shows that case in Assamese carries morpho-syntactic features with some exception where we do not find overt case-marking. This makes the specific case markers adjuncts in the argument structure.

Adjuncts play a role in the argument structure of a sentence. We approached the issues of adjunct structure by the analysis of different adjunct types in Assamese. The locational postpositions in Assamese are in fact is optional in the argument structure, i.e. adjuncts.

5.3 Limitation of the Research

The topic of this research is a broader one which requires more time and effort to be able to provide a complete description. Especially the area of adjunct requires an even more in-depth study. This can be done by paying holistic attention to all the possible features of adjunct in Assamese and their morpho-syntactic explanation

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Appendix

Profile of Participants

Name: Abhijit Hazarika

Age:27

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages known: Hindi, English

Members in the family: 5 (Mother, Father, Brother, Sister)

Participant code: P01M

Name: Ashish Hazarika

Age: 24

Educational Qualification: Agri B. Sc

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages Known: Hindi, English

Members in the family: 4 (Mother, Father, Sister)

Participant code: P02M

Name: Pranab Neog

Age: 35

Educational Qualification: 12 Passed

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members in the family: 5 (Mother, 2 Daughter, Wife)

Participant Code: P03M

Name: Manas Jyoti Bora

Age: 26

Educational Qualification: M.Phil

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: English, Hindi, Bengali, Mising

Members of the Family: 4(Mother, Brother, Sister)

Participant Code: P04M

Name: Dinkur Borah

Age: 24

Educational Qualification: M.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 5(Mother, Father, 2Brother)

Participant Code: P06M

Name: Hiranya Das

Age: 22

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, Assamese,

Members of the Family: 6(Mother, Father, Sister, 2 Brother)

Participant Code: P07M

Name: Prashnata Gayan

Age: 25

Educational Qualification: M.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 4(Mother, Father, Brother)

Participant Code: P08M

Name: Robin Das

Age: 39

Educational Qualification: M.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 5(Mother, Father, Wife, Daughter)

Participant Code: P09M

Name: Pritom Das

Age: 38

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 4(Mother, Wife, 2Son)

Participant Code: P10M

Name: Rohit Guswami

Age:27

Educational Qualification: B.Tech

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: English, Hindi, Marathi, Spanish

Members of Family:3(Mother, Father)

Participant Code: P11M

Name: Sujit Hazarika

Age:62

Educational Qualification: B. Sc

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: English, Hindi

Members of the Family: 5(Wife, Daughter, 2 Son)

Participant Code: P12M

Name: Adittya Hazarika

Age: 30

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 5(Mother, Father, Brother, Sister)

Participant Code: P13M

Name: Ajit Hazarika

Age: 57

Educational Qualification: B. Sc

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 4(Wife, Daughter, Son)

Participant Code: P14M

Name: Lakshyajit Chutia

Age: 26

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 3(Mother, Father)

Participant Code: P15M

Name: Rina Neog

Age: 52

Educational Qualification: 12 Passed

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 5(Husband, Daughter, 2Son)

Participant Code: P16F

Name: Dipti Bora

Age: 48

Educational Qualification: 12 Passed

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family:4 (Husband, Daughter, Son)

Participant Code: P17F

Name: Akansha Hazarika

Age:22

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 4(Mother, Father, Brother)

Participant Code: P18F

Name: Kanika Hazarika

Age: 30

Education Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 6 (Mother, Sister, 2 Brother)

Participant Code: P19F

Name: Gita Moni Das

Age: 35

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 4(Husband, 2Son)

Participant Code: P20F

Name: Ditu Moni Das

Age: 31

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 3(Husband, Daughter)

Participant Code: P21F

Name: Biru Das

Age: 38

Educational Qualification: M.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, Enlish

Members of the Family: 4(Husband, Mother in Law, Father in Law)

Participant Code: P22F

Name: Sila Neog

Age: 32

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 5(Husband, Mother in Law, 2 Daughter)

Participant Code: P23F

Name: Mosfica Rahman

Age: 26

Educational Qualification: M.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 3(Mother, Brother)

Participant Code: P24F

Name: Karabi Saikia

Age: 29

Educational Qualification: B. A., Dl.ed

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Hindi, English

Members of the Family: 6(Mother, Father 3sister)

Participant Code: P25F

Name: Punu Borah

Age: 28

Educational Qualification: B.A

First Language: Assamese

Other Languages: Monpa,Hindi, English,

Members of the Family: 4(Mother, Father,Sister)

Participant Code: P26F