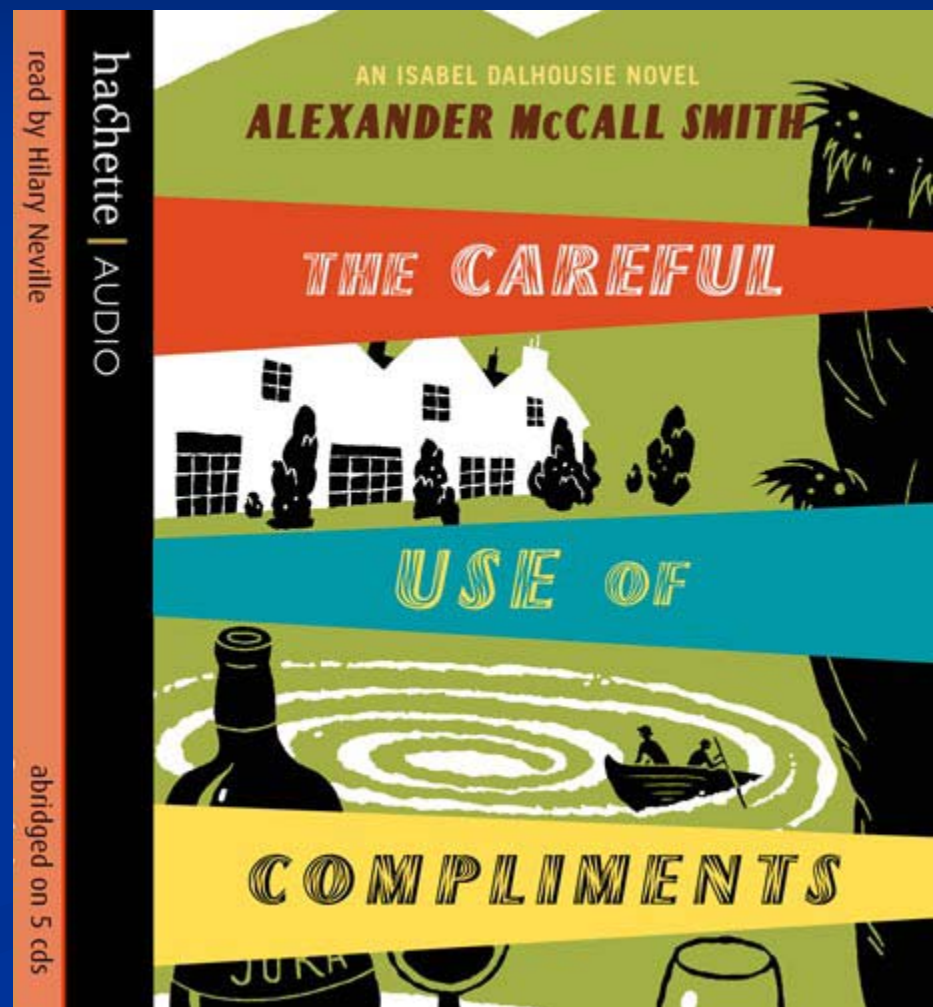


# Acquisition of Complements



# What is complementation?

- A special case of a complex sentence -
  - A complex sentence has two verbs expressing two propositions
  - Complementation -
    - One proposition is nested within another
    - One proposition is an *argument* of another proposition
- Sentential Complements
  - I THINK I can put him in a house
- Wh-complements (with null argument)
  - LOOK AT what the little bear's eating

# Propositions (Kintsch)

**Proposition** = a "meaning unit", "idea unit"

Every sentence can be represented by 1 or more propositions

*The stupid man bought the wrong car.*

Proposition 1: **BOUGHT** (**MAN**, **CAR**)

Proposition 2: **STUPID** (**MAN**)

Proposition 3: **WRONG** (**CAR**)

**BOUGHT, STUPID, WRONG** = Predicates

- Action, state, relationship, ...

**MAN, CAR** = Arguments

- Entities participating in the action, ...

The same propositions are found in other ways of saying (roughly) the same thing

*The guy was so dumb he bought the wrong car.*

# Why is complementation important?

- Evidence for recursion in language!
  - $S \rightarrow NP VP$
  - $VP \rightarrow V S$
  - “I know Jim said Bill thought Fred said Sara knew...”
  - I know [Jim said [Bill thought [Fred said [Sara knew...]]]]
- Complement-taking verbs refer to abstract mental states

Both reasons indicative of increasing complexity in linguistic and conceptual development

# Methods

**Table 15.2** Age and mean length of utterance for two developmental times

	Times <sup>a</sup>	Number of sessions	Age		MLU	
			Range	Mean	Range	Mean
Eric	1	3	2;1.1–2;5.3	2;3.1	2.63–3.45	2.97
	2	2	2;9.0–3;0.0	2;10.2	3.49–4.21	3.85
Gia	1	3	2;1.2–2;4.2	2;3.2	2.30–3.07	2.71
	2	2	2;6.0–2;10.2	2;8.1	3.64–3.71	3.68
Kathryn	1	3	2;0.2–2;5.1	2;2.3	2.83–3.35	3.16
	2	2	2;8.1–2;11.1	2;9.3	3.70–4.23	3.97
Peter	1	3	2;3.0–2;6.0	2;4.2	2.63–2.90	2.75
	2	4	2;7.2–3;2.0	2;10.2	3.05–3.58	3.37

<sup>a</sup> Times 1 and 2 are the result of grouping data, with Time 1 = MLU < 3.5, and Time 2 = MLU > 3.5.

- Four children studied longitudinally
- Observed in their homes during routine activities and playing
- Sessions lasted ~8 hours, at 6-week intervals
- Data grouped into 2 time points based on MLU

# Frequency of Complementation

## ■ Perception Verbs

- See (14%); look (10%)
- Eric: Doggie is looking up
- Kathryn: And nobody can see him
- Gia: Look what my mommy got me
- Kathryn: I'll see where it is

## ■ Epistemic (i.e., cognitive) Verbs

- know (44%); think (83%)
- Eric: I don't know that part
- Kathryn: I think up on this bed
- Peter: Know what the other ones do?
- Gia: I think the children go to bed

**Table 15.3** Frequencies of complement and non-complement sentences

		Perception		Epistemic	
		see	look	know	think
Eric					
Time 1	+COMP	15	13	6	12
	-COMP	349	161	4	2
Time 2	+COMP	53	8	27	42
	-COMP	96	119	68	5
Gia					
Time 1	+COMP	1	9	1	7
	-COMP	115	27	4	3
Time 2	+COMP	23	10	11	5
	-COMP	77	58	14	1
Kathryn					
Time 1	+COMP	23	7	7	30
	-COMP	174	40	1	4
Time 2	+COMP	45	4	9	44
	-COMP	223	37	4	41
Peter					
Time 1	+COMP	17	3	20	3
	-COMP	165	63	6	5
Time 2	+COMP	30	8	49	35
	-COMP	87	89	16	4
Totals	+COMP	207	62	130	178
	-COMP	1286	594	117	65

# Sentential complements

# Sentential (S) Complements

- Kathryn: I see Mommy washing her hands
- Gia: I think that he wanna eat this
  
- Add a simple sentence frame after a verb
- What about the complementizer: *that*?
  - Usually optional in adult speech
    - I know that you're doing well
    - I know you're doing well
  - Very rare in the speech of these children
    - For think, 3 of 179 S-complements used that (1.7%)
  
- Why?



- Maybe they don't know the word?
  - The children used 'that':
    - Kathryn: I thought that was a snacktime (demonstrative)
    - Peter: That's how get them out (deictic)
    - Kathryn: I think that girl is going to dust that that paper away (determiner)
    - They clearly know the word
- Use of 'that' with other functions inhibits its acquisition as a complementizer
  - An item with several different functions may be more difficult to acquire
  - Prior acquisition of other functions of 'that' may inhibit its acquisition as a complementizer
- Input frequency?
  - Maybe they never heard 'that'-complements?
  - 'that'-less complements are frequent with think, know, see (in adult language)

# Wh- complements

# Wh- complements

- Kathryn: Let's go see where Mommy is.
- Gia: You know what's in this bag?
- A question is embedded after the matrix verb
  - Wh- complements were not used with *think*
  - Wh- words may not be terribly salient because they occur in the middle of the sentence
  - Acquisition may depend on prior learning of wh- words as questions – where they are sentence initial

# Wh-Movement: Filler-Gap Dependencies

a. Did Calvin bring pizza?

b. Calvin brought what?

c. **What** did Calvin bring     ?  
FILLER                                  GAP

⇒ thematic (agent, patient) and  
functional (subject object)  
ambiguity

d. \***What** did Calvin bring pizza?  
FILLER

e. \*Did Calvin bring     ?  
GAP

\* : ungrammatical

# Wh-Movement: Filler-Gap Dependencies

## ■ Bi-Clausal Sentences

a. Without filler-gap dependency:

Did Hobbes say [that Calvin brought pizza]?

b. With filler-gap dependency:

Did Hobbes say [**what** Calvin brought     ]?

FILLER

GAP

c. With filler-gap dependency:

**What** did Hobbes say [that Calvin brought     ]?

FILLER

GAP

# Emergence of wh- words

## ■ Questions

- what, where, who emerge first
- how, why later

## ■ Complementizer

- Emerge after questions
- Use of word as complementizer is later than use of that same word as a question
- Except for how (and maybe why)

**Table 15.4** Average age of emergence for *Wh*-question words and *Wh*-complement words

<i>Wh</i> -Q <sup>a</sup> words	Average age	Number of children <sup>b</sup>	<i>Wh</i> -COMP words	Average age	Number of children <sup>c</sup>
what	2; 2	7	–	–	–
where	2; 2	7	–	–	–
who	2; 4	7	–	–	–
–	–	–	what	2; 6	4
–	–	–	where	2; 7.2	3
how	2; 9	7	how	2; 9.2	3
–	–	–	(if)	2; 10	4
why	2; 11	7	who	2; 11	3

<sup>a</sup> The results for *Wh*-question words are from Bloom et al. (1982).

<sup>b</sup> *n* = 7.

<sup>c</sup> *n* = 4.

- Use of different connectives was verb specific
  - see: what, if, how, where
  - know: what, where, how
  - look (at): what

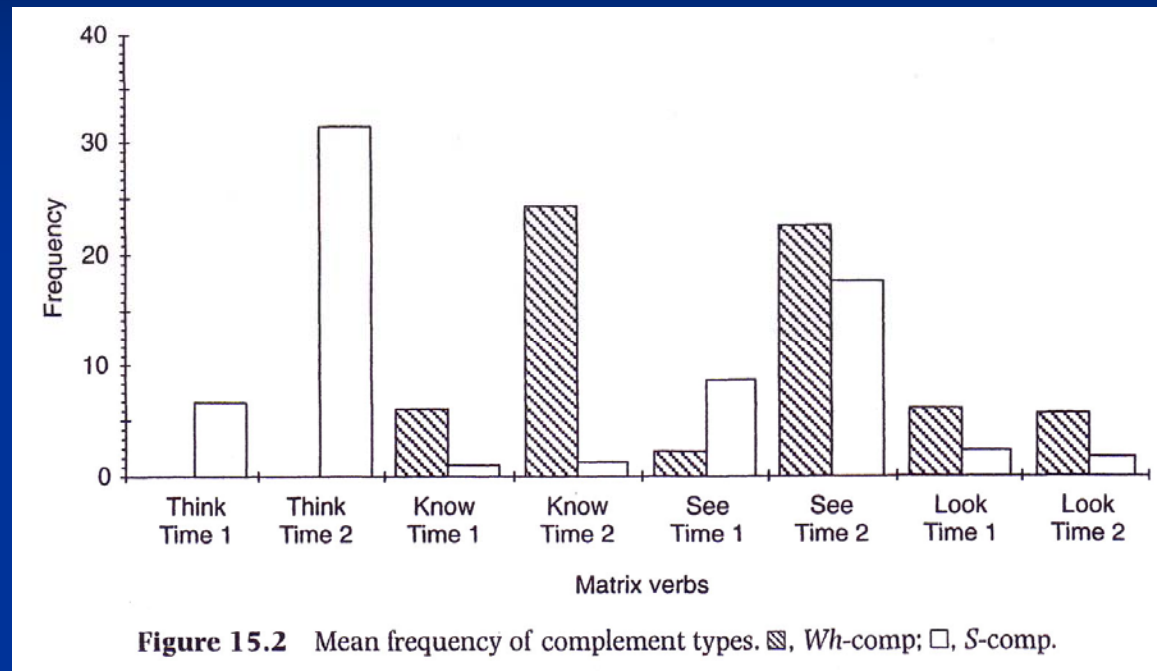
# Other aspects of Complementation

# Frequency of Complement Types

- S-complements are simpler than wh-complements
  - Should they emerge earlier?
  - Do they?

- *think* has no wh-complements

- *know* has (almost) no S-complements



- Complementations were more frequent in time 2 than time 1
  - (except for *look*)
  - For *see*, S-complements frequent early; wh-complements frequent late

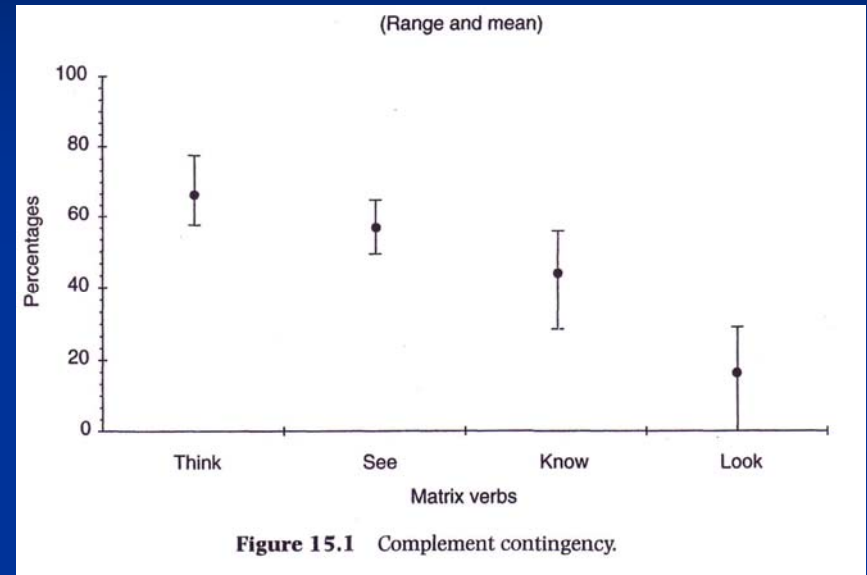


# Discourse environment

## ■ Textual Contingency

- Did an adult use the matrix verb or (part of) the complement within 5 speaker turns
- Do verbs differ with respect to how they continue a discourse?

- *look (at)* may introduce a new topic;
- *think* may continue an old one



Adult: let's see how this one works  
Kathryn: You know how it works

Adult: I *think* that lamb is cold  
Eric: he is very *cold* / I *think* I can put him in a house

# Restrictions on Subjects

- Expect main clause subjects to be animate
  - *see, look, think, know*
  - More restricted than expected:
    - *look* – all null second person (imperative)
      - Eric: (*null*) Look at that donkey carrying baskets
    - *think* – 3 children only I; 1 child also used you
      - Kathryn: *I* think we can put it side of him
      - Peter: *You* think it don't belongs to me
    - *know, see* – more variety
      - Either first or second person subjects used first
      - Only Eric used 3<sup>rd</sup> person subjects with these verbs
      - Eric: Oh *the bunny rabbit* doesn't know what to do

- Lots of variety in subordinate subjects
  - Pronominal subjects with copula (to be)
    - Kathryn: I think it's big enough
    - Eric: Know what's in here?
    - Gia: I'm going to see if there's any more.
    - *know (48%); think (35%); see (31%); look (8%)*
  - Otherwise lots of variety (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> person)
    - Eric: Look at that donkey carrying baskets
    - Kathryn: I think we can put it side of him

# Co-reference

- 2 verbs – 2 subjects
- Do they co-refer?
  - Compare complements like:
    - I want to go home – I want (I) to go home
    - I'm going to go home – I'm going (I) to go home
    - Acquired slightly earlier than S- and wh- complements
- When there was a matrix subject (332)
  - 46 (14%) were co-referential with an expressed subordinate subject
  - Kathryn: *I think I'll pull the other side*
  - Of these, 61% (think); 28% (see); 11% (know); 0% (look)
  - But what about:
    - Eric: Oh *the bunny rabbit* doesn't know what (BR) to do

# Morphological Marking

- The subordinate verbs –
  - Were inflected or had modals more than 50% of the time
  - Modals used most often with think
    - 65% of modals used after think
    - Eric: I think we *should* put this in a house
  - 29% after see (64% were with can, and used if)
  - Kathryn: See if it *can* make some sound
- Syntax of complementation is verb specific

# What do these verbs mean?

- Think vs know (activity vs experience)
  - Used to quantify degree of uncertainty
  - Think = uncertain
    - Contingent on prior discourse; children express new information from prior discourse
    - Use of modals to express lack of definiteness in complement
    - “that” indicative of certainty – virtually absent
    - “used parenthetically” = ‘perhaps’ or ‘maybe’
  - Know = certain
    - Less contingent on prior discourse; children had something in mind to introduce to the discourse
    - Occurred with copula in complement – suggesting talk about attributions and generic events (greater certainty for more general claims)

- Look vs see (activity vs experience)
  - Also used to quantify degree of uncertainty
  - See = uncertain
    - Second to *think* in repetitions from prior discourse
    - Second to *think* in use of modals in complement; only verb to itself be used with modals
    - See occurred with conditional *if* but never definite *that*
  - Look = certain
    - Used as an imperative
    - Least contingent upon prior discourse
  
- Two-year olds don't rely on activity vs experience dimension
- Certainty: know (experience); look (activity)
- Uncertainty: think (activity); see (experience)

# Conclusions

- Acquisition of syntax of complementation requires child to hold two propositions in mind
  - One is expressed in a simple sentence frame (complement)
  - The other is a mental attitude directed towards that proposition (main clause)
- Acquisition of complementation was verb specific
  - The verb determined if a complementizer was used, and if so, which one
  - This was learned for each verb separately



# Theories of Language Development

# Cognitive Approaches to Language Learning

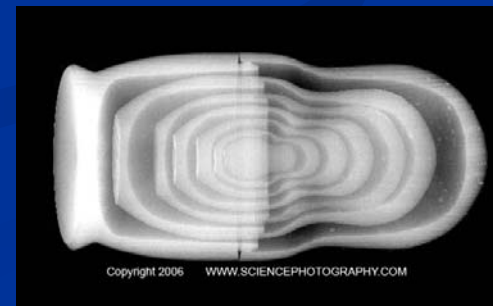
- Piaget –
  - General theory of cognitive development
- Processing approaches –
  - Operating principles approach
  - The Competition Model
- Construction based approaches –
  - Grammar is constructed, not discovered

# Piaget

- Acquisition of basic grammatical structures is dependent on child's level of cognitive development
- There is nothing special about learning language
- No innate linguistic knowledge!
- No difference between language, memory, motor control, drawing, etc.

# Piaget: Cognitive Stages

- Sensorimotor stage (up to 18 months)
  - Understanding of world based on effect of own actions on world
  - Cannot encode concepts with arbitrary symbols
  - Can't learn mapping between sound and meaning
- Symbolic stage (18 months – 4 or 5 years)
  - Child forms internal representations of world
  - Onset of language (can think about objects no longer present)
- Concrete operational stage (5 - 11 years)
  - Child can reason about tangible objects and relations
- Formal operational stage (12 – 16 years)
  - Child can reason about hypothetical situations and abstract concepts
- Grammar is like Russian dolls
  - Both have nested structure



# Problems for Piaget

- How do children segment speech stream into words?
- What about all the data showing sensitivity to lexical/grammatical information prior to 18 months?
  - Children produce first word at 12 months
  - 17 month olds comprehending word order
  - etc.

# Processing Approaches

- Operating principles approach (Slobin)
  - What are “operating principles” children use to acquire grammar
  - Based on production data
  - Language specific differences will influence which operating principles are more important in that language
  - Lots of principles have been proposed
  - Are not based on adult grammar!
  - Grammar is built up through childhood – child grammar is very different from adult grammar

# More on Operating Principles

- Perceptual and Storage filters
  - Pay attention to the ends of words, stress, beginnings of words
    - Pay attention to salient aspects of speech
  - Track the frequency of every pattern that is stored
    - Helps discover reliability of cues to grammar
- Pattern makers
  - Segment similar sounding portions of utterances
    - The dog walked      The dog barked
    - -ed is common to both verbs; yields – walk, bark, -ed

# The Competition Model

- Language is probabilistic rather than deterministic
  - Tries to account for individual variation
  - Rich statistical co-occurrences in language input to child
  - Even adult grammar is not fixed – can change to accommodate new utterances
  - Accounts for language specific differences in grammar (Italian vs English word order...)



- Word order in English is fairly rigid (SVO)
- Italian
  - (OSV) La pastaciutta Franco la prende sempre qui (Pasta, Franco it orders always here)
  - (VSO) Allora, mangio anche io la pastachiutta (Well then, am eating I also pasta)
  - (SOV) Allora, io gli spaghetti prendo (In that case, I the spaghetti am having)
- Why is word order more flexible in Italian?
  - Order is a more reliable (and necessary) cue to meaning in English
- Multiple cues to meaning exist (stress, word order, morphological marking, etc.) – cues interact dynamically and compete
  - Importance of different cues varies cross-linguistically

# Construction Based Approaches

- Child language built up over time based on concrete examples
  - Language production reflects knowledge of specific lexical items and grammatical structures
  - Does not reflect abstract categories
- Children do not learn to combine word categories (noun, verb), etc
  - Rather, learn whole syntactic patterns – “constructions”
  - “dog biting bone” is *not* “dog + biting + bone”
  - “dog biting bone” is based on “cat chasing mouse”, “daddy washing car” etc.
- Generalization is very limited
  - This is based on analogy! Why doesn't it fail? (or does it?)
  - Analogies are less abstract, more limited...

# Announcements

- New experiments have been added, and some have had restrictions relaxed.
- If you are still having trouble finding enough experiments to participate in, contact Laura Kertz ([kertz@ling.ucsd.edu](mailto:kertz@ling.ucsd.edu))
- Next week we'll start with the brain
  - Tuesday 5/20: neuroanatomy
  - Thursday 5/22: LDER chapters 18,19
  - Tuesday 5/27: pragmatics/autism