Gender and Adjective Agreement in Russian*

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1 Introduction

The focus of this talk is examples of mixed gender agreement in Russian. In (1), a class I profession-noun referring to a woman shows both masculine and feminine agreement properties (Crockett (1976)):

(1) moja zubnoj vrach my-FEM dental-MASC doctor(I) 'my [female] dentist'

Verbs and intersective adjectives generally show feminine agreement with these nouns $((2a))^1$, but classifying adjectives never do ((2b)) (cf. Rothstein (1980)):²

- (2) a. umnaja/%umnyj vrach (intersective) smart-FEM/%smart-MASC doctor 'smart [female] doctor'
 - b. zubnoj/*zubnaja vrach (classifying)
 dental-MASC/*dental-FEM doctor
 '[female] dentist'

If some element shows feminine agreement, all higher elements must also show feminine agreement:

(3) a. Umnaja vrach prishla. smart-FEM doctor(I) came-FEM 'The smart [female] doctor has come.'

- b. %Umnyj vrach prishel. smart-MASC doctor(I) came-MASC
- c. %Umnyj vrach prishla. smart-MASC doctor(I) came-FEM
- d. *Umnaja vrach prishel. smart-FEM doctor(I) came-MASC

Questions:

- 1. What is the status of the relationship between declension class and gender?
- 2. How is it that mixed gender agreement is possible?
- 3. What accounts for the difference in agreement between classifying and non-classifying adjectives?

This talk:

- 1. Proposes a syntactic structure for examples like (2a) that allows an adjective modifying a class I noun to bear feminine agreement.
- Argues that examples like (2b) are instances of so-called "bracketing paradoxes" (Williams (1981), Pesetsky (1985), etc.), and proposes a structure for such examples based on Den Dikken (2002).
- 3. Demonstrates that points 1 and 2 combine to correctly predict the patterns of gender agreement for examples like (1)-(3).

2 Gender and Declension Class

Question 1: What is the status of the relationship between declension class and gender?

There is a close correspondence between Russian declension classes (seen on the noun), and gender (seen on agreeing elements, e.g. adjectives):³

(4) For nouns **not** referring to humans:⁴

declension	gender	masculine	feminine	neuter	example
I		✓	Х	Х	stol ('table')
II		X	\checkmark	×	lampa ('lamp')
III		×	\checkmark	×	krovat' ('bed')
IV		×	X	\checkmark	okno ('window')

³We follow the proposal of Corbett (1982) that neuters fall into a separate declension class. We ignore a small number of lexical exceptions, and set aside diminutives/augmentatives for which the declension class of the stem determines gender agreement (e.g. ètot gorod/gorodishko ('this-MASC city(I)/city-DIM(IV))).

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¹More precisely, non-classifying adjectives may show feminine agreement in a nominative environment. We will not be able to account for this case restriction.

 $^{^{2}\%}$ is used to indicate forms that are marked in certain registers.

⁴In this talk, we set aside class II nouns that show masculine agreement when referring to male humans (e.g. papa ('dad'), p'janica ('drunkard')).

(5) Agreement rules:

- a. class $I \rightarrow masculine agreement$
- b. class $II \rightarrow feminine agreement$
- c. class III \rightarrow feminine agreement
- d. class $IV \rightarrow neuter$ agreement

Question 1: What is the status of the relationship between declension class and gender? **Answer:** Declension class determines gender agreement.

3 Introducing Semantic Gender

Question 2: How is it that mixed gender agreement is possible?

Suppose that semantic gender is not encoded directly on a noun, but can be independently introduced within the NP:

(6) $\llbracket \mathbf{wmn} \rrbracket = \lambda \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}$ is female

(preliminary)

Suppose also:⁵

(7) wmn has a class II feature

By the agreement rules above, wmn thus triggers feminine agreement. Female gender can also be expressed overtly with class I profession nouns by using the class II noun zhenshchina ('woman'). It appears above classifying adjectives and below intersective adjectives, and triggers feminine agreement on all higher elements:

- (8) a. umnaja/*umnyj **zhenshchina** zubnoj vrach smart-FEM/*smart-MASC **woman**(II) dental-MASC doctor(I) 'smart woman-dentist'
 - b. *zubnoj/zubnaja **zhenshchina**-vrach dental-MASC/dental-FEM **woman**(II)-doctor(I)
 - c. *zhenshchina umnyj/umnaja vrach woman(II) smart-MASC/smart-FEM doctor(I)

Thus zhenshchina behaves exactly like an overt realization of wmn, except that it cannot appear above intersective adjectives.

(9) Structural conditions on gender agreement:

If α agrees for gender with β , the agreement features on α are determined by the closest class feature C that is in the agreement domain of α .

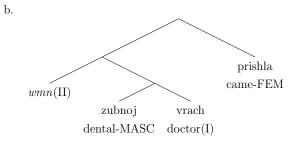
Accordingly:

(10) **Adjectives:** Gender agreement is determined by the highest class feature in the adjective's c-command domain.

Verbs: Gender agreement is determined by the highest class feature in the subject.

Illustration of mixed agreement:

(11) a. Zubnoj vrach prishla. dental-MASC doctor(I) came-FEM 'The [female] dentist has come.'



c. Gender agreement:

item	wmn(II)	$\operatorname{vrach}(I)$	agreement
adjective	too high	\checkmark	masculine
verb	✓	not closest	feminine

Unlike class I nouns denoting humans, class I nouns denoting female animals never trigger feminine agreement:

- (12) a. beremennyj/*beremennaja kit pregnant-MASC/*pregnant-FEM whale(I)
 - b. zelënyj/*zelënaja krokodil green-MASC/*green-FEM crocodile(I)

This suggests that wmn applies only to humans:

(13)
$$\llbracket \mathbf{wmn} \rrbracket = \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \text{ is human . } \mathbf{x} \text{ is female}$$
 (final)

Question 2: How is it that mixed gender agreement is possible?

Answer:

- The projection wmn:
 - has a class II feature
 - is (optionally) introduced above certain adjectives

⁵Supposing that wmn is class III would work similarly.

- Adjective gender agreement is determined by the highest class feature in its ccommand domain.
- Verb gender agreement is determined by the highest class feature in the subject.
- Higher items will agree with the class II feature on *wmn*, while lower ones will agree with the class I feature on the noun.

This proposal also explains why if any element displays feminine agreement, so must all higher ones:

- The class II feature on wmn is higher than the class I feature on the noun.
- If wmn is in the agreement domain for some element, it is also in the agreement domain for all higher elements.

4 Classifying Adjectives

Question 3: What accounts for the difference in agreement between classifying and non-classifying adjectives?

For ease of presentation, consider the English example oral surgeon, where oral is a classifying adjective.

(14) [oral surgeon] =

a. Incorrect: λx . x is oral and x does surgery

b. Correct: λx . x does oral surgery

If surgeon has a non-decomposable denotation as in (15), it is difficult to derive the correct denotation for oral surgeon.

(15) $[surgeon] = \lambda x$. x does surgery (not helpful)

Surgeon must be semantically decomposable. Thus oral surgeon is an example of a bracketing paradox (Williams (1981), Pesetsky (1985), etc.).

(16) Bracketing paradox:

a. Semantic structure: [[oral surge] -on]

b. Word boundaries: [oral [surge -on]]

Possible solution (following Den Dikken (2002)):

• the suffix -on has no semantics

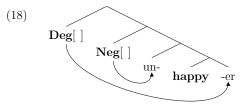
- a higher element (call it DOER):
 - agrees with the suffix -on, copying its *semantic* features
 - bears the semantics we might have assigned to -on

(17) Another classic bracketing paradox:

a. Semantic structure: [[un- happy] -er]

b. Morphological structure: [un- [happy -er]]

Proposal by Den Dikken (2002), with semantically interpretable elements in bold:



Applying the proposal to *oral surgeon*:

(19) Actual semantic structure: [[oral surgeon] DOER]

(20) Relevant denotations:

a. $[oral] = \lambda x \in D_e$. x is oral

b. $[surgeon] = \lambda x \in D_e$. x is a surgery

c. $[\![\mathbf{DOER}]\!] = \lambda f \in D_{<e,t>}$. $\lambda y \in D_e$. $\exists x \text{ s.t. } y \text{ does task } x \text{ and } f(x) \text{ is true}$

(21) **Derivation:** (following Heim and Kratzer (1998))

a. Predicate Modification:

 $\llbracket \mathbf{oral\ surgeon} \rrbracket = \lambda x \in D_e$. x is oral and x is a surgery

b. Functional Application:

 $[\![\text{\bf oral surgeon DOER}]\!] = \lambda y \in D_e$. $\exists x \ s.t. \ y \ does \ task \ x \ and \ x \ is \ oral \ and \ x$ is a surgery

 $=\lambda y\in D_e$. y does oral surgery

Similarly, zubnoj vrach ('dental doctor' = 'dentist') is composed in the following way:

(22) Semantic structure: [[zubnoj vrach] DOER]

(23) Relevant denotations:

a. $[\mathbf{zubnoj}] = \lambda x \in D_e$. x is dental

b. $[vrach] = \lambda x \in D_e$. x is "doctoring"

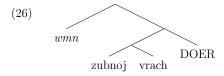
c. $[\![\mathbf{DOER}]\!] = \lambda f \in D_{< e,t>}$. $\lambda y \in D_e$. $\exists x \ s.t. \ y \ does \ task \ x \ and \ f(x)$ is true

(24) **[zubnoj vrach DOER]** = $\lambda y \in D_e$. $\exists x \text{ s.t. } y \text{ does task } x \text{ and } x \text{ is "doctoring"}$

Now recall the proposed denotation of wmn:

(25) $[\mathbf{wmn}] = \lambda \mathbf{x} : \mathbf{x} \text{ is human . } \mathbf{x} \text{ is female}$

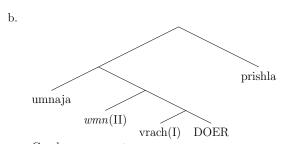
Because wmn describes a human being and not a task, it must merge higher than DOER and thus higher than zubnoj ('dental'):



This explains why classifying adjectives, which describe a task and not a person, always show masculine agreement. With non-classifying adjectives, there are multiple options available.

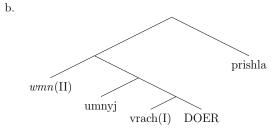
Feminine agreement:

(27) a. Umnaja vrach prishla. smart-FEM doctor(I) came-FEM 'The smart [female] doctor has come.'



Mixed agreement:

(28) a. %Umnyj vrach prishla. smart-MASC doctor(I) came-FEM



Gender agreement:

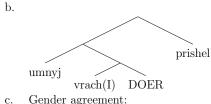
item wmn(II) vrach(I) agreement

adjective too high \checkmark masculine

verb \checkmark not closest feminine

Masculine agreement:

(29) a. %Umnyj vrach prishel. smart-MASC doctor(I) came-MASC 'The smart [female] doctor has come.'



item wmn(II) vrach(I) agreement adjective \mathbf{X} \checkmark masculine verb \mathbf{X} \checkmark masculine

Question 3: What accounts for the difference in agreement between classifying and non-classifying adjectives?

Answer:

- When combining with profession-denoting nouns:
 - classifying adjectives modify the task
 - non-classifying adjectives modify the person who does the task
 - wmn modifies the person who doest the task
- \bullet DOER maps description of a task \to description of a person who does the task.
- wmn cannot affect agreement on classifying adjectives because:
 - classifying adjectives merge below DOER
 - wmn merges above DOER

- \Rightarrow wmn merges above classifying adjectives
- *wmn* may merge below non-classifying adjectives, above non-classifying adjectives, or not at all (depending on register).

5 Conclusion

Question: What is the status of the relationship between declension class and gender?

Answer: Declension class determines gender agreement; it may be present on a covert element (wmn).

Question: How is it that mixed gender agreement is possible?

Answer: The element that triggers feminine agreement is introduced higher than some adjectives.

Question: What accounts for the difference in agreement between classifying and non-classifying adjectives?

Answer: Due to the semantic structure, *wmn* must be introduced higher than classifying adjectives. It may, however, be introduced below non-classifying adjectives.

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