Chapter 6: How Do We Manage Meandering Meaning (NN1)

Children seize grammar’s power and their ideas just burst out:

"Don't uncomfortable the cat!"

“I’m nicing him”

"Don't giggle me"

"we snuggle ourselves too warm"

"I'll jump that down"  (NN2)

Nouns and adjectives turn into verbs when needed, intransitives (I giggle) become transitive (Don’t (you) giggle me). In some languages this ability flourishes forever. In English, it dies out, though it is not really clear why. Is it the grim hand of “correctness,” odd parental frowns, or deeper bias in the grammar itself that drives out new verbs and restrains our children? One can only wonder. Perhaps it reflects seeing part of a mechanism before the whole comes into view.

Adults easily assume that children “don’t know the rules of grammar” but even the most startling creativity has a system behind it, though it is sometimes hard to see.
We all build sentences step by step that simultaneously build meaning step by step via the engine of recursion. We saw meaning being built noun by noun in a sequence like: city garbage committee meeting. The recursive engine then serves like a chassis on which are laid other systems that seem to fit only imperfectly, but function organically and move swiftly.

Often meaning seems to come in at odd angles, like through word endings (morphology). Many patterns seem halfway between structure and meaning. The most obvious example is in the familiar vagaries of gender. (NN3) In many languages, every noun has to have an article that is linked to formal gender, but it is not necessarily real gender. The expression das Mädchen (the girl) in German is neuter, though the true reference is obviously feminine. What seems to have a semantic origin has been “grammaticized” to be a formal notion no longer linked to its origins. Does the child follow the same path from semantic to syntactic? Does he learn feminine articles only with truly feminine nouns first? Or does the leap to a formal notion just happen instantly for the child? It is not easy to tell if there is a first, quick stage in which children force form to match meaning. Perhaps the child does use feminine die in German with a female first, and within a few minutes extends it to other nouns that have no gender. We researchers can never be quick enough to know. The leap from meaning to
form seems easy for all children. And where the child goes too far, we can actually see the mechanism at work. Here is a case in point:

Patrick Griffiths reported to me that he found a child who called everyone “he” (other children label everyone “she”). To probe further, he put out a male and a female doll and asked the child to point to she, which the child obligingly did (pointing to the female), then he coyly pointed to the child’s mother and said: “how about your mother” to which the boy confidently replied:

“he’s she”

Now let’s get beyond the charm: what does this mean? Not someone who is imposing a male perspective, but a child who seems to have identified an abstract notion of person above a gender identification for he. And the child must have done so with no specific evidence in English. So the child is seeking abstraction, seeking a gender-neutral pronoun for people that is defined in grammar, but not definable in a world where every person has a gender.

**Evanescent Avenues of Agency**

Another notion that comes into grammar at very odd angles is Agency. As we shall show, it can be in morphology (-er endings), structure (subject), or just implied (agentless passive). Sometimes it is explicit,
sometimes not. It must seem evanescent to the child still uncertain about which grammar he hears. Each type of agency creates a challenge that every child must get right.

If Agent were a free-standing concept we might expect to find an ending that means Agent anywhere. The affix –er seems to fit the bill. If I say: what is a baker, builder, sweeper, folder, or a new one like establisher, confuser, you know what it means. Confuser means exactly the person who confuses someone, etc. But -er is not freely useable. If it were, then we should be able to add it to natural instruments too, just looking around the dinner table: *forker, *glasser, *bowler. Each of these could have a natural meaning (one who uses a fork), and yet they are not words of English, nor possible words (unless they are narrow idioms). So -er has some restriction on it, and this restriction on -er is not instantly known by children. Here are some examples that I have heard:

“I’ll be the listener and you be the storiier”

“Dad, you are a mistaker” (NN4)

In fact spontaneous, erroneous “–er” has been reported in many languages for children. Are such uses a guess, otherwise impossible under UG? Hardly.
Such a first guess in fact is close to other endings like –ist or –eer which do attach to nouns, or both nouns and verbs:

machinist, violinist, ventriloquist
engineer, profiteer, orienteer, musketeer

Disney invented *mousketeer* and they advertise, with no irony, for *imagineers*. So we can still invent new –eer words, but they remain closer to poetic license than rules of grammar that race around without forethought. We feel that –er is linked to Agents because we feel that it is the real rule, actually productive. That feeling is the feeling that a grammatical machine is present inside us.

Now we have some predictions: if given a choice, a child should choose Agent. Or could it be broader: Agent or Instrument, but not Object. What will they choose?

**EXPLORATION 6.1: ER, WHAT’S THAT?**

Here is a simple thing to try:

Take a chicken about to be put into the pot and ask:

“Show me the broiler.”

Will it be you, the pot, or the chicken? Now put some bread in an oven and
ask:

“Show me the baker.”

And now put some toast in a toaster and say:

“Show me the toaster.”

Will you get: broiler = object (theme), baker = agent, and toaster = instrument? We should get them if the child knows these words. If not, Agent is the prediction.

What happens with a novel case. Try this:

Cut some paper and ask:

“Show me the cutter”

Push a toy truck with your hands

“Show me the pusher”

Caption: “-er” as Agent, Object, and Instrument

Adults are very unlikely to point to the paper or the truck. Informal experience suggests that children might do just that.

Extension:

 Completely novel cases can be pursued as well which Val Johnson has done in her dissertation. (NN5) She gave children nonsense verbs like:

“John tems the boy

[does some strange action with an instrument]
Point to the temmer.”

Here children who otherwise indicate characteristics of speech pathology often show great uncertainty.

**A Projection from the Verb**

What then is special about –*er*? What axis do all these facts revolve around? The steady fact is that Agency is always found with an Action Verb. Therefore we can argue:

–*er* carries a meaning projected from the verb, therefore it does not have its own meaning.

So now we predict that if a verb expresses a State, then there is no action or Event for which one could be an Agent, so no –*er* should be possible. And indeed, these are pretty weird:

*seemer
*appearer
*look-lier (or *like-looker)
*beer (=be+er)
Suppose someone does something deliberately like "John works hard to be tough.” A non-agent verb will not allow –er. One cannot say: *John is a tough-beer. It is not the ”agentive” situation ("works hard to"), but the grammatical nature of the verb—-it carries no agent---so no –er is possible on *be-er or *seemer. (NN6)

By now, the reader familiar with our method should be eager to find out: does a child really know this and can we show it? Here is a thought-experiment whose results are so obvious it hardly seems worth doing, but it might be amusing.

**EXPLORATION 6.2: IF YOU TRY TO BE BIG, ARE YOU A BIG BEER?**

Scene: casually carry a big bottle of beer in and put it on a table. (You could say nothing or just “let me put my beer here for a minute.”)

Take out some dolls and say:

“These dolls are different. These two just sit, but: This boy likes to be angry

This boy likes to be sad

This girl likes to be loud

Can you show me a beer?”
Or let us push it:

“This boy tries to be big.”

(stands on tiptoes or something)

“Can you show me a big beer?”

Prediction: laughter or some sense of rejecting this usage of –er.

Caption: “–er” not allowed to be Agent

All the context we can muster in this heavy-handed scene is unlikely to persuade the child to point to a doll and not the bottle. (Actually, an undergraduate tried just this experiment and did not find children willing to consider “beer” a person.) If the doctrine that the context can force the child to override the grammar was really true, then it should be true here as well.

The power of the grammar should be impressive here. The simple, natural-seeming concept: –er = person who does something cannot apply to a verb that does not project a notion of Agency itself, no matter how pointedly we pursue it.

Real knowledge of the grammar shows up most sharply when we create a situation that invites a violation of grammar, but the child maintains his grammar nonetheless. It reflects the creativity behind language: language is not a re-enforcement of visual reality, but an instrument of imagination. It is where our (and the child’s!) courage to change reality crystallizes. Therefore we purposely, though not consciously, follow the meaning of the grammar before we let it be
influenced by context. So it cannot and should not be a perfect mirror of context. Were grammar only a mirror of context, the status quo would reign! Instead, our sentences can be about how to change the world, or mock it, not just match it.

Yet just suppose the child does follow the force of context, of the situation, in our explorations, would it show that the grammar is subservient and just disappears? Not really. These explorations, like many experiments in science and medicine, are “proof positive.” That is, if knowledge is demonstrated, it must be there; if not, then one does not know for sure where the failure lies. Perhaps the timorous child will now and then use his sense of context more than his sense of grammar even if the grammar says something else. The grammar could still be there.

An analogy for “proof positive” reasoning is in medicine. If you have a temperature, you are sick. If not, well you still might be sick. The premise of this book is much the same: we will do everything we can to discover what the child knows and not seek firm conclusions about what he may not know. The proof-positive experiments are always the ones that invite the imagination and really move science along (in physics as well as linguistics). These explorations help adults to appreciate and promote the child’s acquisition of the fine structure of grammar, which is the essence of grammar. Sharp situations may be just what makes a concept click in the mind of the child.
So let’s seek the edges of –er more audaciously. Just what will the child allow?

**EXPLORATION 6.3: DOING SEEMING**

Perhaps something slightly more plausible is worth pursuit:

> “Mary is making a dress and her mother seems eager to help her. Mary is working very hard on making the seam of the dress just right. But she did it wrong three times, she could not make that seam right! Her friend Johnny came and did it easily. Her mother seemed unhappy for Mary because she seemed disappointed. Then her mother seemed to quiet down when she gave everyone cake.”

> “Show me the seemer.”

Will we get Johnny or the mother, or Mary? If children take Johnny then they are showing subtle grammatical knowledge of the notion that Agent is linked to –er in a precise way.

**Caption: More verbs where “–er” cannot be Agent**

Only the noun seam has been mentioned, and yet it seems more likely that the child will turn it into a verb for “seamer” than allow *seemer* from an actual verb that has no agent.

Is an action verb enough? Even action verbs have limits.
Consider this contrast:

a. John managed a store => store-manager
b. John managed a smile => *smile-manager

Why, exactly, if I can say: “John really tries to manage a smile on every occasion,” is it amusingly wrong to say: *”John is a smile-manager”?

Shall we try it with a child? How about a story.

**EXPLORATION 6.4: CAN ANYONE BE A SMILE-MANAGER?**

Story: “The teachers have to manage the lunchroom at school. The children are often late and have orchestra practice right after lunch. But they always hurry up and try to manage lunch before music starts.”

“Who are the lunch-managers?”

Will the child say “the teachers” or “the children”?  

*Caption: Verbs of accomplishment prohibit compounds*

What could tell them the answer is not “the children”? Suppose there is a hidden *have* or *get* in the phrase “manage lunch.” It is really “manage to get lunch.” So now the hidden verb *get* blocks the creation of the compound form because compounds always just take the following word and flip it over to the other side.
Only manage the store allows the operation, so only the “teachers” should be the answer.

Many other verbs could be adapted:

a kitten can reach the top of stairs = *top-reacher,

“yours” ends letters => *letter-ender,

dessert completes dinner => *dinner-completer.

One could adapt these verbs to a household or make up a story:

Our kitten loves stairs and she can reach the topstair for all the stairs in our house now. The kitten is a top…….

Will the child say: “*topstair-reacher” Or avoid it and more likely say “top-stair-lover”? One should prime the child with acceptable compounds. Something that opens cans is a can….. (“opener”) (Thanks to Tim Roeper for examples and discussion.)

But now we have attributed a tremendously complicated form of knowledge to the child. The principles behind compound formation involve rejection of cases where there are hidden verbs.

“Only Connect” (EM Forster)
At some point the child connects to the verb inside the noun (\textit{hunter has hunt}) and it is automatically linked to the Agent property of the verb. Now we predict other overgeneralizations, which sometimes occur. Consider the child who said:

“I like the hammer because I like to ham” (NN7)

He has decided that where an \textit{–er} exists a verb must be behind it. This is the child who should now dump \textit{*storier} because there is no verb (or say “I like to story”).

How does the child see the verb connection? It is actually a very challenging question because the child could think \textit{–er} is really a compound like:

\textit{workman, taxman, garbageman, mailman, repairman}

where it is really two nouns together which often cover exactly the agent relation. Some children do follow this route saying things like \textit{cut-man}. (NN8) Something must tell the child that the ending on a verb picks out part of its meaning of the verb---that it really does not carry its own meaning most of the time. That realization is crucial to having the child realize that \textit{*beer} is impossible.
**Exploration 6.5: Not a Nouner**

In an informal experiment one can easily do, I asked a six-year-old child to show knowledge of –er. (Morphology always seems funny, so this game is good for a laugh):

a. If you sing, you are a … singer, right?

b. if you run, you are a …

c. if you jump, you are a …

d. if you play baseball, you are a … player (or baseball-player)

e. if you wash dishes, you are a … washer (or dish-washer)

f. if you use a knife, you are a …

and the child smiled and said “not a knifer”

*Caption: “-er” does not freely attach to nouns*

He did not have the wherewithal to form knife-user, but he seemed to know that a noun is not an ideal basis for an -er word.

**Extension:**

You can keep going and see how far the child will go (or try it at a party):

g. if you always seem happy, you are a …

?happy-seemer

h. if you always appear angry, you are an

?angry- appearer
i. if you always do nothing, you are a…

?nothing-doer

j. if you wear everything, you are a…

?everything-wearer

k. if you help yourself, you are a…

self-helper/?yourself-helper

l. if you help me, you are a….

?you-helper, ?me-helper

m. if I help you, I am a….

?me-helper, ?you-helper (NN9)

Our game reveals some other compound limits: we cannot put personal pronouns, or quantifiers, or negatives inside compounds. Children around the age of five or six years resisted just those forms.

Would a child never put a pronoun inside a word? Kathy Hirsch-Pasek told me of a child who kept asking to go to “Accu.” Where is that? Finally it became clear that the child meant the Acme Hardware store, but thought that the name changed with the person (“Accyou”). (Likewise, Barbara Pearson tells me that many children in Miami wonder where “Your-ami” is.) The challenge for the child is often not the basic rule, but seeing the hidden factors, the invisible features of grammar, that determine where it applies.
If one tries this game with friends, the machine may take over and generate *happy-seemer*, but everyone will be smiling with the awareness that it is not quite right. The smiles have more than humor behind them. The fact that we can say *happy-seemer* shows that we can define a pure syntactic engine that can ignore the semantic constraints overlaid on the rule. If we can take apart the parts we have evidence of what those parts are. It is as if we pulled the motor out of a car and watched it run by itself.

**Counter-example-collectors**

The reader is probably brimming over with counter-examples already. There are plenty: *sinker, New Yorker, homer, boater*. The *sinker* sinks and is not the agent. Our system needs to allow these to exist and, somehow, equip the child to know that they are exceptions, idioms really. Their meaning is so narrow that they are more than the sum of their parts. A *sinker* is an anchor or a baseball pitch, nothing else, not “anything that sinks.” A *broiler* as object is a chicken and nothing else. If you say you are *broiling* in the sun, you don’t suddenly call yourself a “broiler.”

So now the rule is: if no verb is present, the word is an idiom that calls for real-world knowledge beyond just putting together the parts. It is all right to put *–er* on a noun, but we must immediately look for the extra meaning. “*Detroiter*” could mean someone who made Detroit, or was made by Detroit, or loves or hates
Detroit, or just someone from Detroit, which seems right. A “New Yorker” can attribute a style to a person, but calling someone a Detroiter does not (unless perhaps we are talking about cars).

It is such a system the child acquires, not simply the idea that –er can be an Agent. The child uses this knowledge to know what an exception is. If a rule is very sharp, it defines both what lies inside it and what lies outside of it. This concept will be important when we tackle dialects and grammar variation.

**Addable Agents**

The power of the verb controls not only morphology but the preposition system. The same arguments hold for by as for -er. Agency gets added onto verbs via by, only if the verbs are willing:

the apple was dropped by the boy.

In general, the by-phrase seems almost promiscuous in its uses. Here are five kinds:

the project must be finished by me by hand by design by noon by the pond
It is really quite surprising that we do not have unique prepositions for time, place, manner, instrument, but allow the same preposition to be used for all. Would it not be easier for a child if each function had a word?

Clark (NN10) reports that many children often substitute from if it has a source interpretation: “birds are scared from wind” or “I took my temperature from the doctor” or “those fell down from me.” Such children must know that the by-phrase is not allowed on active, transitive verbs and therefore choose from.

Nevertheless, the Agent reading is never independent of the verb for adults. We cannot say:

*the crop died by the farmer

meaning that the farmer caused it, we can only mean a location, “next to the farmer” (which is not very plausible here).

Some verbs have two versions, with and without agent:

the navy sank the boat

the boat sank

We can capture this relation as an operation: The object moves to the subject, which cancels the Agent role: someone sinks boat => boat sinks. Because it has
been cancelled, the Agent is prohibited from sneaking in the backdoor through a 
by-phrase, as this ungrammatical sentence shows:

*the boat sank by the navy

We do not just add an agent where we want, but only where the verb allows it. This should be no surprise since we found that –er was a projection from the verb as well

Adjectives have no verb, so despite their agentive force, they uniformly block by though the meaning is quite plausible:

*John is angry by mother (Mom angered John)
*John seems happy by a surprise (a surprise pleased John)

Now if the acquisition path is parallel to –er, we are led to a prediction:

Children will allow by-phrase to be a freely addable agent.

In fact a few spontaneous examples exist like:

“it fixes by glue” (NN11)
looks like a case of this kind, though here the *by*-phrase really seems to be taking an instrument.

If we take a sentence like:

The ball was rolling right by Bill

we know that it is not an agent and even if no *right* is present, the agent reading is not correct because the active verb only projects the Agent onto the subject.

In a large experiment, children were shown one picture in which a child drops a plant and another where a plant was dropping from a window next to a boy. Then we asked them to point to a picture:

The plant is dropping by the boy.

A number of children take the Agent reading, allowing the *by*-phrase to be an agent where it is not licensed by the verb. From data on 1450 children from 3-12, (NN12) we found that with older children, allowing the agent reading was associated with more general language difficulties. Here is a simple way to see how independent the *by*-phrase is for a child.
**EXPLORATION 6.6: AGENTLESS VERBS**

Situation: Roll a ball by a child and say:

“did the ball roll by me or did the ball roll by you”

If they take the *you* meaning, they recognize that this construction takes a locative *by*-phrase and not an explicit agent. Otherwise they could point at the roller as the agent. Other verbs and objects will work too of course (“slide by me or you,” “walk by me or you,” “move by me or you”).

We should get both options if we just use the passive:

“Was the ball rolled by me or was the ball rolled by you?“

There is an ordering of the **locative** before the **agent** which grammar imposes as well, so we could go a step further and ask:

“Was the ball rolled by **you** by **me** or was the ball rolled by **me** by **you**?”

This should show how agents come last, after locatives. (Sometimes one can reverse order with a strong intonation.)

*Caption: “by” = Agents with passives/ “by” = Locatives with actives*
Scraping by

Agent *by*-phrases are blocked from other structures too. Instruments cancel agents just like objects do. Therefore we cannot say:

* a scraper by John
* a toaster by the cook
* a lawn-mower by Bill

novel: *a door-cleaner by Fred

Locatives outside of compounds are rare (*forker), which suggests that those which exist are idioms whose verb is no longer alive. That is why “a toaster by the cook” cannot have the cook modify the inner verb “to toast,” but only possibly be the creator of the toaster.

We would predict that the child who errs in the examples above would also err in treating the *by*-phrase as freely designating an agent even without a verb.
**Exploration 6.7: Instrument or Agent, not Both**

Setup: use a scraper (say on a wall) and put another scraper right next to you, then ask:

“Can you point to the scraper by me?”

Which scraper will you get? Adults will give you only the one that takes *by* to mark a locative.

*Caption: Unambiguous “by”*

**Subtractable Agents**

The reality of grammatical principles is most powerful precisely when they have invisible consequences. Agents are often invisibly present. The so-called “agentless passive” is really the opposite of its name—it keeps an “implied” agent alive, as this contrast reveals:

the apple dropped

the apple was dropped
In the former there is no agent and in the latter there is an implied agent. Children create some very personal passives where another agent is implied, like my daughter’s: “I don’t want to get waded” (= wade into the waves with an adult).

The implicit agent is still alive if the passive turns into an adjective before a noun:

the dropped ball

there is an implied agent, which forces the mentioned noun to be the object, as in:

the pulled dog

We tried a little experiment and found that most five-year-olds will give us a clear distinction between:

the pulling dog/the pulled dog

[Add pictures?]

introducing an implied agent for “the pulled dog.”
EXPLORATION 6.8: DRAWING CONCLUSIONS BY DRAWING

We asked another group of five- to seven-year-olds to draw “the pulled dog” and “the pulling dog” and 23/25 had no difficulty. It is an easy technique to pursue:

Draw for me:

the watched bird/the watching bird
the pushing truck/the pushed truck

Caption: Implicit and overt agents

We also asked them to illustrate the difference between:

Show me the stick, breaking
Show me stick-breaking

where the latter has an implied agent (and the former is ambiguous), and we found very clear evidence of this knowledge. Here is what we got:

Insert Pictures from Mechanisms of Language Paper

Such explorations are a perfect but under-utilized experimental technique.

Drawings proceed entirely from the imagination of the child. (Note that one might ask children who can draw to draw many of the explorations in this book, and it is
bound to be revealing.) In any event, the presence of implicit agents here is incontrovertible.

Another affix –able has an implicit agent and children often fail to see it. One child said to me “don’t tickle me, I’m laughable” while another said “the queen is captureable” (meaning the queen can capture) and a German child said “Ich bin nicht schlafbar” (I am not sleepable). (NN13)

**EXPLORATION 6.9: “DON’T TICKLE ME, I’M LAUGHABLE”**

In experiments we have shown children the following sentences (see Val Johnson for extensive discussion with nonsense words (NN14)):

the elephant is pushable

with one picture of an elephant getting pushed and one where the elephant does the pushing. Many children take the elephant as pusher.

*Caption: “-able” and Object*

It is not really surprising that children would acquire the meaning of –able without realizing that it involves a necessary subject = object connection. It is not the case that they will misunderstand “the milk is drinkable”; they simply allow a more abstract reading where the subject can be either Agent or Object.

**Extension:** This is clearly doable in an informal way. One simply needs to take an animal that pushes a truck and then say:
[dog pushes truck]

Was the dog pushable just now?

The child with a secure grammar will say “no” or “yes” and then do something like push the dog with the truck.

Or just put out a dog and a truck and say:

Show me how the dog is pushable.

Then whatever the child does, ask “why?” and the answer is sure to be revealing.

**Anti-agents**

One interesting formal property of grammar is negative implications. If something can be marked [+Agent], then our system suggests that it can be marked [-Agent] too and the child has the negative property as an automatic option to look for. In fact there is an affix—probably beyond any young child— which does that and is productively used in science —ant [coagulant, intoxicant, reactant, etc]. We discuss it briefly to show again what the endpoint of acquisition looks like.

We can see it in our language in cases like:
descendant

*he is a descendant of the mountain
he is a descender of the mountain

or contrasts like:

penetrator  of our defenses

*penetrant of our defenses

which can occur in a compound:

skin penetrant

The –ant affix implies non-agency in a very subtle way. Thus we have servants in the house but a server for wine (or for a computer). In other cases we find:

cooler/coolant
stimulator/stimulant

The difference is always present, but it is extremely subtle. Terms like:
contestant  applicant  immigrant

all imply that the person’s fate is not entirely in their hands. That must be why, as well, we have students and not *studiers. If the child has [-Agent] in his repertoire, then it helps delineate such fine distinctions, though the –ant affix might be a piece of grammar that only emerges in high school.

**Agent Creation**

We have hardly discussed the most basic form of AGENT. It is a projecton from the verb to Subject position. There is a big difference between:

“John hit Bill” and “Bill hit John”

precisely because the Agent is not freely projected in syntax, but aimed at the subject position. This projection is so powerful that child development researchers have often assumed that the child begins with the notion

Subject = Agent

but it is clear from very early sentences that children allow other roles in the subject position in such simple sentences as:
it is nice/it rained/it fell

Some (NN15) have thought that children assumed a kind of hidden agency for sentences like:

the boat sank

But simple expressions like *it rained* make such an assumption very dubious.

Does the rain decide to drop itself?

Would a child ever invent exotic sentences? Creating Agents around new verbs have produced some of the most delightful examples of the power of grammar, the power of children, and the power of creative imagination, all working together (gathered by Eve Clark (NN16)):

I broomed her (2.7yrs)

I’m souping (2.4yrs)

Mommy nippled Anna (2.11yrs)

I’m gonna lawnmower you (3;6)

I guess she magicked (=disappeared 3.3)

Don’t vacuum-cleaner in the backyard (5.3 yrs)
These are commonly reported, but decline as children get older.

They are more than cute, though; they reveal the third prong of our predictions. We found spontaneous –er, spontaneous by-phrases, and therefore we should have spontaneous subject Agents as well. That is exactly what occurs in those examples: to lawnmower is made a verb so it can have I as an agent subject.

Such examples tells us something deep about the acquisition process which we still do not know how to formulate perfectly. The child is able to link the Agent to a structure freely, before its range of projection comes under the full control of existing verbs. The recognition path goes something like:

Recognize verbal meaning with verbs.

1. jump = action

2. VERB => Syntax = Subject (Agent) VERB

   \[ \begin{array}{c} \text{AG} = \\
   \text{(verb projects agent onto subject)} \end{array} \]

3. VERB => Morpology = VERB+ er

   \[ \begin{array}{c} =\text{AG} \\
   \text{(verb projects agent onto –er)} \end{array} \]

4. VERB => Optional Syntax = Prepositional Phrase
VERB => VERB  *by*-phrase

=AG

(verb projects agent onto *by*-phrase)

An act of projection takes part of the meaning of the verb and sends it somewhere. Children first realize how agents are marked, then they restrict agents to verbs that have them. It is the act of restriction which is the machine indicating what is operating and what is not.

Here is a loose analogy. If you were trying to figure out what a car is and you first determined that it had five wheels, all identical. Then, looking for a mechanism, you saw that only four were turning, the other is a spare. It is the latter moment when you really see the mechanism, even when there is misleading information around.

Are there any fifth wheels? Actually we have been buzzing about quite a few: -*ist, -eer, but also –*or. There are also potential morphological analyses we have not really touched. Will the child secretly wonder if those with *power* can “pow,” or if a *cover* “coves”? The child must discard numerous misleading possibilities.

If the reader is like me, they might say “oh well, it is just automatic that an action like ‘jump’ has an agent, so children will have it immediately from universal grammar.” Actually, this is just what I thought for a number of years.
It took a lot of examples like those above to show me that the child can grasp the action behind the verb first, then see where Agents are marked, and only then see that the verb does project and determines when and where agents can occur. The projection process is part of the acquisition process and does not occur immediately.

**Linked Invisible Agents**

The subject link becomes more interesting, as usual, if we just look at more complex structures. Not only are Agents projected to subject position, but sometimes subjects are invisible, as in infinitives:

John started to sing

John is the subject of both *start* and *sing*. Children have no difficulty with this connection. Sometimes, though, if one links invisible Agents, they can be misled. If one says:

...to know him is to love him

one cannot mean:

*for Mary to know him is for Susan to love him*
It is the same person in both situations. Here is how we this question was explored in a little pilot experiment by Katy Carlson (NN17), which one might try out with a doll and a bowl.

**EXPLORATION 6.10: TO KNOW HIM IS TO LOVE HIM**

Scenario: “Here is a bowl of cherries. Billy ate them all up. See the bowl has none.”

To eat cherries is “to become empty.”

Is that right?

Half a dozen children 4-5 years said things like, “yes, he ate the cherries and the bowl got empty,” but the children over six years said:

“No, no he became **full**.”

The second answer enforces a link between the two invisible subjects, but initially children do not seem to make this link.

*Caption: Linked invisible agents*

**Extension:** This scene could be easily acted out with a bowl of fruit and a doll or even a child that eats them:

Put cup of raisins before a child and say
“eat’em up”

“They were good, right? To eat raisins is to become empty.”

Is that right?

The answers to these questions will reveal if the child requires linking between invisible Agents. If not, they give different subjects to eating and becoming:

For me to eat raisins is for the bowl to become empty

They simply lack the obligatory linking principle for invisible subjects. Other linking principles are overt, as in “John helped himself,” but are still not acquired instantly, so it is no wonder that linked invisible subjects take time.

Is there Madness in this Method?

The reader may feel something between awestruck and skeptical: do we have a vision of how acquisition succeeds? Too many notions are coming in from too many odd angles—Agency is anywhere and everywhere, and that is just Agency. This impression is really right. There must be more of a guiding system that tells the child where to look, more abstract principles of UG that capture variation across grammars. We do not yet see it all clearly. Since so many systems are involved, though, there must be more innate fixed paths, not fewer.
Nor can we rely on general cognition, whatever that is, because it creates too many hypotheses, leads to too many misleading directions.

We have not even begun to discuss all the grammatical variation that can occur, all the options that the child who can learn any grammar, must be evaluating. For instance, in Germanic languages there can be passives of intransitives with implied agents. One can say:

“there was danced until midnight”
[Es wurde bis Mitternacht getanzt] (NN18)

But intransitive passives cannot occur in English and children do not spontaneously produce them. Why should a child deviate from English with “storier” and not with *“it was sat all day”? No one knows the answer.

Are there some clues to a larger theory in all this intricacy? We find that compounds allow only clear AGENTS that have clear direct objects or THEMES. That is why store-manager is all right but *smile-manager is not (because smile is not the object of an action). And it is why we can have penetrator of our defenses but not *penetrant of our defenses.

Instruments and Agents also imply each other. So let us create an implicational system, where one role brings the others to bear:
Agent, Theme, Instrument, and Intention are unified by an abstract concept of Intentional Action (or Event). (NN19)

We are creating a formal object that, quite obviously, matches something in our minds. In order to act purposefully we have an implicit notion of action and goal—something beyond a physical reflex response to a stimulus. So the presence of one form yanks in the other. We can actually see it happen.

Compare these two sentences:

John was unhappy with only one hand
John was lifted with only one hand

Suddenly for lift the one hand can belong to the implicit agent, the lifter and not John. In other words, the instrument was linked to the Agent (even though possibly the one hand could still belong to John).

We wondered if children would see the link. Teng Xiao Ping (NN20) gave children ambiguous pictures:

Two pictures:
boy with one hand pushes a boy with two
boy with two hands pushes a boy with one
and then asked them questions.

Show me where the boy was pushed with one hand.

Three-year-olds readily chose the picture where the one hand was linked to the agent and not the subject.

**EXPLORATION 6.11: INSTRUMENTS CARRY INVISIBLE AGENTS**

One can try this easily with household props:

Put two forks on a plate and one fork on another plate. Push the plate with two forks using one other fork

Was the plate pushed with one fork? => yes

Was the plate with one fork pushed => no

The implicational system carries a raft of roles (Agent, Instrument, Theme) at once and helps guide the child down the swift river of ambiguity that flows through every conversation.

*Caption: The Instrument-Agent implication*

**Summary:** Where’s the System?
Now let us step back and see if we can coordinate the system that the child seeks. Such a bewildering array could not be deciphered if there were no stable, innate assumptions guiding the process. We have argued that it begins with these universal ideas:

some verbs have agents

those verbs project agents

Now the particulars of language emerge. The Agent is projected in three ways:

- to subject: John hit Bill
- to –er: John is a hitter
- to by-phrase: Bill was hit by John

Then two other operations occur. If the object goes into the subject slot, then the Agent is blocked, that is why we cannot say:

*the ship sank by the navy

and if any other operation occurs (compounding, passive) the Agent simply remains implied.
The acquisition path involves:

1. Grasping the agentive meaning of the verb
2. Allowing agent projection to *by* and –*er* freely before it is connected to the verb.
3. Elimination of free projections after agent-verb connection.
4. Linking invisible Agents.
5. Allowing other affixes: -eer, -ist, -ian to operate where –*er* does not.

(That is, one can allow –*er* on nouns as automatic idioms precisely because no verb is present.)

The Agent is a part of an Intentional Event which then serves to identify other roles projected by the verb: agent, instrument, theme (and a few others).

What at first seems like an incredibly criss-crossed realm for the expression of agency is actually linked to a very abstract system of projection from verbs. The concept of role-projection and its necessary function in grammar must be known innately beforehand. Then the child must determine just where each grammar projects agents and other thematic roles.

The reader may feel a bit uncomfortable with our use of the term “concept” here, since it does not refer to something conscious. Later we will investigate briefly what we mean by “knowledge.” Straightening it out may seem
abstruse and irrelevant, but I think it affects how we appreciate the children sitting right in our laps.

Our array of Agent projections is not yet complete. We need to uncover the Agent within our chief example of recursion: possessives. We will return in a later chapter to asking just what possessives can mean.