




Syntax and Morphology

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Lecture 1

WORD STRUCTURE

❖ INTROOUCTION

- **Words are important:** basic units of language unlike phonemes and syllables, **words** carry **meaning**
- Unlike sentences, which are forgotten soon after we produce them, **words** are **stored** in a speaker's **mental dictionary** or **lexicon**. Words are the **fundamental building blocks** of language.
- Native speakers of English know thousands of words such as **read, language, computer, on**, whose meaning and form cannot be predicted
- **However**, once they know the meaning of **phish** (obtain sensitive information via email fraudulently), they can recognize and construct words such as: **phised, phiser, phising**, and **unphishable**.
- Thus, **MORPHOLOGY** is that component of the grammar which studies the **structure of word** to account for the knowledge that native speakers have about their own language.
- Native speakers know how to segment a string of sounds into words when they write, for instance, so then: **What is a word? How can it be defined?**
- Linguists define the **word** as the **smallest free form in a language**. This means that it can occur alone in different positions in the sentence as well:

(1) **A:** What creatures do children find most fascinating?

B: Dinosaurs.

(2) Paleontologists study **dinosaurs**

Dinosaurs are -s extinct (-s is NOT a free form)

❖ MORPHEMES

- Like syllables and sentences, words have an internal structure which consists of one or more **morphemes**.
- **A Morpheme is the smallest unit of language that carries meaning.**
 - ♥ For example: **Builder** is made up of **build** (construct) and -er (one who builds) **Houses** is made up of **house** (dwelling) and -s (more than one)
- One-morpheme word is said to be **simple** and two or more morpheme words are said to be complex.
 - ♥ Ex: **hunt, hunt-er, and hunt-er-s**

❖ Free and bound morphemes

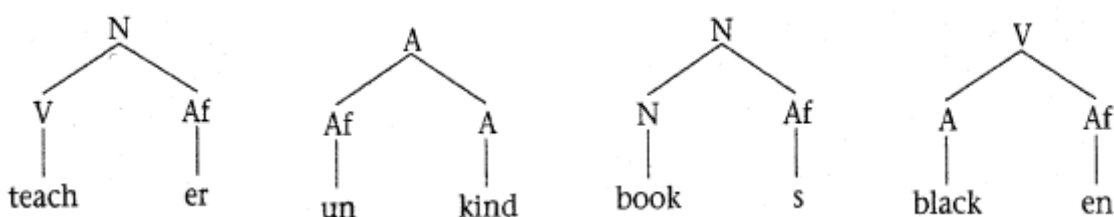
- A morpheme can be either **free**, when it can stand alone,
- or **bound**, when it must be attached to another one.
 - ♥ Ex: boy vs -s
- A free morpheme in English can be **bound** in different language.
 - ♥ Ex: **head** and *fi (in Athapaskan, an Amerindian lge). In this language, this morpheme is bound, sefi, meaning my head.
- Conversely a bound morpheme in English can be free in other language.
 - ♥ Ex: **play-ed vs thaan leew** (eat +pas in Thai)

❖ ALLOMORPHS

- Allomorphs are the variant forms of a morpheme.
 - ♥ **Example 1:** the indefinite article in English has two variants: a when preceding a word that begins with a consonant (a **book**) and an when preceding a word that begins with a vowel (an **orange**)
 - ♥ **Example 2:** The plural morpheme —s has 3 pronunciations: [s], [z], and [əz] as in **cats, dogs, judges, respectively.**
- Do not confuse spelling changes with allomorphic variation. Ex: e in create and ride is dropped in **creat-ive** and **rid-ing**
- On the other hand, there is allomorphs in **electric/electric-ity** and **impress/impress-ion**, where the pronunciation changes but not the spelling [k] → [s] and [s] → [sh]

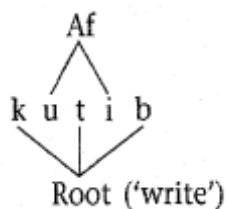
❖ ANALYSING WORD STRUCTURE

- To identify the internal structure of words, we need not only to **identify** the component morphemes but also to **classify** them according to their contribution to the **meaning** and **function** of the word.
- **Roots and affixes:** Complex words consist of a **root** morpheme and one or more **affixes**
- **The root** is the core of the word that carries the major meaning component.
- Typically, **roots** are **lexical** categories such as **N, V, A, or P.**
- **Affixes** are **NOT lexical** and are **ALWAYS bound** morpheme. **For ex, —er in teach-er (V+er → N)**
- Below are examples of the internal structure of some words



- **Affix types There are 3 types:**

- ♥ A **prefix** is attached to the front of the base. **Ex.** *De-activate, re-play, il-legal*
- ♥ A **suffix** is attached to the end of a base. **Ex.** *Faith-ful, govern-ment, huat-er*
- ♥ An **infix**, which is less common, occurs within another morpheme. **Ex.** in Tagalog, the language spoken in the Philippines, we find: **bili** → **buy**, the past form of which is **b-in-ili** → **bought**.
- ♥ Beware! **-ish** in (**boy-ish-ness**) is **NOT** an infix.
- ♥ Arabic and other Semitic languages, has interesting illustration of infixing . Roots in Arabic are **consonantal**
- ♥ Various combinations of vowels are added, including in between the consonants to mark grammatical contrasts such as:
 - **kataba** → ‘wrote’ **kutib** → has been ‘written’ **aktub** → ‘I write/I am writing’
- ♥ Representing these facts by assigning vowels to different **tiers**, level:



- ❖ **PROBLEM CASES**

- English morphology is said to be **word-based**. Consider the following: **re-do, treat-ment**. Most complex words are like these two
- Not all languages are like English, Spanish and Japanese, verbal roots are always bound and cannot therefore stand alone. Arabic is also like that.
- English also has a number of bound roots such as , **unkempt** (unkempt hair) which does not break into **un+kempt**
- Other words such as, **Inept** were **borrowed** into English from Latin *ineptus* (unsuited). Today, this word cannot be broken up into ***in-ept**
- Another class of borrowed words from Latin via French is represented by following: **receive, conceive, perceive, permit, submit, and commit**. Each potential division of the word does not have a meaning of its own. **Re** → again but **cevie** → ? Consequently, these words cannot be segmented.

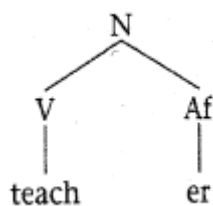
Lecture 2

DERIVATION

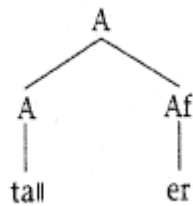
❖ Introduction

- **Derivation** is an affixation process that forms a word with a meaning and/or category distinct from that of its base
 - ♥ Ex. *Sell+er* → *seller*, *V+er* → *N*, NOT to be confused with *tall+er* → *tall-er*, *A+er* → *A* Here **er** is inflectional

Derivation



inflection



- Once formed, derived words become independent lexical items and receive their own entry in a speaker's **mental dictionary**. With time, words acquire new meanings.
 - ♥ Ex. Profession means 'career' rather than the act of professing.

❖ Some English derivational affixes

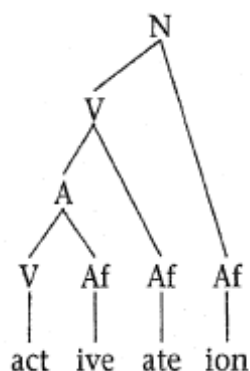
✓ Examples of derivational suffixes:

fix.-**able**, refus-**al**, claim—**ant**, reach-**er**, shoot-**ing**, impress-**ive**, treat-**ment**,
 king-**dom**, faith-**ful**, presidet-**ial**, optimist-**ic**, hospital-**ise**, brain-**less**, poison-**ous**,
 tall-**ish**, active-**ate**, black-**en**, stupid-**ity**, slow-**ly**, happi-**ness**. (See p. 124)

✓ **Complex derivations**

Some words require multiple levels of word structure is in Fig. 2 below:

A multilayered internal structure

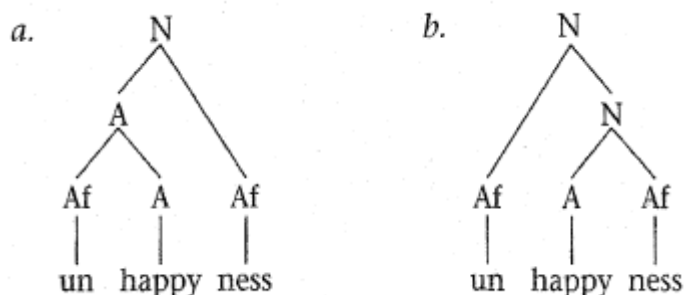


This word illustrates a multilayered internal structure with the attachment of an affix to an appropriate base.

✓ Competing analyses

In some cases, the internal structure of a word is **ambiguous** between two competing analyses

♥ Ex Unhappiness



The preferred analysis is the one in (**Fig.a**) **Un_** is more attested as a prefix with adjectives than with nouns

♥ Ex: **unable**, **unkind**, **unhurt**

♥ **but NOT**: *unknowledge, *unhealth, *unninjury.

✓ Constraints on derivation

Derivation is often subject to special constraints and restrictions.

♥ Ex. The suffix **-ant** can attach to bases of Latin origin such as **combat-ant**, **assist-ant**,

♥ **but NOT** those of English origin such as *hefp-ant, *fight-ant.

A **derivational affix** may attach only to a base with particular phonological properties.

♥ Ex. The **-en** combines with adjectives to create verbs.

♥ Ex. **Whiten**, **soften**, **madden**, **quicken**, **liven**,

♥ **but NOT** *abstracten, *bluen, *greenen, angryen, slowen.

This suffix can only combine with a monosyllabic base ending in an obstruent (stop fricative or affricate).

❖ Two classes of derivational affixes

• Class 1:

They trigger changes in the consonant or vowel segment of the base and may affect stress placement. Ex.

♥ **_ity** san-ity [ei] changes to [i].

♥ **_y** democrac-y [t] changes to [s] and stress shifts from 'democrat to de'mocracy

♥ **_ive** product-ive stress shifts from pr'oduct to pro'ductive.

♥ **_ise** public-ise shift from [k] to [s] from public to publicise.

• Class 2:

a) These tend to be phonologically **neutral**, not affecting the segmental makeup of the base.

♥ Ex. Prompt-ness, hair-less, hope-ful, quiet-iy, self-ish, defend-er.

b) These usually cannot intervene between the root and a **class 1** affix.

♥ Ex. Divis-ive-ness, fear-less-ness.

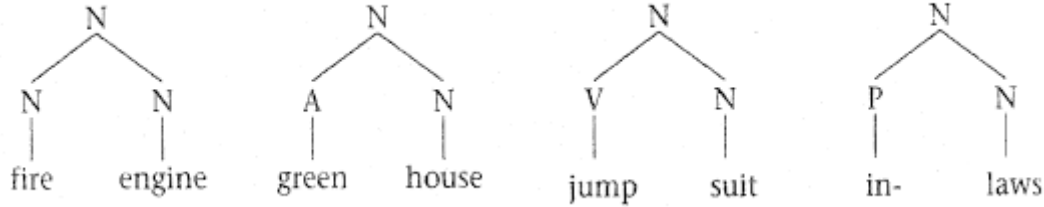
♥ but NOT *fear-less -ity

❖ **Compounding**

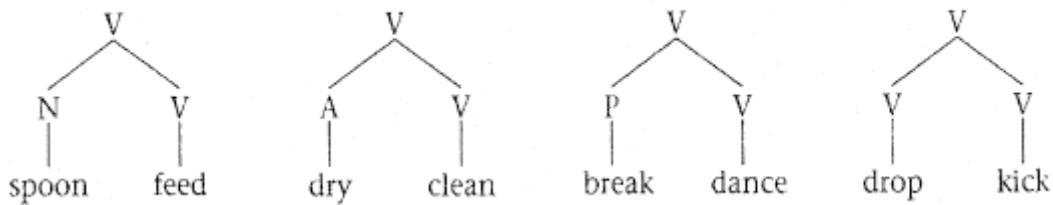
- Compounding is a process of word formation in English which consists in **combining existing words to create complex words**
- The resulting compound may be Noun or a Verb or an Adjective. **Ex:**

(1)

Noun compounds

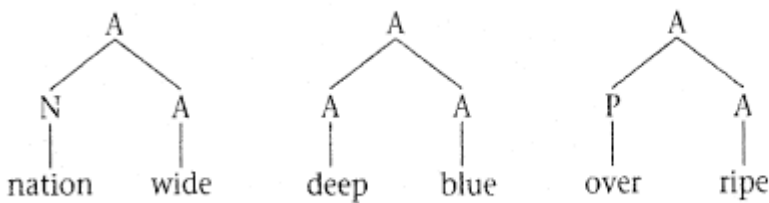


Verb compounds



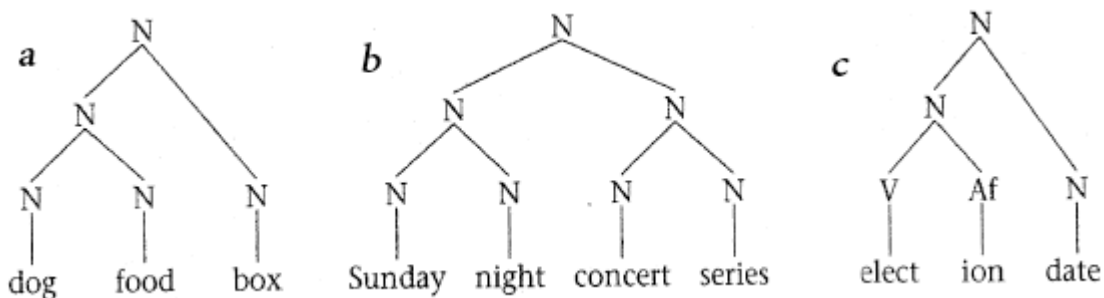
(2)

Adjective compounds



- Note that **the rightmost word determines the category of the compound**.
 - ♥ Thus, **Greenhouse** is noun because it ends with the noun **house**.
 - ♥ **Spoon feed** is a verb because it ends with the verb **feed**.
- The morpheme that determines the category of the entire word is called **HEAD**.
- Compounds can combine with other words to create even larger compounds. **Ex.**

(3)



- **Notice how compounding interacts with derivation in (3c)**

- ❖ **Properties of compounds**

- English orthography is not consistent in representing compounds. They can be written as single words, or separated by a hyphen, or simply separate words.
- As for pronunciation, some fact **MUST** be noted

- adjective—noun compounds are characterized by more prominent/stress of their first component.

- ♥ **greenhouse** → a glass enclosed garden /versus/ green house a house pointed green

- ♥ **blackboard** → a chalkboard /versus/ a black board (a board painted in black)

- Tense and plural markers cannot affect the first element in the compound.

- ♥ **Ex.** *the player dropped kick the ball /versus/ the player drop kicked the ball.

- ❖ **Endocentric and exocentric compounds**

- In most cases, a compound denotes a sub-type of the meaning/concept denoted by its head /rightmost element in the compound.

- ♥ **Ex: steamboat** → a boat powered by steam'

- ♥ **air field** → a field where airplanes land'

- ♥ **fire drill** → a practice in the case of a fire'

- Such compounds are said to be **endocentric**

- In a smaller number of cases, the meaning of the compound does not follow from the meanings of its compounds.

- ♥ **Ex: redhead** → a person with red hair

- ♥ **redneck** → a person not a type of neck.

- Such compounds are said to be **exocentric**.

- **Exocentric compounds** allow the suffixation of -s to irregular plurals, the endocentric ones do NOT.

- In ENDOCENTRIC compounds**

- ♥ wisdom teeth

- ♥ club feet

- ♥ policemen

- ♥ oak leaves

- In EXOCENTRIC compounds**

- ♥ saber tooths (extinct species of carnivore)

- ♥ bigfoots (mythical creatures; Sasquatch)

- ♥ Watchmans (a type of portable TV)

- ♥ Maple Leafs (Toronto's NHL hockey team)

Lecture 3

INFLECTION

❖ What is INFLECTION?

- It is a change or modification in the form of a word to mark grammatical. For examples, languages contrast plural and singular nouns by the addition of a plural affix **such as**
 - ♥ -s in English as in **book~ book-s**.
- The base form to which an inflectional affix is added is also called a **stem**

❖ INFLECTION IN ENGLISH

- With only 8 inflectional affixes, English is not a highly inflected language.

• English inflectional affixes

- ♥ **Nouns:** Plural -s → **books** ;
Possessive (genitive) -s → **John's book**
- ♥ **Adjectives:** Comparative -er → the **smaller** one,
Superlative -est → the **smallest** one.
- ♥ **Verbs:** 3 person singular .Non-past -s → he **reads** well,
Progressive -ing → he is **working**;
past tense -ed → he **worked**;
past participle -en/ed → he has **eaten/worked**.

❖ INFLECTION VERSUS DERIVATION

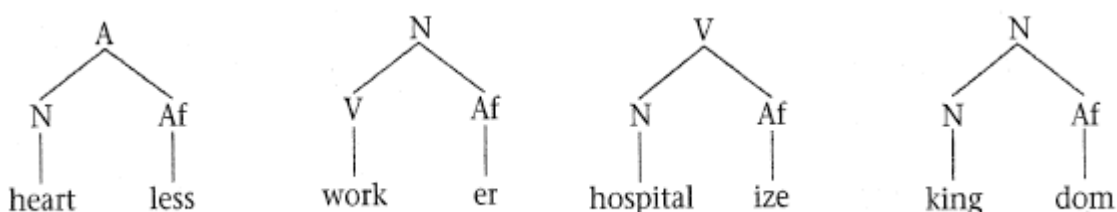
- Four criteria are often used to distinguish between inflectional and derivational affixes.

✓ 1- Category change

- Inflection does not change either the grammatical category or meaning of its host

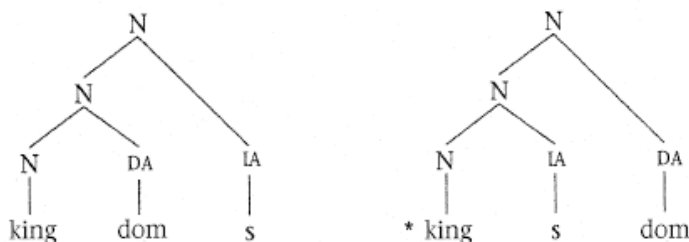


- Derivational affixes do change the category and meaning of its host



✓ 2- Order

- A derivational affix (DA) must combine with the base before an inflectional affix (IA);
- i.e, inflection applies to the output of derivation



✓ 3- Productivity

- IAs have few exceptions, comparatively.
- DAs typically apply to restricted classes of basis.
 - ♥ Ex: modernize vs *new-ise;
 - ♥ legal-ise vs *lawful-ise

 - ♥ Confine-ment; align-ment;
 - ♥ treat-ment; *arrest-ment; * straighten-ment, etc

✓ 4- Semantic transparency

- IAs contribute transparent and consistent meaning to their host.
 - ♥ Ex. books, trees, cats or walked, played, talked, etc.
- DAs do not contribute consistent meaning. Often it is not possible to predict the word's meaning from its parts.
 - ♥ Ex: Actor is someone who acts
 - ♥ but a professor is not so who professes .

 - ♥ Government can mean institution as in government's program
 - ♥ but it can also mean act of governing as in government by the people

❖ OTHER INFLECTIONAL PHENOMENA

- **CASE:** It is a change a word's form to mark change in its grammatical function (*subject, direct object, indirect object, and so on*).
- English does not mark case on noun, but it does on pronouns;
 - ♥ Ex. he **VS** him,
 - ♥ he met him **VS** *him met he.
- Standard Arabic marks Case on nouns: (*nominative, accusative, and genitive*)

أَكَلَ	عَمْرٌ (مرفوع)	تَفَاحَةً (منصوب)	فِي	المَكْتَبِ (مجرور)
Akala	3omar-u	t-tuffaahat-a	fi	l-maktab-i
Ate	Omar- <i>nominative</i>	apple- <i>accusative</i>	In	the-office- <i>genitive</i>

Omar ate the apple in the office

- **AGRFFMFNT:** occurs when a word is inflected to match certain grammatical properties of another word (**t-tuTaabuq**)
- In English, it is limited to the third person singular of the simple present;
 - ♥ **Ex:** He work-**s** very hard.

❖ OTHER MORPHOLOGICAL PHENOMENA

✓ PROCFSSFS FLATFD TO PNFICTION

– **Internal Change:**

- a process that substitutes a non-morphemic segment to mark a grammatical contrast.
 - ♥ **Ex.** sink → sank (ablaut),
 - ♥ goose → geese (umlaut).
- The change explained historically is as follows:
 - ♥ **Old English singular form of goose:** /go:s/
 - ♥ **Old plural form:** /go:s-i/
 - ♥ **Umlaut:** /goe:s-i/
 - ♥ **loss of the plural suffix:** /goe:s/
 - ♥ **Other changes:** /ge:s/ then /gi:s/
- Note that internal change is NOT infixing. There is no base form {**sg**}, {**sk**}. Infixing and internal change show that morphology is not always concatenative, meaning that affixation does not always apply sequentially.

– **Suppletion:**

- it occurs when a morpheme is replaced by another which is extremely different to mark a grammatical contrast.
 - ♥ **Ex.** Go → went
 - ♥ and was → were
- Sometimes It is difficult to distinguish between suppletion and internal Change.
 - ♥ **Ex.** Think → thought,
 - ♥ seek → sought.
- Often, it is treated as an extreme form of internal change or as partial suppletion.

– **Reduplication :**

- it involves the repetition of the base form or some part of it. **Ex:**

✓ **In Turkish (full doubling of the base form).**

- ♥ iyi تتطق ايه iyi well iji iyi very well رمز صوت حرف ي هو [j]
- ♥ güzel تتطق قوزال gyzel beautiful gyzel gyzel very beautiful

✓ **In Tagalog لغة فلبينية (partial doubling of the base form)**

- ♥ takbo run tatakbo will run
- ♥ lakad walk lalakad will walk

– **Tone placement:**

- Tone is used in some languages to mark grammatical contrast
 - ♥ **Ex: In Mini-Bill, a language spoken in the Congo, we find the following contrast:**
 - ♥ **zi → ate while zi → will eat**

– **Conversion**

- Often considered to be a type of derivation, it involves a change in meaning and category. It is also called **zero derivation**.

(Noun derived from Adjective).

- ♥ the poor, the rich, the sublime.

(preposition derived from verb),

- ♥ up the price

(verb derived from Adjective).

- ♥ dirty (a shirt)
- ♥ empty (the box)
- ♥ better (the old score)
- ♥ right (a wrong)
- ♥ total (a car)

(noun derived from verb).

- ♥ (a long) run
- ♥ (a hot) drink
- ♥ (a pleasant) drive
- ♥ (a brief) report
- ♥ (an important) call

(verb derived from noun)

- ♥ ink (a contract)
- ♥ butter (the bread)
- ♥ ship (the package)
- ♥ nail (the door shut)
- ♥ button (the shirt)

- Conversion in two syllable words is often marked by a shift in stress

NOUN

- ♥ 'implant
- ♥ 'import
- ♥ 'present

VERB

- ♥ im'plant
- ♥ im'port
- ♥ pre'sent

– **Clipping :**

- A process whereby a polysyllabic word is shortened by deleting one or more syllables.
 - ♥ **Ex: Names:** Ron → Ronald, Liz → Elisabeth
 - ♥ In casual speech: prof → professor, phys-ed → physical education
 - ♥ Other forms are much more widely spread: ad, lab, demo, etc.
 - ♥ recently, we find internet-inspired creations such as: blog → (website log of events).

– **blends:**

- They are words that are formed by blending non-morphemic parts of two already existing words. **Ex:**
 - ♥ **brunch** = breakfast + lunch,
 - ♥ **smog** = smoke + fog
 - ♥ **infomercial** = information + commercial
 - ♥ **ginormous** = gigantic + enormous
 - ♥ **bit** = binary + digit
 - ♥ **modem** = modulator + demodulator, etc.

– **Backformation**

- creates a new word by removing part of an existing word, Ex:
 - ♥ Resurrection → resurrect
 - ♥ donation → donate
 - ♥ enthusiasm → enthuse
- Ex of new recent such creations are :
 - ♥ liaison → liaise
 - ♥ allegation → allege
 - ♥ administration → administrate
 - ♥ aggression → aggress

– Acronyms

- are formed by Keeping the initial letters of some or all the words in a phrase and pronouncing them as ONE Word. **Ex:**
 - ♥ **UNICEF** → United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
 - ♥ **NATO** → North Atlantic Treaty Organisation

– Word coinage:

- Common for names of products.
 - ♥ **Ex.** Kodak, Teflon.

❖ MOPHOPHONEMICS

- ✓ Morpheme and their allomorphs

- **Is every morpheme pronounced the same in all contexts?** The answer is NO, Many morphemes have two or more pronunciations called **allomorphs**. The choice between them is determined by the **phonological context**.

- ♥ **Examples 1:** The plural in English. How is the plural morpheme in English formed ?
Answer, by adding **-s** to the singular form, Consider: cats, dogs, horses.

- As is well known, English spelling does not reflect pronunciation. This suffix has **three allomorphs**:
 - **[s]** as in cats, lamps,
 - **[z]** as in dogs, days,
 - **[iz]** or **[əz]** as in horses or judges.

- The pronunciation is predictable on the basis of the phonological context:
 - ♥ Sibilants (hissing sounds) such as *horses, roses, bushes, churches, judges, calls* → **[iz]**
 - ♥ Otherwise, when preceded by a voiceless consonant, **[s]** is used as in → *cots, rocks, cups*.
 - ♥ Otherwise, when preceded by a voiced consonant, **[z]** is used as in → *dogs, days, birds*.

♥ **Example 2:**

- How is the past morpheme **-ed** realized phonologically?
[t], [əd], and [id] or [əd] (to be done as an exercise in class).
- Is Allomorphy a matter of phonological conditioning only?
Yes, as in the cases above, but NO for others. Consider the word **lie**. It ends in a vowel, a voiced sound and therefore forms its plural **lies** with **[z]**, However, if we replace **[z]** with **[s]**, we get an actual word **lice**. the plural of **louse**.
- Grammar also accounts for allomorphy in English.
 - ♥ Consider **cliff** and **laugh**. Both form their plural with **[s]** **cliffs** and **laughs**,
 - ♥ but **wife** and **loaf** do not, ***wifes, *loafs** are ill-formed. Their plural is **wives** and **loaves**.
- Similar words that change their voiceless consonants **f, s, th** to voiced counterparts **v, z, dh** are:
 - ♥ knife → knives,
 - ♥ life → lives,
 - ♥ path → paths.
- Notice that the change is restricted to the plural morpheme: my **wife's** car **does NOT** undergo any change.

Lecture 4
PRACTICE EXERCISES
MORPHOLOGY PRACTICE

❖ **Exercise 1: Circle the correct answer in the following rig multiple choice questions:**

1. **Morphology is the level of grammar concerned with the -----**
 - a) Structure of words
 - b) Stricture of words
 - c) Status of words
 - d) Structure of worlds

2. **Th. association between most words and their meanings is purely -----**
 - a) Controversial
 - b) Conditional
 - c) Central
 - d) Conventional

3. **3. We can have ----- for a single TYPE**
 - a) Only one TOKEN
 - b) Two TOKENS
 - c) More than one TOKEN
 - d) Three TOKENS

4. **When we derive one word from another, we -----**
 - a) Change its class, for example, from Verb to Noun
 - b) Change its tense, for example , from Past to Present
 - c) Both of the above
 - d) None of the above

5. **Roots are -----**
 - a) NOT always free
 - b) Always free
 - c) Both of the above
 - d) None of the above

6. **A compound is a word that contains -----**
 - a) One prefix and one word
 - b) One suffix and one word
 - c) Two root morphemes and one word
 - d) Two free standing forms

7. **----- is a morpheme that makes the most significant contribution to a word's meaning.**
 - a) The phoneme
 - b) The derivational morpheme
 - c) The inflectional morpheme
 - d) The root

8. ----- is some kind of resemblance between the sound of a word and what it denotes/means.
- a) idiom
 - b) Proverbs
 - c) Onomatopoeia
 - d) None of the above
9. **Suppletion** occurs when a word is represented by two or more ----- roots.
- a) Different
 - b) Similar
 - c) Both a and b
 - d) None of the above
10. **Choose the group of words that result from derivation**
- a) Cry, cries, cried, crying
 - b) Tooth, teeth
 - c) kind, unkind, kindness, kindly
 - d) None of the above

APPLICATION EXERCISES

❖ **EXERCISE 1:** Divide the following words into morphemes

Examples:

- i. truth **morphemes:** (true) (th)
- ii. barefoot **morphemes:** (bare) (foot)

- a) research -----
- b) butterfly -----
- c) holiday -----
- d) morpheme -----
- e) phonology -----

❖ **EXERCISE 2:** Some words in (2) contain suffixes. Identify the suffixes by circling them.

- a) happiness -----
- b) freedom -----
- c) flowers -----
- d) brother -----
- e) blackboard -----

❖ **EXERCISE 3:** Some words in (3) contain prefixes. Identify the prefixes by circling them.

- a) unable -----
- b) discourage -----
- c) establish -----
- d) receive -----
- e) strawberry -----

❖ **EXERCISE 4:** For each word below, indicate whether the word is morphologically simple (S) or complex (C), includes an inflectional affix (IA), or includes a derivational affix (DA) by circling the relevant answer

S → Simple, C → Complex, IA → Infi. Affix, DA → Deriv. Aff.

- a) rider S C IA DA
- b) colder S C IA DA
- c) silver S C IA DA
- d) lens S C IA DA
- e) legs S C IA DA

❖ **EXERCISES 5:** (i) Identify the root in the words below by underlining it;
(ii) State the syntactic category it belongs to.

- ♥ Example: friendly Friend (Noun)
- a) lamps ----- -----
- b) kindness ----- -----
- c) hinted ----- -----
- d) payers ----- -----
- e) grandfathers ----- -----

Lecture 5

PART II: SYNTAX - THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

❖ What is a GRAMMAR?

- It is a theory of language which attempts to characterize the structure of language.
- ALL languages have a grammar
 - **ALL grammars are equal** because ALL languages are acquired unconsciously by all children and at an early age. Indeed, a child is capable of learning any language. In other words, humans are endowed with a Language Faculty, an initial and universal program, that enables them to acquire any language
 - All grammars are alike in basic ways → **UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR**
 - A grammar is the characterization of the tacit **TACIT/IMPLICIT/UNCONSCIOUS** knowledge that native speakers have of their own language.

❖ The organisation of a Transformational Generative Grammar

- A **GRAMMAR** in this sense is essentially an **INPUT / OUTPUT system**. It consists of:
 - ♥ **LEXICON** a mental dictionary (information on words: pronunciation, form, and meaning)
 - ♥ **COMPUTATIONAL SYSTEM** : operations that combine and arrange words in particular ways.

Two main modes of operation / structure building: **MERGE** and **MOVE**.

- **Merge** is operated on the basis of information from the Lexicon and a theory of phrase structure, known as **X** theory.
- As for **MOVE**, it is the operation of displacing elements around in a structure.

❖ CATEGORIES AND STRUCTURE

- Words can be grouped into a small number of classes called **syntactic categories**.
- This classification is based on their **meaning, type affixes** they associated with and the **structures** in which they occur.

❖ Categories of words.

- Categories of words are classified as either **LEXICAL** or **FUNCTIONAL**.
 - The Lexical categories are nouns (**N**), verbs (**V**), adjectives (**A**), and prepositions (**P**) and Adverbs.
 - ♥ **Ex. Noun**: John, Ali, courage, book ;
 - ♥ **Verb** : come, go, discuss,
 - ♥ **Adjective**: good, bad, tall;
 - ♥ **Preposition**: to, in, near;
 - ♥ **Adverb**: badly, quickly, hard.

– The Functional categories are Determiners (**Det**), Auxiliary verbs (**Aux**), Conjunctions (**Con**) and Degree words (**DEG**). etc.

- ♥ **Ex. DET:** a, the, this;
- ♥ **DEG:** too, so, very. more, quite;
- ♥ **AUX (Modal)** will, would, could. etc;
- ♥ **AUX (non-modal):** be, have;
- ♥ **CONJ:** and, or, but, etc.

– One source of confusion is that one word can belong to more than one category.

- ♥ **Ex : Comb and Near:**
- ♥ The woman found a **comb (N)**
- ♥ The boy should **comb (V)** his hair
- ♥ The boy stood **near (P)** the fence
- ♥ The runners **neared (V)** the finish line
- ♥ The end is **nearer (A)** than you think.

❖ HOW CAN WE DETERMINE A WORD'S CATEGORY?

- By considering its **meaning**, its **inflections**, its **distribution**.

❖ MEANING

- **Nouns** name or denote entities; viz.,
 - ♥ people (Ali, John)
 - ♥ and things (book, desk)
- **Verbs** denote
 - ♥ actions (run, jump),
 - ♥ sensations, (feel, hurt)
 - ♥ and states (be, remain).
- **Adjectives** designate a property or an attribute of the entities denoted by the noun,
 - ♥ as in **tall building, tall man**.
- **Adverbs** designate properties and attributes for actions, sensations, and states denoted by verbs.
 - ♥ **Ex. MANNER** Janet left QUICKY Janet left EARLY
- HOWEVER, meaning cannot always determine a word's category. Words such as
 - ♥ **difficulty, truth, likelihood**, do not refer to entities in the strict sense.
- Similarly a noun such as push may denote an action in '**give someone a push.**' Further problems arise with different categories having the same meaning such **like (V)**, and **fond (A)**
 - ♥ **in Mice like/are fond of cheese.**

❖ INFLECTION

- **NOUNS** Inflect for plural **-s** and possessive **'s**
 - ♥ eg, books, John's
- **VERBS** Inflect past tense **-ed**, progressive **-ing** and third person singular **-s**
 - ♥ eg, arriv-**ed**, arriv-**ing**, arrive-**s**
- **ADJECTIVE** inflect for the comparative **-er** and superlative **-est**
 - ♥ eg, tall-**er**, tall-**est**, fast-**er** fast-**est**
- HOWEVER, even inflection fails to provide, a word's category in some cases such as : ***intelligenter**, ***beautifuiest** Also, some nouns cannot be used in the plural such as: ***moistures**, ***braveries**, ***knowledges**.

❖ DISTRIBUTION

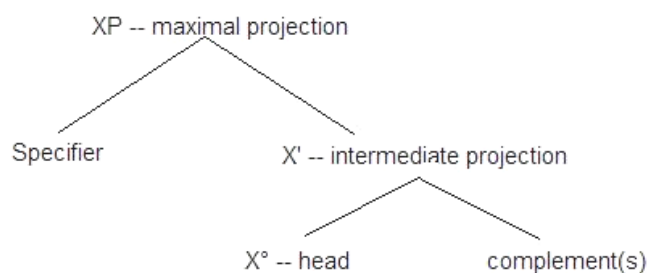
- A more reliable criterion for determining a category type involves its distribution, meaning what elements (especially functional categories it can co-occur with).
- For ex. Nouns appear with a **DET**, Verbs with an **AUX**, and Adjectives with **DEG** adverbs.
 - ♥ Ex. **A car, the book, has gone, will stay, very rich, too big.**
- Of course, we can also predicate that the following combinations are not possible
 - ♥ *the destroy (**V+DET**),
 - ♥ *very arrive (**DEG +V**),
 - ♥ *will destruction (**AUX + N**).

❖ PHRASE STRUCTURE

- Sentences are simply formed by juxtaposing words like beads on a necklace
- Rather they a **hierarchical** design/structure in which words are grouped into larger units called **phrases**.
- In a sentence like:
 - ♥ **The doctor examined the patient,**
 - The words **the** and **doctor** form a phrase (NP)
 - and the words **examined** and **the patient** form another phrase (VP).
 - ♥ **[The + doctor] [arrived + quickly].**
- In Traditional syntactic analysis, **[the doctor]** is the **Subject** and **[arrived quickly]** is the **Predicate**.

❖ X' Schema

- A phrase can be broken down into **3** parts a **HEAD**, a **SPECIFIER**, and a **COMPLEMENT**.
- Arranged as in the schema below:



- **The schema above captures the following generalisations:**

- (1) All phrases have a **tree-level** structure: (X. X', XP)
- (2) All phrases contain a **head: X**
- (3) If there is a **complement**, it is attached to the intermediate **X'** level as a sister of the head.
- (4) If there is a **specifier** it is attached at the XP, as a sister of **X'**

Lecture 6

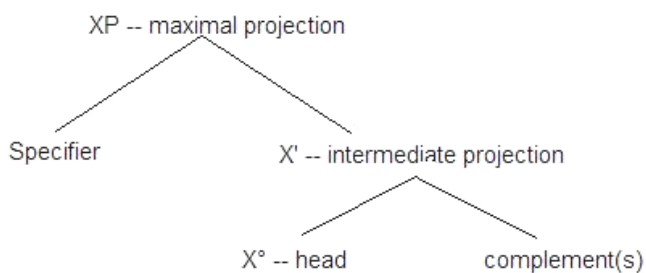
THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

❖ PHRASE STRUCTURE

- Sentences are NOT simply formed by juxtaposing words like beads on a necklace.
- Rather, they have a **hierarchical** design/structure in which words are grouped into larger units called **phrases**.
- In a sentence like:
 - ♥ **The doctor examined the patient.**
 - ♥ The words **the** and **doctor** form a phrase (**NP**)
 - ♥ and the words **examined** and the **patient** form another phrase (**VP**).
 - ♥ (The + doctor) (examined + the patient).
- In Traditional syntactic analysis, **the doctor** is the Subject and **examined the patient** is the Predicate.

❖ X' Schema

- A phrase can be broken down into **3** parts a **HEAD**, a **SPECIFIER**, and a **COMPLEMENT**.
- Arranged as in the schema below:



- **The schema above captures the following generalisations:**

(5) All phrases have a **tree-level** structure: (X, X', XP)

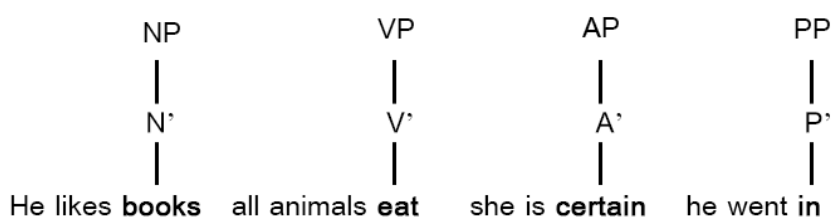
(6) All phrases contain a **head: X**

(7) If there is a **complement**, it is attached to the intermediate **X'** level as a sister of the head.

(8) If there is a **specifier** it is attached at the **XP**, as a sister of **X'**

❖ Heads

- The head is the **obligatory nucleus** around which a phrase is built.
- **X** in the schema above can be **N, V, A, or P**. A head can form a phrase just by itself.



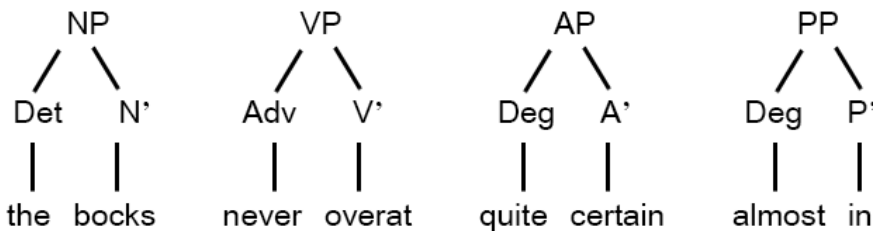
Phrases consisting just oh a Head

❖ Specifiers

- The type of **Spec** in a phrase depends on the category of the Head
- **Det** serves as **Spec** of **Ns**, preverbal adverbs serve as **Spec** of **Vs** and **Deg** as **spec** of **As**.

- ♥ **Det** → Spec of **N**; eg: a, those, my, no, etc.
- ♥ **Adv** → Spec of **V**; eg: never, perhaps, often, always.
- ♥ **Deg** → Spec of **A**; eg: very, quite, so
- ♥ **Deg** → Spec of **P**; eg: almost

- Syntactically, Spec marks the boundary of a phrase. In English, they occupy the leftmost position in a phrase.
- Syntactically, Spec make the meaning of the head more precise.



❖ Complements

- Consider the following more complex phrases:

- NP a picture of the ocean
- VP never trust a rumor
- AP quite certain about Mary
- PP almost in the house

- In addition to the Specifiers and the underlined heads, these examples contain **COMPLEMENTS**.

- These are phrases which complete the meaning of the heads.
- Complements are semantically selected by their heads.
- Syntactically, they are sisters to the selecting head.
- **The 4 examples** above conform and illustrate the **X'**-schema given above. Ex (a) is given below.
- ((Try to draw a tree diagram for the others.))

❖ The merge operation

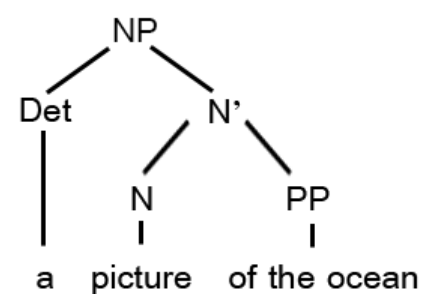
- We can formulate the following operation for sentence building:
- **MERGE**: Combine words in a manner compatible with the **X'** schema.
- The merger operation follows a **mode of application which is bottom up and right to left**.

Abbreviation

Specifiers → **Spec**
 Determiners → **Det**
 Auxiliary verbs → **Aux**
 Conjunctions → **Conj**
 Degree words → **Deg**

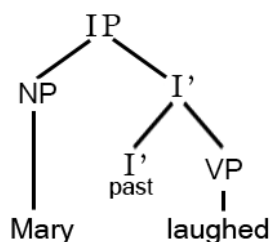
Noun → **N**
 Verb → **V**
 Adjective → **A**
 Adverb → **Adv**
 Prepositional → **P**
 Complement → **C**
 Sentence → **S**
 Inflection → **I**

Noun Phrase → **NP**
 Verb Phrase → **VP**
 Adjective Phrase → **AP**
 Adverb Phrase → **AdvP**
 Prepositional Phrase → **PP**
 inflection phrase → **IP**



❖ SENTENCES

- The largest unit of syntactic analysis is the **sentence**.
- Typically, sentences are made up of an **NP** (the subject) and a **VP** (the Predicate).
- These two phrases are grouped together by **Inflection**.
- **I** (for short) is the **syntactic head of a sentence**. It stands for the Tense element of the sentence.
- On the other hand, because of its central role in determining the meaning of a sentence, the **verb** is said to be the **semantic head of S**.
- A simple, sentence structure is provided below:



(Notice that the verb's ending and the tense feature do match)

- ♥ Advantage of this abstract analysis is that sentences have the same internal structure as phrases.
- ♥ As a head, I is obligatory and this accounts for sentences being necessarily tensed
- ♥ I is a natural locus (position) for Modals, i.e. In between the subject and the **VP**.
- ♥ Reduces the burden of language acquisition

❖ TESTS FOR PHRASE STRUCTURE

- Words are grouped into **constituents**. However, how can we be sure of the correctness of a particular grouping. There are syntactic tests to confirm constituent structure. These are:

– The Substitution Test

Replacement of the entire constituent by ONE word such as **they, it, there, do so**. In the example below, **[THEY]** replaces the **NP** children and **[DO SO]** replaces the **VP** stop at the corner.

- ♥ **[The children]** will **I** **[stop at the corner]** if they see us **do so**

The PP **at the corner** can also be replaced by one word namely THERE.

→ **They** will stop **there** if they see us **do so**.

– The Movement Test

The PP **at the corner** can be shown to be a constituent by moving it all to a different position in the sentence. → Movement test

- ♥ They stopped **[at the corner]** → **AT THE CORNER**, they stopped. But* at the , stopped corner

– The Coordination Test

A group of words forms a constituent if it can be joined to another group of words by a coordinating conjunction such **and, or, but**.

- ♥ The children **[went to the playground]** and **[stayed there all day]**
(The coordinated structure is **VP**)

Lecture 7

PRACTICE EXERCISES I

❖ **EXERCISE 1:** Some of the sentences below are ungrammatical. Can you figure out what makes them ungrammatical?

1. -

- a) The instructor told the students to study
- b) *The instructor suggested the student to study
- c) The customer asked for a hot chocolate
- d) *The customer requested for a hot chocolate

2.

- a) The pilot landed the plane
- b) The plane landed A journalist
- c) A journalist wrote the article
- d) *The article wrote
- e) Jerome is tired of her job
- f) *Jerome is satisfied of her job

--

❖ **EXERCISE 2.** Indicate the category of each word in the following sentences:

- a) The glass broke
- b) These tall trees are blocking the road
- c) The peaches never appear quite ripe
- d) I will see you when I finish
- e) I don't like that
- f) Some students always complain

❖ **EXERCISE 3:** Each of the following phrases consists of a Spec and a Head. Build a tree for each one complying with the X'-schema.

- a) The zoo
- b) This house
- c) so witty
- d) Quite cheap
- e) always try
- f) never surrender
- g) Less bleak
- h) very competent

❖ **EXERCISE 4:** Each of the following phrases consists of a Head and a Complement. Build a tree structure for each one of them following the X'-schema.

- a) Into the zoo
- b) Full of mistakes
- c) Fixed the telephone
- d) study this material
- e) Arguments about the elections
- f) Success of the program

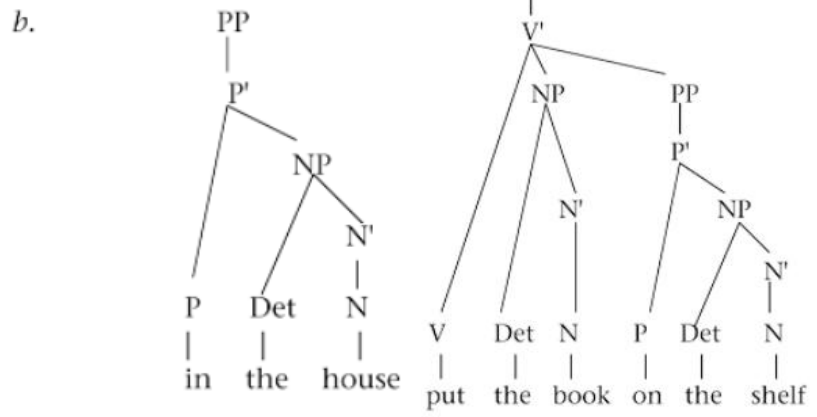
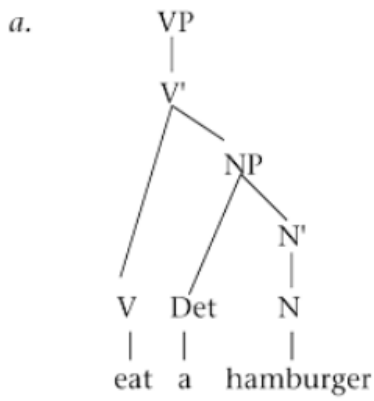


Figure 2 Phrases consisting of a head and a complement

Figure 3 A verb with two complements

Full Trees

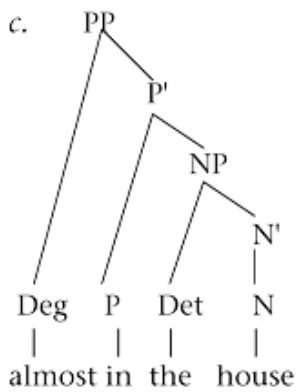
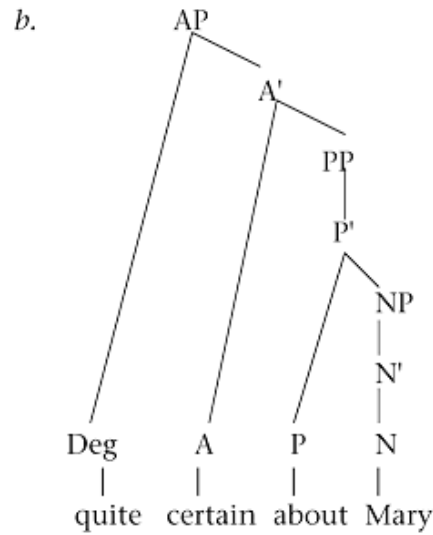
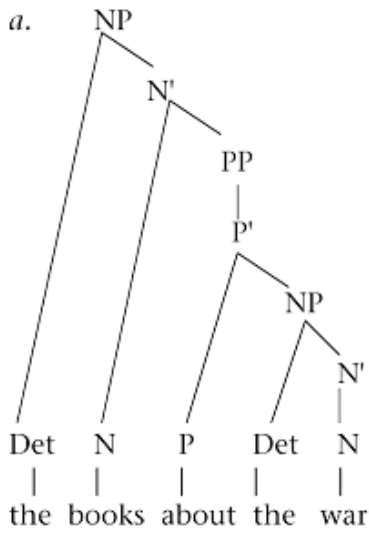
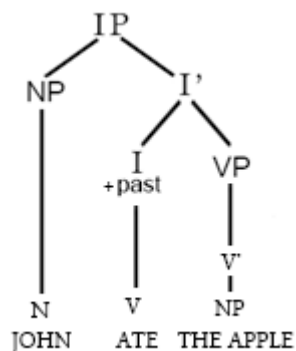


Figure 1 Other phrases consisting of a specifier, a head, and a complement

FIGURE 5 : The structure of a simple sentence



❖ **NOTE:**

- The SYNTACTIC head of I is the abstract morpheme [+PAST]. As a tense morpheme, it must be associated with a verb, hence the complement status of VP.
- The SEMANTIC head of the sentence is the verb EAT. It is the verb that selects a subject that can indeed perform the action of eating and the Object Apple, which can be eaten. Indeed, a sentence such as : *The tree ate the sea* perfectly grammatical but it is SEMANTICALLY anomalous, to say the least.

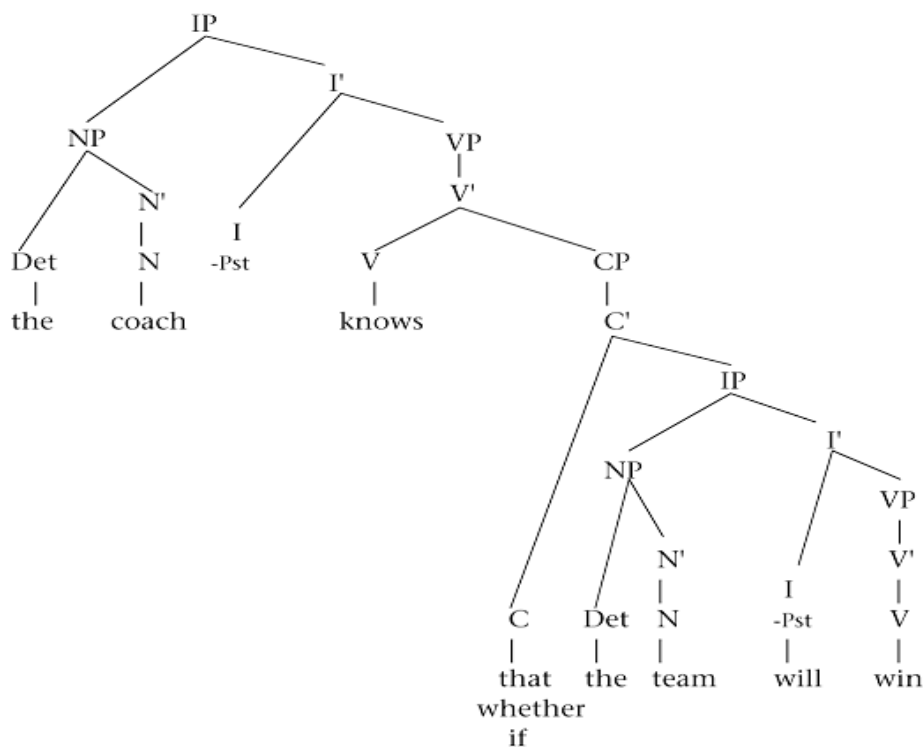


Figure 4 The structure of a sentence with an embedded CP

❖ **EXERCISE 5 Instructions:** Use at least two tests to show the constituent status of the following bracketed strings:

1. We ate our lunch [near the river bank]
2. The [computer was very] expensive
3. John loves [peanut butter and bacon sandwiches]

❖ **EXERCISE 6 Instructions:** Provide a syntactic representation for the following NPs. Justify the Complement or Modifier status *of each of the NP- internal*. Justify the Complement or Modifier status *of each of the NP- internal*.

1. A specialist in fibre optics from Paris
2. The girl on stage in jeans
3. The failure of the program in recent years

Lecture 8

COMPLEMENTS

❖ COMPLEMENTS

- Complements are obligatory constituents that are selected by a given head. This head can be a Verb, Noun, an Adjective, or a Preposition.
- **Complement selection is both semantic and syntactic.** When it is syntactic, it is termed SUBCATEGORISATION. Such information is encoded in the form of lexical entries / subcategorisation frames that include phonological, semantic and syntactic properties of lexical heads as in (1):

❖ DEVOUR: Cat V / divauə / 'EAT HUNGRILY' [_____ NP] [+ edible]

- We thus predict the contrast in (2) in which 2a does not include the NP direct object of the verb:
 - a) The boy devoured the sandwich
 - b) * The boy devoured.

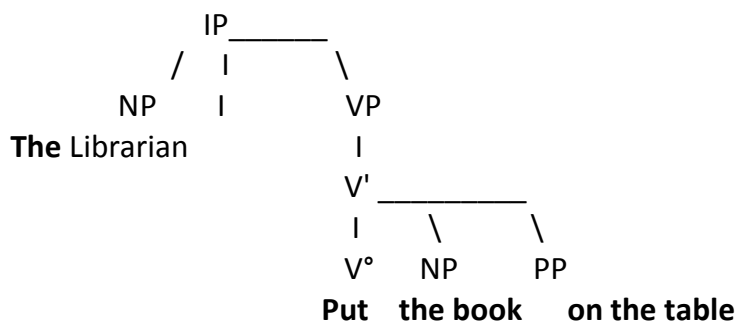
❖ 1. Complements options for the verb

- As a verb can take more than one complement, our **XP** rule needs to be revised as in (3):

- ♥ XP → (SPEC) X'
- ♥ X' → X° (COMPL*)

- a) The librarian put [the book] [on the table]
- b) * The librarian put on the table
- c) * The librarian put the book

- By rules (3 and 4, above), (5a) has the following structure:



❖ Some more examples of verb complements

COMPLEMENT OPTION	VERBS	EXAMPLE
♥ \emptyset	♥ arrive, die	♥ The rabbit vanished
♥ NP	♥ cut, prove	♥ The professor proved the theorem
♥ AP	♥ be, become	♥ The man became very angry
♥ PP	♥ dash, talk	♥ John talked to his daughter
♥ NP NP	♥ hand, give	♥ She handed the man a map
♥ NP PP	♥ hand, give	♥ She gave the map to the man
♥ NP PP <i>loc</i>	♥ put, place	♥ He put the book on the table
♥ PP <i>to</i> PP <i>about</i>	♥ talk, speak	♥ I talked to the doctor about Sue
♥ NP PP <i>for</i> PP <i>with</i>	♥ open, fix	♥ He opened the door for Andy with a knife

❖ 2. Complements of other lexical categories

- Complementation is not a property of verbs alone. Other lexical categories, namely nouns, adjectives and prepositions, also subcategorize for specific complements.

COMPLEMENT OPTION

NOUNS

EXAMPLE

- | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|---|
| ♥ Φ | ♥ car, boy | ♥ The car is new |
| ♥ PP of | ♥ memory, failure | ♥ The memory of a friend |
| ♥ PP of PP to | ♥ presentation, donation | ♥ The presentation of a medal to the winner |
| ♥ PP with PP about | ♥ argument, discussion | ♥ an argument with Stella about politics |

COMPLEMENT OPTION

ADJECTIVES

EXAMPLE

- | | | |
|------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|
| ♥ Φ | ♥ tall, green, smart | ♥ he is very tall |
| ♥ PP about | ♥ curious, glad | ♥ I am curious about China |
| ♥ PP to | ♥ apparent, obvious | ♥ It is obvious to the teacher |
| ♥ PP of | ♥ fond, tired | ♥ She is fond of chocolate |

COMPLEMENT OPTION

PREPOSITIONS

EXAMPLE

- | | | |
|----------|-----------------|------------------------|
| ♥ Φ | ♥ away, down | ♥ he walked away |
| ♥ NP | ♥ in, on, near | ♥ on the table |
| ♥ PP | ♥ down, up, out | ♥ down into the cellar |

- Subcategorisation, also referred to as C (onstituent)-selection, ensures that only the right complement type is entered into the tree structure. This information is stored in the Lexicon.

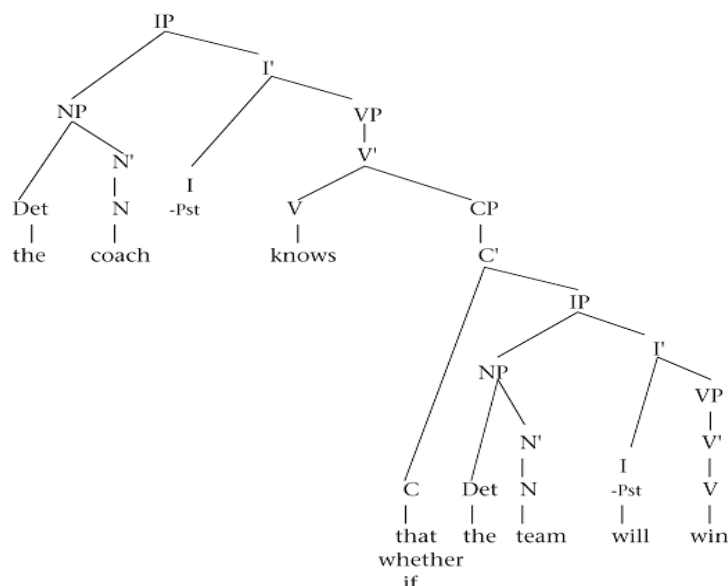
❖ Complement clauses

- Clauses, which are larger units than phrases, can also function as complements:

♥ *The psychic knows [that / whether / if the contestant will win]*

- The bracketed phrase in (6) is called a complement clause while the larger constituent is called matrix clause.

- that / whether / if are called complementisers (**Cs**).
- Their role is to introduce (**head**) complement clauses,
- thus forming Complement Clauses which are represented as syntactic Complement Phrases (**CPs**).



❖ **Verbs taking CP complements**

- There are different types of verbs taking complement clauses. Some of these are given below:

- a) They believe that Eric left. [V, ____ CP]
- b) They told Mary that Eric left [V, ____ NP CP]
- c) They admitted to Mary that Eric left. [V, ____ PP CP]

- THERE IS NO LIMIT ON THE NUMBER OF EMBEDDED CLAUSES THAT CAN OCCUR IN A SENTENCE, as exemplified in (10) below:

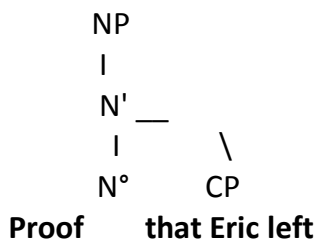
♥ **EXAMPLE:** A man thought [that a woman said [that Sue reported [that Mary believed]]]

- At the level of competence, a sentence can be **infinitely** long. This is accounted for in our grammar by the **recursive nature of the X' schema**. This is made possible by the fact that the same rule schema is used with the all the constituent types.

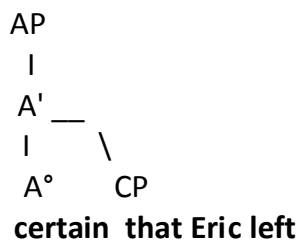
❖ **Other categories with CP complements.**

- As the examples below show, a CP may serve as a complement for a N, A, or a P.

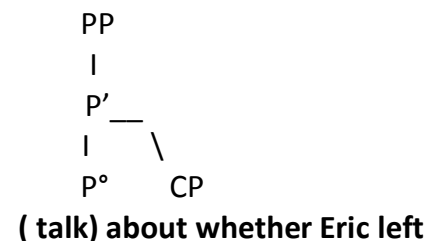
a. **CP complement of N**



b. **CP complement of A**



c. **CP complement of P**



- It is easy to see, at least for nouns and adjectives, that the complement clause attested with the verb form is also attested with the noun and adjective forms. We thus have:

Prove \ that The theorem is false

ascertain \ that the theorem is false

Proof /

certain /

Lecture 9

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

❖ 1. Deep and Surface Structure

- The grammar that we have developed so far consists of a **LEXICON** and a set of Phrase Structure Rules (PSRs) constrained by the **X'-schema**.
- The combined work of these two components generates simple structures, be they phrases or clauses of a varying degree of complexity.
- The central element in a phrase is the HEAD, an **X⁰**, while all its dependents (Complement, Modifier, or Specifier) are **XPs**.
- However, these components cannot account for variation in linguistic structure as represented by the following examples in a straightforward way :

(1) a. The Inspector **will** come tomorrow. *Declarative*
b. **Will** the Inspector _____ come tomorrow ? *Yes-No Interrogative*

(2) a. John bought a car *Declarative*
b. **WHAT did** John buy _____ ? *WH-Interrogative*

(3) a. **John** ate an apple *Active*
b. **An apple** was eaten _____ by John *Passive*

- Native speakers of English 'know', tacitly of course, that these sentences are both syntactically and semantically related, although they all express different modes of communication.
- This relatedness cannot be accounted for if we rely on the Lexicon and PSRs alone.
- At best, these two components will treat them as unrelated structures and thus will fail to capture the fact that the sentences in (b) are **DERIVED** from the sentences in (a).
- **HYPOTHESIS: The sentences in (b) are derived from the ones in (a) by movement**
- The (a) sentences are generated directly by the Lexicon and the PSRs.
- They represent a level of linguistic representation called **DEEP STRUCTURE**
- while the (b) sentences represent a level of linguistic representation called **SURFACE STRUCTURE**.
- The two levels of linguistic representation are mediated by a set of rules called **TRANSFORMATIONS**.
- The work of the Transformational Component is at the centre of the Computational System in the Grammar.
- **We will further assume that there are 2 types of movement :**
 - ♥ X⁰ movement (movement of a head)
 - ♥ XP movement (movement of a phrase)

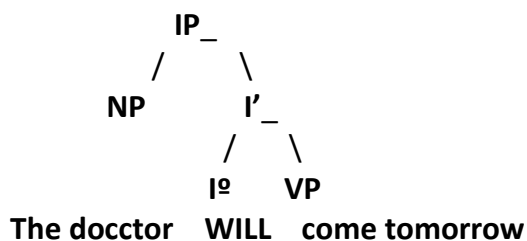
❖ 2. Transformations

2.1. Head movement: YES/NO Inversion or I -to- C

The sentences in (1) above, reproduced below in (3) instantiate the operation of head or X⁰ movement. The structure of (3a) is given in (4a)

(3) a. The doctor will come tomorrow. *Declarative*
(3) b. Will the doctor _____ come tomorrow ? *Yes-No Interrogative*

(4) a.



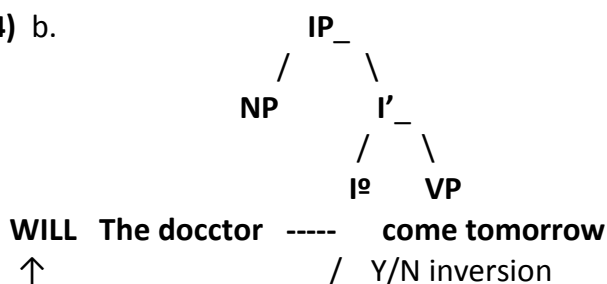
- *D(eep) Structure*

We apply the transformational rule

- *Yes/no Inversion*

We derive the S(urface) Structure:

(4) b.



- *S(urface) Structure*

By Yes/No Inversion we front the auxiliary WILL in I to a pre subject position.

• **The transformational analysis has two advantages :**

- We do not have to say that there are two types of Aux in English, one that occurs before the verb and one after it.
- Relatedness of the Declarative/Interrogative is also captured by the movement analysis.

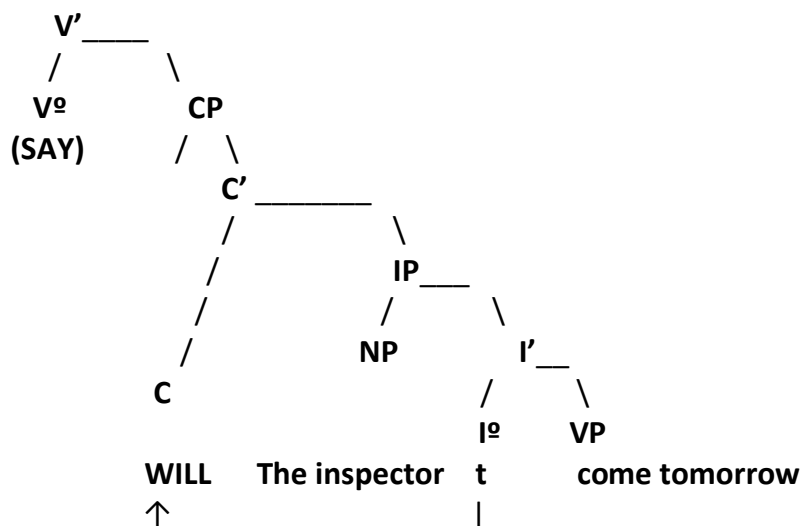
• **One question remains, however: Where does the Aux element move ?**

- Recall from the previous lecture that phrase structure rules are **recursive** in nature. This means that it is possible to assume that every independent clause is in fact the complement of a verb of **SAYING/BELIEVING/THINKING**, etc. Thus, we will assume that sentence (3a) is complement to a silent verb such as in (5) :

(5) a. I SAY: **the doctor will come tomorrow**

Syntactically, (5a) has the structure in (5b):

(5) b.



- The relatedness of 5a and 5b is maintained through the fact that the movement of I leaves behind a trace, thus forming a movement chain. Thus, I moves to C, ONLY when the latter is empty.
- A simple test for this analysis is provided by the contrast in (6):

(6) a. I wonder IF/WHETHER [the doctor will come tomorrow]

IP

b. * I wonder IF/WHETHER WILL [the Inspector t come tomorrow]

↑ _____ x _____ |
I-to-C is blocked

- The verb WONDER subcategorises for a CP complement . Thus, the C position is filled by either IF or WHETHER. When I to C applies, the Aux WILL moves to the position that is already filled by IF or WHETHER. A Complementiser and an Aux cannot occupy the same position. This explains the ungrammaticality of (6b).
- Conversely, if the Comp position is empty, I –to – C movement is possible as shown in (7):

(7) I wonder : will the Inspector come tomorrow

❖ **EXERCISES:** How does YES/NO inversion account for :

- * played the boys football yesterday ?
- Did the boys play football yesterday ?

2.2. XP movement: Move WH to SPEC CP

Another instance of a movement rule is provided by so-called Wh-movement. This illustrated by example (2) above reproduced by below in (8):

(8) a. John bought a car

Declarative

(8) b. WHAT did John buy _____ ?

WH-Interrogative

The Wh word in (8b) substitutes for the complement of the verb BUY in (8a). The Deep structure for 8b should be as in (9):

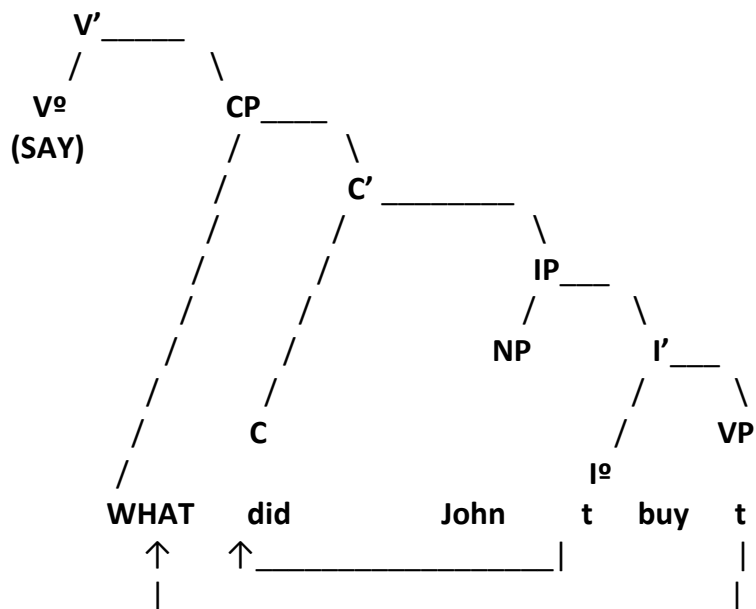
(9) John did buy WHAT ?

To derive the S-structure (8b), we need to apply two transformations, namely:

- **TRANS 1:** Subject Aux Inversion =====>
 - **TRANS 2:** WH-movement =====>
- | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|------------|------|-------|---------------|
| | | did | John | buy | <u>WHAT</u> ? |
| | <u>WHAT</u> | did | John | ----- | buy ----- ? |
| ↑ | ↑ | ↑ _____ | | | |
| | _____ | | | | |

- We know from the previous subsection that the Aux element moves to C.
- We also saw that it was an instance of X⁰ movement. How about the Wh-word ? Where does it move ?
- Let us assume that the Wh word moves to [SPEC, CP].
- We thus have the following tree structure for (8b):

(10).



- In this lecture, we have introduced and illustrated the working of the Transformational component of the Grammar .
 - Transformations are needed to account for structures that involve the **displacement/movement** of some constituent
 - Two types of transformations have been illustrated : **X°** movement in the case of **Yes/No** questions and **XP** movement in the case of **WH**-movement.

Lecture 10

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

❖ V-movement to I

- Consider the following contrasts. Can they be explained in terms of the availability of **V-to-I** in French in general and only exceptionally in English:

- (1) a. Paul **travaille** toujours.
b. * Paul **works** always

- (2) a. * Paul toujours **travaille**
b. Paul always **works**

❖ Observation :

- English and French contrast significantly with respect to the relative word order of **V** and Adv in a simple sentence: In English the Adv **MUST precede** the verb, while in French it **MUST follow it**.

❖ Hypothesis :

- V-to-I** applies in French, but not in English. The existence of such a head movement transformation explains the contrasts in (1 & 2).

❖ Evidence:

- Arg. 1: Both English and French have **I-to-C** in yes/ no questions, but only is expected to have **V-to-I-to-C** as shown by the contrast in (4):

- | | | | |
|--------|---|-----------------------|---|
| (3) a. | As [tu _____ essaye] ? | I – to – C | F |
| b. | have [you _____ tried] ? | I – to – C | E |
| (4) a. | Vois [- tu _____ [_____ le livre]] ? | V - to – I – to – C | F |
| | <small>IP</small> <small>VP</small> | | |
| b. | * See [you _____ [_____ the book]] ? | * V - to – I – to – C | E |

- In (3) Infl has moved to C in both languages giving rise to well-formed Yes/No questions. In (4a), the verb in V seems to have moved to I then to C in French, while in English it cannot do so. This confirms the hypothesis above.

- Arg.2 : English has exceptional V-to-I with BE and HAVE when used as main verbs. For ex. :

- (5) a. Jonathan is **always** on time
b. * Jonathan **always** is on time
c. Jonathan is [**always** e on time]
- VP

- V-to-I** has applied in (5a) but not in (5b). BE in this example has a dual status: it is a main verb but at the same time it has the morphological properties of an Aux, ie an **I**. It is syntactically visible only when it surfaces in I; and not under **V**, if it does not move as in (5b).

- Arg. 3: If our analysis of (5) is correct, we predict the grammaticality of (6).

(6) Is [Jonathan e [always e on time]]
 ↑ _____ | _ VP _____ |

- The grammaticality of (6) cannot be explained unless we assume that BE has moved exactly like lexical verbs do in French, i.e over the Adverb in [Spec,VP]. (See 1&2 above).

❖ **Structural ambiguity**

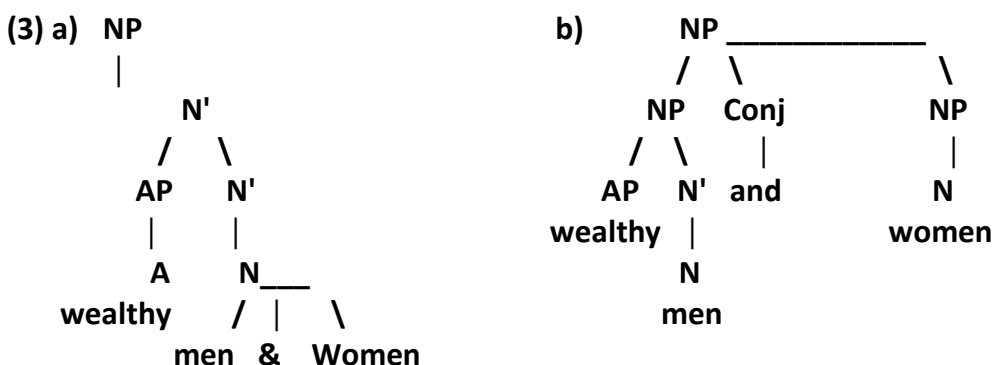
- Some sentences are structurally ambiguous in that the meanings of their component words can be combined in more than one way. For ex:

♥ *Wealthy men and women*

– The phrase in (2) can be interpreted in 2 ways:

- a) *wealthy (men & women)* meaning: *All wealthy men and all women*
- b) *(wealthy men) and women* meaning : *Only those men who are wealthy and women*

- **These two readings are matched by 2 different syntactic structures:**



- (3a) refers to all *wealthy men and wealthy women*
- while (3b) refers to *wealthy men and women in general*.
The latter are not wealthy.

❖ **CONCLUSION**

In this lecture, we have shown that :

- ♥ **I- to - C** exists in both French and English
- ♥ **V- movement to I** exists in French, which fact explains the existence of **V- to - I - to - C** in this language.
- ♥ **V- movement** , except with BE and HAVE used as main verbo- **I** does NOT exist in English, which fact explains why English does not have **V - to- I- to - C**

Lecture 11

❖ THEMATIC ROLES

- Another aspect of semantic interpretation at sentence level involves the roles NPs play in the situations that they describe. Consider:

♥ *The company sent the salmon from Muscat to Sohar*

- It would be impossible to understand this sentence if we could not identify *the company* as the sender, *salmon* as the Sendee, etc.. The term *thematic role* (*theta role*, *θ-role*) is used to describe the part played by a particular element in an event. Some of the most used thematic roles are given in (6) below:

❖ Thematic roles

- ♥ **AGENT** : The entity that performs an action
- ♥ **THEME** : The entity undergoing an action or a movement
- ♥ **SOURCE** : The starting point for a movement
- ♥ **GOAL** : The end point of an action or a movement
- ♥ **LOCATION** : The place where an action occurs.

❖ In sentence (1) above the following thematic are assigned:

(2) **The company** sent **the salmon** from **Dammam** to **Riyadh**
AGENT THEME SOURCE GOAL

(3) **Terry** gave **the keys** to **Mary**
AGENT THEME GOAL

(4) **The magician** changed **the ball** into **a rabbit**
AGENT THEME GOAL

❖ Thematic role assignment

- Where do thematic roles come from ?
- How does the grammar ensure that the appropriate thematic role is associated with each NP in a sentence ?

❖ Thematic roles originate in word meaning.

- The meaning of the verb/predicate is central in determining the particular θ -roles that must be assigned in a sentence. For instance, the meaning of HIT calls for the θ -roles AGENT (doer) and THEME (doee). However, the other categories can also determine other roles that are assigned in a sentence. In (3) above, the prepositions **FROM** and **TO** are respectively responsible for the **SOURCE** and **GOAL** roles assigned to **Dammam** and **Riyad**.
- Generally, θ -roles originate in the Lexicon as part of the semantic information associated with particular heads. Here are some examples:

❖ **NP movement (II): Raising**

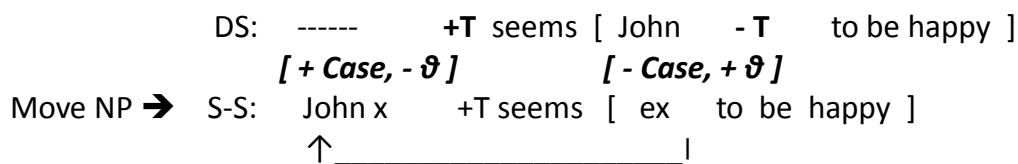
- Similarly, **RAISING** Predicates are sanctioned by the same Chain conditions given above for the Passive. Raising Predicates are predicates such as: **SEEM, APPEAR, BE LIKELY, BE CERTAIN**, etc. Consider the following:

- (9) a. It seems [John is happy today]
 b. John seems [..... to be happy]

- (9 a and b) are synonymous semantically, but they differ syntactically in that the first one has a finite, [+ Tense] complement clause whereas the second one has a non-finite, a [- Tense] complement clause. Thematically, the verb SEEM s-selects a **THEME** complement clause and a non-thematic subject.

❖ **The derivation of 94a) is as follows**

5) John seems to be happy



❖ **CONCLUSION**

In this lecture, we have seen that :

- the thematic status of a syntactic position interacts in a significant way with syntactic processes such as Passive and Raising.
- NP movement is obligatory for case reasons (**Case Filter**). It moves an NP from a thematic and Caseless position to a non-thematic and Case marked position (**NP Chain**)..

Lecture 13

MORPHOLOGY EXERCISES

❖ **EXERCISE 1:** Say whether the following words are related by inflection (I) or Derivation (D)

- a) go, goes going, gone. I - D
- b) Lovely, lovelier, loveliest I - D
- c) Discover, discovery, discoverer, discoverable, discoverability I - D
- d) Inventor, inventor's, inventors, inventors' I - D

❖ **EXERCISE 2:** For each word below, indicate whether the word is morphologically simple (S) or Complex (C), includes an inflectional affix (IA), or includes a derivational affix (DA).

- | | | | | |
|--------------|---|---|----|----|
| a) Reader | S | C | IA | DA |
| b) Redder | S | C | IA | DA |
| c) lavish | S | C | IA | DA |
| d) Readiness | S | C | IA | DA |
| e) Aviation | S | C | IA | DA |

❖ **EXERCISE 3:** Isolate the root and the affixes in the following words.

For example: unpredictable : un+predict+able.

- a) independently _____
- b) recoverability _____
- c) embellishment _____
- d) unsustainability _____
- e) implementability _____

❖ **EXERCISE 4:** Some words in (4) contain prefixes. Identify the prefixes by circling them.

- a) unable _____
- b) discourage _____
- c) establish _____
- d) receive _____
- e) strawberry _____

❖ **EXERCISE 5:** Circle the correct answer in the following multiple choice questions:

1. The study of word structure is done in

- a) Phonology
- b) Syntax
- c) Phonetics
- d) Morphology

2. The association between the sound of a word and its meanings is purely -----

- a) Controversial
- b) Conditional
- c) Central
- d) Conventional

- 3. Suppletion occurs when a lexeme is represented by two or more ----- roots.**
- a) Different
 - b) Similar
 - c) Both a and b
 - d) None of the above
- 4. When we derive one word from another, we -----**
- a) Change its class, for example, from being a Verb into a Noun
 - b) Change its tense, for example , from being Past into Present
 - c) Both of the above
 - d) None of the above
- 5. Roots are -----**
- a) NOT always free
 - b) Always free
 - c) Both of the above
 - d) None of the above
- 6. ----- is a morpheme that makes the most significant contribution to a word's meaning.**
- a) The phoneme
 - b) The derivational morpheme
 - c) The inflectional morpheme
 - d) The root

Lecture 14

SYNTAX EXERCISES

❖ Structural ambiguity

- Look at page 35

❖ EXERCISE 1: Instructions: The sentences below are instances of structural ambiguity;

- a) Give a paraphrase of two possible readings for each of them
- b) Draw a tree structure for each reading.

1. The police shot the terrorists with rifles

- ♥ **Reading 1** : The police shot the terrorists **HOLDING RIFLES**
- ♥ On this reading the PP **with rifles** is a modifier of the NP 'the terrorists'

- ♥ **Tree Structure:**

- ♥ **Reading 2**: The police **USED RIFLES** to shoot the terrorists
- ♥ On Reading 2, the PP **with rifles** is an Instrumental Adverbial

- ♥ **Tree Structure:**

❖ EXERCISE 2: Instructions:

- a) What is the status of the underlined clauses in the examples below? Are they complements or Modifiers?
- b) Justify your answer.
- c) Draw the tree structure of the COMPLEMENT structure of the verb BELIEVE

A. I cannot believe the rumour [that John has died]

B. I cannot believe the rumour [that is circulating in our neighbourhood]

Constituent status: that John has died is a : Complement Clause (CP)

- **Justification**

- **Arg. 1:**

- As a complement, it completes the meaning of the head noun **RUMOUR** semantically. Thus, it cannot be omitted (**deleted**):
- I cannot believe the rumour. (the rumour about what? As it stands this sentence is incomplete)

Arg. 2:

- If indeed this constituent is a complement clause, then we expect **THAT** to be a complementiser, and NOT a relative pronoun.
- Replacing **THAT** with **WHICH** should result in ungrammatical sentence, which is Indeed the case:
- I cannot believe the rumour **WHICH** John has died

Constituent status: that is circulating in our neighbourhood is a Modifier / Relative / Adjective Clause (CP)

- **Justification**

Arg. 1:

- THAT is a Relative Pronoun. NOT a complementiser. It introduces a relative clause modifying the Noun RUMOUR.
- the antecedent of the RP THAT. The latter originates in the subject position of the clause:
- I cannot believe the rumour, **the rumour** is circulating
(THAT)

Arg. 2:

- If our hypothesis is correct, then the assumed RP pronoun CAN be replaced by another RP, namely WHICH as shown by the following:
- I cannot believe the rumour **WHICH** is circulating in our neighbourhood.

❖ **EXERCISE 4: Instructions:**

- a) assigning it a D-structure representation
- b) applying the needed transformations to generate its S-structure
- c) Draw a tree structure to represent it.

What has John claimed that he can do?

- **D-structure:** [+wh] [+Q] John has claimed_c [that (he can do **WHAT**)]

- **Transformations:**

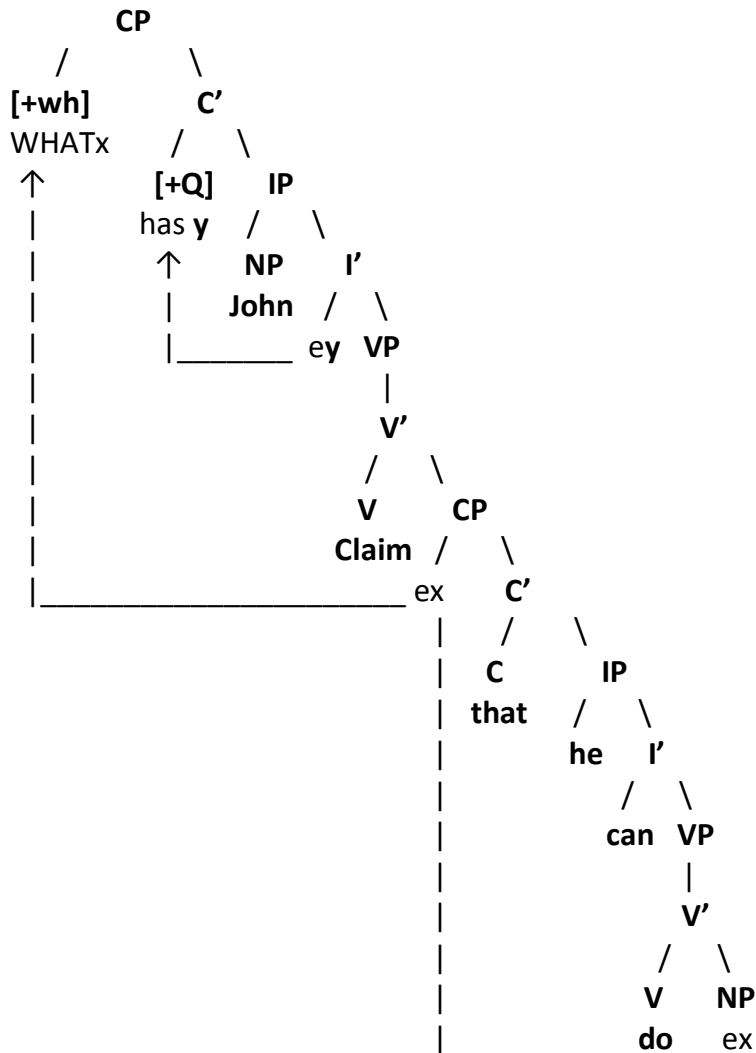
Transformation 1: YES?NO Question or I-to-C

- [+wh] has John e claimed [that (he can do **WHAT**)]

Transformation 2: Wh- Question

- [**WHAT**] has John e claimed [**e** (that (he can do **e**)]
| _____ | _____ |

• **Tree Representation**



❖ **EXERCISE 5: Choose the correct answer.**

1. ____Tries to explain the unconscious knowledge that native speakers have of their own language.
 - a) Generative grammar
 - b) Traditional grammar
 - c) Functional grammar
 - d) Systemic grammar

2. The sentences 'Smith ate a sandwich' and 'a sandwich was eaten by Smith' are -----
 - a) Identical in the deep structure
 - b) Different in the deep structure
 - c) Identical in the surface structure
 - d) Identical in deep and surface structure

3. The sentence 'she drank the juice In the kitchen' has -----
 - a) Two distinct deep structures
 - b) Two identical deep structures
 - c) Two surface structures
 - d) One deep and one surface structure

4. Arabic is an example of ----- languages.

- a) VSO
- b) SVO
- c) SOV
- d) OVS

5. The syntactic head of a clause (IP) is: -----

- a) V
- b) I
- c) V+I
- d) C+I

6. ----- refers to the speakers' actual use of language in concrete situations

- a) Performance
- b) Competence
- c) Linguistics
- d) Syntax

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