Lecture 1

In this lecture, we will talk about:

1. Meaning of morphology
2. lexemes and word-forms
3. Free morphemes
4. Bound morphemes

What is linguistics?

- The scientific study of human language is called **linguistics.**
- **A linguist:** is a scientist who investigates human language in all it facets (aspects): its structure, its use, its history, e.
- Linguistics has different branches, including, phonetics and phonology, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, syntax, morphology, etc.

Branches of linguistics

- **As mentioned above, there are different branches in linguistics; e.**
- **Phonetics and phonology**: concerned with the sounds and sound systems of language.
- **Semantics**: studies the meaning of words and sentences.

Morphology

- Pragmatics: studies language in context and the influence of situation on meaning.
- Syntax: studies the rules governing the way words are combined to form sentences in a language.
- **Morphology:** is the study of the forms of words. It is the study of the ways in which words are built up from smaller units.
- In other words, **morphology** is concerned with the study of the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed.
- Morphology comes from the Greek Morph = form and ology = study. (literally: the study of forms)

Example:

- *Happy – unhappy - unhappiness.*

Words, Lexemes and Word-Forms

- A word: is a unit of expression which has universal intuitive (natural/innate) recognition by native speakers, in both spoken and written language.

- Lexemes and Word-Forms :

- **A lexeme:** is a dictionary word that can be realized by word-forms. The word-form is the orthographic or phonological shape in which a lexeme occurs.

Examples

- '*am, are, is, was, were, be, been, being'* are word-forms of the lexeme '*BE'*.
- '*have, has , had*' are word-forms of the lexeme '*HAVE'*.
- '*do, does, did, done, doing*' are word-forms/realizations of the lexeme '*DO*'.
- *'Wife'* and 'wives' are word-forms of the lexeme '*WIFE'*.
- '*Small, smaller, smallest*' are realizations of the lexeme '*SMALL*'.

Morphemes

- As mentioned above, morphology (the science of word forms) is concerned with the study of the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed.
- Words consist of what is called morphemes.

  Morpheme: is the smallest linguistic element capable of having **a meaning** or **grammatical function**.

  - Example: sell-er-s
- Morphemes have no internal structure other than phonological structure.
- That is, they cannot be further analyzed into smaller elements.
- Naturally, the boundaries between words are also boundaries between morphemes.
- **Examples:**
- Over-estimat-ion / dis-pleas-ure / nerv-ous
- **One morpheme** boy (one syllable)
  desire, lady, water (two syllables)
  crocodile (three syllables)
- **Two morphemes** boy + ish desire + able
- **Three morphemes** boy + ish + ness desire + able + ity
- **Four morphemes** gentle + man + li + ness un + desire + able + ity
- **More than four** un + gentle + man + li + ness anti + dis + establish + ment + ari + an + ism

Free Morphemes Vs. Bound Morphemes

- **There are two types of morphemes:**

- **Free morphemes:** are morphemes which can occur as independent words.
- That is, morphemes which can stand by themselves as single words; e.g. *guide, go, open*, etc.
- **bound morphemes**: are morphemes which cannot normally stand alone, but are attached to other morphemes to form a word;
- **Example:** *-er* (*writ-er*), *-s* (*writ-er-s*), etc.

Example

- **The expression '*reactivation time schedules*' can be morphologically analyzed as follows:**

  're-act-iv-at-ion time schedule-s'

'*re-, -ive, -at(e), -io, -s*' are: ***bound morphemes*,**

'*act, active, time, schedule*' are: ***free morphemes*.**

NB: Notice that**:**

- In '***reactivation time schedule'*,** all of these morphemes occur in a single word, despite the spelling.
- What is important is that **'*act, active, time* and *schedule'*** can occur as isolated words in other contexts.
- Therefore, they are free morphemes.

Practice

- Isolate the morphemes in the following words, and say whether they are bound or free:

Carelessness	Care-less-ness	Friends	Friend-s
Translation	Translat-ion	Inadequate	In-adequate
Readers	Read-er-s	Disqualified	Disqualified
Fishing	Fish-ing	Helpful	Help-ful
Movement	Move-men	Unacceptable	Un-accept-able
Undressed	Un-dress-ed	Laughter	Laugh-ter
Knitting needle.	Knitt-ing needle	Supportive	Support-ive

Lecture 2

In this lecture, we will talk about:

Allomorphy

Types of allomorphy

- In our last class, we said that a **morpheme** is the smallest linguistic element capable of having **a meaning** or **grammatical function**.
- We said also that morphemes have no internal structure other than phonological structure.
- And that morphemes cannot be further analyzed into smaller elements.

Allomorphs

- However, a morpheme may display **allomorphy**; i.e. have more than one form.
- Each of the **realizations** (forms) of a particular morpheme is called an **allomorph**.

Allomorph: one possible form of a particular morpheme, the forms /s/ z/ and iz in cats, dogs and horses are allomorphs of the plural ending s.

There are different types of allomorphy:

1. Phonologically Conditioned (determined) Allomorphy

2. Lexically Conditioned (determined) Allomorphy

3. Morphologically Conditioned (determined) Allomorphy

4. Suppletion

Types of Allomorphy

1. Phonologically Conditioned Allomorphy

- The English plural morpheme '***-S*'** has three allomorphs that are phonologically conditioned (i.e. **determined by phonology**).

- That is, the English plural morpheme '***-S*'** is pronounced as:

- [s] after sounds like [t], [k], [p] *bits, tips, tacks,*

- [iz] after [s], [z] *bosses, houses, bushes*

- [z] after [d], [g], [n] *pads, dogs, hens.*

-The variants (different pronunciations) in the pronunciation of the plural morpheme '***-S***' are **phonologically conditioned** allomorphs.

- This is because the pronunciation of the plural morpheme '***-S***' (as [s], [iz], or [z]) depends only on the phonological characteristics of the element (sound) to which it attaches.

- For example, when it attaches to [g] sound, it is pronounced as [z]: as in *dog-s*

2. Lexically Conditioned Allomorphy

Consider the following plural words:

(A) *cats, dogs, pens, letters, rooms*

(B) *sheep* (plural of: *sheep*), *oxen* (plural of: *ox*)

- The plural in ***sheep*** and ***oxen*** is **lexically conditioned.**
- This is because it is determined by the individual words and cannot be predicted from other principles.
- That is, forming plural in this way (as in *sheep* and *oxen)* applies only to a small number of words.
- In other words, the plural of the group of words in example (B) cannot be predicted from the normal way of forming plural in English (i.e. by adding '***-s***') as in the group of words in example (A)
- Adding '***-s***' to '*sheep'* and '*ox'* will result in incorrect plural forms: *sheeps, *oxes
- Likewise, adding '***-en***' to 'cat', 'dog', 'fox' will result in incorrect plural forms: **caten, *dogen, *foxen).*

3. Morphologically Conditioned Allomorphy

- Here, the choice of the allomorphs ***-ceive-*** **or** ***-cept-*** is systematically determined by the morphemes added to them.
- Consider the following examples:

(A) *receiver, receivable; deceiver, deceivable; conceivable*

(B) *reception, receptive; deception; conception, conceptual*

- In (A), the allomorph ***-ceive-*** is used because the morpheme added to it is: ***-er*** and ***-able.***
- In (B) , the allomorph ***-cept-*** is used because the morpheme added to it is: ***-ion***, ***-ive***, and ***-ual***.

4. Suppletion

- **Suppletion** is an extreme form of allomorphy in which two completely different roots (words) realize (are forms of) the same morpheme.
- It is a phenomenon whereby one lexeme is represented by two or more different roots, depending on the context.
- For example, the verb 'go' is represented by '*went'* in the past tense and '*go'* elsewhere.

Examples:

- g*o/went*
- *be/is/was/were/am*
- *good/better/ best*
- *bad/worse/worst*
- *one/first*.

Practice 1:

- The choice of the allomorphs ***-sume-*** **or** ***-sump-*** is determined by the morphemes added to them. (explain in light of the following examples).

(A) Consumer, consuming, consumable.

(B) consumption

Practice 2:

- The choice of the allomorphs ***-duce or -duct*** is determined by the morphemes added to them. (explain in light of the following examples).

(A) producer, producing, inducing,

(B) induction, introductory, productive, conducting

Lecture 3

In this lecture, we will talk about:

Affixation

Affixes

Prefixes, suffixes, infixes

root, stem

Affixation

- **Affixation** means the attachment of **affixes**.
- **Affixes** are ***bound morphemes*** that occur in more than one word.
- Affixes have different types, including:

1- Prefixes

2- Suffixes

3- infixes

1- Prefixes:

- A prefix is an affix that is attached before the root (word). Prefixes are used in English morphology.
- In English prefixes are always ***Derivational*** (i.e. they change the meaning of the lexeme)
- ***Example:*** compare:

  Happy vs. **Un-happy:**
- They are different Adjs with different meanings.
- **More examples on prefixes:**
- **In-**correct
- **Dis-**arm
- **Im-**possible
- **Mis-**understand
- **Pre-**judge

2- Suffixes:

- A suffix is an affix that is attached after the root (word).

- Suffixes are used in English morphology.
- They can be:

Derivational: constitut-ion-al-ity ==== V| N| Adj.| N

OR

Inflectional (i.e. do not change the meaning of the lexeme): cat-s ==== same lexeme; no change in meaning

More examples on suffixes:

Go-**es**	Inflectional type
Wonder-**ful**	Derivational
Creat-**ive**	Derivational
play-**ed**	Inflectional type
Happi-**ness**	Derivational

3- infixes:

- This is a third type of affixes.
- An infix is an affix that is placed inside (in the middle of) a word.
- Infixes are not normally to be found in English.
- But they are common in some other languages.
- However, it is possible to see a kind of infixes in certain expressions in English.
- That is, infixes are occasionally used in casual or aggravating circumstances by emotionally aroused English speakers.
- **Examples:**

-Halle**bloody**lujah "They are insert one word in middle of word due anger like bloody in middle of Hallelujah"

-Abso**goddam**lutly "They are insert one word in middle of word due anger like **goddam** in middle of absolutely"

A person may express his/her aggravation when speaking to someone by screaming:

'Tell him I have gone to singa**bloddy**pore.'

A comparison between prefixes and suffixes:

Prefixes	***Suffixes***
Bound morphemes which occur only before other morphemes. **Examples:** **un- (uncover, undo)** **dis- (displeased, disconnect),** **pre- (predetermine, prejudge)**	**Bound morphemes which occur following other morphemes.** **Examples:** **-er (singer, performer)** **-ist (typist, pianist)** **-ly (manly, friendly)**

Roots and Stems

Root:

- The root is that part of a word which remains when all derivational and inflectional affixes (prefixes and suffixes) have been removed.
- It is the basic part of a lexeme which is always realized and it cannot be further analyzed into smaller morphs.
- Roots are always free morphemes.

Example:

in 'un-help-ful-ness' : 'help' is the root

Stem:

- A **stem** is formed when a root morpheme is combined with an affix.
- Other affixes can be added to a stem to form a more complex stem.

Example

Stupid = Root

Stupidities

Stupidity = Stem

More examples :

Root: **believe (verb)**

Stem: **believe + able (verb + suffix)**

Stem : **un + believe + able**

(prefix +verb + suffix)

Root: **system**

Stem: **system + atic**

Stem: **un + system + atic**

Stem: **un + system + atic + al**

Practice:

- Analyze the following words into morphemes using the model given below:

	Prefix (es)	Root	Suffix (es)
Example: inequality	in-	equal	-ity
- Happily		-happy	-ly
- inactive	-In	-act	-ive
- undercooked	-under	-cook	-ed
- unlikelihood	-un	-like	-li -hood
- illogical	-il	-logic	-al
- relationship		-relat	-ion -ship
- ungrammatical	-un	-grammatic	-al
- sensitivity		-sens	-itiv -ity
- prototypical			
- unfriendliness			
- interdependence			
- rudeness			

Lecture 4

In this lecture, we will talk about:

Derivational morphemes

Inflectional morphemes

Inflection Vs. Derivation

- Inflection and derivation are manifestations of affixation (prefixes and suffixes).

(A) **Derivational morphemes**:

- Can be prefixes or suffixes.
- Create one lexeme from another. For example:

*compute > comput-**er** > comput-**er**-**ize** > computer-**iz**-**ation***.

Examples:

- (Der. morpheme) + Root + (Der. morpheme) ----> result in:

1- a new word with a new meaning (a change in meaning):

Root ----> **Der**- + Root ---->(new meaning)

E.g. *happy* ----> ***un-**happy*

connect ----> ***dis**-connect*

correct ----> ***in**-correct*

2- A change in the grammatical class; i.e. the part of speech/syntactic category (e.g. a nouns becomes an Adj.)

For instance:

- Noun + Der. morpheme ----------> Adj.

E.g. *boy* + *ish* ----------> *boyish*

- Verb + Der. morpheme ----------> Noun

E.g. *clear* + *ance* ----------> *clearance*

- Adj. + Der. morpheme ----------> Adverb

E.g. *Exact* + *ly* ----------> *exactly*

(B) Inflectional morphemes: creates the form of a lexeme that is right for a sentence:

Examples: Inf. morphemes create:

- the plural form of a noun (*door-**s***).

- the past tense form of a verb (*start-**ed***).

- 3rd person singular form of a verb (*he start-**s***).

- The group of inflected words formed with a particular lexeme (e.g. *child, children; drive, drives, driven*) is called a **'paradigm'**.
- Each specific item in a paradigm is called a **'word form'**.
- As obvious from the above examples, inflectional morphemes do not change the meaning of a word, but
- but they have a grammatical function in the sentence.
- They never change the part of speech/syntactic category.
- So, we start with a noun, for instance, and finish up with a noun.

For example:

Inflectional morphemes: -s, -ed

He sail-**s** (V.).

He sail-**ed** (V.).

- So, we can say that inflection produces forms of lexemes,
- while derivation produces new lexemes (new meanings).

Derivation Vs. Inflection

Summary of criteria for distinguishing derivation and inflection:

1- Derivational morphemes change the meaning of a word.

e.g. *happy ------> **un**-happy*

- While inflection morphemes do not change meaning (e.g. when they express agreement:

e.g. they sing

vs.

*she sing-**s***.

- The loss or addition of such an inflectional feature like number, or tense would be a major upheaval (disturbance) in a language.
- Thus, inflection tends to be an obligatory convention which is adhered to because of grammatical requirements.

2- Derivation may change the syntactic category of a word

cheer (N)

*cheer-**ful*** (Adj.)

*cheer-**ful**-**ness*** (N)

- while inflection preserves the category

cat (N) ---------> *cat-**s*** (N)

write (V) ---------> *writ-**es*** (V)

1- Inflection is the last thing to be added before the word is inserted into the sentence.

- Thus, inflectional morphemes are typically on the edge of the word (i.e. 'outside' derivation),

EX:

*oganiz-**ation**-**al***

- In this word, all suffixes are derivational, so we cannot say which one is closer to the root.

*Black-**en**-**ed***

- The derivational suffix ***-en*** is closer to the root than the inflectional suffix ***-ed***.
- We cannot have **Black-**ed**-**en***.
- compare also: *pig-let-**s*** vs. **pig-**s**-let*.

4- English inflection is expressed by suffixes only and never expressed by prefixes.

EX. *he play-**s*** *ten apple-**s*** *she play-**ed***

- Whereas English derivation is expressed by suffixes and prefixes.

EX. *True* ---------> ***un**-true*

help ---------> *help-**ful***

- Thus, in English, **prefixes are always derivational**
- While **suffixes** can be:

Derivational: *constitut-**ion-al-ity***

V ---> **N** ---> **Adj.** ---> **N**

OR

Inflectional

cat ----> *cat-**s*** (same lexeme)

5- Inflection uses a closed set of affixes.

- It is usually said that the set of inflectional affixes will be considerably smaller than the set of derivational affixes.

That is:

- It is NOT generally possible to add a new inflectional affix to a language or to take one away.
- we could not, for instance, wake up one morning and start using in English a dual marker as is found in Arabic or Greek.
- Neither could we ignore the singular/plural distinction.
- It is possible, on the other hand, to suddenly start using a new derivational affix, as is shown by the success of forms in ***'-nomics***' over recent years
- E.g.

Clint-nomics -→ from Clinton

Reaga-nomics -→ from Reagan

Thatcher-nomics -→ from Thatche

Inflection	**Derivation**
Does not change meaning: produces word-forms of a single lexeme	Changes meaning: produces new lexemes from old lexemes
Preserves syntactic category	Changes syntactic category
is expressed by suffixes only.	is expressed by suffixes and prefixes
involves few variables (a closed system).	may involve many variables (an open system).
further from the root than derivation	closer to the root than inflection

Practice

- Analyze the following words into morphemes, indicating which of these morphemes are derivational and which are inflectional.

Learners learn-**er**-**s**

-er (Der.): changes syntactic category **-s** (Inf.)

Desirable desir**-able** (Der.)

Disliked **dis** (Der.)-like**-d** (Inf.)

Loosen loose**-n** (Der.)

Stupidity stupid**-ity** (Der.)

More practice:

Broaden (Der) – width(Der) - socialist (Der)- falsehood - closure

straighten - clockwise – vaccinate - gangster

warmth hopeless- twofold - trial - accidental – selfish

advisory - likelihood – friendless –idealist - kingdom

boyish –various - stepwise - thankless – global historic – penniless- disclose- begins(Inf)- wanted(Inf)- desks(Inf).

Lecture 5

In this lecture, we will talk about:

Content words

Function/grammatical words

- Words are divided into two categories:

(1) **Content Words**.

(2) **Grammatical** (**Function) Words**

- Function words are closed class words.

- Content words are open class words (new words are being added in every language).

(1) Content Words

(1) Content Words:

Content words are words that have **meaning** in that they refer to objects, events and abstract concepts.

They are words we would look up in a dictionary, such as "lamp," "computer," "drove."

Content words are marked as being characteristic of particular social, ethnic, and regional dialects and of particular contexts.

For example, how do you say ‘a car’ in the following dialects of Arabic:

- Egyptian dialect:
- Saudi dialect:

New content words are constantly added to the English language, and

Old content words constantly leave the language as they become obsolete (outdated).

- Therefore, we refer to content words as an "open" class.
- **Nouns, verbs, adjectives,** and **adverbs** are content parts of speech.
- - Content words include:

Content word	Example
Nouns	*John, room, answer, table*
Adjectives	*happy, new, large, grey*

- Full verbs *search, grow, hold, have*
- Adverbs *really, completely* , slowly
- Numerals *one, thousand, first*
- Interjections *eh, ugh, phew, well*
- yes/no answers *yes, no* (as answers)

(2)Grammatical (Function) Words

(2) Grammatical (Function) Words:

- **Function words** are words that exist to explain or create grammatical or structural relationships into which the content words may fit.
- They are often best defined by their function.
- Words like "of," "the," "to," they" have little meaning on their own.
- Such function words are much fewer in number and generally do not change (English adds and omits content words, not function words).
- Therefore, we refer to function words as a "closed" class.
- A person cannot easily invent a new function word; e.g. a new preposition or conjunction.

Now, look at the following:

Egypt

in the

the spring

- Like many people, the first time you see the graphic above, you read 'Egypt in the spring'.
- Look again: it reads 'Egypt in **the the** spring'.
- Here, your expectation of one definite article (the) affects your perception of the existence of two definite articles.
- The trick does not work if we write '**Egypt Egypt** in the spring' or 'Egypt in the **spring spring**' (i.e. repeating the content words).
- The key is to repeat a function word because we tend to take words like 'the' for granted.
- Note that: if we took the function words out of speech, it would be hard to figure out what was going on.

Example: can you guess what the following structure means: هل يمكنك تخمين ما يعني من الجملة التالية

'took function words speech hard figure what going on.'

- yes, it means the first sentence above:

  '*If we took the function words out of speech, it would be hard to figure out what was going on.*'

- But it was difficult to understand it because we removed all the function words that show the relationships between words.

- **Pronouns**, **prepositions**, **conjunctions**, **determiners**, **demonstratives** (e.g. this, those), **certain adverbs** (e.g. very & not) and **certain verbs** (those with little or no meaning; e.g. be, must or should) are some function parts of speech.

- **Function words include:**

Function words	Examples
Prepositions	of, at, in, without, by, between
Pronouns	he, they, anybody, it, one
Conjunctions	and, when, while, although, or
Modal verbs	may, must, should, can, must, ought, need, etc.
Auxiliary verbs	Be (am, is, are), have, do
Particles	no (e.g. no one) not, nor, as

Differences

- **Note:** The same lexical item can function as either *content* or *function* word, depending on its function in an utterance.

Example 1:

I ***have*** come to see you	"have" is a function word	(auxiliary verb)
I ***have*** three apples	"have" is a content	word (full verb)

Example 2:

One has one's principles	"one" is a function	word (pronoun)
I have ***one*** apple	"one" is a content	word (numeral)

Example 2:

I have ***no*** more money	"no" is a function	word (a negative particle)
No, I am not coming	"no" is a content	word (Yes/No answer)

Practice

Practice (1):

- Identify each of the following words as a function or content word, and give the reason:

tall adjective-content word

is (in: 'he is playing') auxiliary word- function word

your pronoun-function word

but conjunction- function word

go verb- content word

dream verb- content word

and conjunction- function word

stream verb- content word

happily adverb – content word

Practice (2):

- Classify the underlined words in the following passage into content VS function words:

'**S**ara Ferguson stared out the window of the café. She could not stop thinking about her dad. She was living at home with him, attending college full time. Last night her dad was complaining of chest pain. It really scared her. She had never thought about losing him. Sara was four when her mom died. Her dad had always been there for her. Now she could not stop worrying. He was only 49. She needed him.'

More practice:

- Classify the words in the following passages into content VS function words:

'**S**ara watched people go in and out of the shoe store across the street. It reminded her of when she was a little girl. Sara started working when she was 10 yrs old. Every Saturday, she walked to work with her dad. He owned a shoe shop in Los Angeles. Sara liked hanging out with her dad.'

'She also enjoyed helping the customers pick out shoes. Her dad paid $1.50 for every pair of shoes she sold. The most money she ever made in one day was $15.00. Sara's dad taught her how to budget her money carefully. Each week, she wrote down how many pairs of shoes she sold. She counted all her money. Then Sara put 75% in a savings account that her dad opened for her. She kept 25% to spend.'

Lecture ٦

In this lecture, we will talk about:

Lexicon

Productivity

Blocking

Lexicon and Productivity

Lexicon:

- A lexicon refers to the inventory (list) of lexical items, seen as part of a native speaker's knowledge of his or her language.
- Thus, a lexicon is the mental dictionary that language users must be equipped with, in addition to the grammatical rules of their language.
- For example, English speakers know that the word 'subject' can be used as a verb and as a noun, depending on the way we pronounce each.
- Not all words one speaker knows are also known by other speakers.
- Thus, the mental dictionary (lexicon) of one speaker is never completely identical to any other speaker's mental lexicon.
- The lexicon contains more than words.
- For example, affixes, such as '-er' can be assumed to be in the lexicon.
- Speakers know and understand such affixes and readily attach them to new forms.
- Complex language forms (e.g. affixed inflected forms like 'talk-s, go-es, etc.') are also included in the lexicon.
- For example, a speaker of English must know the third person singular of verbs (e.g. talk-s, go-es, say-s, speak-s, play-s, etc.) because it does not follow the normal rules of English.
- Consider also a famous complex word (used in Irish political discussion in the mid-nineteenth century):

  '*anti-dis-establish-ment-ari-an-ism*'

- The pieces of this word together do not tell much about its meaning (opposition to denying special state recognition of a particular religion). (opposition to denying special state recognition of a particular religion)
- If you are a speaker of English who happen to know and use his word, then it must be stored in your lexicon.
- This is because its meaning cannot straightforwardly be determined from the meaning of its parts.

- In sum, the lexicon includes all the linguistic forms: (regular, irregular, simple, complex, normal, not normal, etc.) that speakers know and use.
- As long as such forms are used, they must be stored in the mental dictionary (the lexicon).

Neologism :

- When a word that does not exist in the lexicon is created through a morphological rule, we call it: **neologism.**

  Example: *e-mailer*

- If this neologism is used once and never again, we call it: **occasionalism**.

Productivity

Productivity:

- A productive rule is the one we can use frequently to form new words.
- Some affixes are often used to create new words, whereas others are less often used, or not used at all for this purpose.
- The property of an affix to be used to coin (invent) new complex words is referred to as the **productivity** of that affix.
- Not all affixes possess this property to the same degree, some affixes do not possess it at all.
- For example, suffix '*-th'* (as in *leng-th*) can only attach to a small number of specified words, but cannot attach to any other words beyond that set.
- This suffix can therefore be considered unproductive.
- Even among affixes that can in principle be used to coin new words, there seem to be some that are more productive than others.
- For example, the suffix '*-ness'* (as *cute-ness*) gives rise to many more new words than, for example, the suffix '*-ish'* (as in *fool-ish*):

  '*happiness, sadness, homelessness, ….. etc.'*

- We can think of the degree of productivity of suffixes and prefixes according to the following shape:

ness -ize -mis -ee -eer -al -th -ter

Goodness globalize misrepresent invitee profiteer refusal warmth laughter

More productive less productive

- The more you go towards the left, you get more productive affixes

- The more you go towards the right, you get less productive affixes

Blocking

Blocking:

- blocking is the phenomenon whereby the existence of a word with a particular meaning inhibits the morphological derivation of another word with precisely that meaning.

Example:

- *'Cutter'* is blocked by the existence of the lexical item '*knife'*
- That is, people do not normally refer to the tool that they use to cut things as '*cutter*' (from the verb '*cut*') since there is already another word that gives that meaning; i.e. '*knife*'.

In the same way:

- The *'day after today'* is blocked by the existence of the lexical item '*tomorrow.'*
- The *'day before today'* is blocked by the existence of the lexical item '*yesterday.'*
- *'This day'* is blocked by the existence of the lexical item '*today'*, unless in a particular context like in the sentence:

'I remember this day when I met him'

- '*stealer*' is blocked by the existence of '*thief*'.

Lecture 7

In this lecture, we will talk about:

Morphological rules

1. Compounding

- It is the combination of two or more free morphemes.

Examples:

Girlfriend, chalk dust, undergrowth, blackbird, offload, seasick.

- Note that English compounds may be written separately

Types of compounding

Types of compounding:

(A) **Endocentric Compounds:**

- The compound is an instance of the entity, activity or property denoted by the last constituent (component/part).

  Houseboat is *a type of* **---------->** *boat*

  Boathouse is *a type of* **---------->** *house*

  A person who is *seasick* is **---------->** *sick*

- Thus, the right-hand constituent (last constituent) in endocentric compounds is the **head**.
- That is, the element that determines the semantic and grammatical characteristics of the whole compound.

Examples:

Houseboat is *a type of* **---------->** *boat* (head)

Boathouse is *a type of* **---------->** *house* (head)

A person who is *seasick* is **---------->** *sick* (head)

More examples:

[N N] ----------> N:

coffee table, telephone table, dinner table, chess table, *word stress, strawberry jam, silkworm, diesel motor, bookshelf, etc.*

[V N] ----------> N:

crybaby, filing cabinet, reading class, writing table, drinking water, etc.

[A N] ----------> N:

blackbird, redbrick, wetsuit, greenhouse

[Preposition N] ----------> N:

outhouse, outgrowth, undergrowth, offprint

[N A] ----------> A:

bloodthirsty, pain-free, theory-neutral, colorblind, class-specific, sky-blue

- Note that: endocentric compounds always take the same inflection as the right-hand element (the head):
- For example:

[A N] ----------> N: e.g. *greenhouse*

[[green]A [house]N] **-------->** N

- *Greenhouse* is a type of *house*.
- The compound is a noun because *house* is a noun and its plural is *greenhouses* because *houses is* the plural of *house*.

(B) Exocentric Compounds:

- Here, the compound does not refer to an entity denoted by either constituent (component).
- Examples

a '*paleface'* is not a type of face, but a person who has a (pale face).

More examples of Exocentric compounds :

[N N] ----------> N:

Paleface, redskin, redneck,

highbrow (serious), *bigfoot*

[V N] ----------> N:

pickpocket, spoilsport, killjoy, answerphone (Australian term for 'answering machine')

[V Particle] ----------> N:

handout, putdown, sit-in, walkout, breakdown, fallout

[P N] ----------> N:

afterbirth, afternoon, underground

- Note that: exocentric compounds do not necessarily have a constituent with the same syntactic category as that of the whole compound.
- Thus, '*sit-in'* is a noun, but does not contain a noun.

وبالتالي، '*sit-in'* هو اسم ولكنه لا يحتوي على اسم

- **(C) Copulative Compounds:**
- - Here, both constituents refer to the entity denoted by the whole compound.
- Examples:

An *owner-builder* **---------->** is both: 'an owner' of a house and 'its builder'.

More examples:

[N N] ----------> N:

producer-director, singer-songwriter

owner-builder, maidservant

[A A] ----------> A: (rare):

bittersweet, deaf-mute

(2) Affixation: done before (see relevant lecture).

(3) Base Modification:

- Here, we change the phonology of the base segmentally and suprasegmentally:

(A) **Segmentally**: i.e. changing a sound

Mouth **/mau<u>e</u>/** **noun**

Mouth **/mau<u>ð</u> /** **verb**

Change: voiceless fricative to voiced fricative.

- Sometimes, the modification takes place along with affixation (e.g. adding the plural morpheme s) like in:

wi<u>f</u>e – wi<u>v</u>e<u>s</u>.

- Modification can also take place in relation to a vowel sound:

M<u>ou</u>se -- m<u>i</u>ce

f<u>oo</u>t -- f<u>ee</u>t

(B) Suprasegmentally

- This happens in English through '*stress*.'

EX. *'Contact* (noun)

Con'tact (verb)

(4) No Change of Form:

- Some words that have inflectional or derivational relationships, keep the same form.

A- Zero Inflection:

Fish (sing.) *fish* (plural)

B- Zero Derivation (Conversion):

Fish	(noun)	to *fish*	(verb)
Clean	(Adj.)	to *clean*	(verb)
Hard	(Adj.)	*hard*	(Adv.)

(5) Base Shortening:

A- Backformation

- Is a word-formation process in which a word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb).

Edit (V)	from	*editor* (N).
Televise	from	*television*
Donate	from	*donation*
Opt	from	*option*
Enthuse	from	*enthusiasm*

B- Clipping

- Here, we shorten a word without changing its meaning or its part of speech.

- This occurs, for example, when a word of more than one syllable (e.g. telephone) is reduced to a shorter form (phone), often in casual speech.

Examples:

Polio	from	*Poliomyelitis*
Lab.	from	*Laboratory*

Cab.	*Cabriolet*
Ad.	*Advertisement*
Fan.	*Fanatic*
Sitcom.	*Situation Comedy*
Exam.	*Examination*
Prof.	*Professor*

- Names as well are sometimes clipped by English speakers as in:

Sam.	from	*Samuel*
Tom.		*Thomas*
Rick.		*Richard*

(6) Alphabet Based Formations:

A- Blending

- Here, we merge two words by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word.

Examples:

Stagflation = stagnation + inflation

Slanguage = slang + language

Bit = binary+ digit

Brunch = breakfast + lunch

Motel = motor + hotel

Smog = smoke + fog

- To refer to the mixing of languages:

Spanglish = Spanish + English

Franglais = French + English

B- Acronyms

- They are words that are coined from the initial letters of words in a name, title or phrase.
- Typically, acronyms are pronounced as single words

Example:

AIDS = acquired immunity deficiency syndrome.

CD = compact disk

PIN = personal identification number

VCR = video cassette recorder

Laser = light amplification of stimulated emission of radiation

Radar = radio detecting and ranging

ATM = automatic teller machine

Lecture ٨

In this class, the following point will be covered:

What is syntax?

Predicate

FINITENESS vs. NON-FINITENESS

What is syntax?

- As mentioned earlier in this course, linguistics has different branches, including, phonetics and phonology, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, syntax, morphology, etc.
- In the last classes, we studied Morphology.
- In this class and the next ones, we will be concerned with the study of syntax.

Syntax:

- Syntax (originally Greek) = 'putting together'/ 'arrangement'.
- Syntax is a branch of linguistics that studies how the words of a language can be combined to make larger units, such as phrases, clauses, and sentences.
- Thus, when we concentrate on the structure & ordering of components within a sentence = studying the syntax of a language

- Now, let us consider the following sentences:

This egg loves elephants.

The sandwich ate the boy.

- These sentences are all instances of correct syntactic structure. But they are nonsensical (unacceptable in meaning).
- ***Syntax*** is primarily concerned with whether a sentence is "properly put together" rather than whether it is meaningful, or silly or bizarre.

What sentences actually mean is the primary concern of

- More examples of non-sense sentences with clear syntax:
- *Colorless green ideas sleep at night.*
- *A verb drank the milk.*
- *I gave the question an angry egg.*
- All these sentences are said to be syntactically acceptable, but semantically unacceptable.

Predicate

- As mentioned above, in syntax we concentrate on the structure & ordering of components within a sentence.
- **Sentences** are characterized by words that share a structure and form a single expression.
- Linguists often divide a sentence/clause into two main parts: the subject and the predicate.
- **The predicate:** expresses an event in the clause and typically centers on a verb, but it includes as well any phrases modifying the verb (e.g. an object or any phrase selected by the verb).
- **A sentence(s) is a combination of a:**

Noun Phrase (NP) and a Verb Phrase (VP).

The NP Subject

The VP Predicate

Example

- *Susan called Paul*.

Susan = subject NP

Called Paul = VP: Predicate headed by the predicator *call*.

- *He bought a car.*

He = Subject NP

Bought a car = VP: Predicate headed by the predicator *Bought*

- One parameter for classifying languages is to consider the unmarked (Normal) order of the elements of a sentence.
- With the guiding factor being the position of the predicate (VP) in the simple declarative clause/sentence of the language in question.

- Thus, languages are either said to be:

(a) SOV (i.e. subject + object + verb) ; e.g. Japanese

(b) SVO (i.e. subject + verb + object) ; e.g. English

(c) VSO (i.e. verb + subject + object) ; e.g. Arabic

Examples

English: Mary bought a book. SVO

Arabic: إشترت ماري كتابا. VSO

- Notice that a sentence can be a simple sentence; i.e. a sentence that contains just one clause; therefore, has just one predicate***.***

Example:

- All of the following sentences consist of just one clause.
- It does not matter how long a simple sentence is.
- Sentence 'c' is still a simple sentence because it contains just one predicate, therefore one clause.
- **A**- John left.
- **B**- These boys like football.
- **C-** The first-year students in our department should read a lot of books at this stage in the year.
- - Notice also that a sentence can contain more than one clause:

Example:

'*I tried to reserve a room, but the hotel was booked*'

- The above sentence has two clauses:

- One based around the construction '*tried to reserve'*
- The other around '*was booked'*.

FINITENESS

- As mentioned above, a sentence typically has at least one clause.
- Traditionally, we say that a **clause** is made up of a **subject** (the performer of the verb's action) and a **predicate** (the verb and its objects).
- The simple sentences in 'A, B and C" above stand alone: they aren't attached to any other clauses, and are therefore called INDEPENDENT CLAUSES/SENTENCES.
- In English, and typically in other languages, an independent clause must contain.

FINITE verbs: have tense and/or person and number inflections.

- That is, they are marked for 'tense' information and agreeing in 'person' and 'number' with the subject
- **Example:**

He plays the guitar.

- The verb '*play-s'* is FINITE.

NON-FINITE verbs

- are NOT marked for tense, agreement or any other grammatical categories associated with the FINITE verbs.
- A verb form that does not indicate person or number
- NON-FINITE verbs include:

(A) **infinitives** (the bare verb stem with no inflections such as the verbs coming after:

'*to, must, should*, and other modals:

(e.g. to play, *must* play, etc.)

(B) ***participles:*** *verbs after 'have, has, had'* (e.g. *has played, have played, had played*)

(C) ***gerunds:*** *V + ing* (e.g. *like playing*).

Examples:

1- *John left.*

'left' is a FINITE verb

Why: it tells us the tense of the sentence

2- *These boys like football*.

'*like'* is a FINITE verb

Why: it tells us the tense of the sentence, and agrees in number and person with the subject 'these boys'.

3- *The first-year students in our department should read a lot of books at this stage in the year.*

'should' is a FINITE verb

Why: it tells us the tense of the sentence.

4- *Her friend speaks many languages.*

'speaks' is a FINITE verb

5- *you have never understood it*

-The FINITE verb is: '*have'*

- Why: it tells us the tense of the sentence, and agrees in number and person with the subject 'you'.

- The *NON*-FINITE verb is: '*understood'*

- Why: it is a participle

- Some constructions contain one FINITE verb with a NON-FINITE verb.

Example:

I tried to reserve a room.

-The FINITE verb is: '*tried'*

- Why: it tells us the tense of the sentence

- The *NON*-FINITE verb is: '*reserve'*

- Why: it is an infinitive (a verb used after 'to')

- These are counted as part of the same clause.

- A FINITE verb can be either a MAIN verb or an AUXILIARY verb:

A- *John left.*

B- *These boys like football.*

C- *The first-year students in our department should read a lot of books at this stage in the year.*

- In A and B, the FINITE verbs are MAIN verbs (*left* and *like*), but in C the FINITE verb is an AUXILIARY (*should*).

- Notice that an auxiliary always co-occurs with a main verb as in C: auxiliary 'should' co-occurs with the main verb 'read'.
- Consider also the following examples:

1- *These boys like football*

2- These boys don't like football.

- The FINITE verb in 1 is the main verb *'like*'

- But in 2 it is the Aux. (*don't*), which co-occurs with the main verb *'like*'.

- As the examples above illustrate, in English only one verb in any clause can be FINITE. When we have a sequence of verbs in English, the FINITE verb always occurs first in the sequence:

Example:

The students may have been studying late.

- Even where there are three auxiliary verbs (*may have been*), the first, and only the first, is FINITE.

Practice: FINITENESS

Identify the FINITE /NON-FINITE verbs in the following:

- We shall see him tomorrow FINITE /NON-FINITE tense – infinite

- John watched the movie. FINITE tense

- John wanted to watch the movie. FINITE /NON-FINITE tense – infinite

- John must have watched the movie. . **FINITE /NON-FINITE**

- She told him that they were studying at home. FINITE /NON-FINITE tense-ing

- Samuel likes tea, but Amy doesn't. FINITE /NON-FINITE

Lecture 9

Outline of lecture

In this class, the following points will be handled:

Clauses

Phrases and heads

Word order

Clauses

- Clauses come in a variety of shapes and sizes.
- A **matrix clause** (or an **independent clause** or a **main clause**) contains a finite verb only (a verb that is marked for tense, person, number) and can stand as an expression in its own right.
- An **embedded clause (**or a **dependent clause** or a **complement clause**) can contain a FINITE (or NON-FINITE) verb, but is structured to be attached to (embedded in) a main clause.

Embedded = to be inserted within/to be enclosed- **Clauses**= Group of words that make part of a sentence

- Example:
- **Matrix clause** **Complement clause**
- 1- *He saw a movie*
- (finite)
- 2- *She wanted* *to stay*
- (finite) (non-finite)
- 3- *She told him* *that he should stay*
- (finite) (finite) (non-finite)
- Dependent clauses are also called "subordinate clauses", and they can contain, as above mentioned, a FINITE or NON-FINITE verb

Example: consider the dependent clause '*that he should stay*' in the following sentence:

She told him that he should stay

(finite) (finite) (non-finite)

- On the other hand, independent clauses might be referred to as "main clauses", and they contain finite verbs only, as aforementioned.

Example: consider the following independent clause:

He saw a movie

(finite)

- consider also the independent clause '*she wanted*' in the following sentence:

She wanted to stay

(finite) (non-finite)

- Only embedded (dependent) clauses can have a complementizer (that, for, whether, if, etc.).

Example:

*He claimed **that** he saw Kim*

*She wondered **whether** Kim left*

***For** you to beat him was unexpected*

- Only main clauses have subject/auxiliary inversion (in yes/no questions).

Example:

If you see John, will you recognize him?

(dependent clause) (main clause)

**If do you see John, you will recognize him.*

Did she claim that John saw him?

**She claimed that did John see him?*

Practice:

Which clauses are dependent? Which are independent?

- *There's a lot to learn in syntax.* (dependent clause)
- *He asked me if I arrived safely.* (dependent clause)
- *If you can't find your way, please ask for help.* (dependent clause)
- John having left early, we left too. (dependent clause)

MOOD

- **MOOD**: Each clause has mood. Mood has to do with two sets of distinctions:

(1) The distinctions between:

- Making statements (Declarative)

  EX. *She met John in the park.*

- Asking questions (Interrogative)

  EX. *Did she meet John in the park?*

- Issuing commands (Imperative).

  EX. *Open the door*

(2) The distinctions between whether the speaker/writer presents an event as:

- Possible

  EX. He may have left.

- A fact

  EX. (He did leave).

- We might also classify clauses based on the kind of information they share:

- Relative clauses

- Interrogative clauses

- Existential clauses

- Conditional or hypothetical clauses.

(1) Relative clauses:

- Give more information about a noun.

- Example: '*I knew'* in: '*you are not the man I knew'*.

(2) Interrogative clauses:

- Ask a question directly:

  Example: *he asked, 'Are you happy?'*

- or indirectly:

  Example: *he wonders 'whether you are happy.'*

(3) Existential clauses:

- In English typically begin with '*there is* or *there are'*.-

  Example: *There is a mouse in my room.*

(4) Conditional or hypothetical clauses:

- If....., then.....

  Example: *If you study hard, you will succeed*.

Examples:

Who is he? (direct interrogative clause)

…… who he is. (indirect interrogative clause)

There is a cat in this house. (Existential clauses)

…… that I saw yesterday (relative clause)

- Of these, notice that the second part of conditional clauses, as well as the existential and direct interrogative clauses are independent.
- The others are subordinate clauses.

Phrases

- Every phrase contains a **head**, which is the major content or function word within that phrase.
- Phrases are named after their heads:

That is:

  - A noun phrase is headed by a noun
  - A verb phrase is headed by a verb
  - A prepositional phrase is headed by a preposition.

- **Example** **head** **phrase type**
- *the book* *book* NP (noun phrase)
- *the Spanish book* *book* NP (noun phrase)
- *in the Spanish book* *in* PP (prepositional phrase)
- *goes to the store* *go* VP (verb phrase)
- *gives it to him* *give* VP (verb phrase)
- **Practice:**
- **Identify the head of the following phrases, and name the type of phrase:**
- at the airport, at PP (prepositional phrase)
- read the book, read VP (verb phrase)

- a tough question, question NP (noun phrase)
- the man, man NP (noun phrase)
- on the sofa on PP (prepositional phrase)

Word order

Basic word order

- Languages most often have a way of ordering the basic constituents of clauses (e.g. subjects, verbs and objects).
- Using this classification, we can begin to consider how languages arrange their words.
- In English, finite clauses have the order subject-verb-object (*the dog ate the bone* or *he saw me*).
- The subject and object are noun phrases, while the verb heads the VP which contains any object NPs.
- In English, word order is fairly fixed.
- But notice that the verb comes first in direct interrogative clauses with *have* or *be or do*:
- Example:

Are you happy?

Has he left?

(verb-subject rather than subject-verb).

- The objects of verbs may be subdivided into direct objects and indirect objects.
- Direct objects: usually immediately follow the verb (like *'The book'*) in the following sentence:

Ex. *He read the book*.

- Indirect object: are often expressed periphrastically, as prepositional phrases (like *'to him'*) in in the following sentence:

Ex. *I gave him the book*

I gave the book to him.

Reordering words:

When two words switch places, the switch is known as '**inversion**' .

- For example, in the question: '*are you happy'?*
- As mentioned above, the subject '*you'* and the verb '*are'* don't follow the basic word order subject-verb.

- It is often said that the subject and verb are inverted when asking a question with '*have, do, be'* in English.
- Another way to consider changing word order is to look for a word that moves, where it moves from and where it moves to.
- This concept has a simple name: **movement**.
- From this point of view, we might say that:
- '*are'* in the question '*are you happy?'* has moved from its original position in '*you are happy'* to a new position before the rest of the phrase.

Expanding phrases:

- Speakers of all languages don't just rely on basic word order and movement to build sentences.
- We can expand simple sentences by adding material in the form of new words and phrases.
- For instance, we can expand:

'*language'* into: '*a language'* and, further, into: '*a difficult language'*.

- **Adjuncts:** are extra phrases such as '*at the store'* or '*in September'* that we can add to verb phrases (like '*bought it'*) to form:

'*bought it at the store'*

'*bought it at the store in September'*.

- Notice that the material we added to '*bought it'* all branched to the right.

Lecture 10

In this lecture, we will talk about:

- Linguistic competence

- Linguistic performance

- Communicative competence

Grammatical/Linguistic Competence

- Chomsky (1965) made a distinction between 'grammatical competence' and 'performance'.
- **Competence:** refers to the linguistic knowledge of native speakers, an innate (inherent) biological function of the mind that allows individuals to generate the infinite (unlimited) set of grammatical sentences that constitutes their language.
- That is, linguistic competence is the unconscious knowledge that native speakers share of their native language.
- It is the speaker's internalized grammar which enables him/her to speak and understand language.
- It is what the speaker must know in order to be able to perform.
- It is the speaker's implicit (hidden/unseen) knowledge of the rules of his language; i.e. speakers' *mental grammar*.
- Linguistic competence includes also the speaker's intuitions (instincts) about the syntactic structure of sentences of his language.

- For instance, with respect to the following sentence:

John likes very fast cars

- any speaker would agree by intuition that '*very'* modifies '*cars'* (and not *likes*) and that '*very fast'* modifies '*cars'* not *John.*
- The grammar designed by a linguist is said to be a *model* of the speaker's competence; i.e. a model of the speaker's internalized/unconscious grammar.
- A *model* in the sense that it attempts to outline the kind of knowledge the speaker possesses, which enables him to use language creatively.
- Thus, grammar is a device capable of producing and interpreting all the well-formed (correct) sentences of a language.

Performance

- Linguistic competence is clearly related to linguistic performance.
- **Performance:** refers to the actual use of language in concrete situations. It is the speakers' ability to use the unconscious knowledge of their language (which is represented by their linguistic competence).
- There is a large measure of creativity associated with linguistic performance; e.g. most of the sentences children experience are novel (new).

- The differences between linguistic knowledge (competence) and linguistic performance are revealed, for instance, though slips of the tongue. Consider the following example:

Example: when a speaker refers to the 'queen' of England as:

'*That queer* (strange) *old dean*' instead of the intended: '*that dear old queen*'

- He knows that the queen was not a 'dean' and was not 'strange'.

- Everyone makes errors, and often we catch ourselves doing it and correct the errors.

- This shows that we know what is the correct form of the word, phrase, or sentence which is involved in the error.

- Memory lapses (pauses/gaps) sometimes prevent us from remembering the beginning of a sentence, producing errors like the following sentence in which a singular '*he*' is mistakenly used instead of the plural '*they*' to agree with the plural subject '*John and Smith*':

- Example:

John and Smith went to the cinema, where he spent the night.

- The fact that people make occasional "slips of tongue" in everyday conversation does not mean that they do not know their language or do not have competence in it.

- Slips of tongue and like-phenomena are performance errors attributed to a variety of performance factors like: tiredness, boredom, drunkenness, external distractions.

Communicative Competence

- **The question now is:**

- Is linguistic competence alone enough for successful communication?

- In fact, the competence that speakers of a language possess must include their ability to handle the various uses of language in different contexts.

- It should include a wider range of abilities than the linguistic competence of the Chomskyan tradition.

- As linguists say the most important function of language is communication.

- Successful language use for communication entails the existence of what is called *'communicative competence*' among the speakers of that language.

- ***Communicative competence*** *:* can be defined in terms of three components:

  (1) Grammatical/linguistic competence

  (2) sociolinguistic competence

  (3) strategic competence.

(1) **Grammatical competence:**

- It means the acquisition of morphological rules, phonological rules, syntactic rules, semantic rules and lexical items.

- Such rules enable the accurate use of the words and structures of a language.
- Today grammatical competence is usually called ‘linguistic competence’.

(2) Sociolinguistic competence:

- It refers to the social and cultural norms that enable speakers to use the language appropriately according to the ‘social context’.
- That is: formal contexts (education, political speech, etc.), informal contexts (a party, a social gathering), the addressee (parents, friends, bosses), social class (low class, high class), sex (males, females), age (children, adults), etc.
- This is important because different situations call for different types of expression/way of speaking.
- For example, if one says *'good-bye*' in greeting someone, it is inappropriate in a particular social context.
- To take another example, when you speak with your boss at work you use a different language from the one you use with your friends.
- Thus, besides knowing the structure of language (grammatical competence), speakers have to know how to use language (sociolinguistic competence).
- We do not achieve much if we only know the structure of a sentence such as:

  Can you lift that box?

- You should be able to decide whether the speaker wants to discover how strong you are (a question) or wants you to move the box (a request).

(3) Strategic competence:

This is to do with the knowledge of verbal and nonverbal strategies in order to:

(a) compensate breakdowns (such as self-correction),

(B) enhance the effectiveness of communication (e.g. Guessing meaning from context, tolerating ambiguity).

- A clear example explaining the meaning of strategic competence can be obtained from *Second Language Acquisition* (L2 acquisition).

- That is, In L2 use, learners experience moments when there is a gap between communicative intent (what they want to say) and their ability to express (to say) that intent.
- Some learners may just stop talking (which is a bad idea).
- Others will try to express themselves via a communicative strategy (which is a good idea).
- For example: an Arabic L1 speaker who wanted to refer to ‘horseshoe’, but he does not know the English word .
- So, he used a communicative strategy by saying:

  The iron things which horses wear under their feet.

-This flexibility in language use is a key element in successful communication.

- In essence, strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

Lecture 11

In this class, we will cover the following points:

1- the meaning of GG

2- the properties of GG

3- deep and surface structure

Generative Grammar

What is Generative Grammar

- Earlier approaches to syntactic description attempted to produce an accurate analysis of the sequence or arrangement of elements in the structure of a sentence.

- While this remains a major goal of syntactic description, more recent work in syntax, especially generative grammar, has taken a rather different approach in accounting for the sequence of elements within a sentence.

- **Generative grammar:** The dominant theory of syntax is due to Noam Chomsky and his followers, starting in the mid 1950s and continuing to this day.
- This theory has had many different names through its development (Transformational Grammar (TG),Transformational Generative Grammar, Standard Theory, Government and Binding Theory (GB), Principles and Parameters approach(P&P) and Minimalism (MP)).
- However, this theory is often given the blanket name **Generative grammar**.
- A number of alternate theories of syntax have also branched off of this research program; these include Lexical Functional Grammar (LFG) and Head Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG). These are also considered part of generative grammar.
- Definition: Through generative grammar, Chomsky attempted to produce a particular type of grammar with a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic elements would result in well-formed(correct)sentences.
- This explicit system of rules is similar to mathematical rules.

Some properties of GG

Properties of GG include:

1- The 'all and only' criterion:

- The grammar will generate all the well-formed (correct) syntactic structures (e.g. sentences) of the language.
- The grammar will fail to generate any ill-formed (incorrect) structures.
- (in other words, '*all'* the grammatical sentences and '*only'* the grammatical sentences)

Example: (A)

John met Richard yesterday. (well-formed/acceptable to native speakers)

Yesterday, John met Richard. (well-formed)

*Met John yesterday Richard. (ill-formed/unacceptable to native speakers)

* *yesterday met John Richard*. (ill-formed)

(B)

She went to America last week. (well-formed)

Last week, she went to America . (well-formed)

**Went she last to week America .* (ill-formed)

**America week went last to she.* (ill-formed) Etc.

2- The grammar will have a finite (limited) number of rules, but will be capable of generating an infinite number of well-formed structures.

- -Thus, the productivity of language (i.e. the creation of totally novel, yet grammatical, sentences) would be captured within the grammar.
- **Example (A):** speakers can understand/produce a sentence like the following one, even if they have not seen a sentence like it before:

- *In 2006, a star suddenly became 600.000 times more luminous that our sun, temporarily making it the brightest star in our galaxy.*

- **Example (B):** through the rule that says that English is an SVO language (i.e. English sentences follow the order of subject + Verb + Object), we can produce an infinite (unlimited) number of new sentences, as follows:.

John met Sam. *She bought a new house.*

The boy ate the sandwich. *They sold their car last year.*

I like reading. *He plays football every weekend.*

That is, an endless number of novel, and grammatical, sentences

3- Recursion criterion: the rules of this grammar will need the crucial property of **recursion**, that is, the capacity to be applied/repeated more than once in generating a structure.

Example: (A) repeat prepositional phrase more than once:

The phone was on the sofa.

- Now, where was the sofa? *Near the door*. Okay, where was the door? *in the hallway*. This recursive effect can be put into a single sentence:

The phone was on the sofa near the door in the hallway beside the …..

The same recursive rule applies to the prepositional phrases in the following:

- *The gun was on the table.*

- *The gun was on the table near the window.*

- *The gun was on the table near the window in the bedroom.*

Example (B): Put sentences inside other sentences

- *Mary helped George*

- *Cathy knew that Mary helped George.*

- *John believed that Cathy knew that Mary helped George.*

- The same recursive rule applies to the phrase '*that hit the dog*' in the sentence: '*this is the man that hit the dog*'.
- We can create an endless series of other phrases and embed them into the previous sentence, as follows:

This is the man that hit the dog that bit the cat that chased the rat that ate the cheese that……

- thus, there is no end to the recursion which would provide ever-longer versions of this sentence, and the grammar must provide for this fact.
- Basically the grammar will have to capture the fact that a sentence can have another sentence inside it, or a phrase can have another phrase of the same type inside it.
- 4- Deep and surface structure: the grammar should also be capable of revealing the basis of two other phenomena:

First: how some superficially distinct (different) sentences are closely related (similar in meaning):

Ex. *Adam sold the house*. (Active sentence)

The house was sold by Adam. (Passive sentence)

It was Adam who sold the house.

Adam was the one who sold the house.

- The difference between these two sentences is in their **surface structure** (the syntactic form they take as English sentences), that is, one is an active sentence and the other is a passive sentence.
- However, at some less 'superficial' level, the two sentences are very closely related, even identical, in the **deep structure**; i.e. meaning.
- So, the grammar must be capable of showing how a single deep structure can be represented by two different surface structures (e.g. active and passive structures)
- **Second:** how some superficially similar sentences are in fact distinct (*structural ambiguity*).

  Example: Suppose we have two distinct deep structures (i.e. meanings) expressing:

  1- *Sara had a stick and she hit a man with it*.

2- *Sara hit a man and the man happened to have a stick*.

- - Now, these two different concepts/meanings can be expressed in the same surface structure form, as follows: '*Sara hit a man with a stick.'*

This sentence is structurally ambiguous as it has two distinct deep structures (meanings/interpretations) which are expressed in a single surface structure.

- Thus, we can say that:

- **Structural ambiguity** occurs when two distinct deep structures representing two different concepts/ideas are expressed in the same surface structure form (i.e. the same sentence).

- More examples on structural ambiguity:

(A) *'One morning, I shot an elephant in my pyjamas*.'

- Phrases, as well, can be structurally ambiguous:

(B) '*young boys and girls'*: the deep structure can be

'Young boys plus young girls'

OR

'Young boys plus girls'

- The grammar should be able to show such differences which lead to structural ambiguity.

Exercises on structural ambiguity

In what ways are these expressions structurally ambiguous?

- We met an English history teacher

- Flying planes can be dangerous structurally ambiguous

- The parents of the bride and groom were waiting outside

- The students complained to everyone that they couldn't understand.

- Visiting witches can be dangerous structurally ambiguous

- The boy saw the man with a telescope structurally ambiguous

- She loves ballet more than her friends