An Introduction to Linguistics: A Brief Look at Theoretical Linguistics

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I: Introduction

Traditional Grammar/ Linguistics

Like most of the Western sciences and humanities ,the study of language in the Western world began with the ancient Greeks. Among the very earliest studies of language is Plato's **Cratylus** ;but the study of language was more fruitful under Plato's successors **Aristotle** and **Dionysuis Thrax.** Aristotle classified the parts of speech in the third century B.C ;but the oldest known grammar of Greek was written by Dionysuis Thrax near the end of the second century BC. The approach of the ancient Greeks to grammar was continued and modified by the Romans.

Ben Crane, Yeager, and Whiteman (1981) say that from the mid 18th century until the 20th century the grammar of English was essentially normative or prescriptive because it did little but expand on the classifications of the ancient Greek and Latin grammarians. And as it attempted to prescribe the norms of "proper" language usage , it is referred to as traditional grammar. To put it simply , traditional grammar is the grammar that many of us learned at school and that it is built on the grammar devised for the analysis of the Greek and Latin languages. However, the work of some traditional grammarians ,particularly Otto Jesperson's detailed grammar of English, is valuable for its simplicity, clarity and insight.

The structural theory of linguistics was the first major new approach in **descriptive** linguistics in the 20th century. It came as a reaction against **prescriptive** grammar, such as that found in traditional grammar. Introduced by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure and pioneered in the United States by Leonard

Bloomfield, structualism flourished for 30 years until the early 1960s. With the realization that linguistics is descriptive, there came the belief the different dialects of the same language must be accepted as different varieties of the same language. For example, Belfast English must be accepted as a variety of English just as that of the Received Pronunciation and if the Received Pronunciation is more superior in England , it is because of political and social reasons , and not due to any linguistic superiority.

II: Chapter One : The structural theory of linguistics

2.1:Morphology

In describing language(s), structural linguistics typically involves isolating ,classifying, analyzing and segmenting the observed language data. To see how this done ,we will have brief look at a description of some features of the English language in accordance with structural linguistics. It is also customary to divide the study of language into **phonology, morphology**, and **syntax** . Morphology may be described as the study of the smallest meaning-bearing units in the language and the rules governing them; i.e. it is the study of the structure of words. The **morpheme** is the smallest meaning- bearing unit in the language. According to N. Stageberg (1977) a morpheme meets three criteria :

2.1.1. The morpheme

1. It is a word or part of a word that has meaning.

2.It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning .

3.It recurs in differing verbal environment with a relatively stable meaning. For example, **en** in **brighten , darken etc** must be considered a morpheme.

There are free and bound morphemes. A free morpheme is one that can be uttered alone with meaning; for example, **eat** is a free morpheme ;but **re** in **replay** is a bound morpheme. There are also bound and free bases; for example **sent** in **sentiment, sentient, consent, assent, dissent, resent** is a bound base because it cannot stand

Inflectional Suffix	Examples	Name
1.{-Spl}	dogs, oxen	noun plural
2.{-Sps}	boy's	noun possessive
3.{-S3rd}	eats	present third-person singular
4.{-INGvb}	eating	present participle
5.{-Dpt}	talked, saw	past tense
6.{-Dpp}	rung, eaten, talked	past participle
7.{-ERcp}	nicer, sadder	comparative

8.{-EST sp} **nicest, saddest** **superlative**

Inflectional suffixes differ from the derivational suffixes in the following ways :

1. Inflectional suffixes do not change the part of speech :e.g. **eat, eats; hot, hotter.**

2. Inflectional suffixes come last in a word; e.g. **darkened.**

3. Inflectional suffixes go with all stems of a given part of speech; e, g, He **eats.**

4. Inflectional suffixes do not up; only one ends the word; e.g. **activities.**

Exercises

1.Determine the number of the morphemes and their types in the following words

1.friendship 2. photography 3.manual 4. aquarium
5.biology 6.annual
7.rupture 8.corrode 9.compact 10.devitalize

2.Write the morphomic symbol and name for each inflectional affix in the following bold typed words:

(i).**swam**
(ii) three **girls**
(iii)He **loves** bananas.
(iv) the **boy's** hat
(v) the **boys'** hats

(vi)They were **eating.**
(vii) His brother is **taller.**
(viii) This is the **longest** one.
(ix) He has **played** very well.
(x) He is **coming** today.

3.Indicate the part-of-speech of the bold typed words in the following sentences:

(i) The **break** between them is really great.

(ii) He goes after his **desires.**
(iii) He has some **sweets.**

(iv) She **hosted** a party last week.

2.1.1.2. Derivational Morphemes

Derivational suffixes are vast in number in English ;and they generally have the following characteristics:

1.The words with which derivational suffixes combine is an arbitrary matter; e.g. the noun of **fail** is **failure**; while noun of **invest** is **investment.**

2.A derivational suffix in many cases changes the part of speech of the word to which it is added e.g. **act+ ive =V+ive =AJ ,active+ate = AJ +ate=V.**

3.Derivational suffixes usually do not close off a word; e.g. after the suffix **ive** , we may also have **ate** in **activate**, all suffixes of which are derivational.

Accordingly , taking into consideration derivational affixation there are basically five parts of speech : nouns, verbs ,adjectives ,adverbs and uninflected words.

2.1. 1.2.1: Nouns

Some of these derivational affixes that are associated with nouns are : **ance, ment, al, ant, age, ade, ation, ity, y, ure, er, or, ing ,cation ,ness ,ism, dom, ist,ship ,ster, etc.**

2.1.1.2.2: Verbs

Some of the derivational morphemes that identify verbs are: **e, ify ,ize, en, etc.**

2.1.1.2.3: Adjectives

An adjective is identified by its capability of forming adverbs with **-ly** and /or nouns with **-ness** . Other derivational suffixes for the formation of adjectives are :**aged ,ish, ward, y,, ar, al ,ic, ical, ate, able ,less full, ive , ous ,etc.**

2.1.1.2.4: Adverbs

There are basically three derivational affixes for the formation of adverbs by form: **ly, wise and -ward.**

2.1.1.2.5: Uninflected Words

Words that cannot be classified in one of the four form-classes---nouns, verbs ,adjective, or adverb--- are known as uninflected words, **UW's.** We can put in this form class the leftover words that do not fall into any of the above form classes whether they are traditionally called nouns such as **advice, tennis, evidence, batony** , adverbs such as **often, seldom, also, never, perhaps** , adjectives such as **only, tired, antic** or a structure class such as the, **must, need, quite, from, and, since, which, all.** N.Stageberg (1977:181) also places in this form class a group of words that take the prefix **a-** such as **aground ,akin, awake, aloud, afresh, ajar, aweary.**

Exercises

1. Determine whether the following words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, or UW:

assistant arrival breakage complaint contemplation defense delivery
helper purification painting bigness idealism wisdom supremacy
cowardice gangster booklet lemonade womanhood novelette slavery
colonize bathe strengthen save solidify cloudy economic economical
childish friendly circular momentary penniless
picturesque pompous powerful sensible urban
wooden collective expectant shaky continual reddish
deadly northward studentwise studentlike
fortunately afoot agape asunder agog

2. Making use of derivational affixes, derive different parts of speech from the following words:

bath beauty age city moment pure labor lazy break defend liberate save lie contemplate

2.1.2: Allomorphs

Allomorphs are the variants of the same morpheme. This means that the morpheme is an abstract unit that may have several pronunciations or several phonological forms; for example, the plural morpheme in English has several phonological realizations which are the /z/ or /iz/ and /s/ allomorphs. There are also phonologically and morphologically conditioned allomorphs. When we talk about the phonologically conditioned allomorphs , we mean that the occurrence of one or the other of the different allomorphs depends on its phonological environment. This distribution is in which each form occupies its own territory and does not trespass on the domain of another is called **complementary distribution, abbreviated CD** (N. Stageberg 1977: 115).

There are several **allomorphs** of the morphemes {-Dpt} and {-Spl}, as to be shown in the following discussion.

2.1.2.1:{-Dpt}:

Looking at the {-Dpt} morpheme , we find that it has three allomorphs that are phonologically conditioned (i.e. allomorphs conditioned by the preceding sound). These allomorphs are : / **id**/ ~/- **t** / ~ / **-d** /. These allomorphs are " positional variants ";i.e. they belong to the same morpheme. Examples of such {-Dpt} allomorphs are found in the verbs **passed, faded, and begged** ,whose {-Dpt} allomorphs are said to be phonologically conditioned. On the other hand, the {-Dpt} allomorphs in the verb **cut** are morphologically conditioned. That is, when we can describe the environment that requires a certain allomorph only by identifying specific morphemes, we say that the selection of allomorphs is morphologically conditioned. The {-Dpt} morpheme also has what is called Replacive allomorphs ,as exemplified by the fact that the past of **swim, sing** etc. is **swam, sang.** In other words, the **/i/** in the present is replaced by the **/ae/** for the the indication of past tense in these verbs.

Again, these allomorphs of the past tense are morphologically conditioned.

2.1.2.2: {-Spl}

The **{-Spl}** morpheme has three phonologically conditioned allomorphs. These are **{-Spl} = /iz/ ~ / z/ ~ /s/.** In addition to these phonologically conditioned allomorphs, the {-Spl} also has two morphologically conditioned allomorphs. These are **/ n/** and **/∅ /.** For example, the nouns **cats, dogs ,classes** have phonologically conditioned allomorphs; but the nouns **oxen, sheep** have morphologically conditioned allomorphs.

Exercises:

1. **Determine the phonologically as well as the morphologically conditioned allomorphs in the following:**

(i) **churches**

(ii) dogs

(iii) **oxen**

(iv) **children**

(v) Some **sheep**

(vi) Some **cattle**

(vii) He **swam**.

(viii) The bell **rang**.

(ix) He **cut t**he bread.

(x) He **gave** her a book.

2.1.3:Homophones

Some suffixes ,both inflectional and derivational, have homophonous forms., which are different morphemes that have the same pronunciation. In English ,we have the **homophones**
{ -ER cp}/ { -ER n}/ {-ER rp}, {-ING vb}/ {-ING nm}/ {-ING aj}, {-Dpp}/ {-D aj} and {-LY aj}/ {-LY av}.

2.1.3.1: { -ER cp}/ { -ER n}/ {-ER rp}:

The inflectional **{-ERcp}** (as in **faster**) has two homophones. These are the derivational morphemes **{-ERn}** and **{-ERrp}.** The former is often called the agent **er** and conveys a meaning of that which performs the action of the stem whether that stem is a verb or not; for

example, **hunter, fisher** from **hunt** and **fish** as well as **teenager, New Yorker** from **teen-age** and **New York.** The second derivational morpheme (i.e. **{-ERrp}**) conveys the meaning of repetition such as in **chatter, patter** and **flicker.**

2.1.3.2: {-ING vb}/ {-ING nm}/ {-ING aj}

Another homophonous group of suffixal morphemes consists of the inflectional verbal suffix **{-INGvb}** (as in / is **eating/**) and two other derivational suffixes **{-INGnm}**and **{-INGaj}**. The former of the derivational homophones (i.e. **{-INGnm}**) is a nominal and may be

represented by "He attended the **meeting**". The latter (i.e.{**-INGaj**}) is an adjectival and may be illustrated by " She is a **charming** woman".

The test for {**-INGnm**}) morpheme is that it occupies the position of a noun ,thereby making it a nominal. There are two tests by which the verbal {**-INGvb**} can be distinguished from the adjectival {**-INGaj**}. The first is dependent on the position it occupies and the second is on the modifier. The {**INGvb**} allows free word order and no modification; whereas the {**ING aj**} requires a rigid word order ,allows modification ,and the **seems** test. For example , the word **moving** in the sentence " I saw a **moving** elephant." is an {**INGvb**} and not an {**INGaj**} because it allows flexibility of word order; i.e. " **I saw an**

elephant moving" or " **I saw a moving elephant**." Also, we cannot say " **I saw a very moving elephant**".

On the other hand , **interesting** in " **I have an interesting book**" is an {**INGaj**} because it requires a rigid word order as we cannot say " **I have a book interesting** ." Also , an {**INGaj**} allows modification; e.g. we can say " **I have a very interesting book**". We can also say "**This book seems interesting**"; but we cannot say "**This elephant seems moving**".

2.1.3.3:{-Dpp}/ {-D aj}

Another group of suffixal homophones consists of the inflectional suffix {**-Dpp**} and the derivational suffix {-

Daj}. The former may be represented the by sentences " **He has played very well** ". and " **The invited guests all came**". The latter (i.e. **{-Daj}**) may be represented by the sentence " **She is excited about her work.**" The **{Daj}** is characterized by its capacity for allowing modification and the **seems** test. For example, we can say " **She is very excited about her work**". We can also " **She seems excited about her work** ". On the other hand, we cannot say " **The very invited guests came** ." nor " **The guests seem invited** "; therefore, **invited** must be a **{Dpp}**, rather than **a {-Daj}.**

2.1.3.4:{-LY aj}/ {-LY av}

English also has the suffixal homophones {**-LYaj**} and {**-LYav**} ;both of which are derivational. The latter (i.e.{**-LYav**} is the suffix that changes the adjective **quick** to the adverb **quickly.** The former suffix (i.e.{**-LYaj**}) is one that forms an adjective from monosyllabic nouns and these adjectives may or may not take **-er, -est** inflection ;e.g. **lovely ,motherly**. We may say **lovelier** ;but not * **motherlier**. It also forms time adjective such as **daily** and ***hourly*** from **day** and **hour**.

III: Chapter Three : Syntax

As we do not speak a language by merely stringing words together in some random fashion, it is necessary to study its syntactic structure as well. To know a language , therefore, involves an unconscious knowledge of the various patterns in which we carefully arrange our words.

3.1: Basic Sentence Patterns

N. Stageberg (1977:195) says that in "English we use nine basic sentence patterns and a multitude of subpatterns". Included in these nine basic sentence patterns are specific sentence positions. Each position in each pattern is the home-slot of a particular grammatical meaning, which is the meaning that is added to the sentence by virtue of a particular position in a particular patiern, as to be shown in the following discussion of the basic sentence patterns in English.

3.1.1: Pattern1: N 1 be Adj

In the nine basic patterns, the subject always occurs in the first N position. The subject in pattern (1) has the grammatical meaning "that which is described"(Stageberg,1977:196) The grammatical meaning of verb **to be** is "may be described as"(196). This pattern may exemplified by **Cats are nice.** In pattern (1) the third term must be an adjective or an adjectival. To test pattern (1) you see if it is capable of expansion. For example, we can say "**These three very beautiful cats are extremely nice.**" The grammatical meaning of the adjective or the adjectival of this pattern is a modifier of the subject. An example of an adjectival in this pattern is "**The man was in a good mood**" ,i.e. the adjectival is here a prepositional phrase.

3.1.2: Pattern 2: N 1 be Adv

The grammatical meaning of the subject i.e. the N position in this pattern is "that about which an assertion

is made", while that of the Adv. is "modifier of the verb"(Stageberg,1977:198). The grammatical meaning of verb **to be** in this pattern is that to "be located or occur"(197). This pattern may be exemplified **The man is there.** This pattern also differs from pattern (1) in that it cannot under go expansion and that its third position must be occupied by an uninflected word or a prepositional phrase that is an adverbial; e.g. "**The man is at the door".**

3.1.3: Pattern 3: N 1 be N 1

The grammatical meaning of the subject of this pattern is "that which is identified "(198). As for the second **N 1**, its grammatical meaning is "that which identifies the subject" (Stageberg,1977:198) : it is ,accordingly, called the subjective complement. The numbers after the **Ns** in this pattern indicate that the

nouns have the same referent. The grammatical meaning of verb **to be** in this pattern is that to "be identified or classified as"(98). This pattern may be exemplified by **My father is a doctor.** Personal pronouns may also be the subjective complement of this pattern ,but in such a case it takes primary stress, **It is me** or **It is they.**

3.1.4: Pattern 4: N 1 InV[= intransitive verb]

An intransitive verb is self-sufficient in that it can stand alone with its subject. Even though an intransitive verb does not take an object ,yet it can be modified by an adverb or an adverbial. For example ,we can say **"People eat a lot", "People eat in the morning"** ,and **"People**

eat when they get up". The grammatical meaning of the subject of pattern (4) is the same as that of patterns (5) ,(6) ,and (7) . It is that of "performer of the action"(Stageberg,1977:200).

3.1.5: Pattern 5: N 1 TrV[=transitive verb] N 2

Unlike pattern (4) , the verb in pattern (5) is completed by a noun or a pronoun. A verb that is completed by a noun or a pronoun is called a transitive verb, as exemplified by **The man bought a car.** The completive noun or pronoun is called the direct object of the verb and "has the grammatical meaning of `the receiver of the action"(Stageberg,1977:200). However, Stageberg (1977) goes on to say that "the semantic and logical relations between verb and object are so many and various that no general statement of grammatical meaning suffices to cover them all."(201) For example,

in "**A beautiful linen cloth covered the table.**" the word **cloth** is not the performer of the action nor is **table** the receiver of the action even though both **cloth** and **table** in the above sentence are the subject and the object of the above sentence respectively.

This pattern also allows both the subject and the object pronouns to be of the same referent if they are of two different kinds. For example ,in" **He saw himself**" the object pronoun is a reflexive pronoun ,while that of the subject is a personal pronoun. Therefore, both pronouns have the same referent. Similarly, when the object pronoun is a reciprocal pronoun, there is coreference between it and its subject ;e.g. "**They saw each other**". Otherwise ,the object pronoun has a different referent from its subject e.g. "**They saw them**". The same thing applies to object nouns.

It is to be noted that many verbs in English may be used both transitively and intransitively; e.g. "**She sang beautifully**" and "**She sang a beautiful song**". When used transitively, most verbs have both an active and a passive form. But there is a small group of verbs in English that do not passivize. They are called middle verbs; e.g. **contain, lack, afford, have, elude**. Also verbs with reflexive or reciprocal pronouns do not passivize.

3.1.6: Pattern 6: N 1 TrV N 2 N 3

The verbs of this pattern are a restricted group . Some of the most common ones are **give ,make, find, tell, buy, write, send, ask, play, build, teach ,assign, feed, offer, throw, sell, pay.** This pattern is noted by the fact that it

has two objects :a direct object and an indirect object. The indirect object has the grammatical meaning of the "beneficiary of the action of the verb-plus-direct-object"(Stageberg,1977:205) This pattern is also characterized by the fact that both object nominals or pronominals are of disjoint reference, as illustrated by the sentence **The man bought his son a hat** ;i.e. both **son** and **hat** are separate entities. Also, both object nominals or pronominals are of disjoint reference to their subject nominals or pronominals, which is in this case the noun **man.**

It is also to be noted that the indirect object may be replaced by a prepositional phrase that begins with **to, for** or occasionally with a different preposition; e.g. "**The man bought a hat for his son**". As for the direct object of this pattern ,it must be the first of the two objects if it is a pronominal; e.g. "**The man bought it for his son**". Similarly ,if both objects are pronominals , again the direct object must occur first; e.g. "**The man bought it for him**". A pattern (6) sentence may be passivized by

either making the direct object or the indirect object the subject of the passive verb ;e.g. **"His son was bought a hat by him."** or **"A hat was bought his son by him"**.

3.1.7:Pattern 7: N 1 TrV N 2 {N 2,or Adj, or Pronoun, or Adv [of place] uninflected, or Verb[present participle],or Verb[past participle],or Prepositional phrase ,or Infinitive phrase with *to be* **}**

There are different types of the sentences of pattern (7) , as can be seen from the following sentences:

(i)The class chose Mary president. (N 2 N 2)

(ii)They considered him brilliant. (N 2 Adj)

(iii)They thought the caller you. (N 2 **Pronoun)**

(iv)They supposed her inside. (N 2 **Adv [of place] uninflected)**

(v)They imagined us eating. (N 2 **Verb[present participle])**

(vi)We believed her seated. (N 2 **Verb[past participle])**

(vii)They thought him above reproach. (N 2 **Prepositional phrase)**

(viii)They thought her to be a fine woman. (N 2 **Infinitive phrase with** *to be*)

However, Pattern (7) is commonly exemplified by N 2 in the final position, as in (7)(i). Like pattern 6, it has two objects following the verb. But the order of these objects in pattern (7)(i) is that of direct object first; therefore ,if we eliminate the second object we are left with pattern (5) ;e.g." **The class chose Mary" is** pattern (5) , and not pattern (7) . The second object in pattern (7)(i) is called the objective complement because it completes the direct object. This **is** understandable for the word **president** in "**The class chose Mary** *president*" completes **Mary** and the sentence **may** be said to be derived from "**The class chose that Mary be president**".

Unlike pattern (6) , pattern (7) (i) requires that both Ns as objects have the same referent. Also unlike pattern (6) , pattern (7) (i) allows passivization only if the first

object is made the subject of the passive verb. For example, we can say "**Mary was chosen president**"; but we cannot say *"**President was chosen Mary**". This relation between the direct object and its complement i.e. the objective complement in the active sentence must be maintained also in the passive sentence. In **Mary was chosen president** ,this relation is maintained because **president** is nonetheless the complement of **Mary** ;but in this case it is its subjective complement. The grammatical meaning of the objective complement is "completer of the direct object "(Stageberg,1977:208);whereas that of the subjective complement is the completer of the subject , as shown earlier. Only a very small group of verbs can be used for Pattern (7). Among them are **name ,judge, label,**

prove,find,suppose,keep,feel,believe,think,imagine,consider,fancy,call,declare,make,select,designate,appoint ,choose.

3.1.8:Pattern 8: N 1 LV Adj

In Pattern (8), the verb is called a linking verb [LV] ,as it links the adjective with the subject. This pattern may be illustrated by **The man seems young.** Any verb except verb **to be** that may be substituted for **seems** in the above frame is a linking verb. The grammatical meaning of the adjective in this pattern is that of a modifier. Consequently, this pattern is similar to pattern (1) except that it does not have verb **to be.** Pattern (8) should also be distinguished from Pattern (4) ,in which we have an

intransitive verb followed by an adverbial. For example ,in the sentence **"The baby grew rapidly in size"** we have pattern (4) because we have an intransitive verb with an adverbial and not an adjective.. Some of the common linking verbs are **get, seem, sound, appear ,smell, become, feel, grow ,look, taste ,remain.** In addition to the limited number of common linking verbs ,other verbs not usually considered as linking may sometimes be followed by an adjective and thus conform to Pattern (8) ;e.g. **"Her face went pale** ".The verb **went** in this sentence is not an intransitive verb ,rather it is a linking verb. It can be substituted by **be ,become, or remain** as a test.

3.1. 9:Pattern 9: N 1 LV N 1

This Pattern is similar to Pattern (3) in that both Ns have the same referent . But the verb in this Pattern is not the verb **to be,** rather it must be a linking verb(LV). This pattern may be illustrated by the sentence **My son remained a brilliant scholar.** The number of linking verbs that may occupy the verbal position in this Pattern is very small. Among these are **remain ,stay, seem ,continue ,appear ,become.** As with the second noun in Pattern (3) ,the grammatical meaning of the second noun in this Pattern is "that which identifies the subject, and it is called the subjective complement".((Stageberg,1977: 210) This Pattern must also not be confused with Pattern (5) ,in which the noun after the verb does not have the same referent as the first noun. For example, the sentence **"The man became a doctor "** is Pattern (9) ;while that of **"The man is seeking a doctor "** is Pattern (5). In the former case , we have a linking verb with both nouns having the **same** referent ;but in the latter case we have a

transitive verb followed by a noun with a different referent

Questions

1. How are the first three patterns similar?

2.How are patterns 4,5,6, and 7 similar?

3.How are patterns 8 and 9 similar?

4.How is pattern 7 different from all of the other patterns?

5. How does the subjective complement differ from the object complement?

6. How do patterns 1 and 3 differ from those of 8 and 9?

7.What are intransitive/transitive and ditransitive verbs?

8. Which type of sentences of pattern 5 do not passivize?

Exercise :

(i) After each sentence write the number of the pattern it represents and analyse each sentence syntactically as well as morphologically:

1. Your composition was very good.
2. Mary was in Egypt last year.
3. The man told his son the story.
4. Mary was not a good cook.
5. Mary sang beautifully.
6. John thought the proposal a success.
7. She has been his secretary for three years.
8. The National club won the match.
9. The judges believed Mary the most beautiful girl in the show.
10. The man found him a new job.

11. My son has remained the best football player in town.
12. They designated John the new captain of the team.
13. These men sold these cars last year.
14. My pen is on your desk.
15. They considered her offer an act of kindness.
16. This cake smells so good.
17. They are serious men.
18. He is at Alexandria this week.
19. They remained friends for years.
20. The commitee elected Mary president.
21. The table stood near the carpet.
22. John stood firm to his cause.
23. These students look sleepy.
24.They lay motionless on their beds.
25. You must keep slender.
26. He became a doctor.
27. We saw the man.
28.He seems to be a good fellow.
29.Mary and Anne appeared to be friends to all of us.
30. She remained quietly in her room.

31. You look very sharp today.
32. They looked sharply to the left.
33. He smells terrible.
34. The man looked carefully at the car.
35. He looks careful.
36.They appointed her chairwoman.
37. The student body selected her their representative.
38.The man sold me a hat.
39. They believed John honest.
40. We thought her overworked.
41.We supposed her working.
42. We imagined her upstairs.
43.The company made the man a fine offer.
44. The teacher asked her a question.
45. The librarian found her the book.
46. The servant opened the window.
47.The driver turned sharply.
48..The driver turned the car around.
49.They left when they heard the news.
50.The dinner was over.

(ii) The following sentences are ambiguous because each sentence represents two different patterns. After each sentence write the number of patterns that it represents. Also attempt a syntactic as well as a morphological analysis of these sentences:

1.The manager turned out a drunkard.
2.The woman in the front row looked forward.
3.She is getting her books.
4.The woman gave the library books.
5.They are discouraging transactions.
6.They found her a pig.
7.The man made them well.
8.They accepted Thursday.
9.My son made a good friend.
10.The police looked hard.
11.The committee elected the boy winner.

12.Anne called her mother.
13.He found his wife a helper.
14.The ugliest stood at the end.
15.Whoever desired raised his hand.
16.Now is the time to solve your problems.
17.Under the trees is the best place to sit.
18.That is what I saw.
19.They chose the ugliest.
20.She selected whatever she wanted.
21.He gave whoever came in a bold look.
22.Hard work made him a great scholar.
23.Hard work made him what he is.
24.He can hear from where he is standing.

IV: Chapter Four :Transformational-Generative Grammar

4.1: Morphology

Ben Crane,Yeager and Whiteman(1981:99) say that until recently transformational-generative grammar had little to say about morphology. ;therefore in transformational-generative grammar much of what the structuralists called morphology was covered by powerful theories of phonology and syntax. For example, the variant allomorphs of the plural morpheme that are phonologically conditioned are regarded as pertaining to phonology, rather than to morphology. As for the allomorphs that are morphologically conditioned ,these

are considered as belonging to lexicon. In other words, the **[-s],[-z]** or **[-iz]** allomorphs of the **{S-pl}** morpheme belong to phonology; and those found in **children** and **sheep** belong to the lexicon. Furthermore, "other morphological phenomena were treated "(99) as part of syntax. For example, the derivational affixation deriving the noun **refusal** from the verb **refuse** is regarded as a syntactic rule called a transformation. However, many TG grammarians now regard **refusal** as an item distinct from **refuse** i.e. they do not use syntactic rules to relate the two words. Their relatedness is expressed in the lexicon.

"In short, morphology, was rediscovered in the 1970s, and transformational-generative grammarians are reestablishing its status as a separate component of

grammar."(99). To deal with morphological phenomena ,their grammar contains rules describing productive morphological processes. Ben Crane, Yeager, and Whiteman (1981) say some of these rules rediscovered in the 1970's are: **Word-formation Rules** and **Adjustment Rules.** The former rules allow us to form a verb from an adjective such as **active** , by the addition of a suffix , such as **-ate.** The latter rules allow us to form a noun from a verb , such as **nominate** , by making some adjustment , such as **nominee.** "Adjustment rules change the shape of certain morphemes in the immediate environment of other specific morphemes"(Ben Crane, Yeager, and Whiteman , 1981: 100).

4.2: The Minimalist Program (Chomsky , 1995)

For Chomsky (1995) , the notion of "a universal morphology " has "a certain resonance in recent work."(3) It is in this respect that we should start our discussion with a description of the Categories in the English language.

4.2.1: Categories

4.2.1.1: Lexical Categories

In discussing the status of categories in the Minimalism Program of Chomsky , (1995) , A. Radford (1997) says that "it is traditionally said that sentences are structured out of words, and phrases ,each of which

belongs to a specific *grammatical category.* " (A.Radford,1997:13) He continues to say that each of these words, and phrases "serves a specific *grammatical function* within the sentence containing it." (A.Radford,1997:13) For example, in the sentence *Memories of happiness will fade away* both *Memories* and *happiness* belong to the category of **noun** , *fade is a* **verb,** *will* is an **auxiliary,** *of* is a **preposition** , *away* is traditionally classed as an **adverb**. Also, *Memories of happiness* is classed as a **noun phrase**, and *fade away* is classed as a **verb phrase**. Each of the various constituents_serves a specific grammatical function in the sentence; e.g. *Memories of happiness* is the **subject** of the auxiliary *will* ;whereas *fade away* is the **complement** of the auxiliary *will.*

A. Radford (1997) goes on to say that it is a fact that "all words in the language belong to a restricted set of **grammatical categories".** (A.Radford,1997:29) **A grammatical category** may be defined as "a class of expressions which share a common set of grammatical properties." (A.Radford,1997:29) Evidence in support of postulating that words belong to categories is

morphosyntactic (i.e. morphological and /or syntactic in nature. Morphological evidence comes from the *inflectional* and *derivational* properties of words. Inflectional properties relate to different_forms of the same word (e.g. the plural form of a noun like *cat* is formed by adding the plural inflection +*s* to give the form *cats).* Both forms of the word *cat* have different grammatical functions. Derivational properties relate to the processes by which a word can be used to form a different kind of word by the addition of another morpheme (e.g. by adding the suffix +*ness* to the adjective *sad* we can form the noun *sadness).* Both *sad* and *sadness* are different words , apart from the fact that they are of different categories.

Apart from the above mentioned morphological evidence, there is also the syntactic evidence for assigning words to categories. This evidence essentially relates to the fact that different categories of words have different *distributions* (i.e. occupy a different range of positions within phrases or sentences)." (Radford,1997:31) For example, only a noun, but_not a

verb ,preposition, adjective or preposition can be inserted in the position marked ---- in sentence *They have no* ------ . Similarly, we can differentiate adjectives from adverbs in syntactic terms; i.e. only an adjective can be inserted in the position marked ----- in sentence *They are very* ---- - (i.e. as the complement of the verb *be.* Also, adjectives are used to modify nouns; whereas adverbs are used to modify other types of expressions; e.g. *He is really nice* and *He walks really* ***slowly***. A syntactic property of prepositions is that they permit an immediately following *objective pronoun.* Therefore, "given that different categories have different *morphological* and *syntactic* properties ,it follows that we can use the morphological and syntactic properties of a word to determine its categorization (i.e. what category it belongs to)." (Radford,1997:35)

Another syntactic test which can be used to determine the category that a particular word belongs to is that of **substitution**, which is seeing whether (in a given sentence),the word in question can be substituted

by a regular noun ,verb, preposition, adjective, or adverb. For example ,we can differentiate between comparative adjectives and adverbs ending in *-er* since they have identical forms is by the substitution test: *He is better at French than you/ He is more fluent at French than you* and *He speaks French better than you/ He speaks French more fluently than you.* Thus, our *substitution* test provides us with syntactic evidence that *better* in the former sentence is an adjective ;whereas in the latter sentence it is an adverb.

"It is standard practice to to use capital-letter abbreviations for categories, and so to use **N** for noun, **V** for verb, **P** for proposition, **A** for adjective ,and **ADV** for adverb. The words which belong to these five categories are traditionally said to be **contentives** (or **content words**),in that they have idiosyncratic *descriptive content."* (Radford,1997:37) "In addition to *content words* languages also contain **function words** *(or* **functors***)*-i.e. words which serve primarily to carry information about the grammatical function of particular

types of expressions within the the sentence (i.e. information about grammatical properties such as number, gender person, case,etc)". (Radford,1997:37) For example, *car* is a contentive but *they* is a *function word* because the former word denotes an object ,which can be drawn, but the latter does not: it only denotes a set of grammatical properties in that it is a third person plural nominative pronoun. One way to find out whether words have descriptive content is to see "whether they have *antonyms* (i.e. opposites) :if a word has an antonym, it is a contentive". (Radford,1997:38) For example ,a noun/N such as *loss* has the antonym *gain*; a verb/V such as *rise* has the antonym *fall;* an adjective/A such as *tall* has the antonym *short;* an adverb/ADV such as *early* has the antonym *late;* and a preposition/P such as *inside* has the antonym *outside.* Thus, "nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions typically have descriptive content and so they are contentives". (Radford,1997:38) In other words, "contentives have lexical content"

(Radford,1997:38) ;therefore, they are called **lexical categories.**

4.2.1.2: Functional Categories

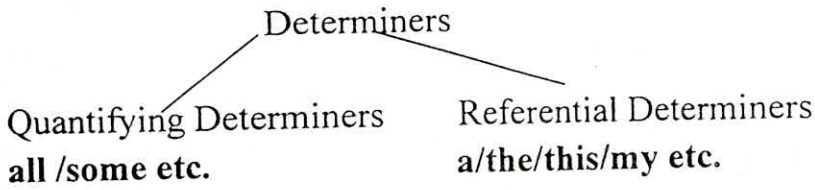
On the other hand, " a particle like infinitival *to* , or an auxiliary like *do* (cf. *Do* you want to smoke?) ,or a determiner like *the* ,or a pronoun like *they* ,or a complementizer (i.e.__complement-clause introducing particle) like *that* (cf. I said *that* I was tired.) have no obvious antonyms". (Radford,1997:38) Therefore, "particles ,auxiliaries, determiners, pronouns, and complementizers are **functional categories** (because words belonging to these categories have essentially grammatical function." (Radford,1997:38)

4.2.1.2.1:Determiners

Looking closer at the main **functional categories** found in English, the first type of functional category Radford (1997) discusses is the category of **determiner** (abbreviated to **D**, or sometimes to **DET**). Items as in the bold-printed in (1) are called determiners because they determine the referential or quantificational properties of the italicized noun expression which follows them:

(1)
(i) I bought **a** *new battery* from **the** *local garage*.
(ii) I prefer **this** *painting* to **that** *photo*.
(iii) **My** *studio apartment* is bigger than **your** *garage*.
(iv) **All** *comedians* tell **some** *bad jokes*.

Quantifying determiners ,such as **all** and **some** ,are sometimes regarded as a subcategory of quantifiers. Referential Determiners refer to a specific entity assumed to be known by the hearer.



A.Radford (1997) goes on to show why determiners are regarded as forming a different category from adjectives.

( ) **Determiners** have a different **distribution** from **Adjectives**:

(i) Determiners may not be stacked together ;whereas adjectives can.

(ii) Determiners must precede adjectives when they are both modifying the same noun; e.g. **My** *nice new* clothes.

(2) It is only a count noun that that is preceded by a determiner that can stand on its own forming an NP ,and not one preceded by an adjective ;e.g. **a** *chair* is an NP ;while *big chair* is not. On the other hand, **a** *big chair* is an NP.

(3) There is a set of determiners that go with countable nouns and a distinct set that goes with non- countable nouns ;but both types of nouns take the same adjectives ;eg **some** *simple and comfortable* furniture/ **a** *simple and comfortable* chair.

(4) As adjectives have "specific descriptive content" (Radford,1997:41), they are subject to semantic and pragmatic anomaly ;eg *a thoughtful friend/?cat/?? fish/ ??? pan /! problem.* This is not the case with determiners e.g. ***a / the/another/ this /my*** *friend/ cat/ fish/ pan / problem.* It is to be noted that *? and !* denote increasing degrees of semantic and pragmatic anomaly.

Consequently, adjectives constitute a lexical category; whereas determiners constitute a functional category. There are also prenominal and pronominal in both types of determiners : referential and quantifying.

4.2.1.2.2: Auxiliaries

The second type of functional category to be discussed is that of **Auxiliary** (abbreviated to **AUX**). Auxiliaries differ from verbs in that verbs take take a range of different types of complements (e.g. a subjectless infintival to-complement as in *I want [to go home]*,an infinitive a subject as in *I want [you to keep quiet]*, or a noun expression as in *I want [lots of money]*. Auxiliaries ,on the other hand, "typically take a verb expression as their complement ,and have the semantic function of marking grammatical properties associated with the relevant verb ,such as *tense ,aspect ,voice, mood or modality* " (A.Radford,1997:44), such as *He **is** coming/ It **is being** made / He **might** come.* As regards syntactic differences between auxiliaries and verbs, the former has the ability to undergo inversion in questions ,may generally be negated , and can appear in sentence-final tags without the dummy **do** , such as *Is he here?, He is not here, He is here, isn't he?.*

The third type of functor found in English is the **infintival particle** *to*. It is called so because the only kind of complement

it will allow is one containing a verb in the *infinitive* form ,which is the verb in its uninflected base form ,i.e. the verb form cited in the dictionary. It is to noted that **infintival particle** *to* "seems to be a dummy (i.e. meaningless) functor with no intrinsic semantic content ,as shown by the following sentences:

(i) I wonder whether to [go home].

(ii) Many people want the government to [change course].

(iii) We do not intend to [surrender].

(iv) * We do not intend *right/ straight* to [surrender].

It is to be noted that Infinitival *to-* is different from the preposition *to* in English:

(a)Prepositional *to* is a contentive with intrinsic semantic content :it means "as far as" ;it tun ,it can be modified by intensifiers like *right/ straight* ,as shown in the following sentences:

(i) He stayed *right* **to the end** of the film.

(ii) He went *straight* **to the police**.

(b) Prepositional *to* (like many other prepositions) takes a noun expression as its complement ;whereas Infinitival *to-* requires a verbal complement ,as shown by the following sentences:

(i) I intend to resign (= verb) /* to resignation (= noun)
(ii) She waited for John to arrive (= verb) /* to arrival (= noun)

© "Genuine prepositions in English only permit following verbal complements when the verb is in the + *ing form (i.e. gerund form)*,and not where the verb is in the uninflected base/infinitive form" (Radford,1997:47) :

(i) Try and do it without complaining /* complain.
(ii) Think carefully before deciding/*decide.

In the late 1970's ,Chomsky suggested that there are significant similarities between Infinitival *to-* and a typical

auxiliary *should.* For Chomsky finite auxiliaries and infinitival *to* are different exponents of the same category **I (or INFL).** (Radford,1997:56) This category which comprises finite auxiliaries and infinitival *to* is labeled by Chomsky in 1981(81) as **INFL** or **inflection** and in 1986b (3) as simply **INFL** or **I**. "The general idea behind this label is that finite auxiliaries inflect for tense/agreement ,and infinitival *to* serves much the same function in English as infinitive inflections in languages like Italian which have overtly inflected infinitives."(Radford,1997:48)

The fourth type of functional category to be discussed is that of **complementizer.** It is abbreviated to **Comp** in earlier work and to **C** in more recent work. This term is used to describe the *subordinating conjunctions* italicized,in the following sentences:

(i) I think [*that* you are right].

(ii) I doubt [*if* you can help me].

(iii) I'm anxious [*for* you to receive the best treatment possible].

(iv) *I think [*that* you **to** be right].

(v) *I'm anxious [*for* you **should** receive the best treatment possible].

The **complementizer** introduces *complement clauses* . It is regarded as a **complementizer** because it " functions as the complement of the word immediately preceding it ;i.e. *think*, *doubt*, and *anxious* in the above sentences. Complementizers are functors in the sense that they encode particular sets of grammatical properties. For example, *that* and *if* are inherently finite in the sense that they can only be used to introduce a finite clause ,and not a non-finite clause. "The term finite verb/clause denotes an auxiliary or non -auxiliary verb or clause which can have a subject with nominative Case like *I/we /he/she/they*."In general, finite verbs carry tense/agreement properties, whereas nonfinite verbs are tenseless and agreementless forms-e.g. infinitive forms like *be*, and *+ing/ +n* participle forms like *being/been* are nonfinite)." (Radford,1997:260) As for *for*, it is an inherently infinitival complementizer ;i.e. it can be used to introduce a clause containing infinitival to ,but not a finite clause.

The above discussed complementizers serve three grammatical functions:

(i) They mark the fact that the clause they introduce is the complement of the word that precedes them.

(ii) They serve to indicate whether the clause they introduce is finite or infinitival.

(iii) They mark the *illocutionary force* (i.e. semantic/pragmatic function) of the clause they introduce. That is, *if* introduces an interrogative clause and *that / for* introduce other types of clauses with *that* introducing a declarative clause.

The words *if / that / for* are regarded as complementizers ,rather *if* as an adverb, *that* as a determiner ,and *for* as a preposition. This is because there are significant differences between complementizers and apparently similar words. For example ,one basic difference between the complementizer *for* and preposition *for* is that the latter has intrinsic semantic content and therefore can be intensified by *right/ straight* ,whereas the former is a dummy functor and can never be so intensified:

(i) He headed *right/ straight* for the doctor.

(ii) *He was anxious *right/ straight* for nobody to leave.

Another difference between the complementizer *for* and the preposition *for* is that the latter can be preposed to the front of the sentence along with its noun expression ;whereas the former cannot:

(i) I will vote for Senator Eastwood.

(ii) For which senator will you vote?

(iii) Which senator will you vote for?

(v) They were anxious for Senator Eastwood to keep his cool.

(v) * For which senator were they anxious to keep his cool?

(vi) * Which senator were they anxious for to keep his cool?

Thus, there seems to be considerable evidence in favor of drawing a categorial distinction between the preposition *for* and the complementizer *for*. (Radford,1997:51)

Similary, there are significant differences between *that* as a complementizer and *that* as a determiner. The former has a reduced vowel ;whereas the latter does not:

(i) *I refuse to believe* ***that*** *(ð æ t) [rumour].*

(ii) *I refuse to believe* ***that*** *(ð ə t)[Randy Rabbit runs Benny s Bunny Bar].*

Apart from such phonological differences (i.e. *that* as a complementizer has a reduced vowel and *that* as a determiner has an unreduced vowel), there are also syntactic differences between the two uses of *that*. Firstly, *that* in its use as a determiner can be substituted by another determiner (such as *this/the*):

(i)*Nobody else knows about* ***that /this /the*** *accident.* (= determiner)

(ii) *I m sure* ***that /*this / *the*** *you are right.* (= complementizer)

Therefore, the clear phonological and syntactic differences between the two uses of *that* argue strongly that the particle *that* which serves to introduce complement clauses should not be analyzed as a determiner. (Radford,1997:52)

If differs from interrogative adverbs like *where/when/whether* not only in its form it does not begin with *wh*), but also in its distribution. Firstly ,typical wh-adverbs can occur in finite and infinitive clauses alike , but *if* complementizer is restricted to introducing finite clauses:

(i) *I wonder* ***[when/where/ whether/ if*** *I should go]* (finite clause)

(ii) *I wonder* ***[when/where/ whether/ *if*** *to go]* (infinitive clause)

Secondly, *if* is different from interrogative *wh* -adverbs in that it cannot introduce a clause which serves as the complement of the preposition.

(i) *I am not certain* ***about [whether/when/where*** *he will go].*

(ii **I am concerned* ***over [if*** *taxes are going to be increased].*

(iii) **I am puzzled* ***at [that*** *he should have resigned].*

Therefore, *if* has been categorized as an interrogative complementizer ,and *where/when/whether* as interrogative adverbs.

Having looked at the characteristics of the major lexical and functional categories found in English ,we can now start to parse (i.e. analyse the grammatical structure of) phrases and sentences. The first step in parsing is to *categorize* each of the words in a phrase by means of **labeled bracketing** in order to indicate what category the word belongs to. It is conventional to use the following capital - letter abbreviations to represent categories:

N =noun V= verb A= adjective ADV= adverb P= preposition D/DET= determiner C/COMP = complementizer I/INFL = auxiliary/infinitival *to*

Accordingly ,we can analyze the following sentence:

[$_N$ Greed] [$_I$ can] [$_V$ trap] [$_A$ careless] [$_N$ politicians]

Thus, a labelled bracket round a particular word is used to indicate the grammatical category which the word belongs to in the particular position it occupies in the phrase or sentence in question ,so allowing for the possibility that the same word may have a different categorial status in other positions in other structures. Radford,1997:54)

Exercises

(1)Discuss the categorization of the italicized words:

i) Nobody *need/dare* say anything.
ii) Nobody *need/dare* to ask questions.
iii) John *is* working hard.
iv) John *may* stay at home.
v) John *has* done it.

vi) John *has* to go there.

vii) John *used* to go there quite often.

vii) It is important *for* parents to spend time with their children.

ix) He was arrested *for* being drunk.

x) We are hoping *for* a peace agreement to be signed.

xi) Ships make *for* the nearest port in a storm.

xii) Congress voted *for* the treaty to be ratified.

xiii) I would prefer *for* the lock to be changed.

xiv) It would be unfortunate *for* the students to fail their exams.

xv) He likes *to* drive *to* work.

xvi) I am looking forward *to* learning *to* drive.

xvii) It is difficult *to* get him *to* work.

xviii) I have never felt tempted *to* turn *to* taking drugs.

xix) Failure *to* achieve sometimes drives people *to* drink.

xx) Try *to* go *to* sleep.

Model Answers

Sentence (i)

"The words *need/dare* resemble modal auxiliaries like *will/shall/can/may/must* in that they lack the third person singular *+s* inflection, and take a *bare* infinitive complement(i.e. a complement containing the infinitive verb form *say* but lacking the infinitive particle *to*)."(Radford,1997:57) They also behave like auxiliaries in that they undergo inversion in questions ,can appear in tags, and can be negated.

(i) *Need/dare anyone say anything?*

(ii) *He need not/dare not say anything ,need /dare he?*

Sentence (viii)

This sentence "is structurally ambiguous as between one analysis on which *for* functions as a preposition ,and a second

on which it functions as a complementizer." (Radford,1997:58) When we have *for* functioning as a complementizer ,then the *for*-clause can be substituted by a *that*-clause.

(i) *It is* ***important that*** *parents should spent time with their children.*

But when *for* functions as a preposition ,the string *for parents* in its interrogative counterpart can be preposed to the front of its containing sentence.

(i)***For how many parents*** *is it important to spend time with their children?*

Sentence (xv)

The first *to* is an infinitive particle ,and the second *to* is a preposition. Thus ,the second *to* (i) can be modified by the prepositional intensifier *straight*; i.e. *He likes to drive* ***straight to*** *work.* Moreover, the second *to* (ii)is a contentive. It has the antonym *from: He likes* ***to drive from*** *work.*(iii)Like a typical transitive preposition ,the second *to* can be followed by an

objective pronoun like ***them***: *They think the only way of getting to their offices is to drive* ***to*** *them.* Accordingly, the second *to* cannot allow ellipsis of its complement ;whereas the first ***to*** does*: He likes* ***to***.

II: Assign to each word a grammatical category by using the labelled bracketing technique:

( ) He was feeling disappointed at only obtaining an average grade in the morphology exercise.

(ii) Student counsellors know that money troubles can cause considerable stress.

(ii) Linguists have long suspected that peer group pressure shapes linguistic behavior patterns in very young children.

(iv) Students often complain to their high school teachers that the state education system promotes universal mediocrity.

Model Answer

Sentence (i)

(i) [D He] [I was] [V feeling] [A disappointed] [P at] [ADV only]

[V obtaining] [D an] [A average] [N grade] [P in] [D the] [N morphology] [N exercise]

It is to be noted that the pronominal is a *determiner* ;and the word *average* functions as an adjective. This is indicated by its ability to be modified by an adverb ,such as *a relatively average grade*. But *morphology* is a noun ;therefore, it may be modified by an adjective, such *inflectional morphology*.

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