ნ.აროშიძე, ნ.მაზმიშვილი

სალექციო კურსი მორფოლოგიაში

Language and Speech Levels

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone
2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex
4. Syntax - minor: sentence
5. Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".(12)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".(12)

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;

2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;

3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;

4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in

speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to

pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound "1" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter “l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one pho- neme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: "lexeme" for language and “lex” for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between “phoneme” and “phone” and “morpheme” and “morph”. “Lexeme” is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on. There may be "allolexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexemes" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morpheme are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The

lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "Sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. *A* letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

Questions:

1. How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue?
2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?
3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?
4. Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?
5. How many basic or primary levels are there in language and speech?
6. What's the difference between language levels and speech levels?
7. Are there special terms for language and speech levels?
8. What does phonetical - phonological level study?
9. What does morphological level study?
10. What does lexicological level study?
11. What does syntax - minor study?
12. What does syntax - major study?
13. Do the levels function separately in speech or they function as one body?
14. What is the function of the word "allo"?

The Grammatical Categories

Problems to be discussed:

- what is categorization
- what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?
- what is "opposition"?
- the types of grammatical categories.

Any research presupposes bringing into certain order the material being studied. The issue under the consideration is also an attempt to generalize the grammatical means of language.

There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin (13) “a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression”. It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning

and grammatical means.

M.Y. Blokh (6), (7) explains it as follows: “As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical "form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called “grammatical opposition s”.

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features:

common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek).

As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed, by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...нинг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (…им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

The doctrines mentioned above one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

One of the most consistent theories of the grammatical categories is the one that is suggested by L. Barkhudarov.

(2),

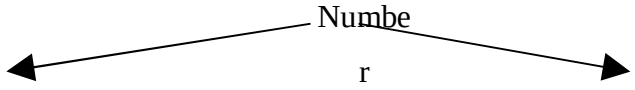
(3) According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;
- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;
- the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:
- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category. English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;
2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;
3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;
4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. Schematically this can be shown as follows:



0 (s), (z), (iz)

singular plural

Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;
2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;
3. They are opposed to each - other;
4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

Questions:

1. Why do we categorize the grammatical meanings?
2. Is there one conception of grammatical categories that is shared by all the scientists or are there many approaches?
3. Whose conceptions on grammatical category do you know?
4. What are the main requirements for the grammatical category?
5. Comment the grammatical categories of case of nouns; voice, aspect, order of verbs.
6. What types of grammatical categories do you know?

The Parts of Speech

Problems to be discussed:

- brief history of grouping words to parts of speech
- contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech
- structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)
- notional and functional parts of

speech

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre - structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form. To this group of scientists H. Sweet (42), O. Jespersen (33), (34), O. Curme (26), B. Ilyish (15) and other grammarians can be included.

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution. The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries (31), (32), W. Francis (30), A. Hill (44) and others.

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25)

One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's (42) classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles

II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head - word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords.

O. Jespersen. (34)

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to

the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should he kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)
2. Adjectives

In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns ".

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)
4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")
5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions-coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' (31), (32) classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1^{st} clause), verb (2^{nd} clause), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words - we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. *So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern*.[1] All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B The clerk remembered the tax

Frame C (suddenly) The team went there

Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert was good

food

coffee

taste...

..

The words of this list he called class I words.

The word “was” and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words. In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

	Class		A	Words
the				concert was
the	a/an	every		
no	my	our		
one	all	both		
that	some	John’		

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

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1 Compare: «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of frames they stand in: *I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert”*

“Language processes” Vivien Tartter. N.Y., 1986, p.89

Group B - modal verbs Group I - interrogative pr-ns
and adverbs Group C - n.p.not Group
J - subordinating conj-s Group D - adverbs of degree
Group K- interjections
Group E - coordinating conj-s. Group L- the words yes and no
Group F - prepositions Group M - attention giving signals look, say, listen
Group G - the aux-v. do Group N - the word please
Group H - introductory there Group O - let us, let in request sentences.

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.

2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.

3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the
money.
The boys have given the money. (32)

Russian grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. His word-groups are:

Notional words	**Function words**
1. Nouns	link - verbs
2. Adjectives	prepositions
	conjunctions
3. Numerals	modifying function words
4. Pronouns	(article, particle)
5. Adverbs	only, even, not
6. Verbs	

R. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria

1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words
2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)
3. Grammatical categories of words.
4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)
5. Their function in a sentence.

Their Classification

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Adlinks (the cat. of state)
8. Modal words
9. Prepositions
10. Conjunctions
11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)
12. Interjections
13. Articles
14. Response words (yes, no) asleep, alive

As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of speech are features 1, 4 and 5. ***B. A. Ilyish (15) distinguishes three criteria***:

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:

a) the method of combining the word with other ones b) the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

1. Nouns
2. Adjective
3. Pronoun
4. Numerals
7. Adverbs
8. Prepositions
9. Conjunctions
10. Particles

5. Statives (asleep, afraid) 11. Modal words

6. Verbs 12. Interjections

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling (4). Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

1. Nouns
2. Articles
3. Pronouns
4. Adjectives
5. Adverbs
6. Numerals
7. Verbs
8. Prepositions
9. Conjunctions
10. Particles
11. Modal words
12. Interjections

We find another approach of those authors to the words of English. All the words are divided into two main classes:

notional words and function - words: connectives, determinatives

Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;

2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional - which are rather distinct.

The Grammatical Structure of a Language

Problems to be discussed

- the meanings of the notion of "Grammatical Structure"
- the lexical and grammatical meanings
- the grammatical structure of languages from the point of view of general linguistics
- the morphological types of languages and the place of the English language in this typology
- the grammatical means of the English language a) the order of words
  b) the functional words
  c) the stress and intonation
  d) the grammatical inflections e) sound changes
  f) suppletion

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that “several actors acted upon some objects”. This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday. The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred

yesterday. Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money

to the boy by the man. "Subject" then is a formal linguistic

structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", “grammatical utterance”. The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

The man landed the jet plane

safely

N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant

morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine…) are of this type.

The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use

of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d …

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like *-s, -ed, -d* are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g.

He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall, will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite - invited - shall invite* we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes *-s, -ed.*

Questions

1. What do you understand by “grammatical structure of a language”?
2. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?
3. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?
4. Describe all the grammatical means of English.
5. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?
6. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?

MORPHEMES AND ALLOMORPHS

Every sentence spoken in every language is built from grammatical atoms called morphemes. A **morpheme** is the "smallest meaningful unit" you can find when you break phrases and words apart. Morphemes can be long like ***annihilate*** or very short like the "past tense" *-(e)d* tacked onto *annihilate**d***.

Morphemes have **allomorphs**, or various ways they show up in a language. In English, *-ed* marks the past tense, but it doesn't always have the same pronunciation. Speakers pronounce it as [t] in *helped*but [d] in *cubed*. Past-tense [t] and [d] are simply two allomorphs of the same past morpheme /d/.

You now have a basic concept of morphemes and allomorphs, but how do you apply this to everyday language? To begin analyzing words, separate morphemes with a hyphen.

English *Amazing! The farmer speaks Latin!*

amaz-ing the farm-er speak-s Latin

Keep in mind that morphemes and allomorphs are identified based on how speakers of a given language build words. Morphemes are language-specific. English speakers cannot break *annihilate* into smaller meaningful units, but Latin speakers could find the historical morphemes *an-nihil-at-e*.

TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Different morphemes have different functions. The morphemes *farm*, *speak* and *amaz(e)* have clear semantic content - if you speak standard English, you know what they mean. But what about less obvious morphemes like -*s* and -*ing*? These morphemes attach to another morpheme to provide it with a grammatical meaning, and are known as **inflectional morphemes**. The grammatical meaning of the inflectional morpheme -*ing* in *amaz-**ing*** is “present participle”.

The case of -*er* in *farm-**er*** doesn't involve the kind of "grammatical meaning" expected from inflectional morphemes. Instead, -*er* creates a new word with a new meaning. While *speaks* and *speak* may be considered a separate form of the same word, *farmer* and *farm* are two different words. Morphemes like -*er* that attach to other morphemes to derive new words are known as **derivational morphemes**.

Notice that morphemes like *speak* and *Latin* can exist on their own - they are **free morphemes**. On the other hand, **bound morphemes** must attach to another morpheme before a speaker can use them. Inflectional and derivational morphemes cannot exist on their own - they are known as **affixes** (from the Latin stem *af-fix* 'fixed to'), and are necessarily bound morphemes.

Affixes that attach before other morphemes are called **prefixes**, including the derivational *pre–* in *pre-fix*. **Suffixes** attach to the end of another morpheme, such as the inflectional -*ed* in *studi-ed*. Since they fall at the end of words, suffixes are also referred to by the informal name **endings**. When written alone, you may see prefixes with a hyphen following the morpheme and suffixes with a hyphen preceding the morpheme.

BASE MORPHEMES AND ATTACHING MORPHEMES

The morpheme that carries the word's central meaning is often called the **root morpheme**. In French, the root *port-* has the meaning 'carry'. French speakers must add inflectional affixes to that root to make it usable, such as *port**er*** '**to** carry', *port**ant*** 'carrying' or *elle port**e*** 'she carri**es**'.

French speakers may add derivational prefixes to the root *port-* to form *ap-port-* 'carry towards'/'bring' and its opposite *em-port-* 'carry away'/'take'. These are derived words, but we do not call them roots - they are **stems** formed from the root *port-*. Again, French speakers must add inflectional affixes to that stem to use it, as in *apport**er*** '**to** bring' or *elle apport**e*** 'she bring**s**'. The morpheme *port-* is the root and stem of *porter*, while *apporter* has the root *port-* and the stem *apport-*.

WAYS OF EXPRESSING GRAMMATICAL CONCEPTS

In this course and especially in the parallel book *Native Grammar*, I will give examples from a variety of languages. Each language handles grammar differently, but we can remark on a few general cross-linguistic tendencies.

A language may grammatically **mark** a word by attaching an affix or placing it near another word with some grammatical meaning. The French word *porté* 'carried' is grammatically marked, but so is the Japanese word 日本語 *nihongo* 'Japanese (language)' in 日本語の本 ***nihongo no*** *hon* (Japanese - possessive affix - book) '(a) **Japanese** book'. Words that do not take such morphemes are **unmarked**.

Keep in mind that unmarked or less marked words may also represent a grammatical concept: the word *mom* is an unmarked singular noun (the plural *mom-s* is marked). Since in this case nothing means something, we can talk about a **zero morpheme** or **null morpheme**, sometimes written as a zero (0). Applying this concept, mom-0 represents the singular (only one mom) while mom-s represents the plural (two or more moms).

A language might explain a feature in words rather than mark it outright. The marked Romanian word *omului* has the root *om* 'person' and an affix *–ului* that marks direction towards. English uses **periphrasis**, Greek for 'speaking around', to translate this single Romanian word: 'to the person'.

A language may also rely on **compounding**, which involves combining two or more words to form a new concept: *keyphrase* simply compounds the noun *key* with another noun *phrase*.

A language may simply appropriate a word from one word class and use it in another, a technique known as **conversion**. For example, the noun *query* (class = N) has also come to be used as a verb *query* (class = V) without undergoing any change in form: *query the database*.

Lastly, a language may use **word order**, or arranging words in a specific way. This is an especially important when considering **basic word order**, which describes the normal arrangement of subjects, verbs and objects in a language. So, English may be considered an SVO (subject-verb-object) language, Classical Latin an SOV language, and Classical Arabic and Modern Irish a VSO language.

CLASSIFYING LANGUAGES BY THEIR WORD-BUILDING TENDENCIES

Some languages, including Indo-European languages like Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, tend to form words by tacking on all kinds of grammatical affixes. We describe these languages as synthetic languages. **Synthetic languages** build words by adding affixes to roots and stems. Synthetic languages are associated with bound morphemes, especially when it comes to content words like nouns and verbs. Consider Caesar's famous quote, in which the verbs 'come', 'see' and 'conquer' are necessarily bound to an affix:

Latin *Ven-i vid-i vic-i.*

'I came, I saw, I conquered.'

Ven-io vid-eo vinc-o.

'I come, I see, I conquer.'

There are two major types of synthesis. **Fusional languages** shove a lot of grammatical information into their affixes. The ending *-i* in the Latin examples above fuses together

information about who conquers and when the conquest takes place. Each affix contains multiple pieces of grammatical information.

More commonly, synthetic languages divide grammatical information into separate affixes. Such **agglutinative languages** often add strings of affixes to form words. Each affix contains one piece of grammatical information.

Turkish *Ev-iniz-de-yiz.*

(house-your-at-we)

'We are at your house.'

Many languages are not synthetic at all, and require few if any affixes. Such languages are **analytic**. In analytic languages, the vast majority of morphemes are individual, usable words in their own right. Modern English has this tendency: *learn* is a root morpheme and a word in its own right, while equivalent Italian root *impar-* must take on affixes that turn it into a usable word, such as *impar**o*** 'I learn' or *impar**are*** 'to learn'. Compare this to a Mandarin Chinese word like 喝 (*hē*) 'drink', which never takes affixes. Analytic languages may employ periphrasis, compounding and word order to convey the kind of information explicitly marked in synthetic languages.

Crucially, all of the terms in this section represent general tendencies rather than exceptionless rules. Languages aren't purely synthetic or analytic. Synthetic languages have words that cannot attach to affixes, while analytic languages may use separate words to mark grammatical function in a way strongly reminiscent of affixation.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Divide the following phrase into morphemes.

I reread the book's ending but it still doesn't make sense.

2) Which morphemes are free and which are bound in the sentence above? Identify the roots, stems and affixes.

3) Based on that same sentence, how would you classify English (among the types of languages introduced above)?

4) English speakers may talk about *many books* (with an [s] sound) but *many songs* (with a [z] sound). What is the relationship between the suffix pronounced [s] and the suffix pronounced [z]?

Additional exercises:

Divide the following words by placing a + between their morphemes.
(Some of the words may be monomorphemic and therefore indivisible.)

Example: replaces = re + place + s

a. retroactive
b. befriended
c. televise
d. margin
e. endearment
f. psychology
g. unpalatable
h. holiday
i. grandmother
j. morphemic
k. mistreatment
l. deactivation
m. saltpeter
n. airsickness
o. bureaucrat
p. democrat
q. aristocrat
r. plutocrat
s. democracy
t. democratic
u. democratically
v. democratization
w. democratize
x. democratizer
y. democratizing
z. democratized

Match each expression under A with the one statement under B that characterizes it.

A	B
a. noisy crow	**(1)** compound noun
b. scarecrow	**(2)** root morpheme plus derivational prefix
c. the crow	**(3)** phrase consisting of adjective plus noun
d. crowlike	**(4)** root morpheme plus inflectional affix
e. crows	**(5)** root morpheme plus derivational suffix
	(6) grammatical morpheme followed by lexical morpheme

Write the one proper description from the list under B for the italicized part of each word in A.

A	B
a. terroriz*ed*	**(1)** free root
b. un*civil*ized	**(2)** bound root
c. terror*ize*	**(3)** inflectional suffix
d. *luke*warm	**(4)** derivational suffix
e. *im*possible	**(5)** inflectional prefix
	(6) derivational prefix
	(7) inflectional infix
	(8) derivational infix

Part One:

Consider the following nouns in Zulu and proceed to look for the recurring forms.

umfazi	'married woman'	abafazi	'married women'
umfani	'boy'	abafani	'boys'
umzali	'parent'	abazali	'parents'
umfundisi	'teacher'	abafundisi	'teachers'
umbazi	'carver'	ababazi	'carvers'
umlimi	'farmer'	abalimi	'farmers'
umdlali	'player'	abadlali	'players'
umfundi	'reader'	abafundi	'readers'

a. What is the morpheme meaning 'singular' in Zulu?
b. What is the morpheme meaning 'plural' in Zulu?
c. List the Zulu stems to which the singular and plural morphemes are attached, and give their meanings.

Part Two:

The following Zulu verbs are derived from noun stems by adding a verbal suffix.

fundisa	'to teach'	funda	'to read'
lima	'to cultivate'	baza	'to carve'

d. Compare these words to the words in section A that are related in meaning, for example, *umfundisi* 'teacher,' *abafundisi* 'teachers,' *fundisa* 'to teach.' What is the derivational suffix that specifies the category verb?
e. What is the nominal suffix (i.e., the suffix that forms nouns)?
f. State the morphological noun formation rule in Zulu.
g. What is the stem morpheme meaning 'read'?
h. What is the stem morpheme meaning 'carve'?

NOUN

Words that provide labels and names for people, things and concepts are known as **nouns**. In fact, the term 'noun' comes from the Old French word for 'name'. In this section, we'll examine the various ways languages look at nouns and consider the basic properties of nouns.

NUMBER

Languages may grammatically count how many people or things are being labeled by marking the noun. This property of the noun is known as **number**. Languages that distinguish singular nouns from plural nouns have two grammatical numbers: singular and plural. Other languages have more grammatical numbers, such as dual (two instances of a noun), collective (when the noun represents a single group) and nullar number (for zero instances of a noun).

English	*a language*	*some language-s*	*no language-s*
	(singular)	(plural)	(nullar)
Ancient Greek	ποῦς *poû-s*	πόδε *pód-e*	πόδες *pód-es*
	'a foot' (singular)	'two feet' (dual)	'feet' (plural)
Japanese	友 *tomo*	友達 *tomo-dachi*	
	'friend(s)' (sing & pl)	'a group of friends' (collective)	

CLASS & GENDER

Languages may divide nouns into categories. This property of categorizing nouns is known as **class**. Class may be related to the meaning of a noun, the form of a noun, or may be largely arbitrary. English does not distinguish noun classes, but check out a few languages that do.

Sesotho	*se-phiri*	*bo-hobe*	*le-loko*
class:	(*se*-)	(*bo*-)	(*le*-)
	'secret'	'bread'	'family'
Kannada	*maga-nu*	*maga-lu*	*pustaka*

class:	(masculine)	(feminine)	(neuter)
	'son'	'daughter'	'book'

One type of class, or feature similar to class, is noun **gender**. Languages with noun gender may separate masculine, feminine and neuter nouns. Keep in mind that gender is a grammatical property, and, depending on the language, may not relate to physiology or meaning. In the Kannada examples above, you can start to see that Kannada ties gender to the meaning of nouns: nouns that label females are feminine, while nouns that do not are not feminine. On the other hand, in Indo-European languages, most feminine nouns label neuter concepts like French *la vie* 'life' or *une maison* 'a house' (both feminine nouns in French). Similarly, languages with masculine nouns do not necessarily insist that a masculine noun is literally male, they only signal that the noun belongs to a specific grammatical category ("masculine").

Spanish	*el cuarto*	*la cas-a*
gender:	(masculine)	(feminine)
	'the room'	'the house'

Swedish	*plats-en*	*hus-et*
gender:	(common (masc + fem))	(neuter)
	'the room'	'the house'

CASE

Languages may mark a noun's use in a sentence, which is called the noun's **case**. Consider again the place of S (subjects) and O (objects) in a sentence. When a noun is

the subject, a language might mark it with the nominative or subject case. When a noun is the object, a language might mark it with the accusative or object case.

Latin *Die-**m** perd-idi.*

day-object lose-past(-I)

'I lost (the) day.'

*Die-**s** fug-it.*

day-subject flee-present

'(The) day is fleeing.'

As you can see, Latin clearly marks the subject noun *dies* with a nominative case suffix and the object noun *diem* with an accusative case suffix. Recall that affixes aren't the only way to mark case - Japanese and Hawaiian mark case with separate small words that sit next to the noun. Also, languages may distinguish further cases, such as the genitive (possessive), as in English *the dog'**s** bone*, or the dative case (for "giving to") seen in Romanian *om-ului* 'to the person' and Latin *homin-ī* 'to the man'.

Languages may mark case formally like Latin. Alternatively, a language may use periphrasis (the way English translates the Romanian dative case *omului* with the phrase 'to the person') or word order (the way English places subjects before verbs and objects after instead of marking them with nominative and accusative case).

For convenience, you can list some or all of the forms of a noun in a language, taking note not only of case but of all of the properties introduced above. To give certain forms of a noun is to **decline** it. For instance, Latin *diem* is the singular accusative form of the masculine noun *dies*.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Identify the properties marked on the following English nouns:

language, languages, language's, languages'

2) The Latin noun *caseus* 'cheese' has the nominative case suffix *-s* like *dies* above. How would you translate 'I lost the cheese'?

3) The German noun *Freundin* '(female) friend' is feminine, *Freund* '(male) friend' is masculine and *Mädchen* 'girl' is neuter. What can you say about German noun gender based on these few examples?

Additional exercises:

Consider these Swedish noun forms:

en lampa	'a lamp'	en bil	'a car'
en stol	'a chair'	en soffa	'a sofa'
en matta	'a carpet'	en tratt	'a funnel'
lampor	'lamps'	bilar	'cars'
stolar	'chairs'	soffor	'sofas'
mattor	'carpets'	trattar	'funnels'
lampan	'the lamp'	bilen	'the car'
stolen	'the chair'	soffan	'the sofa'
mattan	'the carpet'	tratten	'the funnel'
lamporna	'the lamps'	bilarna	'the cars'
stolarna	'the chairs'	sofforna	'the sofas'
mattorna	'the carpets'	trattarna	'the funnels'

a. What is the Swedish word for the indefinite article *a* (or *an*)?
b. What are the two forms of the plural morpheme in these data? How can you tell which plural form applies?
c. What are the two forms of the morpheme that make a singular word definite, that is, correspond to the English article *the*? How can you tell which form applies?
d. What is the morpheme that makes a plural word definite?
e. In what order do the various suffixes occur when there is more than one?
f. If *en flicka* is 'a girl,' what are the forms for 'girls,' 'the girl,' and 'the girls'?
g. If *bussarna* is 'the buses,' what are the forms for 'buses' and 'the bus'?

Here are some nouns from the Philippine language Cebuano.

sibwano	'a Cebuano'
ilokano	'an Ilocano'
tagalog	'a Tagalog person'
inglis	'an Englishman'
bisaja	'a Visayan'
binisaja	'the Visayan language'
ininglis	'the English language'
tinagalog	'the Tagalog language'
inilokano	'the Ilocano language'
sinibwano	'the Cebuano language'

a. What is the exact rule for deriving language names from ethnic group names?
b. What type of affixation is represented here?
c. If *suwid* meant 'a Swede' and *italo* meant 'an Italian,' what would be the words for the Swedish language and the Italian language?
d. If *finuranso* meant 'the French language' and *inunagari* meant 'the Hungarian language,' what would be the words for a Frenchman and a Hungarian?

VERB

Very roughly, **verbs** are action words. Rather than label or name, they state what happens or what is done. Below we will explore grammatical properties of verbs, coupled with examples from languages that explicitly demonstrate those properties in their verbs.

PERSON, NUMBER & GENDER

Like nouns, verbs can reflect grammatical number and gender. At its core, this is no different from the number and gender introduced when we discussed nouns above.

Latin	*da**t***	*da**nt***
	'gives' (singular)	'give' (plural)
Polish	*mówi**ł***	*mówi**ła***

	'speaks' (masculine)	'speaks' (feminine)

Verbs often display another property called person. Don't let the term confuse you - **person** refers to the level of remove from the speaker. The speaker is the first person, the addressee is the second person and the third person represents others spoken about. Person and number tend to combine to form a full set of persons, which we'll hash out later when we study pronouns.

Catalan	*parl**o***	'I speak' (1st person singular)
	*parl**es***	'you speak' (2nd person singular)
	*parl**em***	'we speak' (1st person plural)
	*parl**eu***	'you all speak' (2nd person plural)

As is true of every property we've seen, some languages have a grammatical way of indicating person, gender & number, while other languages do not. In Japanese, for instance, verbs are not marked for person, number or gender: *yomu* 'read' can refer to any person, any number and any gender. Likewise, English verbs in the past tense are unmarked when it comes to these properties.

TENSE

The **tense** of a verb refers to the time when the action takes place when that time is presented grammatically. Many languages frequently display this information in their verbal morphology.

Spanish	*habl**a***	*hab**ó***	*habl**ará***
	'speaks' (present)	'spoke' (past)	'will speak' (future)

	話します	話しました
Japanese	*hanash**imasu***	*hanash**imashita***
	'speaks'/'will speak' (nonpast)	'spoke' (past)

ASPECT

The verb's **aspect** refers to the frequency or the duration of an action. This information is grammatically marked in a number of languages. Languages often make a basic distinction between complete one-time actions (called "perfective" from Latin *perfectum* 'done through' or 'carried out'), and ongoing or incomplete actions (labeled "imperfective"). Other aspects include the "progressive" (for actions in progress at a given time, like *was studying*) or the "frequentative" (actions done over and again like *keep studying*). Crucially, pay attention to the difference between aspect and tense.

Spanish	*habl**ó***	*habl**aba***
	'spoke' (perfective)	'used to speak' (imperfective)

Hawaiian	*ʻale*	***ʻale** ʻale*
	'form a wave' (unmarked/default aspect)	'form ripples' (frequentative)

MOOD

Languages may indicate the verb's **mood**, which is the speaker's manner of construing the action. Common moods may relate facts or declarations (the so-called factitive, realis, indicative or declarative moods), ask questions (the interrogative mood) or make

counter-to-fact statements (subjunctive, optative, conditional, irrealis and many other moods). Few languages mark very many moods (English uses "modal verbs" like *can* or *should* to stand in for most of these ideas), but languages the world over have a cumulative variety of ways to express mood.

Latin	*am**as***	*ut am**es***	*am**a***
	'you love' (indicative)	'that you may love' (subjunctive)	'love!' (imperative)
Japanese	*yom**imasu***	*yom**imasen***	*yom**emasu***
	'(does) read' (affirmative)	'doesn't read' (negative)	'can read' (potential)

VOICE

The verb's **voice** refers to the level of participation in an action. In languages that distinguish formal voice, it is a morphological feature marked on verbs. The active voice involves the direct participation of an actor or agent. The passive voice indicates that the verb's action is done to a participant or "patient".

Latin	*am**o***	*am**or***
	'I love' (active)	'I am loved' (passive)
Japanese	*yom**imasu***	*yom**areru***
	'reads' (active)	'is read' (passive)

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Identify all of the verb properties reflected in the following English phrases:

she is reading, I stopped, do you know?, it was made, you must leave

2) Break the previous phrases into morphemes. In each case, explain how English represents the properties we discussed.

3) We can list specific forms of verbs in languages that formally mark their verbs, and such a process is called verb **conjugation**. For which of the following concepts can you conjugate the English verb *talk*, and which must be represented with periphrasis?

past indicative active, imperfect (= past tense + imperfective aspect), present progressive indicative active, third person singular present indicative active

Addition al exercises:

The following infinitive and past participle verb forms are found in Dutch.

Root	Infinitive	Past Participle	
wandel	wandelen	gewandeld	'walk'
duw	duwen	geduwd	'push'
stofzuig	stofzuigen	gestofzuigd	'vacuum-clean'

With reference to the morphological processes of prefixing, suffixing, infixing, and circumfixing discussed in this chapter and the specific morphemes involved:

a. State the morphological rule for forming an infinitive in Dutch.
b. State the morphological rule for forming the Dutch past participle form.

Below are some sentences in Swahili:

mtoto	amefika	‘The child has arrived.’
mtoto	anafika	‘The child is arriving.’
mtoto	atafika	‘The child will arrive.’
watoto	wamefika	‘The children have arrived.’
watoto	wanafika	‘The children are arriving.’
watoto	watafika	‘The children will arrive.’
mtu	amelala	‘The person has slept.’
mtu	analala	‘The person is sleeping.’
mtu	atalala	‘The person will sleep.’
watu	wamelala	‘The persons have slept.’
watu	wanalala	‘The persons are sleeping.’
watu	watalala	‘The persons will sleep.’
kisu	kimeanguka	‘The knife has fallen.’
kisu	kinaanguka	‘The knife is falling.’
kisu	kitaanguka	‘The knife will fall.’

visu	vimeanguka	'The knives have fallen.'
visu	vinaanguka	'The knives are falling.'
visu	vitaanguka	'The knives will fall.'
kikapu	kimeanguka	'The basket has fallen.'
kikapu	kinaanguka	'The basket is falling.'
kikapu	kitaanguka	'The basket will fall.'
vikapu	vimeanguka	'The baskets have fallen.'
vikapu	vinaanguka	'The baskets are falling.'
vikapu	vitaanguka	'The baskets will fall.'

One of the characteristic features of Swahili (and Bantu languages in general) is the existence of noun classes. Specific singular and plural prefixes occur with the nouns in each class. These prefixes are also used for purposes of agreement between the subject noun and the verb. In the sentences given, two of these classes are included (there are many more in the language).

a. Identify all the morphemes you can detect, and give their meanings.

Example: -toto 'child'
m- prefix attached to singular nouns of Class I
a- prefix attached to verbs when the subject is a singular noun of Class I

Be sure to look for the other noun and verb markers, including tense markers.

b. How is the verb constructed? That is, what kinds of morphemes are strung together and in what order?

c. How would you say in Swahili:
(1) "The child is falling."
(2) "The baskets have arrived."
(3) "The person will fall."

PRONOUN

Pronouns stand in for nouns. They often allow speakers to reference a noun without repeating or explicitly labeling it. As you will see, this doesn't mean that pronouns are entirely dependent on nouns - they hold their own in most sentences without any specific tie to any specific noun. Instead, pronouns may refer back to a noun already mentioned, like in English *John installed the patch, and **it** fixed the problem*. Pronouns may also gesture towards a person or thing (or people or things) without refering back to a specific noun, as in ***they** haven't found the gene that explains all of human*

language. Note that these two examples stray into the use of pronouns in a sentence rather than the forms that pronouns take, which will be the focus of this section.

PERSON, NUMBER & GENDER REVISITED

We would expect the fundamentals of pronouns to work a lot like nouns. If you continue to study syntax, you will learn more about the differences between nouns and pronouns. Still, for our basic understanding of morphology, it's helpful to notice that pronouns often share the properties of number and gender.

Spanish	*él*	*ella*
	'he' (masculine)	'she' (feminine)
	ellos	*ellas*
	'they' (masculine)	'they' (feminine)

English *he* refers to males, *she* to females and *it* to nonhuman or inanimate "neuter" words. In languages like French and Spanish, which distinguish only masculine and feminine gender, the pronoun used for apparently "neuter" words corresponds to the grammatical gender of the noun: French *elle*means both 'she' for females and 'it' for feminine nouns. Of course, many languages fail to distinguish pronominal gender at all (the way the same English pronoun *you* refers to any addressee regardless of gender).

Unlike nouns in most languages, pronouns often distinguish person (although consider examples of languages that mark person on nouns like the Uto-Aztecan languages). Not only does English have a pronoun for a single person being spoken about (3rd person singular *(s)he*), but it also has a pronoun for the person spoken to (2nd person singular *you*) and the speaker (1st person singular *I*).

Iraqi Arabic	*aani*	*inte*	*huwwe*

'I' (masc & fem)	'you' (masculine)	'he'
	inti	*hiyye*
	'you' (feminine)	'she'

CASE REVISITED

Pronouns may also follow the noun's lead and distinguish grammatical case. English nouns are impoverished when it comes to morphological (formal) case marking, but our pronouns still manage to distinguish case quite clearly: *I* is used as the subject (nominative case), but *me* as an object (accusative case). Compare examples of case-marked pronouns in Classical Greek and English.

Ancient Greek	ἐγώ *egó*	'I' (nominative)
	ἐμέ *emé*	'me' (accusative)
	ἐμοῦ *emoû*	'of me' (genitive)
	ἐμοῖ *emoî*	'to me' (dative)

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) List the nominative case singular, accusative singular, genitive singular and nominative plural forms of the English second person pronoun.

2) List the same forms of the first person pronoun in English.

3) How many genders does the English third person pronoun reflect in the singular? What about in the plural?.

4) Look at the Arabic data above. For which persons does the Arabic pronoun mark gender, and for which does it not?

ADJECTIVES

Many languages have words whose primary purpose is description. Words that describe are called **adjectives**. Examples of adjectives in English include *easy* in *an easy language*, and *brown* and *fuzzy* in *fuzzy, brown dog*.

THE WAY ADJECTIVES WORK

Not all languages have adjectives. Among languages with adjectives, two general trends appear. Some languages treat adjectives rather like nouns. Latin adjectives decline for gender, number and case: *bon-us* 'good' (masculine nominative singular) but *bon-arum* 'of the good (ones)' (feminine genitive plural).

Other languages treat adjectives more like verbs. More specifically, adjectives in such languages act like **stative verbs**, because they indicate states like 'be sad' or 'is ready'. Compare some examples from Japanese, which has both noun-like and verb-like adjectives.

		本屋は可愛い。 *hon'ya wa **kawaii***
Japanese	可愛い本屋 ***kawaii** hon'ya*	
	'(a) **cute** bookstore'	'the bookstore **is cute**'
	熱い! ***atsui!***	熱いです ***atsui** desu!*
	'(It) **is hot**!'	'(It) is **hot**!'

A last point to consider is that many languages have productive ways of forming adjectives. For instance, adjectives may be formed from verbs, and in this vein **participles** represent an adjective-like form of a verb. English derives participles through affixation: the present participle morpheme *-ing* is suffixed to *sing* in the phrase *the **singing** parrot*.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Do English adjectives work more like nouns or verbs? Give some examples and defend your position.

2) I mentioned that Latin adjectives decline for number and gender. Attempt to explain the role number and gender could play in forming an adjective. Start with this basic question: to what would the number and gender of, say, a feminine singular adjective refer?

Additional Exercises:

One of the characteristics of Italian is that articles and adjectives have inflectional endings that mark agreement in gender (and number) with the nouns they modify. Based on this information, answer the questions that follow the list of Italian phrases.

un uomo	'a man'
un uomo robusto	'a robust man'
un uomo robustissimo	'a very robust man'
una donna robusta	'a robust woman'
un vino rosso	'a red wine'
una faccia	'a face'
un vento secco	'a dry wind'

a. What is the root morpheme meaning 'robust'?
b. What is the morpheme meaning 'very'?
c. What is the Italian for:
  (1) 'a robust wine'
  (2) 'a very red face'
  (3) 'a very dry wine'

PARTICLES

Particles are usually small, invariable words that play a grammatical function but have little content. The English words *and*, *to*, *well*, *if* and *ouch* may be classified as particles.

PLACEMENT OF PARTICLES

Many particles have a fixed place next to a word that they clearly relate to, and such words are known as **adpositions**. The fixed place of an adposition may be in front of another word, in which case the word is a **preposition**. The English word *to* in *to the beach* is a preposition, but so is the Maori object case marker *i* in *te kōrero i te reo* (the speaking object the language) 'speaking the language' (where *reo*'language' is marked as object). Likewise, adpositions placed after a word are known as **postpositions**, such as the Japanese object marker *wo* in 本を読む *hon wo yomu* (book object read) 'to read the book' (where 本 *hon* 'book' is marked as object).

TYPES OF PARTICLES

Particles that specify nouns are commonly known as **articles**. The **definite articles** specify a certain noun, such as English *the* in *the language of the Romans*. The **indefinite article** specifies one instance or some instances of a noun, such as *a* and *some* in *a language of some tribes*. Not all languages have articles. Some have one type but not the other - Irish has singular definite article *an* and plural *na* only, while Latin, Russian and Chinese have no articles whatsoever.

Particles may instead relate to entire phrases. **Conjunctions** link words or phrases, and include words like English *and* in *burgers and fries* or Latin *sed* in *fide sed qui vide* 'trust but watch whom (you trust)'.

Many particles simply express an emotion. Such emotive words are known as **interjections**, and include words like French *aïe !* 'ouch!', *bof !* 'shrug!' and *hélas !* 'alas!'.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Identify and list three English examples containing prepositions.

2) What are the similarities between postpositions and suffixes? What are the differences?

3) List three conjunctions and three interjections not mentioned above.

CLAUSES AND PHRASES

For the most part, the properties we examined in the previous sections all applied to individual words. We briefly dissected the various parts of speech and considered the kinds of grammatical properties individual morphemes may display. In this last section, we will take a look at the kinds of relationships that link words but still have some morphological impact on individual words.

POSSESSION

Languages often have some explicit way of marking **possession**, a tight relationship between two words which often asserts a kind of ownership. English nouns and pronouns both mark possession outright. Singular nouns add the suffix *-'s* (like *John's* or *the car's*), while pronouns take a different form (like *mine* for *I*). Pronoun-derived possessive adjectives like *my* allow us to construct a pronominal parallel to "apostrophe s" statements: *John's book* or *his book*.

When we discussed cases, you learned about the genitive case. Languages that have a genitive case tend to use that case to show possession, as in Latin *pil-a puer-i* (ball-nominative boy-genitive) 'the boy's ball'. Languages may instead show possession using periphrasis, as most of the Romance languages do: compare Italian *il libro di Anna*, Portuguese *o livro de Ana* or colloquial Romanian *cartea de Ană*, all meaning (the book of Anna) 'Anne's book'.

AGREEMENT

When two words must share the same properties, they **agree** with one another. For instance, we've noticed that both nouns and verbs may mark grammatical number, like

singular and plural in English. Crucially, the verb doesn't mark grammatical number in isolation from other words - the verb's number must agree with the number of the subject noun.

English	*My friend-**0** speak-**s** many languages.*	*Your friend-**s** speak-**0** one language.*
	(singular noun + singular verb + plural object)	(plural noun + plural verb + singular object)

GOVERNMENT

When one word must comply with a certain property because of another, the second word is said to **govern** the former. This traditional definition is best seen through examples. In the sentence *the dog saw me*, the first person pronoun must be put into the accusative case to be used as the object of the verb *see*. The classical way of talking about this situation is to state that the verb *see* governs the accusative case.

Notice a key difference between this definition of government and our definition of agreement. When two words agree, they share the same form of the same property. When one word governs another, the governed word alone must comply with a grammatical property (the word *see* from our previous example does not take the property of "object case", but the pronoun it governs does).

MODIFICATION

When one word describes or qualifies another word, the former is known as a **modifier**. We've already learned about adjectives, which modify nouns. Another class of words tends to modify verbs, earning them the name **adverbs**. The Italian adjective *buono* 'good' modifies the noun *giorno* 'day' in *un buon giorno* 'a good day' while the adverb *bene* 'well' modifies the verb *parlare* 'speak' in *io non so parlare bene* 'I don't know (how) to speak well'.

TRANSITIVITY

Some verbs take accusative objects, while others do not. Verbs that take such "direct objects" are **transitive**, while those that do not are **intransitive**. The transitive verb *see* takes a direct object (consider again *the dog sees me*). The intransitive verb *go* does not (we cannot say "the dog goes me").

Keep in mind that this treatment of transitivity is far too basic to account for the more complex issues that arise in syntax.

TOPIC AND FOCUS

Topicalization brings one element to the forefront of a sentence, making it the topic of that sentence. This often involves periphrasis, movement or some other form of marking the topic. Yet many languages explicitly mark topics with an affix or a particle, as seen in these Japanese examples.

	本は私のです。	私は本が好きです。
Japanese	*hon **wa** watashi no desu*	*watashi **wa** hon ga suki desu*
	(book topic I genitive is)	(I topic book subject like is)
	'The book is mine.' ('As for the book, it is mine.')	'I like the book.' ('As for me, the book is a like.')

The **focus** (or **comment**) relates to information presented in the topic (or other previous information if the sentence has no topic). In English, focus may be brought to the surface by emphasis or periphrasis (consider ***John was the one** she told* or *she told **JOHN*** as answers to the question *who did she tell?*). In the Japanese examples above, we can clearly separate the topic from the focus (topic: *hon wa* versus comment: *watashi no desu*).

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Is the verb *keep* transitive or intransitive? Use the concept of government to explain how you know this, and give an example.

2) Spanish speakers may optionally topicalize material in existential statements like *para los viajeros no hay manera de llegar* (for the travelers not there's way of arrive) 'there's no way for the travelers to get there'. What is the topic and what is the focus of that sentence? How might you replicate the topicalization in the English translation?

3) I mentioned that English has a set of pronoun-derived possessive adjectives like *my* and *our*. Besides possession, what is the relationship between the possessive adjective and the possessed noun?

CLAUSES

This time we're moving from the form of words (morphology) to the arrangement of words into sentences. **Sentences** are characterized by words that share a structure & form a single expression. In English and many other languages, sentences end in some form of punctuation. Still, what we'll focus on here is the grammatical structure, not their graphical representation.

English *He wrote the book on the subject.*

Modern Greek *Δεν ξέρω πως να το πω.*

'I don't know how to say it.'

Japanese あの人は日本語が出来ます。

'He speaks Japanese.'

I'll use the terms "grammar" and "grammatical" in these lessons, but they're different than how you may have heard them used in the past. In linguistics the clearest point of comparison is the speech of native speakers of a language, not a set of judgments from a grammarian or a teacher. That touches on a longstanding debate in linguistics. Depending on your perspective, you might check if a sentence is grammatical by asking a native speaker to judge the sentence. Or you might check against other examples in that language instead.

A simple way to conceive of grammar at this point is to treat it as a set of rules that allows you either to accurately describe or produce sentences in a specific language.

Grammatically, a sentence contains at least one clause. A single clause is in some ways a kernel sentence. 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 main verb in a clause is typically a **finite verb**, which means that the verb reflects something about the subject, the doer of the action. It usually has tense or aspect - some way of indicating when or how the action takes place, such as *play-s* in *he plays the guitar*. **Non-finite verbs** include infinitives like *to play* along with participles & gerunds like *playing*.

subject	**predicate**
Her friend	*speaks many languages.*
	(finite verb *speaks*)
You	*have never understood it.*
	(finite verb *have* + non-finite *understood*)

TYPES OF CLAUSES

Clauses come in a variety of shapes and sizes. A **matrix clause** or **independent clause** contains a non-finite verb and can stand as an expression on its own. A **dependent clause** or **complement clause**contains a finite verb, but is structured to be attached to a main clause. Dependent clauses often have some introductory word like *that* or *if*, which hint that the clause needs to chain to an independent clause to form a complete sentence. A **small clause** occurs as part of another clause and often contains a finite verb or no verb whatsoever.

matrix clause	**dependent clause**	**small clause**
He saw the film.		
She told us	*that he'd stay.*	
We considered it		*(to be) a thing of beauty.*

Dependent clauses are sometimes dubbed "subordinate clauses". Independent clauses might also be called "main clauses".

You may choose to classify clauses based on the kind of information they share. **Relative clauses** give more information about a noun, such as *I knew* in *you're not the man **I knew***. **Interrogative clauses** ask a question directly (*he asked, **"Are you happy?"***) or indirectly (*he wonders **whether you are happy***). **Existential clauses** in English typically begin with *there is* or *there are*. Conditional or hypothetical statements contain a **protasis** (if...) and an **apodosis** (then...).

Who is he?	(direct interrogative clause)
...who he is.	(indirect interrogative clause)
There's a mouse in this house!	(existential clause)
...that I saw yesterday	(relative clause)

If you knew Latin... (protasis)

...you would be able to conjugate that verb. (apodosis)

Of these, notice that the apodosis, existential and direct interrogative clauses are independent in their structure. The others are subordinate clauses.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Is the verb finite or non-finite in the following phrases?

the dog ran fast, I don't know, to be real, he is happy about it

2) How many clauses can you find in the following sentences?

a) *There's a lot here.*

b) *He asked me if I arrived safely.*

c) *If you can't find your way, please ask for help.*

3) In the examples from the last question, which clauses are dependent? Which are independent?

4) Label the clauses you found above based on the type of information they share.

Phrases vs. Dependencies

Phrases and their parts

A more consistent way to tackle sentences is to divide words into phrases. Phrases allow us to group words together into broader units, where each group of words acts as its own unit. Every phrase has a **head**, which is the main content word or the main function word in the phrase. So a **noun phrase** is based around a **noun**, a **verb phrase** is based around a **verb** and a **prepositional phrase** is based around a **preposition**.

Phrases have three core parts. The first part is the head, the main word mentioned above. The second part is the **complement**, which may be optional and usually occurs right next to the head. (It's "adjacent to" the head.) The third part is the **specifier**, which qualifies the head in some way.

If words are required to complete a phrase once the head and specifier are in place, then those words are complements. For example, the noun phrase *the store* completes the prepositional phrase *to...*, making the noun phrase a complement of the prepositional phrase.

Modifiers are clearly optional elements (like adjectives and adverbs) that sit to the left or the right of the head, but not usually closer than the complement and not as far as the specifier. Let me give you an example: in *the red car*, the word *car* is clearly the noun in the noun phrase. So it's the head word of that noun phrase. *Red*, which occurs right next to the noun, modifies the noun (it's an adjective). The word *the* specifies the noun.

head	**+ complement**	**+ modifier**	**+ specifier**
saw	*saw* ***it***	*saw it* ***today***	
box		***unopened*** *box*	***her*** *unopened box*
on	*on* ***the table***		

TYPES OF PHRASES

As mentioned above, phrases are named after their heads. A noun phrase is headed by a noun, a verb phrase by a verb and a prepositional phrase by a preposition. We often abbreviate phrases: NP for noun phrase, VP for verb phrase, PP for prepositional phrase, and S for sentence. Consider some examples.

example	phrase type
the Spanish book	NP (noun phrase)
the Spanish book	NP (noun phrase)
in the Spanish book	PP (prepositional phrase)
goes to the store	VP (verb phrase)
gives it to him	VP (verb phrase)

Study those sample phrases for a moment. Each phrase contains classes of words you're already familiar with from the morphology lessons. We can see that a noun phrase in English necessarily contains a noun N and may include a specifier (the, an, his) and a modifier (Spanish). Similarly, a verb phrase contains a verb V and its complements (her, to the store). A prepositional phrase contains a preposition P and a complement (the Spanish book).

EMBEDDING PHRASES

There's something else going on in those examples above. Look again at the PP *in the Spanish book*. Let's strip that example down to *in the book*. I've said that the head of that phrase is a preposition *in*, which makes *the book* a complement of the PP *in the book*. But didn't I also claim that *the book* is a noun phrase with a head noun *book*?

When we reason this way, we stumble upon a key feature of phrases: they can be built into other phrases. In other words, we embed phrases within phrases. From this perspective, all of syntax is simply a complex system of constituents embedded into phrases embedded into larger phrases. This makes our approach to clauses and sentences more systematic.

This kind of phrase-within-phrase **embedding** is a key feature of phrases. You'll notice that phrases will build up into other phrases which will then build up into larger and

larger phrases until we get to a sentence which is itself an entire phrase. So, all of these are grammatically connected units.

The phrase *in the book* is an English example of a phrase embedded into another phrase. Prepositional phrases have a head word, a preposition. English prepositions include words that show temporal/spatial relation, like *to, for* and *under*. A preposition is used with a noun, and that noun is part of a noun phrase even if it's a noun in its own right (like *beside Amir*).

To make your understanding crystal clear, let's rebuild the prepositional phrase *in the book* from its component parts. We start with a noun *book*. That noun is the head of a noun phrase *book* (0 book), with no specifier. It's also the head N in the NP *the book*, with a specifier *the*. We've now built the NP *the book*.

A prepositional phrase like *in* ____ contains a head preposition, but stands incomplete without a complement. We can embed the NP *the book* into the prepositonal phrase to get *in the book*. Crucially, notice that the two phrases don't stand side by side as parallel words, instead the noun phrase embeds into the prepositional phrase.

book	N (only)
the book	NP (specifier + N)
in the book	PP (preposition + NP)

This is a key feature for building sentences. When we use phrases to look at the structure of grammar, this is how languages build sentences.The noun phrase is embedded into the prepositional phrase.

BRACKETING PHRASES

How do we display this embedding, hierarchical structure visually? One way to to do it is with brackets. This is straightforward with simple examples like the prepositional phrase *to the store*. We'll put each phrase into a set of brackets. So, we can enclose the entire noun phrase *the store* in brackets. After that, we put the entire prepositional

phrase *to the store* in its own set of brackets. That allows us to write out the structure of phrases so that we can analyze them and discuss the syntax behind them.

My words aren't clear enough. The examples below visually demonstrate how one phrase embeds into another. The [brackets] to open and close a syntactic unit, however large or small. Let's build the prepositional phrase *to the store*, this time with brackets.

[store] [N]

[the [store]] [NP [N]]

[to [the [store]]] [PP [NP [N]]]

Let's build two entire sentences to help you grasp the application of this concept. Recall that S stands for sentence.

[milk] [NP]

[bought [milk]] [VP [NP]]

[you][bought [milk]] [NP][VP [NP]]

[[you][bought [milk]]] [S[NP][VP [NP]]]

[bone] [N]

[his [bone]] [NP[N]]

[fetches [his[bone]]] [VP[NP[N]]]

[the [dog]][fetches [his[bone]]] [NP[N]][VP[NP[N]]]

[[the[dog]][bought [milk]]] [S[NP[N]][VP[NP[N]]]]

Notice that I've still kept a parallel division between the subject [you]/[the dog] and the predicate [bought milk]/[fetches his bone]. However, subjects and predicates are bracketed together, side by side, in the S. Also, you are not obliged to bracket every

possible piece of a phrase. If we're talking generally about the entire PP *in the book*, it makes sense to represent the PP simply: [in the book]. On the other hand, if we're analyzing how the NP [the book] embeds into the PP, it's best to set that NP apart with brackets: [in [the book]].

Finally, consider that we could scrutinize the VP just as much as the NP. We could begin with the V [bought], then embed that into the VP [[bought][milk]].

BRACKETING PHRASES

We've focused entirely on phrases, but there's a competing model of basic sentence structure. Instead of looking for swappable chunks of language, we can consider how words depend on each other.

A simple phrase analysis of *my boss ate soup* begins by breaking the sentence into a subject noun phrase [my boss] and a predicate verb phrase [ate soup], where the predicate breaks down further into head verb and the verb's object.

[my boss ate soup] [S]

[[my boss][ate soup]] [[NP][VP]]

[[my[boss]][ate[soup]]] [[NP[N]][VP[V]]]

In a dependency analysis on the other hand, the verb has a subject and an object that depend on it. Without a main verb, you don't need a subject of a main verb, nor a verb object. So the subject and the object depend on the main verb, and this link is called a **dependency**. So, *my boss ate soup* has a verb *ate*, and a *boss* and a *soup* that link to the verb. The noun *boss*, in turn, has a word *my*that links to it.

my boss ate soup ate

/\

boss soup

|

my

These dependencies keep the discussion at the level of the words and their relationship to one another rather than abstracting up to larger phrase units. Crucially, though, they do not break sentences into subject (the doer of the action) and the predicate (the action and everything acted upon).

Take one more example: *to the store*. The preposition *to* has a dependency that goes towards *store*, and the article *the* depends on the noun *store* governed by the preposition.

to the store to

\

store

/

the

Phrases and dependencies are two ways of breaking syntax down into the smallest relationship between words. Once you understand them, it's time to move onto the next lesson.

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Identify the head of the following phrases, and name the type of phrase:

at the store, read the book, I, a tough question, the man in the mirror

2) What is the specifier, modifier and complement in each of the phrases in the last question?

3) Bracket the sentences below following the examples under embedding & bracketing above:

a) *The fastest runner finished the race in five minutes.*

b) *He speaks Gaelic.*

c) *I learned some syntax on this site.*

4) Test your intuitions on dependencies. Each of the following examples contains two words, one of which is the word *syntax*. Does the word *syntax* depend on the other word, or does the other word depend on *syntax*?

a) *study syntax*

b) *some syntax*

c) *besides syntax*

WORD ORDER

BASIC WORD ORDER

Words are arranged in different ways in different languages, and even in different types of sentences in the same language. This gets called "word order". There are three components that we look at when we describe the basic word order of a language: the subject word, the object word and the verb (subjects, objects, verbs). In English, basic sentences have the order subject-verb-object (*the dog ate the bone* or *he saw me*).

Once we identify a subject, a verb and an object we can consider their arrangement. Many, many languages have the basic word order Subject – Verb – Object. In other words, the subject comes first, followed by a Verb, and the Verb is followed by its Object. This is often shortened to SVO. Another common configuration is Subject – Object – Verb, or SOV. Other configurations are less common.

The objects of verbs may be subdivided into direct objects and indirect objects. Direct objects are usually unmarked in English, but immediately follow the verb (like *the*

book in *he read the book*). Indirect object are often expressed periphrastically, as prepositional phrases (like *to him* in *gave the book to him*).

Basic word order doesn't tell us everything about the structure of sentences. It just gives us some gist of how sentences in a language may be arranged. Also, many languages don't strictly stick to their basic word order, hence the word "basic". A great example is English.

REORDERING WORDS

English has the basic word order subject-verb-object. It's an "SVO" language. But when we ask a question with the verb *be* or in some cases the verb *have*, we switch the word order. The traditional way of describing this is to say that we invert the verb and its subject. In other words, it's argued that the word order of English questions with the verb *be* switches to Verb – Subject – Object.

For example, the questions *are you happy?* and *were you there?*, with VSO order, relate to the statements *you are happy* and *you were there*, which have the word order SVO. If we take these questions to be derived from the basic statements, the V and S must "switch" at some point, allowing us to go from SVO -> VSO. It is this explanation that brings up the concept of **inversion**, or switching the place of words.

Consider a different explanation for the same change. This one will use the concept of movement or just move. In this case, we're performing an operation in which we're just moving one of the words. Instead of saying that we invert the subject *you* and the verb *are* to produce *are you there*, we just move *are*before the subject. This gives us the same result by performing a different operation. Instead of switching two words, we move one of the words.

EXPANDING PHRASES

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 build *language* into *a language*, and then into *a difficult language*. Notice that the material we added to the head noun *language* all branched to the left.

An **adjunct** is optional material that branches out from the main structure. Adjuncts can be expanded and expanded to produce longer and longer sentences. I asked the question *were you there?*, but I could add more material: *were you there [on Thursday]?* I can add more material to that: *were you there [at the school] [on Thursday]?* And even more material: *were you there [at the school] [on Thursday] [when I was talking with Jack]?* We often call those extra optional phrases "adjuncts".

PRACTICE EXERCISE

1) Return to the previous practice exercise, and look again at the sentences in question 3. Identify the subject, verb and object in each sentence.

2) Rewrite each sentence as a question. Using the notion of inversion or movement, attempt to explain how you turned those statements into questions.

3) Two of those sentences include phrases that would traditionally be known as adjuncts. List those adjuncts. Do they branch to the left or the right?