

CHAPTER Five: Word Formation

 Batool.A.Alshawhi

Word Formation — How English Creates New Words

Language isn't fixed. It's always changing and growing to fit new ideas, inventions, and ways of life. Chapter 5 looks at the main ways English creates new words.

Borrowing: Taking Words from Other Languages

English borrows words from other languages and makes them part of everyday speech. For example, many American English words come from Dutch, even though the Dutch were only briefly in America. Words like *cookie* (from Dutch *koekje* meaning little cake), *boss*, and *Santa Claus* (from Dutch *Sinter Klaas*) show this borrowing. English doesn't just borrow words—it often keeps them exactly as they are or changes them slightly.

This process goes both ways. Japanese borrows *suupaa* from English *supermarket*. In Brazil, people use English words like *nerd* and turn them into verbs (*nerdear* means “to surf the internet”). Borrowing helps languages grow by filling gaps with words from other cultures.

Loan-Translation (Calques): Copying Ideas, Not Words

Sometimes, English creates a new word by translating a phrase from another language literally. The English *skyscraper* comes from the French *gratte-ciel*, which means “scrape sky.” Instead of borrowing the French word directly, English speakers translated the parts and made a new compound word. Another example is *superman*, translated from the German *Übermensch* (“overman”).

This method is creative because it adapts foreign ideas in a way that fits English speakers' understanding.

Compounding: Joining Two Words to Make One

One of the simplest ways English forms new words is by putting two existing words together. *Bookcase* (a case for books), *sunburn* (a burn from the sun), and *waterbed* (a bed filled with water) all come from compounding.

Compounds aren't just nouns. You get compound adjectives too, like *good-looking* or *low-paid*. Some languages like German do this a lot, creating long compound words by combining smaller ones.

Blending: Mixing Parts of Two Words

Blending takes bits of two words—usually the start of one and the end of another—and merges them. Think of *smog* (smoke + fog). People even joke about *smaze* (smoke + haze) or *smurk* (smoke + murk). Other examples include *brunch* (breakfast + lunch) and *motel* (motor + hotel).

Blends often emerge when people want to name new things or concepts quickly and cleverly, like *infotainment* (information + entertainment) for TV shows that both inform and entertain.

Clipping: Shortening Long Words

English speakers love making long words shorter. This usually happens in casual conversation. *Advertisement* becomes *ad*, *influenza* becomes *flu*, and *telephone* becomes *phone*. Even names get clipped: *Michael* becomes *Mike*, *Elizabeth* becomes *Liz*.

This makes speech faster and more informal.

Hypocorisms: Friendly Nicknames with -y or -ie

In British and Australian English, clipped words often add a -y or -ie at the end, making them sound friendly or informal. For example, *movie* (from moving picture), *telly* (television), *barbie* (barbecue), and *brekky* (breakfast). It's a way of softening language, often used in everyday chat.

Backformation: Making Verbs from Nouns

Sometimes, a noun gives rise to a new verb by removing what looks like a suffix. For example, the noun *donation* led to the verb *donate*. Similarly, *editor* led to *edit*, and *babysitter* to *babysit*. This process is called backformation because it goes backward from what looks like a noun form to create a verb.

It's a creative way English expands its vocabulary by shifting word types.

Conversion: Changing Word Class Without Changing Form

Words can change their function without changing how they look. This is called conversion. For instance, *chair* is a noun but also means "to lead a meeting" as a verb. *Bottle* is a noun and also a verb meaning "to put in a bottle." These shifts happen naturally and expand the flexibility of words.

Conversion isn't limited to nouns becoming verbs. Adjectives like *dirty* can become verbs (*to dirty something*), and verbs like *guess* can become nouns (*take a guess*). The meaning might shift slightly, but the word stays recognizable.

Coinage: Inventing New Words from Scratch

Sometimes, new words are completely invented, often for products or technologies. *Aspirin* and *nylon* started as brand names but became everyday words. More recently, *google* began as a company name and now means "to search on the internet." Coinage is less common but very visible when it happens.

Acronyms: Words from Initial Letters

Acronyms are new words made from the first letters of several words. Some, like *CD* or *SPCA*, are pronounced letter by letter. Others become full words, like *NATO*, *NASA*, or *laser* (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation). Acronyms simplify long names and often become part of everyday speech.

Etymology: The History of Words

Etymology is the study of where words come from and how they change. Many words that seem new or strange now were once criticized or even banned. For example, the word *aviation* caused controversy in the early 1900s. Understanding etymology helps us see language as a living, changing system, not something fixed.

Derivation: Adding Prefixes and Suffixes

This is the **most common way** English creates new words. *Derivation* means adding **affixes**—small bits like prefixes (at the start) and suffixes (at the end)—to a root word. For example:

- *Un-*happy (prefix)
- Joyful (suffix)
- Disrespectful (prefix + suffix)
- Foolishness (double suffix)

These small changes create new meanings:

- Care → careless → carelessness
- Hope → hopeful → hopeless

Even a slight change in a prefix or suffix changes the word's meaning or grammar. This process is *productive*, meaning it keeps making new words regularly.

Infixes: Putting Words Inside Other Words (Rare in English)

Infixes are affixes inserted in the middle of a word. English doesn't really use them except for emotional or humorous effect:

- Un-freakin-believable!
- Abso-bloody-lutely!

Other languages do it more seriously. In Khmu, a language spoken in Laos, verbs can be turned into nouns by inserting *-rn-* in the middle.

Multiple Processes Can Work Together

New words often come from combining these processes. The American word *deli* comes from borrowing (delicatessen) and clipping. *Snowball* is a compound word (snow + ball) turned into a verb by conversion (*to snowball*). The slang *yuppie* comes from an acronym (young urban professional) plus a suffix (-ie) and analogy (based on *hippie*).

What this all adds up to is a picture of language as a constantly evolving tool. English speakers invent, borrow, shorten, and shift words to express new ideas, objects, and actions. These processes show creativity and adaptability. When you hear a new word, it's not random—it likely has a history or a pattern behind it.

Language changes because people need it to change. Chapter 5 gives us the keys to understand how and why.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. When is an eponym a neologism?

An **eponym** becomes a **neologism** when it is freshly coined or newly entering the language, named after a person or brand—like *hoover* or *google* when they first appeared. Over time, if it becomes well-established and widespread, it may no longer feel “new,” but at the start it is both an eponym and a neologism.

2. Which pair is a calque, and what about the others?

(c) **luna de miel – honeymoon** is the only pair that is a calque: *honeymoon* is a literal translation of *moon of honey*.

- (a) **footobooru → football** is a **borrowing** (a loanword), not translated.
 - (b) **tréning → training** is also borrowing/adaptation.
 - (d) **jardin d’enfants – Kindergarten** is also loan translation—but in reverse: German *Kindergarten* (“children’s garden”) calqued into French. So (d) could also count if you consider direction.
-

3. Identify word-formation processes in the underlined words:

For each sentence, the **underlined word** (I’ll explain the process behind each):

- (a) *AIDS* – acronym
 - (b) *xerox (machine)* – **eponym/brand name** used generically
 - (c) *fandamntastic* – **blend** (fantastic + damned/fan), possibly expressive suffix
 - (d) *parties* – root verb **party** converted to third-person singular verb
 - (e) *kickass* – **compound/blend** (kick + ass) used as adjective
 - (f) *doc* – **clipping** (doctor → doc)
 - (g) *babysitting* – **conversion/backformation** and compounding (babysit from babysitter +-ing)
 - (h) *comfy* – **hypocorism** (comfortable → comfy)
 - (i) *bailout* – **compound** (bail + out as noun)
 - (j) *toastie, brekky* – toastie is **hypocorism/clipping**, brekky same
 - (k) *velcro* – **eponym/brand name** now generic
-

4. Prefixes and suffixes in these words:

Word	Prefix	Suffix
------	--------	--------

misfortune	mis-	-
terrorism		-ism
carelessness		-ness
disagreement	dis-	-ment
ineffective	in-	-
unfaithful	un-	-ful
prepackaged	pre-	-ed
biodegradable	bio-*, de-	-able
reincarnation	re-	-ation
decentralization	de-	-ization

(*bio- may be part of the stem, but in context bio- conveys “life”)

5. In Khmu, the verb form is *kap* (“to grasp with tongs”). What’s the noun for “tongs”?

If **-r** is the Khmu **infix or affix** that forms the noun, then “tongs” would be **k-r-ap** (kap → krap, hypothetically), following the pattern of verb → noun. So: **krap** (“tongs”).

6. Identify multiple processes in underlined forms:

- (a) **car-phone** – **compound**, becomes noun; then clipped from “car telephone”.
- (b) **FedEx (the books)** – **eponym (brand)** + conversion to verb.
- (c) **carjackings** – **compound (car + jacking)** + conversion/nominalization + plural.
- (d) **karaoke night** – **blend/compound** (karaoke + night) and descriptive naming.
- (e) **hoover (the carpet)** – **eponym/brand name** used as a verb (conversion).
- (f) **newbies** – **clipping** (newcomers → newb → newbie)
- (g) **temp** – **clipping** or backformation (temporary worker → temp), then conversion to verb “to temp.”
- (h) **decaf** – **clipping** or blend (decaffeinated → decaf), now noun/adjective.

Tasks

A. What are “initialisms”? Were there any examples in this chapter?

Initialisms are abbreviations formed from the initial letters of a series of words, pronounced letter by letter (not as a word).

Example in the chapter: IT (Information Technology).

B. Who invented the term “portmanteau words”? How many examples were included in this chapter?

Lewis Carroll (author of *Through the Looking-Glass*) invented the term “portmanteau words”. There are **around six** examples mentioned: smog (smoke + fog), brunch, motel, etc.

C. Borrowings, their origin languages, and whether they are eponyms:

Word	Borrowed From	Eponym?
assassin	Arabic	No
clone	Greek (via biology)	No
cockroach	Spanish ("cucaracha")	No
denim	French ("de Nîmes")	No
diesel	German (named after Rudolf Diesel)	Yes
frisbee	Brand name (Wham-O), Frisbie Pie Co.	Yes
horde	Turkish or Mongolian	No
kayak	Inuit	No
kiosk	Turkish	No
nickname	Old English (ekename > nekename)	No
penguin	Welsh (possibly)	No
robot	Czech ("robota" = forced labor)	No
shampoo	Hindi	No
sherry	Spanish (from “Jerez”)	No
slogan	Scottish Gaelic	No
snoop	Dutch ("snoepen")	No
taboo	Tongan/Polynesian	No
tea	Chinese (Min Nan dialect "te")	No
tomato	Nahuatl ("tomatl")	No
tuxedo	Named after Tuxedo Park, NY	Yes
umbrella	Italian ("ombrella")	No

voodoo	West African (Vodun)	No
--------	----------------------	----

D. Word-formation processes in underlined IT/Internet terms:

1. **netizens** – blend (internet + citizens)
 2. **RAM** – initialism (Random Access Memory)
 3. **keyboard (verb)** – conversion from noun to verb
 4. **techie** – derivation (tech + -ie suffix)
 5. **webcam** – compound (web + camera)
 6. **bookmark** – conversion (noun to verb)
 7. **app** – clipping (application)
 8. **bloggers** – derivation (blog + -er); blog = blend (web + log)
 9. **downloads** – compound (down + load), derivation (load + -s)
 10. **faq** – initialism (Frequently Asked Questions)
 11. **netiquette** – blend (internet + etiquette)
 12. **ruok?** – acronym/abbreviation (are you okay?)
-

E. English compounds as nouns vs verbs:

Nouns:

- crash helmet
- hang nail
- kick boxer
- skim milk
- sleep mode

Verbs:

- crash land
- freeze dry
- freeze frame (can be both, but verb in tech use)
- hang glide

- kick start
- skim read
- sleep walk

Rule: The **head** (rightmost part) determines the grammatical category:

- If the right part is a verb, the compound is a verb.
- If the right part is a noun, it's a noun.

F. German-English hybrids

(i) Technical term: pseudo-loan words or false Anglicisms

(ii) Match German words to meanings:

German Word	Meaning
der Barmixer	bartender
der Beamer	video projector
der Bodybag	shoulder bag
der Flipper	pinball machine
das Handy	mobile phone
der Messie	hoarder (pack rat)
der Oldtimer	vintage car
die Peep Toes	women's open-toed shoes
der Shootingstar	overnight success
der Smoking	tuxedo
der Talkmaster	talk show host
der Tramper	hitchhiker

G. Indonesian circumfixes

1. Missing forms:

- sehat → **kesehatan** ("health")
- bebas → **kebebasan** ("freedom")

- baik → **kebaikan** (“kindness”)
 - jujur → **kejujuran** (“honesty”)
2. Circumfix: **ke-...-an**
3. Process: **Derivation** – forming abstract nouns from adjectives
4. Translations:
- tersedia → **availability** = ketersediaan
 - sulit → **difficulty** = kesulitan
 - sesuai → **suitability** = kesesuaian
 - seimbang → **balance** = keseimbangan
5. Translations based on pattern:
- happy → senang → **kesenangan**
 - just/fair → adil → **keadilan**
 - satisfied → puas → **kepuasan**

H. Hmong word combinations (English equivalents):

Hmong Expression	English Equivalent
chawkhomob	hospital/clinic (“place + fix + sickness”)
kwshlau	blacksmith or ironworker (“expert + iron”)
chawnrestsheb	parking lot (“place + stop + vehicle”)
kwskhohniav	dentist (“expert + fix + teeth”)
chawzaumtos	waiting room (“place + sit + wait”)
kwsntausntawv	typist or writer (“expert + hit + paper”)
davhlau	airplane (“bird + iron”)
kwsntoo	carpenter (“expert + wood”)
hnabloomjtes	gloves (“bag + cover + hand”)
kwskhotsheb	mechanic (“expert + fix + vehicle”)
kevcai	law (“way + right”)
kwstshuaj	pharmacist (“expert + medicine”)

kevkhomob	medical treatment path (“way + fix + sickness”)
tshebnqajhlau	train (“vehicle + rail + iron”)
kevnqajhlau	railroad (“way + rail + iron”)
daimntawvmuastshuaj	prescription (“sheet + paper + buy + medicine”)

CHAPTER Six: What Is Morphology?

 Batool.A.Alshaw

Understanding Morphology: How Words Are Built

When we read or hear a word, we often think of it as one simple thing. But the truth is, most words are made up of smaller parts, and each of those parts can carry meaning. The study of these word parts is called **morphology**. This word comes from biology, where it means the study of forms. In language, morphology means studying how words are formed and how they work.

What Are Morphemes?

The smallest unit of meaning in a language is called a **morpheme**. You can think of morphemes as tiny building blocks that come together to make words. For example, the word *talked* is made of two morphemes: *talk* (the main meaning) and *-ed* (which shows that it happened in the past). Each of these parts adds something important to the word.

We can also see this in words like *carelessness*:

- *care* means concern,
- *-less* means without,
- *-ness* means the state of something.

So *carelessness* means the state of not caring. All three parts are morphemes.

Free and Bound Morphemes

Morphemes come in two basic types: **free** and **bound**.

- **Free morphemes** are words that can stand alone. You don't need to attach them to anything. Words like *book*, *kind*, or *run* are free morphemes.
- **Bound morphemes** cannot stand alone. They must be attached to another word. These include prefixes (like *un-* in *unhappy*) and suffixes (like *-s* in *cats*). The words *unhappy* or *cats* make sense, but *un-* or *-s* alone do not.

When a free morpheme combines with a bound morpheme, we call the free part a **stem**. For example, in *kindness*, *kind* is the stem, and *-ness* is the suffix.

Some words are tricky because they look like they have stems, but those parts aren't real words on their own. Words like *receive*, *reduce*, or *repeat* have prefixes like *re-*, but the second part (*-ceive*, *-duce*, *-peat*) isn't used by itself. These are called **bound stems**.

Lexical and Functional Morphemes

We can divide **free morphemes** into two categories:

1. **Lexical morphemes** carry the main meaning. These are the words we often add to the language, like *girl*, *break*, *blue*, or *run*. They are open to change—we create new lexical morphemes all the time.
2. **Functional morphemes** are more about grammar than meaning. These include words like *and*, *but*, *on*, *the*, *it*. We don't add new ones very often. They belong to a fixed group, also called a “closed” class.

So, *the blue car* has both: *blue* is a lexical morpheme, and *the* is a functional one

Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes

Bound morphemes can also be divided into two types based on what they do to a word.

1. **Derivational morphemes** help create **new words**, or change the **word type** (noun, verb, adjective, etc.). For example:
 - *happy* + *-ness* = *happiness* (adjective to noun)
 - *care* + *-less* = *careless*
 - *kind* + *-ly* = *kindly*

Derivational morphemes can be prefixes (*un-*, *re-*) or suffixes (*-ful*, *-ment*).

2. **Inflectional morphemes** don't make new words. Instead, they show grammar: past tense, plural, comparison, etc. English only has **eight** of them:
 - **-s** (plural): *cats*
 - **-'s** (possessive): *Sarah's book*
 - **-ed** (past): *walked*
 - **-en** (past participle): *eaten*
 - **-ing** (present participle): *eating*
 - **-s** (3rd person verb): *she runs*
 - **-er** (comparative): *taller*
 - **-est** (superlative): *fastest*

Important rule: If a word has both a derivational and inflectional suffix, **the derivational one comes first**.

Example: *teach* → *teacher* → *teachers*

Morphs and Allomorphs

Sometimes, the same morpheme can appear in different ways. These different forms are called **morphs**. When a single morpheme has several versions, we call those versions **allomorphs**.

Take the plural morpheme in English. It always means “more than one,” but it can sound different:

- *cats* → /s/
- *dogs* → /z/
- *buses* → /əz/
- *sheep* → no change (called a **zero morph**)
- *man* → *men* → vowel change

All of these are different **allomorphs** of the **plural** morpheme.

The same idea applies to the past tense:

- *walked* (regular: add -ed)
- *went* (irregular: completely different word)
- *was/were* (irregular forms of *be*)

Other Languages Do Things Differently

In English, we mostly use prefixes and suffixes. But other languages have different tools for building words.

Swahili (East Africa)

The word *nitakupenda* means *I will love you*. It’s one word, but it has several parts:

- *ni-* = I
 - *ta-* = will
 - *ku-* = you
 - *penda* = love
- This shows how one “word” in another language can hold as much meaning as several English words.

Kanuri (Nigeria)

They use the prefix *nəm-* to turn adjectives into nouns:

- *karite* (excellent) → *nəmkarite* (excellence)
- *gana* (small) → *nəmgana* (smallness)

Ganda (Uganda)

To make plurals, they use different prefixes:

- *omusawo* (doctor) → *abasawo* (doctors)

- *omuwala* (girl) → *abawala* (girls)

Ilocano (Philippines)

They make plurals by **repeating part of the word**, called **reduplication**:

- *ulo* (head) → *ululo* (heads)
- *dalan* (road) → *daldalan* (roads)

Tagalog (Philippines)

They use:

- **Infixes**: insert part of a word in the middle:
 - *basa* (read) → *bumasa* (Read!)
- **Reduplication** for future tense:
 - *basa* (read) → *babasa* (will read)

So, in *Tagalog*, you might hear *lumakad!* and know it means *Walk!*.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What are the functional morphemes in the following sentence?

When she walked into the room, the doctor asked me if I had a sore throat or an annoying cough.

Answer: When, she, into, the, if, had, or, a

2. (i) List the bound morphemes in these words: fearlessly, happier, misleads, previewer, shortening, unreconstructed

Answer:

- fearlessly: -less, -ly
- happier: -er
- misleads: mis-, -s
- previewer: pre-, -er
- shortening: -en, -ing
- unreconstructed: un-, -ed

(ii) Which of these words has a bound stem: consist, deceive, introduce, repeat?

Answer: All of them (consist, deceive, introduce, repeat)

(iii) Which of these words contains an allomorph of the morpheme “past tense”: are, have, must, sitting, waits?

Answer: sitting

3. What are the inflectional morphemes in these expressions?

(a) Have you eaten yet?

Answer: -en (past participle)

(b) Do you know how long I’ve been waiting?

Answer: -en (been), -ing (waiting)

(c) She’s younger than me and always dresses in the latest style.

Answer: -er (younger), -s (dresses)

(d) We looked through my grandmother’s old photo albums.

Answer: -ed (looked), -’s (grandmother’s), -s (albums)

(e) My parents’ parents were all from Scotland.

Answer: -s’ (parents’), were (past tense of be)

4. What are the allomorphs of the morpheme “plural” in this set of English words?

criteria, dogs, oxen, deer, judges, stimuli

Answer:

- criteria → irregular/zero morph
 - dogs → /z/
 - oxen → -en
 - deer → zero morph
 - judges → /əz/
 - stimuli → irregular/zero morph
-

5. In Indonesian, the singular form translating “child” is anak and the plural form (“children”) is anakanak. What is the term used to describe this relationship?

Answer: Reduplication

6. Provide equivalent forms, in the languages listed, for the English translations shown on the right below.

(Answers based on examples in the chapter):

1. She loved you → alipita
2. I will cook them → uliwapika
3. You will pass by → alipita / tutaondoka (depending on context)
4. We paid him → watanilipa
5. She will beat me → walimpiga
6. They left → tutaondoka

TASKS

A. What is “suppletion”? Were there any examples of English suppletive forms described in this chapter?

Answer: Suppletion is when a word form is replaced by a completely different word form instead of adding an affix (e.g., go → went, be → was/were). Yes, examples like went, was, and were were given.

B. The selection of appropriate allomorphs is based on three different effects: lexical conditioning, morphological conditioning, or phonological conditioning. What type of conditioning do you think is involved in the relationship between the words in each of the following pairs?

Pair	Conditioning Type
Ganda omulonjo (“twin”) – abasawo (“twins”)	Morphological conditioning (plural prefix change)
Ilocano tawta’wa (“windows”) – taw (“window”)	Morphological conditioning (reduplication)
Ilocano ta’lon (“field”) – talta’lon (“fields”)	Morphological conditioning (reduplication)
Kanuri nɛmkəj’i (“sweetness”) – kəj (“sweet”)	Lexical conditioning (derivational prefix)
Tagalog bili (“buy”) – bibili (“will buy”)	Phonological/morphological conditioning (infix + reduplication)
Tagalog kain (“eat”) – kumain (“Eat!”)	Morphological conditioning (infixation)

C. What are enclitics and proclitics? Does English have both? What are some typical English examples? Why aren't they just called affixes?

Answer:

- Enclitics: clitics attached to the end of a word (e.g., 's in it's).
 - Proclitics: clitics attached to the beginning of a word (e.g., 'll in I'll).
 - English has both.
 - Not called affixes because clitics lean on adjacent words phonologically rather than being part of the word's morphological structure.
-

D. Look over the following examples from Hungarian:

(i) Did you complete the example in (10)?

Answer: (dependent on examples, generally yes)

(ii) What are the five free (adjective) morphemes in the data?

Answer: The adjectives themselves without suffixes (examples needed).

(iii) What are the four pronouns? Are these lexical or functional morphemes?

Answer: Pronouns are functional morphemes.

(iv) What are the three verb suffixes? Are these derivational or inflectional suffixes?

Answer: Inflectional suffixes.

(v) What are the two adjective suffixes? What do you think is the basis for choosing one or the other?

Answer: Mark number or case, chosen based on grammar rules.

E. Using Swahili examples:

(i) What is the morphological process involved here and where exactly does it take place in the word form?

Answer: Prefixation marking subject, tense, and object.

(ii) What would be the plural of *ava'ga* ("elope"), *ma'* ("ashamed"), *maʔalı'li* ("cold"), and *toʔu'lu* ("fall")?

Answer: Plurals would follow prefix changes similar to examples; specific forms depend on language rules.

F. Using Tagalog examples:

Create appropriate forms for verbs basag (“break”), bili (“buy”), hanap (“look for”), kain (“eat”) for (1–10).

Answer: Use infix *-um-* for imperative, reduplication for future, as shown in examples:

- bumasa, tumawag, sumulat, etc.
-

G. Tamasheq noun patterns:

- (i) Fill in the missing words (based on patterns).
- (ii) Describe general patterns relating singular to plural.
- (iii) Are affixes derivational or inflectional? Any special terms?

Answer:

- Plurals formed by suffixes or internal vowel changes (inflectional).
- Some plurals called “broken plurals.”

CHAPTER Seven: Grammar

 Batool.A.Alshawi

Grammar is the backbone of any language. It provides the framework that holds words together, allowing us to communicate complex ideas clearly. Without grammar, sentences would be nothing but jumbled words. This chapter explores what grammar really is, how traditional grammar developed, the parts of speech, agreement between words, differences in grammatical systems across languages, and why studying grammar matters.

What Grammar Is and Why It Matters

At its core, grammar is a set of rules governing how words combine to form phrases and sentences that sound right to native speakers. We know individual words like *boy* or *run*, but knowing how to put these words in the correct order is what grammar teaches us. For example, the phrase **the lucky boys** is grammatically correct because it follows English's rule for such phrases: an article (*the*), followed by an adjective (*lucky*), followed by a noun (*boys*). If we scramble this to *boys the lucky*, it no longer sounds like English.

Grammar is not just about order but also about what kinds of combinations are allowed or disallowed. This system of rules distinguishes one language from another—English word order differs from that of languages like Swahili or Turkish.

From Sounds and Morphemes to Grammar

Before understanding grammar, linguists analyze language at two smaller levels: sounds and morphemes. Sounds, or phonemes, are the building blocks of speech (like the /k/ in *cat*). Morphemes are the smallest meaningful parts of words, such as *luck* and *-y* in *lucky*, or *boy* and *-s* in *boys*.

While phonology (study of sounds) and morphology (study of morphemes) tell us about the pieces of language, grammar explains how those pieces fit together. The phrase *the lucky boys* consists of morphemes arranged in a particular order that grammar enforces.

Traditional Grammar: Roots and Word Classes

Traditional grammar originated from the study of Latin and Greek—languages that were central to philosophy and scholarship. The categories used to describe words, such as *noun*, *verb*, and *adjective*, come from this tradition and were later applied to English and other languages.

Understanding these parts of speech is fundamental. They are:

- **Nouns:** Words that name people, places, things, or ideas. Examples include *boy*, *school*, *love*, and *earthquake*.
- **Articles:** Words that come before nouns to specify them. English has *a*, *an*, and *the*. For example, *a cat* refers to any cat, while *the cat* refers to a specific one.
- **Adjectives:** Words describing nouns, such as *big*, *lucky*, or *strange*.

- **Verbs:** Words expressing actions or states, like *run*, *be*, or *have*.
- **Adverbs:** Words that modify verbs or adjectives, providing more detail about how or when something happens, e.g., *slowly*, *very*, *yesterday*.
- **Prepositions:** Words connecting nouns to other words, indicating relationships like time or place—*in*, *on*, *at*, *with*.
- **Pronouns:** Words that replace nouns or noun phrases to avoid repetition. For example, *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*.
- **Conjunctions:** Words joining words, phrases, or clauses, such as *and*, *but*, and *because*.

Together, these parts of speech form the vocabulary and structure of sentences.

Agreement: How Words Match Each Other

Grammar involves not only knowing word types but also how they must “agree” with each other in certain features:

- **Number:** Whether something is singular (*boy*) or plural (*boys*). For example, *The boy runs* vs. *The boys run*.
- **Person:** Distinguishing between the speaker (first person: *I/we*), the person spoken to (second person: *you*), and others (third person: *he/she/they*). Verb forms change accordingly: *I am*, *you are*, *he is*.
- **Tense:** Showing when the action happens (past, present, future). For instance, *She loves* (present) versus *She loved* (past).
- **Voice:** Active voice focuses on the subject performing the action (*The dog chased the cat*), while passive voice focuses on the subject receiving the action (*The cat was chased by the dog*).
- **Gender:** In English, pronouns reflect natural gender—*he* for males, *she* for females, *it* for things or animals without specified sex. For example, *Cathy loves her dog* shows agreement between *Cathy* (female) and *her*.

Languages vary in how gender works. English uses **natural gender**, tied to biological sex. Other languages use **grammatical gender**, which classifies nouns as masculine, feminine, or neuter regardless of biological sex. Spanish, for example, calls *el sol* (“the sun”) masculine and *la luna* (“the moon”) feminine, though neither is biologically male or female.

Prescriptive vs. Descriptive Grammar

Two approaches exist in grammar study and teaching:

- **Prescriptive grammar** sets out rules about how language *should* be used, often based on Latin grammar. It includes rules such as:
 - Don’t split infinitives (e.g., avoid *to boldly go*).

- Don't end sentences with prepositions (say *With whom did you go?* rather than *Who did you go with?*).
- Don't begin sentences with conjunctions like *and* or *but*.

These rules were enforced in schools and by grammarians aiming to “correct” English to match Latin ideals.

- **Descriptive grammar** observes and explains how language is *actually* used by speakers, without judgment. It recognizes that forms like *to boldly go* are common and natural in English, despite prescriptive rules against them.

Structural Analysis: Testing Word Categories

Linguists identify word categories through tests called “test frames.” These are sentences with blank slots where different words can fit:

- *The _____ makes a lot of noise.*
Words like *car*, *dog*, and *radio* fit here, so they belong to the same category, **nouns**.
- *I heard a _____ yesterday.*
Similarly, *child*, *donkey*, and *cat* fit.

Not all words fit these frames. For example, *the dog* doesn't fit where a single noun fits; it's a **noun phrase** (article + noun).

Pronouns fit in test frames designed for noun phrases, showing that pronouns replace entire noun phrases, not just single nouns.

Constituent Analysis: How Words Group to Form Sentences

Words group together in meaningful units called constituents or phrases, which build sentences. In the sentence:

- *An old man brought a shotgun to the wedding.*

we can identify groups like:

- *An old man* — noun phrase (NP)
- *brought a shotgun* — verb phrase (VP)
- *to the wedding* — prepositional phrase (PP)

These smaller groups combine hierarchically to create the full sentence.

Diagrams and Brackets to Show Sentence Structure

To visualize sentence structure, linguists use bracket diagrams:

- Word level: [The] [dog] [loved] [the] [girl]
- Phrase level: [The dog] [loved the girl]

- Sentence level: [The dog loved the girl]

Each bracketed group is labeled (e.g., NP for noun phrase, VP for verb phrase, S for sentence). This shows the hierarchical organization where smaller constituents nest inside larger ones.

Grammar Across Languages: English and Gaelic

Different languages have different sentence structures. English follows:

- Noun Phrase + Verb + Noun Phrase (NP V NP)

Example: The boy saw the black dog.

Scottish Gaelic orders words differently:

- Verb + Noun Phrase + Noun Phrase (V NP NP)

Example: Chunnaic an gille an cù dubh. (Literally: Saw the boy the dog black.)

In Gaelic, the verb comes first, and adjectives come after nouns, unlike English.

Why Grammar Study Matters

Studying grammar helps us:

- Understand how sentences are built from words and phrases.
- Compare different languages and appreciate their unique structures.
- Explain common mistakes learners make when their native language's grammar differs. For instance, a Spanish speaker might say *the wine red* (literal translation of *el vino rojo*), which is ungrammatical in English.

Ultimately, grammar equips us to communicate clearly and understand the diversity of human languages.

Conclusion

Grammar is the system that shapes language, guiding how words fit together into phrases and sentences. It involves categorizing words, ensuring agreement between parts, and understanding word order. While traditional grammar is rooted in Latin, real-world language use varies widely, leading linguists to adopt descriptive approaches that reflect actual speech. By studying grammar, we gain insights into language structure, improve communication, and appreciate linguistic diversity.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Difference between grammatical gender and natural gender

- **Grammatical gender** is a category built into the language's grammar—nouns are classified (e.g. masculine, feminine, neuter) regardless of any real-world meaning.

- **Natural gender** refers to actual biological sex or animacy: e.g. “he” for a male person, “she” for a female, “it” for objects or animals without specified sex.
 - In English, natural gender is used. In languages like German or Spanish, grammatical gender rules apply to all nouns—even inanimate ones.
-

2. Prescriptive rules broken and corrections

(a) “The old theory consistently failed to fully explain all the data.”

- **Rule broken:** Avoid splitting infinitives.
- **Correction:** “... consistently failed to explain fully all the data.”
(Some purists would remove “fully”: “... failed to explain all the data.”)

(b) “I can’t remember the name of the person I gave the book to.”

- **Rule broken:** Don’t end a sentence with a preposition.
 - **Correction:** “I can’t remember the name of the person to whom I gave the book.”
-

3. Parts of speech in sentence

“The woman kept a large snake in a cage, but it escaped recently.”

- The = **determiner**
 - woman = **noun**
 - kept = **verb** (past tense)
 - a = **determiner**
 - large = **adjective**
 - snake = **noun**
 - in = **preposition**
 - a = **determiner**
 - cage = **noun**
 - but = **conjunction**
 - it = **pronoun**
 - escaped = **verb** (past tense)
 - recently = **adverb**
-

4. What was wrong with the older definition of pronouns?

- The older Latin-based analysis treated pronouns as words that replace **nouns**. But in English, pronouns replace **noun phrases**, not just single nouns (e.g. “the big dog” is replaced by “it”). The older definition overlooked phrases and contexts.
-

5. Gaelic translations

Given Gaelic vocabulary: *mor* = big, *beag* = small, *bhuail* = hit, *duine* = man, *cu* = dog, *gille* = boy

(a) **Bhuail an gille beag an cu dubh**

→ “The small boy hit the black dog.”

(b) **Chunnaic an cu an duine mor**

→ “The dog saw the big man.”

(*Chunnaic* = saw; subject first, then object.)

6. Labeled and bracketed analysis

Sentence: **The thief stole a wallet.**

csharp

CopyEdit

[S

[NP The thief]

[VP stole [NP a wallet]]

]

Tasks:

A. What are determiners? How many examples in the chapter?

- **Determiners** are function words that introduce noun phrases, specifying definiteness, quantity, or possession (e.g. the, a, this, my).
 - In the chapter, examples include **a, an, the, her, my**, plus possessive pronouns used as determiners—so roughly 6–7 explicit examples (articles + possessives).
-

B. What is hypercorrection?

- **Hypercorrection** is when a speaker applies a perceived “proper” rule incorrectly—overcompensating their usage.

- Example: using “between you and I” instead of “between you and me” because they think “me” is wrong in that context.
-

C. What is aspect?

Aspect describes how an action extends over time (ongoing, completed, habitual, etc.), not just when it happens.

- **I hope no one calls while I’m eating lunch.** → *I’m eating* = present progressive (ongoing action)
 - **She’s writing a story** → present progressive (ongoing)
 - **I’ve eaten lunch already** → present perfect (completed action with relevance now)
 - **She’s written a story** → present perfect
 - **I was eating lunch** → past progressive (ongoing in the past)
 - **She had written a story** → past perfect (completed before another past action)
 - **She used to write stories** → habitual past tense
-

D. Transitive/intransitive/ditransitive and ungrammatical sentences

- **Transitive verbs** take a direct object.
- **Intransitive verbs** do not take an object.
- **Ditransitive verbs** take two objects (e.g. give someone something).

Ungrammatical examples arise because the verb needs a direct object but none or wrong placement is given:

1. *Ali found in his car.* – **Found** is transitive, needs an object (“found it in his car.”)
 2. *He didn’t care that.* – **Care** is intransitive; it does not take a direct object (*that*).
 3. *We discussed.* – **Discuss** is transitive; requires an object: “We discussed it.”
 4. *I lent mine.* – **Lent** is ditransitive: needs an indirect object: “I lent mine to her.”
 5. *We’re always waiting you.* – **Wait for someone**, needs the preposition: “waiting for you.”
 6. *Anne gave one.* – Needs two objects: “Anne gave one to me.”
 7. *People bring you.* – **Bring** is ditransitive; needs: “people bring you gifts.”
 8. *She smiled me.* – **Smile** is intransitive, cannot take an object: “She smiled at me.”
-

E. Simple rule of adverb position

Adverbs of frequency and manner typically appear **before the main verb** (except “be,” which they follow), or at the **beginning** or **end** of a clause, but not in the **middle of an auxiliary-main verb combination**.

Ungrammatical because adverbs were placed incorrectly inside verb phrases:

- *I might have later a small snack* → should be: *I might have a small snack later*.
 - *I'll drink sometimes coffee at work.* → *I'll sometimes drink coffee at work.*
-

F. Preferred adjective order in English

From the data:

Position	Adjective Type	Examples
1	Size	little, small, big
2	Age/chronology	old, recent, ancient
3	Shape	round, square, oval
4	Color	pink, red, white
5	Origin/material	cotton, silk, American, Chinese
6	Purpose/opinion/brand	(not in these examples)

Opinion adjectives (beautiful, cute, horrible) typically come **before size** (i.e. before everything except determiners)—so they'd slot at the very front of the chain (Beautiful little plastic forks).

G. Basic word order in those Japanese sentences

From the sample Japanese constructions:

Word order is SOV—Subject-Object-Verb.

- **Jack ate an apple.**
Jack-gā ringo-o tabemashita.
- **John is in school.**
John-gā gakkō-ni ikimasu. (literally: “John school in is-going”)

So Japanese is **SOV**, different from English (SVO) or Gaelic (VSO).

H. Latin and Amuzgo translations

1. **Latin: The doves love the small girl.**

Puella parva columbas amant.

2. **Amuzgo: A big woman is reading the red book in Amuzgo?**

(assuming structure: Woman-BIG reads red book)

Femina magna tyocho com yusku.

3. Sentence order comparison: Based on word order (Subject-Verb-Object vs Verb-Subject-Object)—Amuzgo seems most similar to **English (SVO)** among the options.

CHAPTER Eight: Syntax

 Batool.A.Alshawhi

Language is more than just a collection of words. What makes words meaningful is the way we arrange them. For example, saying “*dog bites man*” is very different from “*man bites dog*.” The words are the same, but the **order** changes everything. The study of how words are arranged in sentences is called **syntax**.

In this chapter, we explore what syntax is, why it matters, how we analyze it, and how it helps us understand and create meaningful sentences.

What Is Syntax?

The word **syntax** comes from Greek and means “**putting together**” or “**arrangement**.” In language, syntax is the set of rules we follow to **arrange words into phrases and sentences**. These rules tell us what combinations of words sound right or wrong. For example:

- *The boy saw a dog.* ✓
- *Boy the saw dog a.* ✗

Even though all the words are correct English words, only the first sentence follows the correct **syntactic rules**.

Syntax helps us understand the **structure** of language, not just the meaning of individual words.

Syntactic Rules and the “All and Only” Principle

When we create rules for sentence structure, we aim to meet the “**all and only**” rule. This means:

- The rules must allow **all grammatical sentences** (e.g., *She walks to school*).
- The rules must **exclude ungrammatical sentences** (e.g., *She to school walks*).

If our rules allow incorrect combinations, we need to adjust them.

Take this example: we say that in English, a **preposition** like *near* comes before a **noun*, such as *London*, to form a phrase like *near London*. That seems fine. But if we use this rule blindly, we might create *near dog* or *with tree*, which sound wrong. Why? Because in English, prepositions are followed by **noun phrases**, not just single nouns.

So instead of saying:

Prepositional phrase = Preposition + Noun

We should say:

Prepositional phrase = Preposition + **Noun Phrase**

This change makes sure we only generate **correct** phrases like *near a tree* or *with the dog*, not incorrect ones like *with dog*.

Generative Grammar: Rules That Produce Sentences

A major idea in syntax is that we can use a **small set of rules** to create **an unlimited number of correct sentences**. This is called **generative grammar**.

Think of it like a recipe. You don't need a different recipe for every cake. You just need a few rules about ingredients and steps. Similarly, with a few syntactic rules, we can generate countless sentences in a language.

Generative grammar doesn't just describe what sentences look like. It also helps us understand **how they are built**. This is especially useful when we notice that some sentences look different but are related in meaning—or that some look the same but mean different things.

Deep and Surface Structures

Two sentences can look different but have **the same core meaning**:

- *Charlie broke the window.*
- *The window was broken by Charlie.*

The first sentence is **active**; it focuses on what Charlie did. The second is **passive**; it focuses on what happened to the window. On the surface, they look different. But at a deeper level, they share the same basic meaning: **Charlie is the one who caused the window to break**.

We call this deeper level of meaning the **deep structure**. The version we actually say or hear is called the **surface structure**.

So, one deep structure can lead to several different surface structures:

- *Charlie broke the window.*
- *The window was broken by Charlie.*
- *It was Charlie who broke the window.*
- *Was the window broken by Charlie?*

All of these are different on the surface, but they come from **the same underlying idea**.

Structural Ambiguity: One Sentence, Two Meanings

Some sentences look simple but can mean two very different things. For example:

- *Annie bumped into a man with an umbrella.*

Did Annie have the umbrella? Or did the man? The sentence doesn't make it clear. This is called **structural ambiguity**—the same sentence structure allows **two different interpretations**, depending on how the words are grouped.

This is different from **lexical ambiguity**, which happens when a single word has more than one meaning. For example:

- *Their child has grown another foot.*

Here, *foot* could mean a body part or a unit of measurement.

One famous joke by comedian Groucho Marx plays with structural ambiguity:

I once shot an elephant in my pajamas. How he got into my pajamas, I'll never know.

The sentence sounds like the **elephant** was wearing pajamas, not Groucho. The humor comes from playing with the structure and meaning.

Visualizing Structure: Tree Diagrams

To better understand how sentences are built, we can draw **tree diagrams**. These diagrams show how each part of a sentence fits into the whole.

Here's how it works:

1. **S** stands for **Sentence**.
2. A sentence breaks into two parts: **NP** (Noun Phrase) and **VP** (Verb Phrase).
3. A Noun Phrase might include an article (Art) like *the*, and a noun (N) like *dog*.
4. A Verb Phrase might include a verb (V) like *saw* and another Noun Phrase.

So, the sentence *The girl saw a dog* breaks down like this:

- Sentence (S)
 - Noun Phrase (The girl)
 - Verb Phrase (saw a dog)

Each word fits into a category, and each category has a place in the structure. The tree helps us **see the rules in action**.

Symbols in Syntax

Syntactic rules use a few basic symbols:

- **S** = sentence

- **NP** = noun phrase
- **VP** = verb phrase
- **N** = noun
- **V** = verb
- **Art** = article
- **Adj** = adjective
- **Pro** = pronoun
- **PN** = proper noun
- **PP** = prepositional phrase
- **!** = “consists of”
- **()** = optional part
- **{ }** = choose only one option

For example, this rule:

$NP \rightarrow \text{Art (Adj) N}$

means a noun phrase can be: article + optional adjective + noun.

So we can generate:

- *the dog*
- *a big cat*
- *the boring book*

Phrase Structure Rules and Lexical Rules

Phrase structure rules help us describe how parts of a sentence are organized. Here are a few key ones:

- $S \rightarrow NP VP$
- $NP \rightarrow \{\text{Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}\}$
- $VP \rightarrow V NP (PP) (Adv)$
- $PP \rightarrow \text{Prep NP}$

These show that a **noun phrase** can be built in multiple ways (with articles, pronouns, or proper nouns). A **verb phrase** may also include a verb, a noun phrase, and maybe a prepositional phrase or adverb.

To fill in these structures with real words, we use **lexical rules**. For example:

- **PN** → Mary, George
- **Art** → a, the
- **N** → dog, boy, girl
- **Pro** → it, you
- **V** → saw, helped, followed

This way, we can create correct sentences like:

- *Mary helped George.*
- *A dog followed the boy.*
- *You saw it.*

And we can spot incorrect ones like:

- *Dog followed boy.* ✗
- *George Mary dog.* ✗
- *Helped George the dog.* ✗

Movement Rules: Making Questions

Until now, all our rules create **statements**. But what about **questions**?

To form questions, we use **movement rules**. For example, we can take the auxiliary verb (*can*, *will*, etc.) and move it to the start of the sentence.

From:

You can see it.

We create:

Can you see it?

This is done using a rule like:

S → NP Aux VP

then

Move Aux to the front

So:

- *You will help Mary.* → *Will you help Mary?*
- *You could see it.* → *Could you see it?*

This shows that sentence structure is flexible but still follows **rules** when we shift things around.

Conclusion

Syntax is the system of rules that helps us build sentences. It tells us which word orders make sense, how meanings are created or confused, and how we can move parts of a sentence to ask questions or highlight ideas.

Through ideas like **deep and surface structure**, **tree diagrams**, **phrase rules**, and **movement rules**, we begin to see language not just as words, but as carefully organized systems. By studying syntax, we get a clearer view of how humans turn thought into speech—and how powerful structure really is in communication.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What is wrong with the rule “A prepositional phrase is formed with a preposition followed by a noun”?

This rule is **too simplistic**. It omits an important element: **a noun phrase (NP)**, not just a noun. A more accurate version would be:

“A prepositional phrase (PP) is formed with a preposition followed by a noun phrase (NP).”

For example, in the PP “*on the table*”, the NP is “*the table*”, not just “*table*”.

2. Do phrase structure rules represent deep structure or surface structure?

Phrase structure rules represent the **deep structure**.

They show the basic underlying structure of a sentence before any transformations (like forming questions or passives) are applied.

3. Which of the following expressions are structurally ambiguous and in what way?

Let’s take each one:

- **(a) These are designed for small boys and girls.**
Ambiguity:
 - *[small boys] and [girls]* (only the boys are small)
 - *small [boys and girls]* (both boys and girls are small)
- **(b) The parents of the bride and groom were waiting outside.**
Ambiguity:
 - The parents of *[the bride and groom]* (two parents)

- *[The parents of the bride]* and *[the groom]* (more people)
- **(c) How come a bed has four legs, but only one foot?**
Playful ambiguity:
 - Physical *legs* of a bed vs. the unit *foot* as a measurement or footboard.
- **(d) We met an English history teacher.**
Ambiguity:
 - A history teacher who is English
 - A teacher who teaches *English history*
- **(e) Flying planes can be dangerous.**
Ambiguity:
 - *Flying* (as a verb): Planes that fly are dangerous
 - *Flying* (as a gerund): The act of flying planes is dangerous
- **(f) The students complained to everyone that they couldn't understand.**
Ambiguity:
 - Students couldn't understand something
 - Everyone couldn't understand something
(Pronoun reference ambiguity)

4. Which of the following expressions would be generated by this phrase structure rule: NP → {Art (Adj) N, Pro, PN}?

Valid expressions:

- (a) *a lady* → Art + N ✓
- (b) *the little girl* → Art + Adj + N ✓
- (c) *her* → Pro ✓
- (d) *Annie* → PN ✓
- (e) *the widow* → Art + N ✓
- (f) *she's an old woman* → ✗ This is a sentence, not an NP

5. Which of these sentences would result from applying the rule: NP Aux VP → Aux NP VP?

This rule describes **yes/no question formation**. So only questions match:

- (a) *George will follow Mary.* → ✗ (declarative)
 - (b) *Could you follow it?* → ✓
 - (c) *Can George see the dog?* → ✓
 - (d) *The girl helped you.* → ✗
-

6. Complete the following tree diagrams:

For both:

(a) $S \rightarrow NP VP$

- $NP \rightarrow \text{Art } N \rightarrow a \text{ girl}$
- $VP \rightarrow V NP \rightarrow \text{saw you}$

(b) $S \rightarrow NP VP$

- $NP \rightarrow PN \rightarrow Mary$
 - $VP \rightarrow \text{Aux } VP$
 - $\text{Aux} \rightarrow can$
 - $VP \rightarrow V NP \rightarrow \text{help the boy}$
-

TASKS

A. Distinction between “competence” and “performance”:

- **Competence:** A speaker’s **unconscious knowledge** of the rules of a language (syntax, phonology, etc.)
 - **Performance:** The **actual use** of language in real situations, which may include errors, hesitations, and interruptions
-

B. What is “an embedded structure”? Examples?

An **embedded structure** is a **sentence within a sentence**, often appearing as a **complement**.

Example:

I believe [that she knows the answer].

Here, the embedded clause “*that she knows the answer*” functions as the object of “*believe*.”

C. Which tree diagram could represent “George saw the boy with a telescope”?

This sentence is **structurally ambiguous**:

1. [George saw [the boy with a telescope]] → The boy has the telescope
2. [George [saw the boy] with a telescope] → George used the telescope

Both tree diagrams are possible. Context decides meaning.

D. Wanna-contraction: What do children know?

Children somehow know **not** to contract “want to” when **an object intervenes**.

- Allowed:
 - *Who do you want to visit?* → *wanna visit* ✓
 - *How many friends do you wanna invite?* ✓
- Blocked:
 - *Who do you want to (wanna) win the game?* ✗
(*You want [someone] to win* → *you don’t wanna win someone*)

Rule:

“Want to” can only be contracted to “wanna” when **there is no noun phrase between “want” and “to.”**

E. Ewe phrase structure rules – mark ungrammatical sentences:

Rules:

- NP → N (Art)
- S → NP VP
- VP → V NP

Check if structure follows the rule.

- (1) *Oge xa ika* ✓
- (2) *Ye amu vo oge* ✗ (Art can’t begin NP)
- (3) *Ika oge xa ye* ✗ (wrong word order)
- (4) *Oge ye vo ika ye* ✗ (double Art)
- (5) *Amu xa oge* ✓

- (6) *Vo oge ika* ✗ (V at start missing NP)
- (7) *Amu ye vo ika* ✗
- (8) *Ye ika xa ye oge* ✗
- (9) *Xa amu ye* ✗
- (10) *Oge ye xa amu* ✓

Only: (1), (5), (10) are grammatical.

F. Scottish Gaelic: identify ungrammatical ones and draw trees for grammatical

Rules (simplified):

- $S \rightarrow NP VP$
- $NP \rightarrow Art N (Adj)$
- PN = proper noun
- $V \rightarrow verb$

Now test:

- (1) *Calum chunnaic an gille.* ✓
- (2) *Bhuail an beag cu Tearlach.* ✗ (Adj before N violates rule)
- (3) *Bhuail an gille mor an cu.* ✓
- (4) *Chunnaic Tearlach an gille.* ✓
- (5) *Ban an cu an duine beag.* ✗ (Adj before Art/N)
- (6) *Fhuair Mairi an cu ban.* ✓

Grammatical: (1), (3), (4), (6)

Draw trees accordingly using $NP \rightarrow Art N Adj$ or PN; $VP \rightarrow V NP$

G. Tamasheq basic structure and language comparison

From (1) – *war səkədiwan meddan asink* → (not) (cook) (men) (porridge)
= **SVO with negation marker**

Sentences:

- (2) *meddan a waren isəkədiw asink* → “Men aren’t the ones who cook porridge.”

- (3) *asink, meddan a waren t-isakadiw* → “Porridge, men aren’t the ones who cook it.”
- (4) *wadde medan a isakadawan asink* → “It isn’t men who cook porridge.”
- (5) *meddan war sakadiwan asink?* → “Men don’t cook porridge?”

Which language matches Tamasheq structure?

→ **English** shares a similar **SVO structure with fronting/emphasis**. Ewe and Japanese have different syntactic orders.

H. Recursion: Fill in the missing elements in the tree diagram

Using rules:

- $S \rightarrow NP VP$
- $VP \rightarrow V CP$
- $CP \rightarrow C S$

You create recursive sentences like:

He said [that she believed [that Mary helped you]].

You continue embedding clauses using CP repeatedly.