# The Aims of Linguistic Theory

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# Outline



Natural Language Processing

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Structural Analysis

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Transformational Rules

# Topic



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# The Aims of Linguistic Theory



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In contrast with programming language we have no

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#### Outline

- Introducing of some basic linguistic terminology.
- We show diagnostics and techniques used by linguists for the examiniation of the structure of natural language utterances.
- Some general goals of a theory of language.



### MAIN GOAL

 Generalizations about the STRUCTURE and MEANING of sentence.



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#### These five perspectives contribute to this goal:

Syntax – structure



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- Semantics meaning



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- Morphology structure of the word
- Phonology structure of sounds
- Others structure of discourse, study of brain mechanisms

# Syntax of the Sentence



### **Patterns**

Certain structural regularities.

### Example

- John left the party earlier.
- 2 The man with the coat left the party earlier.
- 3 Every guest left the party earlier.
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Highlighted words in each sentence appear in the same structural context and all perform the same grammatical function – subject.

- Each highlighted word can be replaced by any of the others and it is still grammatically correct.
- This part is called DISTRIBUTINAL ANALYSIS.
- Important unit noun phrase.

# Examples: Distributional Analysis



## Example

#### Prepositional Phrase

- 1 The man with the coat walked in.
- 2 The book on the shelf is mine.
- 3 John put the book on the shelf.

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#### Example

#### Verb Phrase

- Bill ate the cake and Mary ate the pie.
- 2 Mary likes to go swimming and Bill does too.
- 3 John made Mary pack her bags.

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Considering two sentences above we know:

 There is a relation between John and to leave. (subject-predicate relation)



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### Example

- 1 I expected John to leave.
- 2 I persuaded John to leave.

### Considering two sentences above we know:

- There is a relation between John and to leave. (subject-predicate relation)
- John performs the role of the object in 2, but not in 1.
  - In 1, what is being expected is the entire proposition (John's leaving).



## How do we do structural analysis?

• syntactic (also diagnostic) tests



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- examining the meaning of sentences



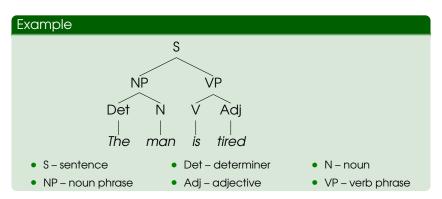
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- examining the meaning of sentences
- difference between object of the verb
  - expect object is whole sentence
  - persuade has two objects noun phrase and embedded sentence



 Tree structures are the key to the analysis of natural language syntax.

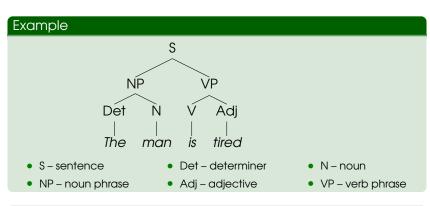


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• Linguistic notation (phrase marker):

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## Tree Structures



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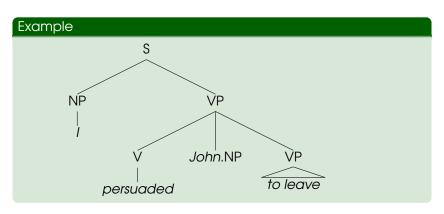
3 the phrase marker for

$$B$$
 $f_1 \dots f_n$ 

is 
$$[B\{t_1\}...\{t_n\}]$$

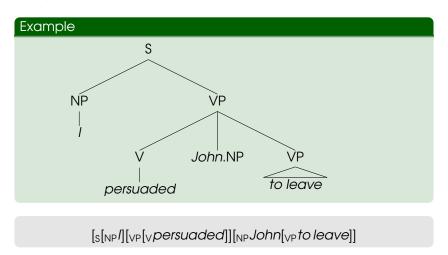


persuade



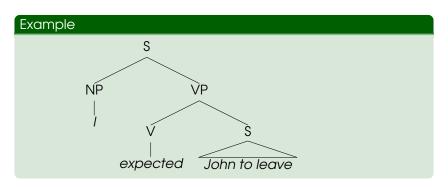


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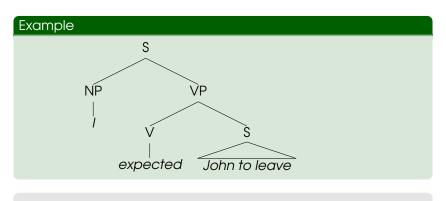


expect





expect



[s[NP/[vP[vexpected]][s[NPJohn][vPtoleave]]]]

 Note: As you can notice John to leave is marked as sentence S. (Further information can be found in literature.)

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Q: How to relate two sentences with the same meaning but different structure?

active and passive forms in English



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active and passive forms in English

A: Relatedness between sentences can be captured by deriving the two phrase markers (Chomsky):

- S-structures (surface structure)
- D-structures (deep structure)



According the Chomsky transformational theory, grammar for natural language has the following components:

- Set of phrase structure rules (all of them in form of context-free rules)
- 2 A lexicon (dictionary for the language)
- 3 The transformational rules
- Rules of phonology



#### Lexicon contains this type of information:

- Categorization
- 2 Subcategorization
- 3 Selectional Restriction
- 4 Argument structure
- 6 Lexical semantics
- 6 Phonetic representation



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Lexical entry for word hit hit: V, <NP>, (AGENT, THEME, INSTR)

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#### Example

Lexical entry for word hit

hit: V, <NP>, (AGENT, THEME, INSTR)

- (1) represents grammatical type,
- (2) hit is a transitive verb, taking an NP object,
- (4) argument structure is a list of thematic roles



Transformational rules establish generalization in language.

#### Passive Transformation

 One rule captures the relatedness between the active and passive forms of sentence.



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- Definition: In a context, NP V NP X:
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Passive Transformation						
SD:	NP	V	NP	Χ		
	1	2	3	4	$\Rightarrow$	
SC:	3	<i>be</i> +2(pp)	4	<i>by</i> + 1		

• SD - structural description

SC - structural change



### Example

 $[_{S[NP}\textit{this man}[_{AUX}][_{VP}[_{V}\textit{love}][_{NP}\textit{Mary}]]]$ 



# Example [s[NP this man[AUX][VP[V love][NP Mary]]]

SD:	this man	love	Mary	Χ	
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# Example [s[NP this man[AUX][VP[Vlove][NP Mary]]]

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The **result** of the passive transformation is **the sentence in** passive form with the same meaning as the sentence in active form.



#### Example

Some problems could be in sentences containing idioms. For example:

- 1 John took advantage of the situation.
- 2 Advantage was taken of the situation by John.
- 3 The situation was taken advantage of by John.



### Contraction in English

Eg. using verb want in everyday speech:

- I wanna buy the beer for the party.
- want and to become one word phonetically
- (also others going to  $\rightarrow$  gonna, used to  $\rightarrow$  useta)



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 $\Rightarrow$  Q: Can we contract *want* and *to* if they are contiguous?

Answer: No.



- Who do you want to buy the beer for the party?
   we can not contract to
- © Who do you wanna buy the beer for the party?



#### Example

- Who do you want to buy the beer for the party?
   we can not contract to
- © Who do you wanna buy the beer for the party?

 $\rightarrow$  Why we can not do this? It is explained by deep study of the sentence structure.



#### wh-questions

- One type of generalization that can be captured by transformations involves questions.
- Questions involving who and what are called wh-questions.



## Example

#### TYPE I

la John drove his car.

2a John thinks Mary drove his car.

3a John thinks Mary wants Bill to drive his car.



#### Example

#### TYPE I

- 1a John drove his car.
- 2a John thinks Mary drove his car.
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#### TYPE II

- 1b What did John drive?
- 1c Who drove his car?
- 2b Who does John think drove his car?
- 2c What does John think Mary drove?
- 3b Who does John think Mary wants to drive his car?
- 3c What does John think Mary wants Bill to drive?



#### wh-movement

Q: How could we generate sentences in these two classes?
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#### wh-movement

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# wh-movement SD: X wh Y 1 2 3 ⇒ SC: 2 do+1 e 3

• e - empty category (trace) marking an interesting concept



## Example

Applying this rule to sentence 1b:

SD:	John drive	what	ε		
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Result: What, does John drive  $e_i$ ?

• Index *i* means that wh-word and trace refer to the same thing.



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Result: What, does John drive  $e_i$ ?

 Index i means that wh-word and trace refer to the same thing.

By comparing two sentences 1a and 1b we get following semantic representation:

- DRIVE(John, John's car)
- 2 ?(For which x) DRIVE (John, x)



- wh-questions explain previous example with contraction of want and to.
- In fact, want and to are not contiguous, because there is a NP-trace between them.
  - You want who to buy the beer for the party?
     and after applying the wh-movement we get:
  - Who<sub>i</sub> do you want e<sub>i</sub> to buy the beer for the party?



- John is believed to be wanted by police, by everyone in this room.
- $\rightarrow$  Apply reverse passive transformation to get the sentence in active form:



- John is believed to be wanted by police, by everyone in this room.
- ightarrow Apply reverse passive transformation to get the sentence in active form:
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- $\rightarrow$  The sentence still contains a passive form  $\rightarrow$  apply passive transformation:



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    - [s[NP everyone . . . ][VP believe[s[NP the police] want John]]]



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    - [s[NPeveryone...][VPbelieve[s[NPthe police]want John]]]

In the original sentence were two passives. How do we know where to apply the rule first?



#### How do we know where to apply the rule first?

- Apply the rule to the lowest (most deeply embedded) sentence.
- 2 Work our way up to the top cycle.

wh-movement also applies cyclically.

## References



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