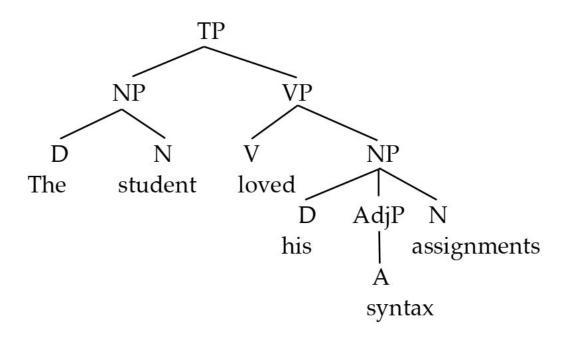
Constituency, Trees, and Rules

Syntactic trees



Internal Structure & Constituents

1) The Mayor of Helsa eats butterflies for breakfast

How do we represent (1)?

2) [Mayor, the, eats, of, Helsa, butterflies, breakfast, for]

We are not constructing sentences by simply stringing words together like beads on a necklace!

Representation (2) doesn't tell us anything about the internal structure of (1).

Syntactic trees

3. I see the man with binoculars

Reading 1: I see [the man with binoculars]

Reading 2: I see [the man] with binoculars

Syntactic trees allow us to differentiate between the two readings of sentences like (3).

Internal Structure & Constituents

- Words are grouped into units called "constituents"
- "Constituents" are groups of words that functions together as a unit.
- Constituents are grouped together to form a sentence

Which sets of words intuitively seem to belong together?

1) The Mayor of Helsa eats butterflies for breakfast

1.

Constituency

Let's start with the first set of slides

Constituency tests

How do we find out whether certain groups of words form a constituent (i.e. they "belong together")?

We use something called constituency tests.

There are **various types** of constituency tests:

- Substitution
- Movement
- Coordination

The Substitution Test

If something forms a constituent, it can be replaced by elements such as "they, it, do so, there".

- 4. The children will stop at the corner if they see us do so.
- → They will stop at the corner if they see us do so [The children] forms a constituent.
- → They will stop there if they see us do so [At the corner] forms a constituent.
- → The children will stop at the corner if they see us do so [stop at the corner] forms a constituent.

The Substitution Test

4. The children will stop at the corner if they see us do so.

[The children will] doesn't form a constituent.

[At the] doesn't form a constituent.

[The will stop] doesn't form a constituent.

The Coordination Test

If something forms a constituent, it can be joined to another group of words by a conjunction such as "and, or, but".

- 5. The children stopped at the corner.
- → The children [stopped at the corner] but [didn't look both ways] [stopped at the corner] forms a constituent.
- → The children stopped [at the corner] and [at the bus stop].
 [At the corner] forms a constituent.
 [the corner] forms a constituent.

The Coordination Test

*The children stopped [at the] corner and [at the]

[at the] does not form a constituent.

The Movement Test

If something forms a constituent, it can be moved as a single unit to a different position in the sentence.

- 5. The children stopped at the corner.
- → [At the corner], the children stopped[at the corner] forms a constituent.

Summing up

Groups of words that form a unit are called "constituents".

To determine whether something forms a constituent we use **constituency tests**.

We have seen three types of constituency tests:

- Substitutionreplace with "it, they, she/he, this, there, do so"
- Movement
 move the constituent, e.g. to the front of the clause
- Coordination
 Use "and, or, but" to join to another group of words

Exercise

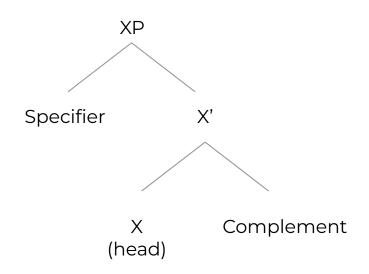
Identify the constituents in the following sentences:

- 6. The owner of the shop turned off the light.
- 7. Sam and Patricia decided to cook pasta at the hotel.

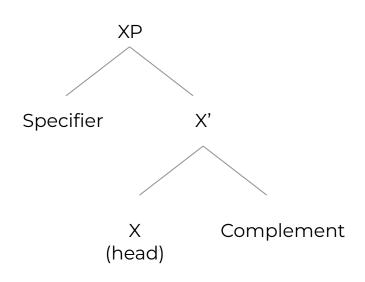
2.

Phrase Structure

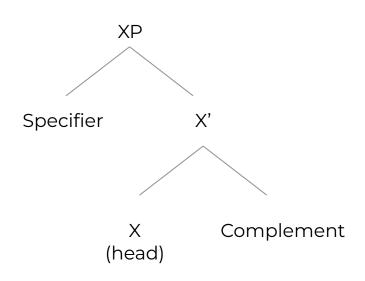
Let's start with the first set of slides



- This is the blueprint of a **phrase**.
- It is a **three-level** structure. The levels are X, X' (read: X "bar") and XP.
- ALL phrases minimally contain a head, X.
- If there's a **complement**, it is attached at the intermediate X' level, as the "sister" of X.
- If there is a specifier, it is attached at the XP level.
- This blueprint is called the X' schema.



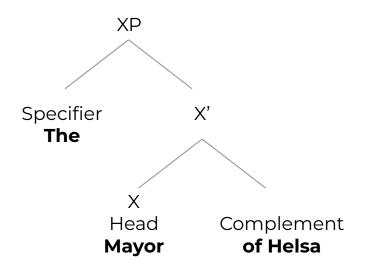
- These structures are also called (inverted) trees.
- The lines are called "branches"

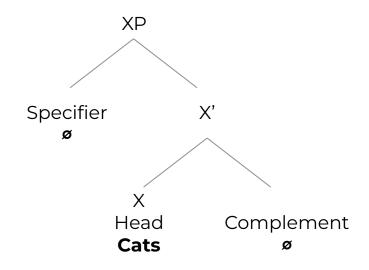


- These structures are also called (inverted) **trees**.
- The lines are called "branches"

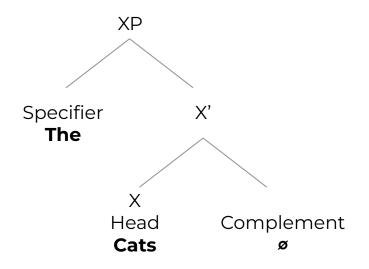
Tree representation of the constituent "the Mayor of Helsa".

The Mayor of Helsa eats butterflies.

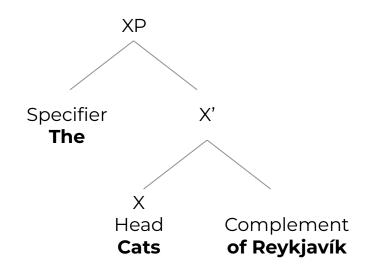




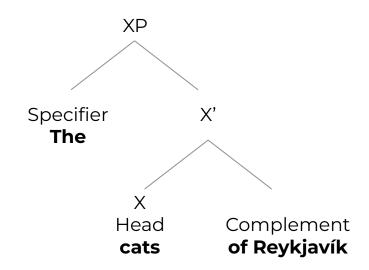
[Cats] like fish



[The cats] like fish



[The cats of Reykjavík] like fish



[The cats of Reykjavík] like fish

- There are three possible levels.
 The levels are X, X' and XP.
- ALL phrases minimally contain a head,
 X.
- Some phrases will also have a complement.
 The complement is attached at the X' level.
- Some phrases will also have a specifier.
 The specifier is attached at the XP level.

2. Heads

Let's start with the first set of slides

Heads

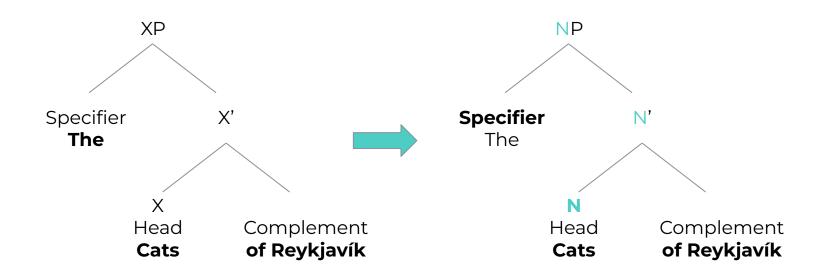
The head is the **obligatory** nucleus around which a phrase is built.

The head **defines the type** of syntactic constituent:

- Constituents with nouns as heads will be **noun phrases** (NP)
- Constituents with verbs as heads will be verb phrases (VP)
- Constituents with adjectives as heads will be **adjectival phrases** (AdjP/AP)
- Constituents with prepositions as heads will be **prepositional phrases** (PP)

Across different syntactic constituents, the blueprint remains the same, but the labels on the tree differ.

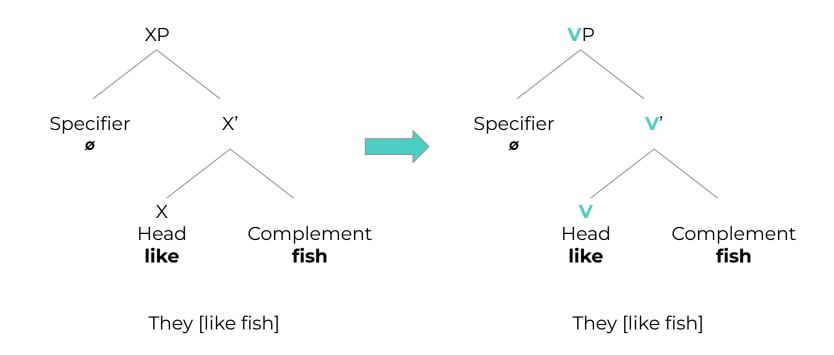
Noun Phrase



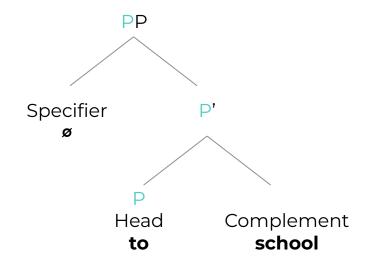
[The cats of Reykjavík] like fish

[The cats of Reykjavík] like fish

Verb Phrase

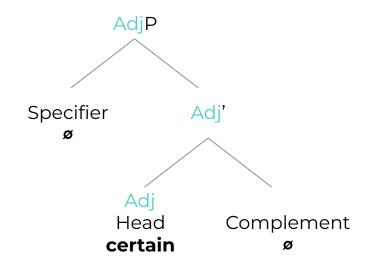


Prepositional Phrase



[to school]

Adjectival Phrase



She is [certain]

Recap, Heads

The head is the **obligatory** nucleus around which a phrase is built.

The head **defines the type** of syntactic constituent.

We have

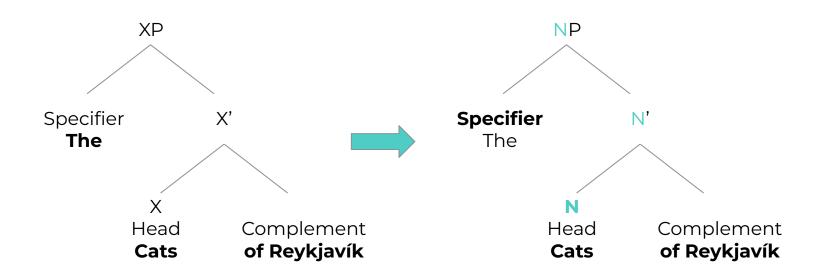
- noun phrases (NP)
- verb phrases (VP)
- **adjectival phrases** (AdjP/AP)
- prepositional phrases (PP)

Across different syntactic constituents, the blueprint remains the same, but the labels on the tree differ.

Specifiers

Let's start with the first set of slides

Noun Phrase



[The cats of Reykjavík] like fish

[The cats of Reykjavík] like fish

Specifiers

The type of specifier that appears in a particular phrase depends on the category of the head.

Category	Typical Function	Examples
Determiner (D)	Specifier of N	The, a, this, every
Adverb (Adv)	Specifier of V	Often, always, peacefully
Degree word	Specifier of Adj	very , quite, more

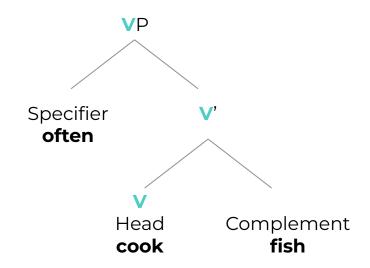
Specifiers

Specifiers help make the meaning of the head more precise:

•	[the cats]	"the" indicates that the speaker is thinking of specific	
		cats.	

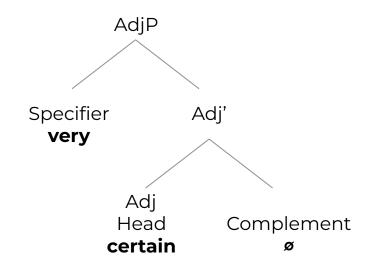
- [always like fish] "always" indicates that the event described by the verb always occurs.
- [very certain] "very" indicates that the extent to which the property of being certain is manifested.

Verb Phrase



They [often cook fish]

Adjectival Phrase



She is [very certain]

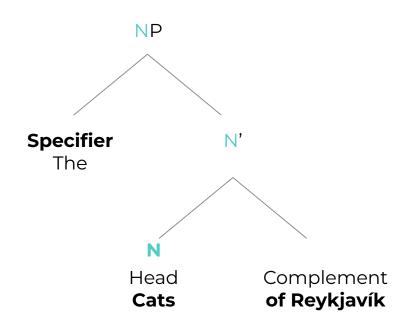


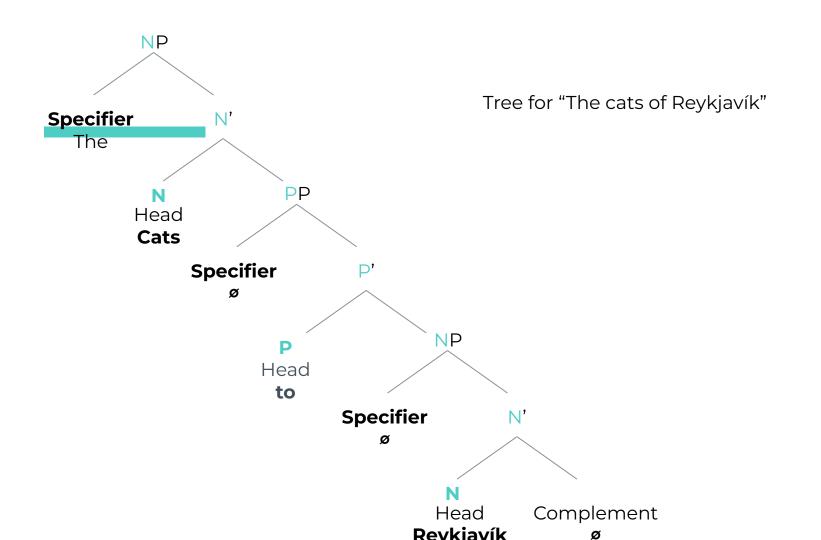
Complements

Let's start with the first set of slides

Complements

- Some phrases feature complements.
- Complements often provide information on the entity described by the head.
- Complements are phrases themselves, so they have an internal structure.





5.

Drawing Trees

Let's start with the first set of slides

How do we draw trees?

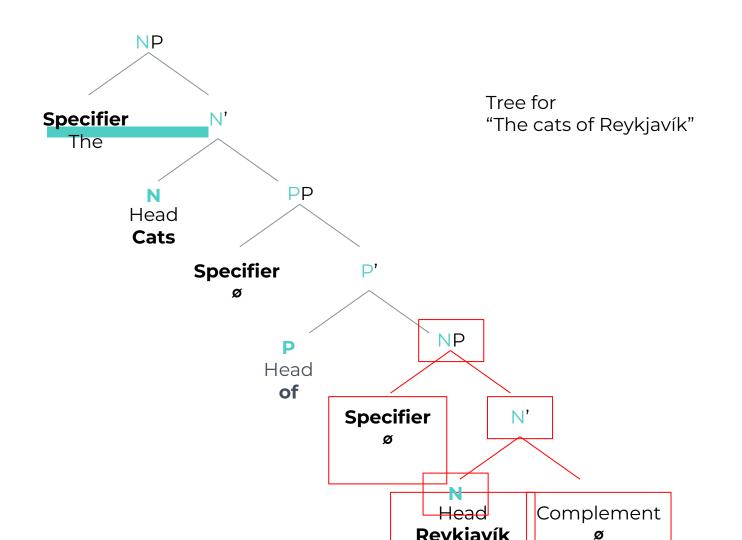
You won't be able to draw trees easily until you literally do dozens of them.

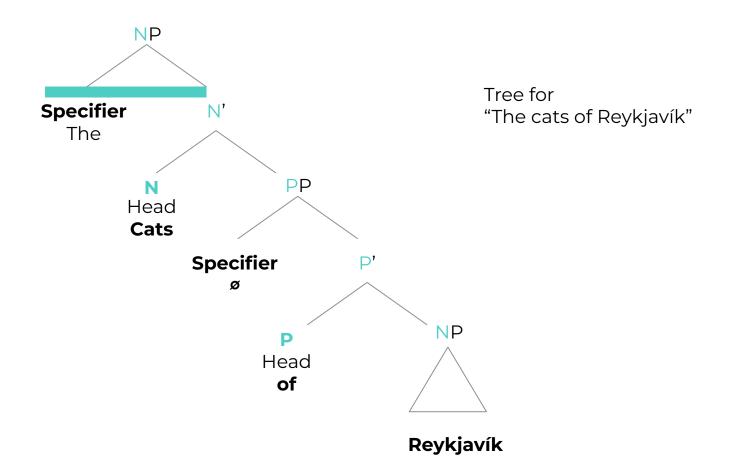
There are two ways to go about drawing a tree:

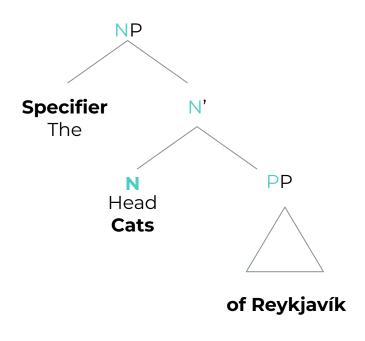
- You start at the bottom and work your way up to the top node (beginner-friendly mode)
- You start with the top node and work your way down.

Tips and tricks

If you are not interested in showing the internal structure of complements and specifiers (or you don't have the space), **you can use triangles** in place of the full X-bar schema.







Tree for "The cats of Reykjavík"

NP

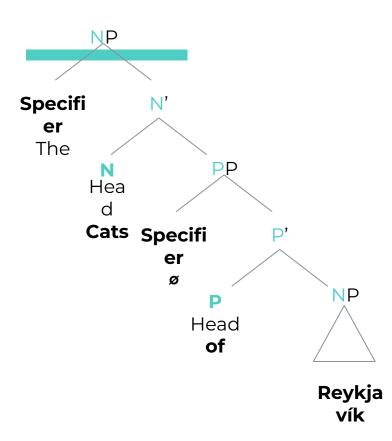


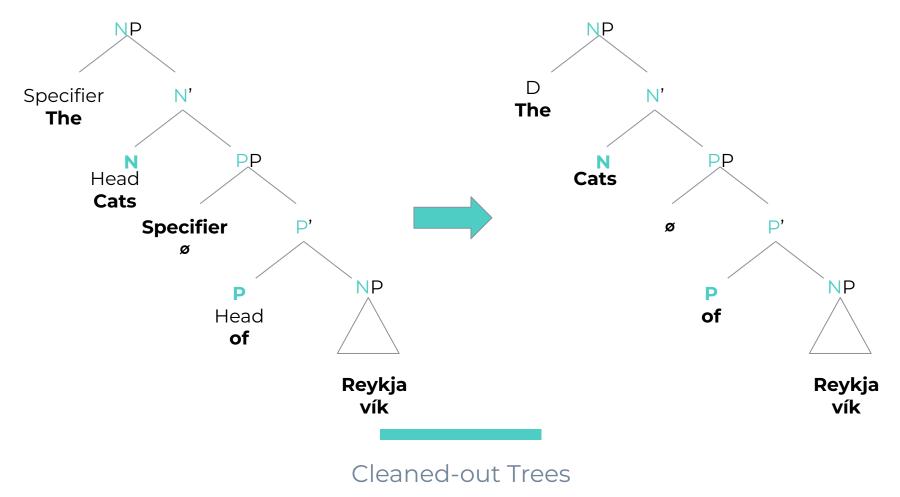
The cats of Reykjavík

Tree for "The cats of Reykjavík"

Tips and tricks - 2

You don't need to write down "complementizer" nor "specifier".





Let's practice!

Let's draw trees for the following constituents:

- a) Geneva
- b) The noise of the ocean
- c) Every zoo of the world
- d) Always try
- e) So witty
- f) Less bleak
- g) Never surrender

6.

Drawing Trees: Sentences

Let's start with the first set of slides

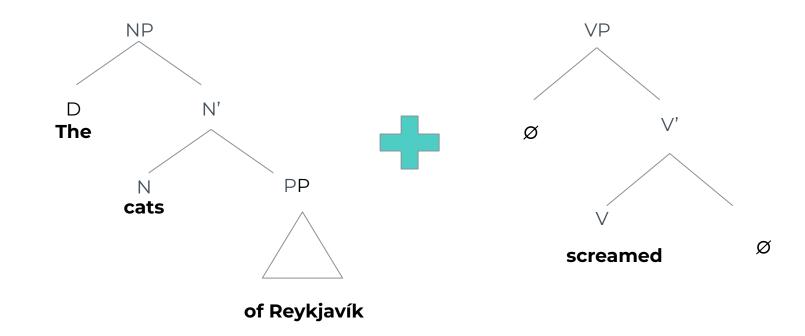
Drawing sentences

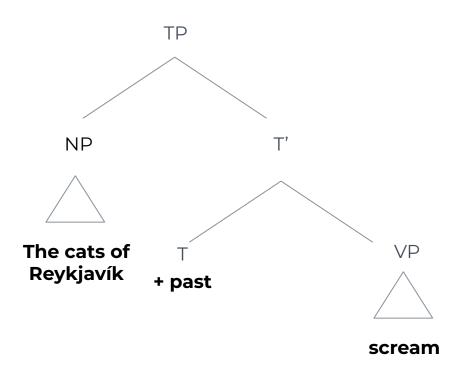
The largest unit of syntactic analysis is the sentence.

Sentences typically consist of a subject (generally a NP) and a verb (VP).

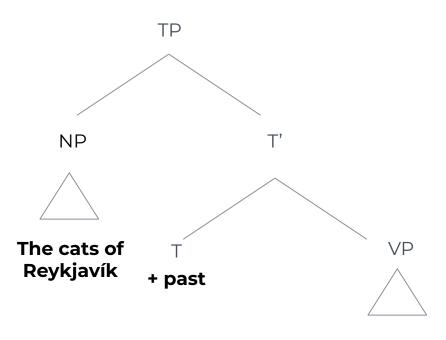
[The cats of Reykjavík NP] [screamed VP]

Drawing sentences

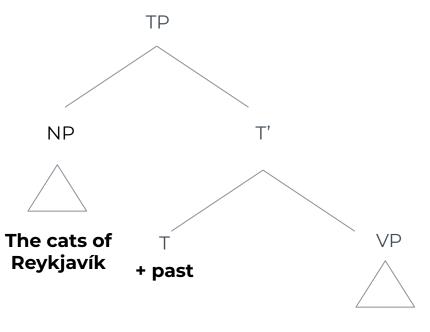




- T stands for Tense.
- "Tense" captures the tense information of the verb (e.g. whether the verb is in the present or past tense).
- In earlier works, T is referred to as "I" or "Infl", which stands for "Inflection".



This structure has the advantage of **giving** sentences the same internal structure of any other constituents: sentences contain a specifier (the subject) and a complement (the verb).



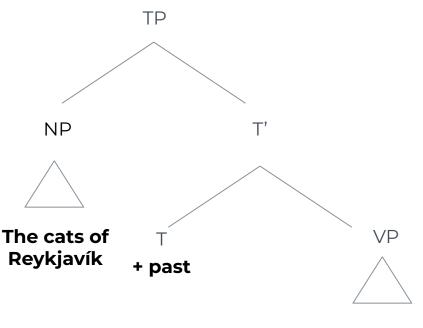
Things to remember

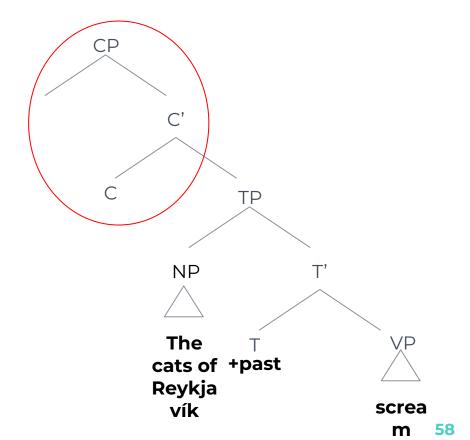
- Every sentence contains a verb, so every sentential tree must have a VP
- Every VP must be the complement of a TP
- In English, the T head position will be filled by a modal auxiliary, or a tense specification.
- The subject will be in the specifier-of-T position.

How do we represent the internal structure of the yes/no question

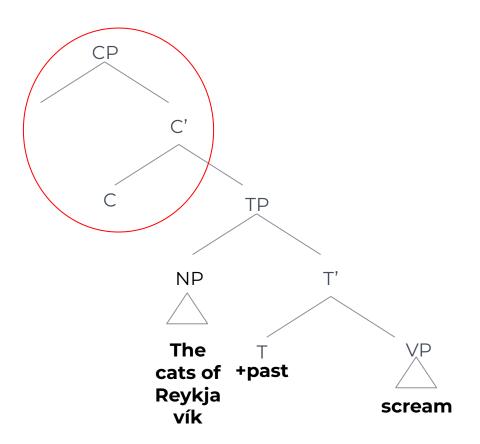
"Did the cats of Reykjavík scream?"

?

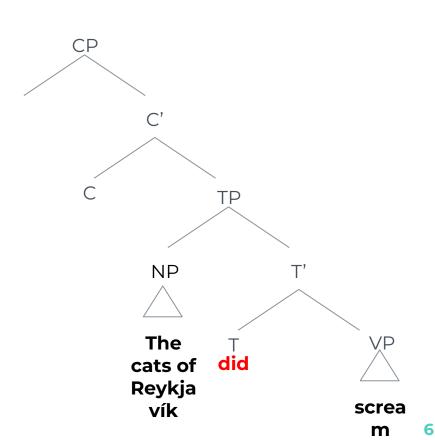




- C stands for "Complementizer".
 CP then stands for Complementizer Phrase.
- What is a complementizer?
 Words like "if" and "that", which we use to connect clauses, are complementizers.
- a) "I said **that** the cats of Reykjavík scream"
- b) "I wonder **if** the cats of Reykjavík scream"
- Complementizers are a functional, closed category.



"Do" insertion



"Do" insertion

