**Speech acts:**

It is an utterance as a functional unit in communication. In speech acts theory, utterances have two kinds of meaning:

a) Propositional meaning: This is the basic literal meaning of the utterance which is conveyed by the particular words and structures.

b) Illocutionary meaning: This is the effect the utterance or written text has on the reader or listener. For example, in “I am thirsty.” The propositional meaning is what the utterance says about the speaker’s physical state. The illocutionary meaning is the effect the speaker wants the utterance to have on the listener.

**Speech acts classification:**

According to (Searle, 1981), speech acts can be classified into five parts:

i) **Commissive**: a speech act that commits the speaker to doing something in the future, such as a promise or a threat:

- *If you don’t stop fighting I’ll call the police.* (threat)

- *I’ll take you to the movies tomorrow.* (promise)

ii) **Declarative**: a speech act which changes the state of affairs in the world. For example, during the wedding ceremony the act of marriage is performed when the phrase “I now pronounce you man and wife” is uttered.

iii) **Directive**: a speech act that has the function of getting the listener to do something, such as a suggestion, a request, or a command:

- *Please sit down.* (request)
- *Why don’t you close the window?*(suggestion)

vi) **Expressive**: a speech act in which the speaker expresses feelings and attitudes about something, such as apology, a complaint, to thank someone, to congratulate someone:

- *The meal was delicious.* (to thank someone)

vii) **Representative**: a speech act which describes states or events in the world, such as an assertion, a claim, a report:

- *This is a German car.* (assertion)
Chapter Seven

1) **Surface Syntax**: The structure that is transformed from deepstructure, which determines pronunciation and represents grammatical sentences. Or it is the final stage in the syntactic representation of a sentence; it goes with performance in speech or writing. For example, John could not sign well.

**Parts of speech (word class)** = they are two kinds:

i) Open class items: (nouns, verbs, adj., adv.)
   - real, basic, concrete of parts of speech.
   - unlimited.
   - have the same grammatical properties and structural possibilities.

ii) Closed – system item: (prepositions, articles, conjunctions, pronouns, demonstratives, interjection (or exclamation) and enumerators.
   - limited.
   - display an independence of meaning and use.

**Sentence**: sentences can be classified in terms of assertion & non – assertion:

**Assertion**    positive
Declarative statement: Ali is rich

**Non-assertion**
Negative (Ali isn't here)

**Interrogative**
positive (Is Ali here?)
Negative (Isn't Ali here?)

**The Grammatical categories:**

- **Singular**
- **Number**
- **Plural**
- **masculine (actor)**
- **feminine (actress)**
neuter(car, ship, she, baby = it)

**Nouns**

- **case**
  - possessive (my, mine)
    - Subjective (I, you ...)
    - Objective (me, us ...)
  - Person (pronouns)
    - 1st person (speaker: I, we)
    - 2nd person addressee (you)
    - 3rd person the then sealer
    - or addressee (he, she, it)

**Verbs**

- **tense**
  - past
    - present
      - several ways of future
  - aspect
    - perfective completion of an action
    - progressive continuity of action
      - rather than completion
  - voice
    - active
  - passive
    - mood
      - indicative: Ali is clever.
(syntactic) **_subjunctive_** : if I were a king

imperative : Go there  

Semantic uncertainty

- Possibility by means of modal
- Obligation auxiliaries

**Number:** the grammatical category distinguishing between singular & plural.

**Case:** a grammatical category of nouns indicating its relationship to other words in a sentence.

**Aspect:** refers primarily to the way the grammar marks the duration or type of temporal activity denoted by the verb.

**Tense:** refers primarily to the way the grammar marks the time at which the action denoted by the verb took place.

**Voice:** a category used in the grammatical description of sentence or clause structure, primarily with reference to verbs, to express the way sentences may alter the relationship between the subject & object of a verb without changing the meaning of the sentence.
**Mood:** a term used in the theoretical and descriptive study of sentence type. It refers to a set of syntactic and semantic contrasts signaled by alternative verb forms.

**Deep syntax:** A structure generated by phrase-structure and lexical rules, e.g., not John past can sing well. 

**Transformational grammar:** a grammar which converts deep structure in to surface structure by means of transformations (i.e., addition, deletion, rearrangement, ad substitution).

**Phrase structure rules:** the rules by which we analyze sentences to the smallest element that cannot be cut.

P1: $S \rightarrow (SM) \text{Nuc}$

P2: $\text{Nuc} \rightarrow \text{Np} + \text{Vp}$

P3: $\text{Vp} \rightarrow \text{aux} + \text{Mv(manner)(place)(time)(reason)}$

P4: $\text{Aux} \rightarrow \text{tense (M) (have +en)(be +ing)}$

P5: $\text{Tense} \rightarrow \text{present}$
This book is a text.

Ali was in the car.

She was very rude.

John ran.

Bill sold the tickets.

e.g. not they present can hear you
They Can Not Hear You

(Surface Structure)

You
General Notes and Characteristics of T.G.G.

1. Transformational – generative theory of language focused primarily on syntax rather on semantics. In addition, according to TGG, the linguistic ladder started with semantics, syntax, and phonology.

2. Chomsky's theory was first called transformational grammar then generative grammar. At last it was called (T.G.G) because if language is not transformational it will be a static language without life and since the relationship between language and life is that language satisfies human needs. So, language without transforms is lifeless.

3. It is structural, but in a new way. It is called transformational because it depends on transformations. It is called generative, because it generates all and only the possible grammatical sentences.

4. Chomsky believes in the universality of human languages, i.e., languages share the general linguistic features and levels like: phonology, morphology, grammar, etc.

5. T.G.G. lays heavy emphasis on the native speaker and his intuition, i.e., the transformationalists concentrate on the native speaker's knowledge and his linguistic competence.

6. A native speaker has in his intuition what is called, 'competence' and 'performance'

7. T.G.G. believes in level mixing (i.e. linguistic levels), starting with semantics, syntax and phonology. They must mix all the levels together.
8. The theory divides sentence into two types:

   a. **Kernel**: original sentence → not received any change, e.g., zeki can open the box.
   
   b. **Derived or transformed sentence** → received one or more changes:
      - Zeki cannot open the box. (i.e. change in to negative)
      - Can't zeki open the box? (i.e. change in to interrogative)

9. They believed that a language has:

   - Transformational rules → to generate infinite number of acceptable sentences.
   
   - e.g. (negative), (passive), etc. transformations.

10. They differentiate between:

    i) **Deep structure**: abstract, underlying or base structure
        - goes with competence, received no change.

    ii) **Surface structure**: final stage of the syntactic representation of sentence received one or more changes goes with performance in speech or writing.

11. Transformation lists can differentiate between sentences, and analyse ambiguous sentences, but structuralists cannot, e.g.,

    1) John is eager to please.
    
    2) John is easy to please.
12. Structuralists say that they are alike; while transformationalists show the difference between them referring to the deep structures saying:

John *eases* somebody, whereas in (2), somebody *pleases* John. In sentence (1):

John.