INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

Licence 3, LINGUISTIQUE ANGLAISE

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BRAINSTORMING (1)

❖Suppose you are the parent of a three-year old daughter who asks if you **_"maked" a cake_** and **_"telled" your friends about it._** How would you describe the pattern your daughter uses to mark past time on these verbs?

BRAINSTORMING (2)

❖ You've agreed to make a list of **foods** and **drinks** that volunteers could contribute to a fundraiser for a college choir undertaking an international tour. All the food items must bear a name that English borrowed from another language.

❖Quickly you think of **sushi** from Japanese, **chop suey** from Chinese, **tortilla** from Spanish, **champagne** from French, and **curry** from a language of India.

❖What other food names can you think of from other languages?

BRAINSTORMING (3)

❖If you were to guess the "top ten" words used in printed English, what would they be?

❖Why did you choose these?

GENERAL OBJECTIVE:

Learners will know the Basics of English Linguistic Morphology

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES:

Learners will be able to account for :

1- The Scope of Linguistic Morphology

2- The Different Components of a Word

3- Morphological Categories

4- Inflectional & Derivational Processes

5- Types of Morphological Systems

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INTRODUCTION (1)

❖The term is generally attributed to the German poet, novelist, playwright & philosopher **Johan Wolfgang von Goethe** (1749-1832) who coined it early in the 19th century in biological context?

❖Its etymology is Greek: ***morph***- means ***"shape/form"*** and ***"-ology"*** means ***"the study of something"***.

❖So, morphology is the **study of form**.

INTRODUCTION (2)

❖ In **Biology** morphology refers to the scientific study of the form and structure of organisms (animals & plants);

❖ In **Geology** it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms.

❖ We are to stick to morphology in **Linguistics** as *the scientific study of forms and structures of words in a language*.

INTRODUCTION (3)

❖ Morphology as a sub-discipline of Linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist **August Schleicher** who used the term for *the study of the form of words*.

❖ Today, morphology forms a core part of Language Studies.

1-The Scope of Linguistic Morphology

1.1- What is Morphology? (1)

❖The field of linguistics that examines **the internal structure of words and processes of word formation** is known as *Morphology*.

❖So, we study Morphology to know the internal structure of words and the segmentation into different kinds of morphemes is essential to *the two basic purposes of morphology*:

➢**The creation of new words;**

➢**The modification of existing words.**

1.1- What is Morphology? (2)

❖The ***morpheme is the smallest meaningful linguistic unit*** and they are of two types:

➢A morpheme which can stand as a word is called a **free morpheme**.

Example: pat; read; speak

➢By contrast, a morpheme unable to function as a free-standing word is called a **bound morpheme.**

Example: -er; -ing; re-; ed

1.2- Words as Tangible Realities

❑The most tangible elements of a language are its **words**.

❑ Using a word requires **four kinds of information**:
❖ its sounds and their sequencing (this is called *phonological* information);
❖ its meanings (*semantic* information);
❖ its category (e.g., noun or verb) and how to use it in a sentence (*syntactic* information);
❖how related words such as the plural (for nouns) and past tense (for verbs) are formed (*morphological* information.

2- The Components of a Word (1)

❖The ultimate starting point for deriving a word, that is, **the most basic morpheme in a word** is its *root*.   *Example* : happy

❖A morpheme added to the right of a root is a *suffix*. *Example*: happi**ness**

❖One added to the left of the root, such as "***re-***", is a *prefix*. *Example*: **un**happy

2- The Components of a Word (2)

❖ **Suffixes** always follow the stems they attach to, such as 'PLURAL' in *girl**s*** and '-MENT' in *commit**ment***. (Both **sgirl* and **mentcommit* are illformed).

❖**Prefixes** also attach to the front of a stem, as in ***un**true,* ***dis**appear,* and ***re**paint.* (So **trueun, *appeardis,* and **painter* are illformed.)

2- <u>The Components of a Word (3)</u>

❖The general term covering suffixes and prefixes is ***affix.***

❖ The ***Simulfix*** replaces one or more phonemes in the root or stem. <u>*Example*</u>: m***a***n + plural > m***e***n

❖ The ***Suprafix*** is superimposed on one or more syllables in the root or stem as a suprasegmental.

    <u>*E.g*</u>: stress in the words: 'produce **(noun)** but pro'duce **(verb).**

❖ Besides affixes, some languages have ***infixes***.

2- The Components of a Word (4)

❖ When the affix is inserted within the root, it is called an **infix**. So, *the infix occurs inside a root or stem.*

❖ An **infix** is a morpheme inserted within another morpheme.

❖ **Tagalog** (a language spoken in the Philippines) has infixing. For example,

➢ the word **gulay** meaning 'greenish vegetables' can take the infix -*in*-, creating the word **ginulay**, meaning 'greenish blue'.

2- The Components of a Word (5)

❖ **EXAMPLES OF EXPLETIVE INFIXATION:**

❖ "English has no true **infixes**, but the *plural* suffix «**-s**» behaves something like an infix in unusual plurals like *passer**s**-by* & *mother**s**-in-law*."

❖ "In English, the only things that can be **infixed** are those expressive words used to intensify meaning. So, we have **intensifiers** like *flippin(g), frigging(g), blinkin(g) & bloomin(g)*: (*unbe**flipping**lievable* & *fan**friggin**stastic*).

❖ One of the most famous examples is Eliza Doolittle's 'abso**bloomin**lutely.

2- The Components of a Word (6)

2.1-THE INTEGRATED ADJECTIVE

❑ This linguistic phenomenon is also known as the integrated adjective.

❑ In fact, a poem of that name by John O'Grady was published in the **eponymously** titled *A Book About Australia*, in which numerous examples of the integrated adjective appear:

❖ *me-**bloody**-self,*

❖ *kanga-**bloody**-roos,*

❖ *forty-**bloody**-seven,*

❖ *goode-**bloody**-nough."*

2.2-EXAMPLES OF INFIXES (1)

❖Abso-***Bleedin***'-lutely"
(Quincy Jones, song in the film *Walk, Don't Run, 1966*) ;

❖"Well, I can *guaran*-***damn***-*tee* ya. Dannie's not playin'."
(Rick Reilly, *Shanks for Nothing. Doubleday, 2006*) ;

❖'*Fan*-***flaming***-*tastic.*'"
(Roya Nikkhah, "Prince William's Nanny says engagement is
'Fan-Flaming-Tastic.'" *The Telegraph* [UK], Nov. 21, 2010);

❖ *"Tell him I've gone to Singa****bloody****pore!" Wish You Were
Here!* (by Kieran Darcy-Smith (2012)).

*Halle**bloody**lujah!*

*Un**fucking**believable!*

*Abso**goddam**lutely!*

*Fan**damn**tastic*

*Abso**fucking**lutely*

*In**fucking**credible*

*Fan**bloody**tastic*

*Inde**goddam**pendent...*

2.2- MORE EXAMPLES (3)

❖ **NB:** Native speakers of English have intuitions about where in a word the **infix** is inserted.

❖ Most speakers agree on these patterns, though there are some dialectal variations. You likely found that the infix is inserted at the following points:

➢ fan-***-tastic,

➢ edu-***-cation,

➢ Massa-***-chusetts,

➢ Phila-***-delphia,

➢ Stilla-***-guamish,

➢ emanci-***-pation,

➢ abso-***-lutely,

➢ hy-***-drangea

2.3- What is a circumfix? (1)

❖ A **circumfix** is an affix made up of two separate parts which surround and attach to a root. So, unlike the "infix", the "circumfix" occurs in two parts *on both outer edges of a root or a stem*. In other words, not all morphological processes involve prefixes, suffixes, or infixes. The technical term for discontinuous morphology is ***nonconcatenative***.

❖ In **Tuwali Ifugao** (a language from The Philippines), the circumfix ***ka--an*** is a nominalizer and surrounds a root.

➢ *Example*: *Baddang,* the root which is a verb means 'help' (in English) ***ka — an*** as a circumfix will be attached to give ***ka***baddang***an*** meaning 'helpfulness'

2.3- What is a circumfix? (2)

❖ **NB:**. Although English has few examples of this type of affix, other languages use it. The circumfix is probably most widely known from the German past participle **(ge- -t** for regular verbs). The verb *spielen,* for example, has the participle **ge**spiel**t**.

❖ Probably the only circumfixes in English are:

   en- -en in *enlighten*

   em- -en in *embolden*

❖ In older usage, however, the present participle could be formed using the circumfix **a- -ing**:

   Example: a- -ing in *aflying* **a- -ing** in *acaroling*

3- **Word Structure & Word Formation**

- ❖Inflection
- ❖Derivation
- ❖Compounding
- ❖Creation…

NB: Word vs Lexeme

❖ A **lexeme** (see *the lexical definition of the term 'word'*) is an abstract notion underlying a set of word forms.
Example: the lexeme **CAT** has **cat, cats** as word forms
➢ **CAT** inflects for the plural by taking the suffix **'-s'**

❖ In an **inflection**, a lexeme inflects for different word forms of the **same lexeme**, belonging to the same syntactic category (read; reading)

❖ In **derivation**, the process results in the creation of **new lexemes** (read; reader)

3-1- Inflection (1)

❖ When a word appears in a variety of forms depending on its grammatical role in the sentence, we say that it **inflects** or undergoes **inflection.** A category such as Tense is therefore called an **inflectional category.** The category of Tense has two forms, **past** and **non-past** in English.

❖ Another type of bound morpheme is illustrated in the underlined parts of the words *cats, collected, sleeps, and louder*. These **inflectional morphemes** change the form of a word but not its lexical category or its central meaning.

3-1- Inflection (2)

❖ Inflectional morphemes create **variant forms of a word** to conform to **different roles** in a sentence or in discourse.

❖On nouns and pronouns, inflectional morphemes serve to mark semantic notions such as *number* or grammatical categories such as *gender* and *case*.

❖On verbs, they can mark such categories as *tense* or *number*, while on adjectives they indicate *degree*. They shape the **"related forms"** to help identify lexical categories.

3-1- Inflection (3)

❖ Specific values of an inflectional category are called *inflectional properties.*

❖ The phrase referring to whoever or whatever is performing the action denoted by **the verb** is referred to as the subject of the sentence.

❖ The phrase referring to whoever or whatever is affected by the action denoted by the verb, one type of complement, is referred to as **the verb's object.**

3-1-1- Lexical Categories (1)

❖ A familiar distinction is the one between **nouns (N) & verbs (V)**;

❖ For instance, **nouns** often refer to *types of concrete objects in the world* (e.g. cake, engine, moon, waiter);

❖ While **verbs** typically refer to *activities or states* (applaud, steal, collide, bark);

❖A third major word class recognized in traditional grammar is **adjectives** (A). These typically refer to *properties which people or things possess* and they are used to modify nouns. e.g. happy man, noisy engine.

3-1-1- <u>Lexical Categories (2)</u>

❖A fourth class of word is **adverbs (ADV).** While an adjective modifies a noun, an adverb *typically modifies a verb, adjective or another adverb*, indicating **how, when or why** something happened or the degree to which a property characterizes an individual or event.

<u>*Examples*</u>:
➢ The waiter **carelessly** dropped the plate. The engine is **really** noisy;
➢ The audience applauded the singer **very enthusiastically**

❖ **Prepositions (P):** They typically serve to relate objects, people or events in space or time (*under/ before*), though often the relationship is more abstract.

<u>*Examples*</u>: Harriet was sitting under a tree
       They're due to arrive before noon;
       There was a debate about economic policy.

3-1-2- Functional Categories (1)

❖ **Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs** and **prepositions** are the major word classes of English, and they are the sorts of words we find in dictionaries with meanings attached to them.

❖ However, not all words are straightforwardly meaningful in this way, and this observation paves the way for extending the word classes which must be recognized in grammars for languages.

Example: Bill thinks that Tom and Dick have been visiting Harriet to ask for help with one of the assignments which have to be finished for the next morphology class.

❖ Words such as the above, which do not denote objects, ideas, etc. are known as *function words* and they belong to classes known as **functional categories**. They are distinguished from nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions, which are often called *content words.*

3-1-3- <u>Major Functional Categories</u>

❖ **Determiners (D)**: articles, demonstratives

❖ **Auxiliary verbs (AUX):** will, shall; be; have;...

❖ **The predicative unit:** *to*

❖ **Pronoun (PRN)**: stands for a noun expression (*he; she; they...*)

❖ **Co-ordinating conjunctions (CONJ)**: serve to join words or phrases together to form larger phrases of the same type (or; but...)

❖ **Complementisers (C):** their most important uses is to introduce complement clauses (Tom wonders [if it will rain] ; Tom arranged [for Dick to leave early]

3-1-4- The Morphological Properties of English Verbs (1)

❖ Verbs in English have a simple form, such as *"read"*, *"write"*, *"illustrate"*, called the base form.

❖ The verb agrees with its subject: In English, the agreement system has almost entirely disappeared (in some dialects it has completely withered away:

➢ *E.g: He like it!*)

❖ Verbs typically signal the time when an action or event occurs: **tense** *(a grammatical construct).*

3-1-4- <u>The Morphological Properties of English Verbs (2)</u>

❖Verbs also signal the way an action or event occurs: *aspect (perfect vs. imperfect)*

❖There are many verbs such as **sleep** and **hop** that refer to states or activities which are not directed towards another entity; as a consequence, such verbs cannot occur with objects and they are called **intransitive verbs**

❖By contrast, verbs which do take objects are called **transitive.**

3-1-5- Some English Morphemes used in Inflection

- **-S (pl.)**

- **-S (possession)**

- **-ED**

- **-ING**

- **-ER**

- **-ES**

3-1-6- Some English Morphemes used in Derivation

-ation

-al

-ize

-ic

-y

-ous

3.2- **Increasing a Language's Vocabulary** (2)

Languages have three principal ways of extending their vocabulary:

❖ New words can be formed from existing words and word parts;

❖ Words can be "borrowed" from another language;

❖ New words can be made up, created from scratch.

3.2- Increasing a Language's Vocabulary (2)

❖In some societies, the need for new nouns, adjectives, and verbs arises frequently, and additions to these categories occur freely. For this reason *nouns, adjectives & verb*s are called **open classes**.

❖Other categories such as *prepositions, pronouns, and determiners* are **closed classes**, and new words in these categories are seldom added.

❖Century after century, English speakers have added thousands of new words, borrowing many from other languages and constructing others from elements already available.

3-3-Derivational Morphology (1)

❖Derivational morphology is a process where one word is changed into another.

❖ The process takes a word stem like '*national*' and adds a **prefix, suffix or infix** to make a new word such as '*international*' or '*nationality*'.

❖ Derivational morphemes can be **prefixes** (***un****happy,* **dis***appear*) or **suffixes** (*happi****ness****, appear****ance***). Generally, inflectional morphemes are added to the outermost parts of words.

❖Taken together, prefixes and suffixes are called **affixes.**

3-3-Derivational Morphology (2)

❖ Using an existing word to make a new word is called **derivation**.

❖ The term occurs because the meaning of the new word derivates from the original meaning.

❖ It is separated from **inflection**, which adds **additional letters**, not morphemes, to a word to *change its grammatical function*.

❖ In this sense, changing 'national' to 'nationalize' is **derivation**, but turning 'nationalize' into 'nationalizing' or 'nationalized' is **inflection** and not derivation.

3-3-1- Derivation by Affixation

❖ It is when an affix is added to a root to form a new word.

❖There are **many derivational morphology combinations** such as:

➢ turning **verbs** into adjectives or nouns;

➢**Adjectives** can be converted into adverbs, nouns, verbs and other adjectives;

➢**Nouns** can be converted into verbs and adjectives;

❖ It is possible for each class to be converted into another word in the same class like *'red'* and *'reddish'.*

❖ The ability to convert one class of word into another class of word is **a sign of the Flexibility of English.**

3-3-2- Compounding (1)

❖ It is when we combine two or more free morphemes to form new words

❖ The combination of lexical categories is called **compounding**. It consists of nouns, adjectives, verbs, or prepositions.

❖ The morpheme which determines the category of the entire word is called **the head**.

Examples:

a) **Noun compounds**	b) **Verb compounds**	c) **Adjective compounds**
greenhouse	overlook	red hot
bluebird	underestimate	deep blue
fire engine	dropkick	sky blue
oil well	breakdance	nation wide

3-3-2- Compounding (2)

❖ English speakers show a disposition for putting words together to create new words in this process of compounding.

❖ Recent compounds include *air kiss, moon shot, waterbed, upfront, color code, computerlike, dust bunny, gut-buster, plastic wrap, speed dating, strip mall,* and *radiopharmaceutical,* as well as *V-chip, e-mail, online, Web page, Website,* and *download.*

❖ Notice that these compounds have heavier stress or emphasis on the first element than on the second element.

3-3-3-Blending (1)

❖**Blends** are words created by combining parts of words.

❖ *It is similar to compounding, but parts of the free morphemes involved are lost (usually 1st part of 1st word + end of 2nd word)*

➢ Some older blends: **brunch** (**br**eakfast+ l**unch**), **smog** (**smo**ke+ f**og**), **motel** (**mot**or+ h**otel**), **newscast** (**news** + broad**cast**), **perma-press** (**perma**nent **press**), **Reaganomics** (**Reagan** + econ**omics**).

➢Newer ones include *fanzine* (*fan* and *maga**zine**), **punkumentary** (**punk** and doc**umentary**), *infomercial* (**info**rmation and com**mercial**), and *biotech* (**bio**logy and **tech**nology), *youngspiration* (**young** + in**spiration**)

❖*Netizens* and *netiquette* blend **net** (a shortened form of *Internet*) with **citizens** and **etiquette**.

3-3-3-Blending (2)

❖ Combining the existing blend **smog** with the tail end of *metr**opolis*** forms **smogopolis**.

❖ Blends like **Spanglish, Franglais, Chinglish**, and **Yinglish** suggest how heavily certain languages have borrowed words from one another.

❖ Blends also serve as trade names and as names of related products: **Amtrak, Eurailpass, eurorail, eurotrip,** and **flexipass.**

❖ Most blends appear to combine two nouns, but **wannabes** *'persons who want to be something other than what they are'* and **gimmes** *'things that aren't earned'* combine other categories.

3-3-4- <u>Clipping</u>

❖ Clipping (Clipped forms) is **when part of a free morpheme is cut off** (i.e., shortening a polysyllabic word);

➢ often in casual speech like in *Prof., Auto, lab, ad, bike, doc...*

➢ (also in names) like in *Liz, Cathy, Ron, Lyn, Ben...*

3-3-5-Reduplication (1)

❖ It is the process by which **a morpheme** or **part of a morpheme is repeated** to create a new word with a different meaning or different category.

❖ Reduplication is **not repetition**, which does not create a new word but simply reiterates the same word, as in English *very, very* (*tired*) **and** *nightnight.*

❖ English does not have a productive process like the reduplication of Chinese, Turkish or Motu (language in the Papua New Guinea) *mahuta* 'to sleep' reduplicates fully as *mahutamahuta* 'to sleep constantly' and reduplicates partially as *mamahuta* 'to sleep' (when agreeing with a plural subject).

3-3-5-Reduplication (2)

❖ Partial reduplication repeats only part of the morpheme, while full reduplication reduplicates the entire morpheme, *sometimes with variation*

Full	**Partial**	**With Variation**
so-so		zigzag/willy-nilly/hoity -toity
bye-bye		dilly-dally/hocus-pocus/helter- skelter
mahutamahuta	*mamahuta*	hotch-potch/mumbo-jumbo
(to sleep constantly)	(to sleep)	hodge-podge/hanky-panky
		mishmash /handy-dandy

3-3-6- Class Change/ Functional Shift (1)

❖ **A new word is created by just changing the class of an existing one**.

➢It is called **zero formation**.

❖ In some languages, a word belonging to one category can be converted to another category without any change to the form of the word.

➢This is also called *functional shift*.

❖ We request someone to *update* (verb) a report and then call the revised report an *update* (noun).

3-3-6- Class Change/ Functional Shift (1)

❖ We ask a fellow worker to **e-mail** or **fax** the report, both of which are verbs converted from shortened forms of nouns (*electronic mail, facsimile*).

❖ Companies *hire* (verb) a group of employees and call them new *hires* (where *hires* is a noun).

❖ To promote a product in the *market* we *market* it.

❖ Conversion of this type commonly leads to **noun/verb** and **noun/adjective pairs.**

3-3-6- Class Change/ Functional Shift (3)

NB: *Functional shift* (or **conversion, category change**) *is in fact* **a change in the part of speech**:

V ⟶ N: a guess, a must, a spy, a printout, a walk, a run, a laugh, a touch

N ⟶ V: position, process, contact, notice, party, fax, butter, bottle

(computer-related term) input, output, window

V ⟶ ADJ: see-thru, a stand-up, comedian

3-3-7- Extension of World Formation Rules

❖ *It is when part of a word is treated as a morpheme, though it's not!*

burger	**(mar)athon**	**(alco)holic**
hamburger	telethon	workaholic
cheeseburger	danceathon	
buffaloburger	walkathon	
fishburger		
vegeburger		
tofuburger		

3.3.8- <u>Semantic Shift</u> (1)

❖ Words can take on new meanings by ***shrinking or extending the scope of their reference***.

❖ The *Oxford English Dictionary* has recently added meanings to its entries for the nouns *coyote, crack,* and *thumb-nail* and for the verb *zone (out)*.

❖ Two well-known examples of semantic shift have remained popular since the Vietnam War, when *hawk* came to be used frequently for **supporters of the war** and *dove* for its **opponents**, extending the meaning of these words from the combative nature of *hawks* and the symbolically peaceful role of *doves*.

3.3.8- <u>Semantic Shift</u> (2)

❖ Today, computer users utilize a *mouse* and *bookmark* Internet addresses.

❖ These new meanings did not replace earlier ones but extended the range of application for the respective words.

❖ Called **semantic shift** or **metaphorical extension**, this phenomenon creates **metaphors**. Over time the metaphorical origins of words can fade, as in the meanings of the underlined parts of these phrases:

➢ *to **derail** congressional legislation, a **buoyant** spokesman, an **abrasive** chief of staff, to **sweeten** the farm bill with several billion dollars, to **skirt** a veto fight.*

3-3-9- Onomatopoeic Formation

❖ It is when words imitate sounds in nature (or in technology)

❖ So, a word is created through an indexical recall of a specific sound attached to the word.

➢ *A dog:* bow wow or woof-woof

➢ *A clock:* tick-tock,

➢ *A rooster:* cock-a-doodle-doo

➢ *A camera:* click

➢ *A duck:* quack

➢ *A cat:* meow

➢ *Ring of a bell:* ding-dong

➢ *A cow:* moo

➢ *A bee:* buzz

➢ *A snake:* hiss

3-3-10-Back Formation

❖ Another type of word formation is exemplified by ***pronunciate***, which some college students can be heard to say when searching for the verb corresponding to the noun *pronunciation.*

❖ From ***pronunciation***, they have **"back formed"** a new verb.

❖ A word (usually a noun) is reduced to form another word of a different type (usually a verb)

Examples:

editor   ⟶   edit;   donation ⟶ donate;   burglar ⟶ burgle;

zipper ⟶ zip ;   television ⟶ televise;   babysitter ⟶ babysit;

Typewriter ⟶ typewrite

3.3.11- Shortenings (1)

❖Shortenings of various kinds are a popular means of multiplying the words of a language. *abbreviate a longer term by taking the initial letters*

❖Ordinary shortenings are common: *radials* for radial tires, *jet* for jet airplane, *narc* for narcotics agent, *feds* for federal agents, *obits* for obituaries, *poli-sci* for political science, *indie* for independent film, *rec room* for recreation room, *comp time* for compensatory time, and *app* or *apps* referring to computer application programs.

❖Note that the shortenings need not be morphemes in the full expression: *narc* is not a morpheme in *narcotics*. Other kinds of shortenings include **acronyms, initialisms** and **blends.**

3.3.11- Shortenings (2)

❖Shortenings in which the initial letters of an expression are joined and pronounced as a word are **acronyms:** *abbreviating a longer term by taking the initial letters*

➢**RADAR** (Radio Detecting And Ranging)

➢**NATO** (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)

➢**TOEFL** (Test Of English as a Foreign Language)

➢**NASA** (National Aeronautics & Space Administration)

➢**AIDS** (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome)

➢*yuppy* (Young Urban Professional + -Y)

➢*nimby* (Not In My Backyard)

➢*DOS* (Disk Operating System)

➢*ASCII* (American Standard Code for Information Interchange, pronounced "as-kee")

3.3.11- <u>Shortenings</u> (3)

❖ *If unpronounceable* → *each letter is sounded out separately:*

➢ **ATM** (Automatic Teller Machine)
➢ **I.Q.** (Intelligence Quotient)
➢ **MRT** (Mass Rapid Transit)
➢ **MTV** (music television)
➢ **TVBS** (Television Broadcasting Service)
➢ **VCR** (Video Cassette Recorder)

3.3.11- <u>Shortenings</u> (4)

❖ Some shortenings resemble acronyms but are pronounced as a sequence of letters.

❖ At *U-S-C* (University of Southern California) and

N-Y-U (New York University), a student's Grade Point Average may be called a *G-P-A*.

❖ *PC* carries two meanings— 'politically correct' and 'personal computer.'

❖ Given their pronunciation as a series of letters, these are called *initialisms.*

3.3.11- <u>Shortenings</u> (5)

❖ Many initialisms (*AI, CD, DNA, DVD, fMRI, MTV, NHL, PDA*) could not easily be pronounced as ordinary words;

❖ While others could, but aren't: **CEO** for Chief Executive Officer, **ADD** for Attention Deficit Disorder, and **SUV** for Sport Utility Vehicle.

❖ Perhaps the most popular initialism in the world is *OK*.

3.3.12- Coining

❖ It is a rare thing!

❖ Coining (Coinage): Creating or inventing a completely new free morpheme, from existing material to represent a new invention or development, such as **Wireless, Hypermarket.**

❖ Some other words are used as a generic name for different brands (trademarks) of products, such as **Kleenex, Xerox, Google, Pooch, Nylon,** etc.

3.3.13- Proper Names → Common Words (1)

❖ *People*

   jack→lumberjack, jack of all trades;

   tom→tomcat, tomboy, peeping Tom

❖ *Real people*

   Earl of Sandwich, Teddy bear, Marquis de Sade

❖ *Places*

   Hamburger, Marathon a greek city), Bikini (Marshall Islands),
Champagne (France), Cognac (city in France)

❖ *Mythology*

   Tantalus → tantalize; Eros→ erotic;

   Narcissus→ narcissistic, Mars→ martial

❖ *Brand names*

zipper, Xerox, coke, Scotch tape, Kleenex, Vaseline

3-3-14-Borrowing (1)

❖ It is a *process by which a new word is taken from one language and inserted in another*. It may be adapted to the borrowing language's phonological system to varying degrees.

❖ Shakespeare advised: ***"Neither a borrower nor a lender be"*** in *Hamlet* (Act 1, Scene 3, 75-77). But speakers pay little heed when it comes to language.

❖ English has been extraordinarily receptive to *borrowed words*, accepting words from nearly a hundred languages in the last hundred years.

3-3-14-Borrowing (2)

❖ As in most of its history, English borrowed more from French during the twentieth century than from any other language.

❖ Following **French** at some distance are **Japanese** and **Spanish, Italian, Latin, Greek, German, and Yiddish**.

❖ In smaller numbers, English is now host to words borrowed from **Russian, Chinese, Arabic, Portuguese, and Hindi**, as well as from **numerous languages of Africa** and **some Native American languages**.

3-3-14-Borrowing (3)

❖In turn, many languages have welcomed English words into their stock, although some cultures resist borrowings.

❖ The Japanese have drafted the words *beesubooru* 'baseball,' *futtobooru* 'football' and *booringu* 'bowling' along with the sports they name, trading them for *judo, jujitsu,* and *karate,* which have joined the English-language team.

❖ Officially at least, the French (*Francophonie*) are not open to borrowings, especially from English, and have banned the use of words like *weekend, drugstore, brainstorming,* and *countdown.*

3-3-14-Borrowing (4)

❖ For using the borrowed term *jumbo jet*, Air France was given a stiff fine by the French government, which had insisted that *gros porteur* was the proper French name, well, for the jumbo jet.

❖ The Americanism *OK* is now in use virtually everywhere, as are terms such as *jeans* and *discos*, which accompanied the items they name as they spread around the globe.

❖ More recently, the terms *Internet, WWW*, and *web* have likewise circled the globe.

3-3-14-Borrowing (5)

❖ As is true of other languages, most borrowings into English have been nouns, but some adjectives and a few verbs, adverbs, and interjections have been borrowed.

❖ You can readily recognize as borrowings such popular words as *paparazzi, karaoke*, and *resume.*

❖ Borrowing can take the form of **Loan translation or calque** *or* **Transliteration;**

❖ Most borrowed nouns are related to **culture**, **food** and **drink;**

❖ Borrowed words sooner or later conform to the pronunciation patterns and grammatical rules of the borrowing language.

3-3-14-Borrowing (6)

❖*Examples*:

➢ skunk, tomato (from ***indigenous languages*** *of the Americas*),

➢ sushi, taboo, wok (from ***Pacific Rim languages***),

➢ chic, shmuck, macho, spaghetti, dirndl, psychology, telephone, physician, education (from ***European languages***),

➢ hummus, chutzpah, cipher, artichoke (from ***Semitic languages***),

➢ yam, banana (from ***African languages***).

4- <u>Morphological Analysis (1)</u>

❖ The structures of the items in this sequence can be represented by labelled bracketings

- [**N** cipher]

- [**V** de [N cipher]]

- [**A** [V de [N cipher]] able

- [**A** in [A [V de [N cipher]] able]]

- [**N**[A in [A [V de [N cipher]] able]] ity

4- Morphological Analysis (2)

❖ Morphemes are organized in highly patterned ways. They have an obvious linear order, and they also have a **layered structure.**

❖ *Untrue* is **true** with *un-* prefixed to it (not *un* with *true* added).

❖ *Truthful* is composed of a stem **truth** with *-ful* suffixed to it (*truth* is *true* with *-th* added).

❖ *Untruthful* would be incorrectly analyzed if we claimed it was composed of **untrue** with *-thful* suffixed, instead it is **truthful** with *un-* prefixed.

4- <u>Morphological Analysis (3)</u>

❖ Now consider *uncontrollably.* Could it be ***controllably*** with *un-* prefixed? Or ***uncontrol*** with *-ably* suffixed? It's helpful to picture the sequence of layering from the root morpheme ***control*** as built up by a set of derivational rules that are widely used for other words as well:

➢ **control** (**Verb**)
➢ **Verb** + -ABLE → controllable (**Adjective**)
➢ UN- + controllable (adjective) → uncontrollable (**Adjective**)
➢ Adjective (uncontrollable) + -LY → uncontrollably (**Adverb**)

4- <u>Morphological Analysis (4)</u>

❖ The root of *uncontrollably* is *control,* which functions as the stem for *-able; controllable* functions as the stem for *uncontrollable;* and *uncontrollable* functions as the stem for *uncontrollably.*

❖ The structure can be represented using the tree diagram or using labeled brackets as follows:

[[*un*[[*control***Verb**]*able***Adj**]Adj]*ly***Adv**]

How Are Morphemes Organized Within Words?

5- Types of Morphological Systems

❖You have now seen examples of derivational morphology and inflectional morphology in several languages.

❖ But not all languages have inflectional morphology, and some have little or no morphology at all.

❖ Still others have complex words with distinct parts, each part representing a morpheme.

❖ The Morphological Classification recognizes three major types of morphological systems that are categorized as ***isolating, agglutinating*** and ***inflectional***.

5-1- Isolating and Analytical Morphology (1)

❖ In these languages, all the words are invariable so that a single word will not contain at the same time a lexical morpheme and a grammatical morpheme.

❖ Lexical marks are clearly separated from grammatical ones.

❖ Chinese is a language with isolating morphology—in which each word tends to be a single isolated morpheme.

5-1- Isolating and Analytical Morphology (2)

❖ An isolating language lacks both derivational and inflectional morphology.

❖ Using separate words, Chinese expresses certain content that an inflecting language might express with inflectional affixes.

❖ For example, whereas English has an inflectional possessive (*the boy's hat*) and what's called an analytical possessive (*hat of the boy*), Chinese permits only *hat of the boy* possessives.

5-1- Isolating and Analytical Morphology (3)

❖In Chinese, tense morphemes can be separated from verbs with the insertion of other elements.

❖That would mean that in Chinese a word like "went", made with a combination of "go + ed", or even a word like "worked", made with a lexical morpheme (verb) and a grammatical, or rather, an inflectional one "-ed", would be clearly separated and sometimes not even be adjacent (coming one next to another) elements.

❖Isolating languages isolate grammatical units from lexical ones.

5-1- Isolating and Analytical Morphology (4)

❖Chinese also does not have tense markers, and on pronouns it does not mark distinctions of gender (*he/she*), number (*she/they*), or case (*they/them*).

❖ Where English has six words—*he, she, him, her, they,* and *them*—Chinese uses only a single word, though it can indicate plurality with a separate word.

❖The sentence below illustrates the one-morpheme-per-word pattern typical of Chinese:

➢ wõ gãng yào gĕi nî nà yì bĕi chá
➢ I just will give you that one cup tea
➢ I am about to bring you a cup of tea.'

5-1- Isolation and Analytical Morphology (5)

❖ Even more than Chinese, Vietnamese approximates the one-morpheme-per-word model that characterizes isolating languages.

❖ Each word in the sentence below has only one form. You can see that the word *toi* is translated as *I, my,* and *we.* Note that to say 'we' Vietnamese pairs *chung* and *toi* (the words for 'PLURAL' and 'I').

❖ Like Chinese, Vietnamese lacks tense markers on verbs and case markers on nouns and pronouns, as well as number distinctions (though it can indicate plurality with a separate word).

5-2- Agglutinating Morphology (1)

❖ Another type of morphology is called *agglutinating.*

❖ In agglutinating languages, words can have several prefixes and suffixes, but they are characteristically distinct and readily segmented into their parts—like English *announce-ment-s* or *pre-affirm-ed* but unlike *sang* (SING 'PAST') or *men* (MAN 'PLURAL').

❖ Turkish has agglutinating morphology, as shown in this example. (Hyphens represent morpheme boundaries within a word.)

➢ herkes   ben üniversite-ye bašla-yacağ-im san-iyor

➢ everyone   I university-to   start-FUTURE-I believe-PRESENT

➢ ***'Everyone believes that I will start university.'***

5-2- <u>Agglutinating Morphology</u> (2)

❖ In these languages, words are made up with an accumulation of units (morphemes) that are clearly distinguasable.

❖ Swahili and Turkish are examples of agglutinative languages.

❖ E.g: In Turkish, we have ***Ev*** (house), ***Ler*** (plural); and ***i*** (possessive case: my, your, his…)

❖ So, ***Evler*** means « houses »; ***Evi*** means « my, your, their … houses, and ***Evleri*** means « my, your, her … houses ».

5-3- **Inflectional Morphology (1)**

❖In inflecting languages, it is hard to distinguish **lexical elements and grammatical ones**.

❖Latin languages are typical cases of inflecting languages.

❖But there are also cases of inflection features in some Germanic languages like english (e.g; *went, feet, oxen, clad, sod*, etc) that nearly give no hint of their singular, radical or infinitive forms that are respectively: *go, foot, ox, clothe, seethe*, etc.

5-3- <u>Inflectional Morphology</u> (2)

❖ Many languages have large inventories of inflectional morphemes. Finnish, Russian, and German maintain elaborate inflectional systems.

❖ By contrast, over the centuries English has shed most of its inflections, until today it has **only eight remaining ones—** *two on nouns, four on verbs,* and *two on adjectives.*

❖ When new nouns, verbs, and adjectives are added to English or when a child learns new words, the words are extremely likely to be inflected like the examples listed, and the eight inflectional morphemes of English are thus said to be *productive.*

5-3- Inflectional Morphology (3)

❖ **Grammatical Functions of Inflections:** Consider the sentences below. They contain exactly the same words, but they express different meanings.
  1. The farmer saw the wolf.
  2. The wolf saw the farmer.

❖ These sentences illustrate how English exploits word order to express meaning: ***different orders communicate different scenarios*** about *who* did what to *whom.*

❖When semantic facts such as *who* did what to *whom* are expressed by word order rather than by inflection, it is not a morphological matter but a syntactic one.

5-3- Inflectional Morphology (4)

❖A comparison with Latin is enlightening because Latin had relatively free word order. Given that *agricola* means 'farmer' and *lupum* 'wolf,' speakers of Latin could have arranged sentence 1 ('The farmer saw the wolf') in either of these two ways (among others):

➢Agricola vidit lupum.

➢Lupum vidit agricola.

❖Latin speakers did not rely on word order to signal *who* was seeing *whom.* Instead, inflections on the nouns signaled such information. The following three sentences all mean 'The farmer saw the wolf'; the different word orders do not alter that meaning.

5-3- **Inflectional Morphology** (5)

➤Agricola vidit lupum.
  FARMER SAW WOLF
➤ Lupum vidit agricola.
  WOLF SAW FARMER
➤ Agricola lupum vidit.
  FARMER WOLF SAW

'The farmer saw the wolf'

To say, instead, 'The wolf saw the farmer' required different inflections:

➤ Agricolam vidit lupus.
  FARMER SAW WOLF

➤ Lupus vidit agricolam.
  WOLF SAW FARMER

➤ Agricolam lupus vidit.
  FARMER WOLF SAW

'The wolf saw the farmer.'

5-3- <u>Inflectional Morphology</u> (6)

❖ The inflectional suffixes -*a* on *agricola* and -*us* on *lupus* identify them as subjects.

❖ The inflections -*am* and -*um* on *agricolam* and *lupum* make them direct objects.

❖ A loose English parallel to Latin noun inflections can be seen in certain pronoun uses, where the form of the pronouns and the order of the words reinforce one another:

➢ She praised him. (*She* is the subject, *him* the object.)

➢ He praised her. (*He* is the subject, *her* the object.)

5-3- <u>Inflectional Morphology</u> (7)

❖ English and Latin nouns have inflections for number and case. English nouns exhibit only two cases, called possessive and common.

❖ The possessive case (sometimes called genitive) is marked by a suffix (*cat's, robot's*).

❖ The common case is unmarked (*cat, robot*) and is used for all grammatical functions except possession: subject, direct object, indirect object, and object of a preposition.

5-3- **Inflectional Morphology** (8)

❖Latin, too, had a genitive case, and inflections for several other cases, notably nominative (principally for subjects), dative (indirect objects), accusative (direct objects and objects of some prepositions), and ablative (objects of some prepositions).

❖ Latin generally had five or six case inflections in the singular and in the plural, although some inflectional forms were pronounced alike.

❖ The set of forms constituting the inflectional variants of a word is known as a **paradigm,** and paradigms for nouns are called **declensions.** Latin had several declensions, such as the two given for *agricola* and *hortus*. The paradigms for the equivalent English words *farmer* and *garden*.

5-3- <u>Inflectional Morphology</u> (9)

❖ **Gender and Agreement:** In English, gender distinctions in pronouns are based on biological sex: reference to males requires the masculine pronouns *he, his,* or *him,* while reference to females requires the feminine pronouns *she, hers,* or *her.* To refer to something neither male nor female, English speakers use *it.*

❖ In German, French, Spanish, Russian, Old English, and many other languages, nouns do not have biological gender but grammatical gender. In these languages, certain other word categories such as determiners and adjectives that occur within a noun phrase carry inflections that *agree* with the noun in gender, number, and case.

NOTA BENE (1):

❖ Some languages that tend to minimize inflectional morphology nevertheless exploit derivational morphology to extend their word stocks in economical ways. Indonesian, for example, has only two inflectional affixes, but it utilizes about two dozen derivational morphemes.

❖ There is not always a strict demarcation between agglutinating and inflectional languages and some languages are difficult to classify. Still, the distinction among inflectional, isolating, and agglutinating is useful in characterizing languages with respect to their morphological systems.

NOTA BENE (2):

❖ Some linguists like ***Sheilcher*** consider that the isolating, agglutinating and inflecting aspects represent, in fact, three successive stages in language evolution where isolating languages represent the earliest stage and inflectionality the most elaborated level of language change.

❖ This would mean that languages, which are inflecting today, were first isolating, then agglutinative and lately inflecting.

❖ Scheilcher's claim should be taken with caution because some langugaes like Chinese have remained isolating and do not seem to move to either direction!

5-4- ENGLISH IN RELATION TO THIS TRIPARTITE DIVISION (1)

❑As an **isolating language**, a large number of words in English are monomorphic and monosyllabic and as in isolating languages, English relies heavily on word order and word-class membership as the markers of syntactic relationships between the words in a sentence

5-4- ENGLISH IN RELATION TO THIS TRIPARTITE DIVISION (2)

❑ The vast majority of words in English follow the *agglutinative pattern.*

❖ **Nouns** like *books, cars* and *buses*

❖ **Adjectives** like *nicer, nicest, happier* and *happiest;*

❖ **Verbs** like *walked, bombed* and *guarded;*

❖ And **derived words** like *loveliness, nationality* and *denationalization* are all examples of words in which morphemes have been agglutinated together in a linear sequence with the result that these words can be easily segmented into morphs;

5-4- ENGLISH IN RELATION TO THIS TRIPARTITE DIVISION (3)

❑ Features of ***inflecting languages*** can be illustrated from English:

❖ **nouns** like *men, mice, geese* and *women*

❖ **adjectives** like *worse, worst* and *best*

❖ **verbs** like *forgot, froze, hid, left, ran* and *stood*

❖ **prepositions** like *in, on, to;*

❖ **conjunctions** like *and* and *but*

❖ **conjunctive adverbials** like *so* and *therefore*

❖ **adverbials of time** like *now* and *then*

❖ **adverbials of place** like *here* and *there*

❑ are examples in which two morphemes have been so fused that these words cannot be segmented. But such words in English are irregular words.

5-4- ENGLISH IN RELATION TO THIS TRIPARTITE DIVISION (4)

❑ **NOTA BENE**:

❖ As the features of characteristic of each of the three morphological types of languages can be amply illustrated from English, it will be wrong to designate English as a typical member of any of these groups.

❖The most appropriate description of the morphological typology of English will be to designate it as **a mixed type of language**.

CONCLUSION (1)

❖ Morphology is concerned with the formation of words. It is the study of how sounds are combined to give words. Here, the reference unit is the Morpheme, the smallest meaningful unit E;g: a, my, -ing, cat, -ly, etc).

❖ In studying a language, the morphological analysis will determine whether the language has words made with one morpheme at the same time, or several morphemes.

CONCLUSION (2)

❖ There are ***free morphemes*** that can occur in isolation and still have a meaning (nouns, determiners, pronouns…) and ***bound morphemes*** that are always attached to another unit to secure meaning (-ness, -ed, -less, -ful, etc).

❖ Among the free morphemes we have **Lexical Morphemes** and **Grammatical Morphemes.**

➢ Lexical morphemes are morphemes such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs etc. that convey direct meaning and are used to name things, property, etc.

➢ Grammatical morphemes are acting as function words (articles, propositions, pronouns and conjunctions) and they do not display meaning directly (e.g: ***a*** man).

CONCLUSION (3)

❖ As for bound morphemes they are made up with **derivational morphemes** and **inflectional morphemes**.

❖ Derivational morphemes are attached to the pre-existing morphemes to form new units.

❖ They are prefixes and suffixes (E.g: prefix "un" in "unaware"/ suffix "-ly" in friendly).

CONCLUSION (4)

❖ We should note that suffixes involve a change of word class, in other words, the suffix "-ly" added to the noun "friend" gives "friendly", which is an adjective.

❖ Inflectional morphemes are all suffixes and their function is to convey grammatical information such as the number, the genre, the tense, the aspect, etc. (E.g: number: "-s" in cats/ aspect: "-ing" in working/ tense: "-ed" in played.

TD: *Questions & Discussions on Morphology*

The following text contains invented words (like *plingle*). Identify the lexical class of each word, giving a justification for each case.

In the Ancient Order of Grand Wizards a monesticant often demogulates the less vericle regulations. In a recent lecture anent the history of Order, one of the monesticants drongly explained why an old splink should never be croodled.

EXERCISES (2)

❖ Model answer for 'monesticant':

❖ - monesticant is a noun because

➢ It has a plural form in -s, as we see later in the text;

➢ It is preceded by the articles "a" with its singular form and the with its plural form, monesticants; it serves as the main word in the phrase one of the monesticants, in which the monesticants comes after a preposition (of); the phrase the monesticants appears to function as an argument (subject) of the verb explain; if demogulates is also a verb form, the phrase a monesticant appears to function as an argument (again, subject) of this verb.

END OF LECTURE!