## INTD0112 Introduction to Linguistics

Lecture #9 March 15<sup>th</sup>, 2007

#### Announcements

- Homework 3 is due tomorrow by 10am, either by e-mail or by hand.
- Speaking of Homework 3, any questions?
- Also, your takehome midterm exam will be posted by Friday morning at the very latest and is due a week after.

# Some unfinished business from last time: Syllabic phonology

- Syllable structure is relevant to phonological rules.
- We have already seen some examples where the syllable boundary sign is used in phonological rules.
- But now since we actually know what a syllable is, it is easy to state these generalizations in terms of syllable structure.

#### Aspiration one more time

- For example, where does aspiration of voiceless stops in English occur?
- Voiceless stops are aspirated syllable-initially, and unaspirated elsewhere.
- "Elsewhere" here means two contexts: (a) in a syllabic onset after 's', or (b) in a coda.

### Vowel length in English

- Remember the rule for vowel length in English?
- Vowels are lengthened before voiced nonsononrant consonants, but not before voiceless consonants:

bad [bæ:d] bat [bæt] leave [li:v] leaf [lif]

#### Vowel length in English

- But now consider these cases: obey [owbej] redo [ɪidu]
- Why is there no vowel lengthening here?
- Because the rule actually applies only when the voiced consonant following the vowel is in coda position.

#### Morphology

- Morphology is the study of word structure and word formation in human language.
- The main unit of analysis in morphology is the **morpheme**, which is defined as "minimal unit of meaning or grammatical function in the language".
- So, ...

#### Morphology

- The word "open" in English has one morpheme. We call it a *monomorphemic* or *simple word*.
- But how about "reopen"?

This has two units: "re-" and "open", each a morpheme with a different meaning that contributes to the overall meaning of the whole word. This is a *multimorphemic* or complex word.

#### **Derivational vs. Inflectional morphemes**

- How about "reopened" then? How many morphemes are there?
   Right. Three morphemes: *re-*, *open*, and *-ed*.
- Notice that while "re-" and "open" have meanings, "-ed" has the grammatical function of signaling past tense.
- To distinguish between these morphemes, we say that "open" is the *root* morpheme; "re-" is a *derivational* morpheme; and "-ed" is an *inflectional* morpheme.

#### Not all morphemes are created equal: some are free, and some are bound

- Another distinction between the three morphemes in "reopened" has to do with their ability to occur alone in the language.
- So, while "open" seems to be an independent morpheme, that is, it can stand alone in English (e.g., *I want to open the door*), "re-" and "-ed" are dependent morphemes; they cannot stand alone in English (\**I re- the door*; \**I -ed the door*).
- We call the former type *free* morphemes, and the latter type *bound* morphemes.



#### **Representing morphological structure**

N		А	
r u		r u	
N	Af	Ν	Af
		1	
snake	S	care	ful
V		V	
r u		r u	
Af	А	V	Af
re	new	wait	ed



#### Root vs. base

- To make a distinction between the root of the word and other parts of the word that also have affixes combine with them, the term "base" is used.
- So, in the "teachers" example, while "teach" is the root and base for the affix *-er*, "teacher" is the base for the plural affix *-s*.

#### Types of bound morphemes by position

- Affixes are classified into four types depending on their position within the word with regard to the base morpheme:
  - a. A *prefix* is a bound morpheme that precedes the base, e.g., "re-" in *reopened*.
  - b. A *suffix* is a bound morpheme that follows the base, e.g., "-ed" in *reopened*.

#### Types of bound morphemes by position

c. An *infix* is a bound morpheme that occurs within the base, e.g., the morpheme "ta" in Akkadian:

išriq "he stole"  $\rightarrow$  iš<u>ta</u>riq "he stole for himself"

d. A *circumfix* is a bound morpheme that occurs on both sides of the base, as in the case of the Egyptian Arabic negation morpheme "ma…š":

katab "wrote" → ma-katab-š "didn't write"

# While the majority of roots in English are free morphemes, this is not necessarily the case in other languages. Roots in Arabic as well as other Semitic languages are not words; rather, the root consists of three consonants that are then put into a morphological pattern to derive a word: Root Pattern Word ktb C<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>1</sub>aC<sub>2</sub>a → kataba "wrote"

	1 2 3	
ktb	$C_1 u C_2 i C_3 a \rightarrow$ kutiba "was written"	
ktb	$C_1aC_2C_2aC_3a \rightarrow$ kattaba "caused to writ	e"

• This nonconcatenative way of forming words is typically called *root and pattern morphology*.

#### **Huckles and Ceives**

- Even English has some roots that are not free morphemes, e.g.,
  - "kempt" in unkempt
  - "luke" in *lukewarm*
  - "huckle" in huckleberry
- The same can be said about roots of Latin origin, e.g., "ceive" in *deceive, perceive, receive* "mit" in *submit, permit, commit*
- These are typically referred to as *bound roots*.

#### **Derivational morphemes**

- **Derivation** is an affixational process whereby a word with a new meaning and typically a new category is formed.
- The affixes involved in derivation are called *derivational morphemes*.
- A list of some English derivational morphemes is given in your textbook in table 4.6, p. 119.

#### **Derivational morphemes**

- Notice that each derivational morpheme is typically used with a particular lexical category. For example, *-able* is used to derive an adjective from a verb (*doable*); *-ize* is used to derive a verb from a noun or an adjective (*hospitalize*, *modernize*), etc.
- This helps resolve cases of ambiguity in morphological structure.





#### **Constraints on derivation**

- Derivation is also subject to constraints. For example, the suffix *-ant* can only combine with bases of Latin origin such as *assist* and *combat*, but not with native English bases such as *help* and *fight*.
- The suffix *-en* can only combine with monosyllabic bases that end with an obstruent, e.g.,

white  $\rightarrow$  whiten, but not abstract  $\rightarrow$  \*abstracten

blue  $\rightarrow$  \*bluen

#### Two classes of Derivational affixes

 Derivational affixes can also be distinguished into two types with regard to whether or not they trigger phonological changes in the base form they attach to.

#### **Class 1 Affixes**

- Affixes that trigger phonological changes are called Class 1 affixes, e.g.,
  - -ity san-ity
  - -ize public-ize
  - -ive product-ive

#### **Class 2 Affixes**

- Affixes do not trigger phonological changes in the stem are called Class 2 affixes, e.g.,
  - -ness happi-ness
  - -ly quick-ly
  - -dom free-dom

#### **Co-occurrence of Class 1 and Class 2**

• Interestingly, in English words where both types of classes co-occur, Class 2 affixes cannot intervene between the root and Class 1 affixes:

(a) nat-ion-al	(b) decis-ive-ness		
root 1 1	root 1 2		
(c) care-ful-ness	(d) *care-less-ity		
root 2 2	root 2 1		

#### **Inflectional morphemes**

• Inflectional morphemes combine with a base to typically change the grammatical function of the base, e.g.,

Inflectional affix	Example
plural -s	book-s
3 <sup>rd</sup> third person singular -s	visit-s
comparative -er	young-er

#### Derivational vs. inflectional affixes

- How do we distinguish between derivational and inflectional affixes?
- Remember that the main distinction is that derivational affixes change the meaning of the base (e.g., *create* vs. *creat-ive*), while inflectional affixes do not (e.g., *wait* vs. *wait-ed*).

#### Derivational vs. inflectional affixes: Category change

 Derivational affixes typically change the category of the base, but inflectional affixes do not: poison (N) + -ous → poisonous (A) refuse (V) + -al → refusal (N) optimist (N) + -ic → optimistic (A)
 Compare: hat (N) + plural -s → hats (N) look (V) + past tense -ed → looked (V) old (A) + superlative -est → oldest (A)

#### Derivational vs. inflectional affixes: Order

• Another difference between derivational and inflectional affixes has to do with the order in which they combine with the base: A derivational affix has to combine with the base before an inflectional affix does, e.g.,

> free-dom-s black-en-ed

\*free-s-dom \*black-ed-en

#### Derivational vs. inflectional affixes: Productivity

- A third difference between the two types of morphemes has to do with productivity: Inflectional morphemes have relatively few exceptions, whereas derivational affixes are restricted to combine with certain bases.
- So while plural -s can combine with virtually any noun (irregular forms aside), the affix -*ize* can only combine with certain adjectives:
  - modern-ize, but no \*new-ize legal-ize, but not \*lawful-ize

#### Variants of the same morpheme

- So far we've been ignoring exceptions. Time to look at these.
- For example, not all nouns form their plurals by adding an *-s* suffix, e.g.
  - (a) one man  $\rightarrow$  two men (internal change)
  - (b) one sheep  $\rightarrow$  two sheep (zero change)
  - (c) one ox  $\rightarrow$  two oxen (-*en* suffixation)

#### Variants of the same morpheme

- Since all these cases involve the same morphological operation of plural formation, we do not want to say there are four plural morphemes in English.
- Rather, there is only plural morpheme that can take different guises. Technically, we say that the plural morpheme in English has different *allomorphs*:

   (a) -s allomorph: book → books
  - (b) vowel change allomorph: man  $\rightarrow$  men
  - (c) zero allomorph: sheep  $\rightarrow$  sheep
  - (d) -en allomorph: ox  $\rightarrow$  oxen

#### Past tense allomorphy in English

- Now, let's consider examples from the paradigm of past tense formation in English:
  - (a) walk  $\rightarrow$  walked
  - (b) sing  $\rightarrow$  sang
  - (c) cut  $\rightarrow$  cut
  - (d) go  $\rightarrow$  went
- What is the morpheme here? What are the allomorphs?

#### Suppletion

- The "go-went" example is an example of suppletion, which is the replacement of a morpheme by an entirely different morpheme to indicate a grammatical contrast.
- Suppletive forms are found in many other languages: French: *aller* "to go" → *ira* "he/she will go" Spanish: *ir* "to go" → *fue* "he/she went" Russian: *xorofo* "good" → *lut∫fe* "better"

#### Reduplication

- *Reduplication* is a grammatical operation that marks a grammatical or semantic contrast by repeating all or part of the base to which it applies.
- Turkish and Indonesian exhibit full reduplication: <u>Turkish</u>: java∫ "quickly" → java∫ java∫ "very quickly" <u>Indonesian</u>: oraŋ "man" → oraŋ oraŋ "all sorts of men"
- <u>Tagalog</u> exhibits partial reduplication: lakad "walk" → lalakad "will walk" takbuh "run" → tatakhuh "will run"

#### **Tone placement**

• Some languages use tone to mark grammatical contrasts, e.g., Mono-Bill (spoken in Congo) uses a high tone to mark past tense and a low tone to mark the future:

dá "spanked" vs. dà "will spank"wó "killed" vs. wò "will kill"

# Some morphology problems.

#### Next class agenda

- Morphology cont. : Compounding and other processes of word formation. Chapter 4.
- Morphological typology