Unit 3 ❑ Morphology

Structure

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1.0 Introduction

In the previous modules you have already learnt about what language really is, what is meant by language as a means of communication, how it differs from other systems of communication, etc. You have also got some idea about the history of human language, a sketch of its evolution as a very powerful means of human communication.

You will have also seen that any descriptive framework for language needs to look upon this complex and creative entity called human language at different levels of linguistic

representation – Phonology (How various sounds are selected and organized in a particular language), Morphology (how words are structured in terms of units which are larger than speech sounds and which we call morphemes) and syntax (how words are combined to make phrases, clauses and sentences).

In the previous module you have got to know about the phonetics and phonology of English where we have talked about the English speech sounds (Phonemes) – both consonants and vowel – and described them from the articulatory point of view. You have also been taught about how these vowels and consonants are combined into syllables, words, tone groups/ rhythmic groups in utterances in English. In short, you are now in a position to identify, describe and explain the English speech sounds and their organizations. In other words, as a student of English language and literature you are now aware of the basic stuff that English is made of at the level of phonology.

The net higher level in this frame of linguistic description is Morphology and Morphophonemics. Morphology, as mentioned already, is the study of words and their structures. And morphophonemics, as a branch of morphology, deals with the phonological realisations of morphemes (we will explain the term 'morpheme' very soon in this lesson).

In this unit on English Morphology we will try to answer questions like the following

What precisely is a word ?

How to study the structure of a word ?

What are the processes of making new words in a language ?

Do all human languages form new words in the same way ?

1.1 The Morpheme

The traditional grammarians worked with two basic units of linguistic description – the word and the sentence. The assumption was that everybody was familiar with these two units and, therefore, these was no serious attempt at defining these terms. Sentences in the written language (the written form of the language was considered to be the language and the spoken form was looked upon as a deviant/corrupt form of language) are marked with various punctuation signs like the full stop of the note of interrogation or exclamation, etc. And words are separated from one another by spaces.

What is a word then ? It is really very difficult to define a word. If time is a word and table is another word, what will be the lexical status of time-table ? If happy is a word, is unhappy also a word ? Shouldn't we consider happy in unhappy as a word within a word ? Or, if happy is a word, unhappy should be explained as 'more than a word'. Shouldn't we have concepts like 'more than a word' or 'less than a word' (un– in unhappy is less than a word) ?

In order to overcome such problems and answer such questions modern linguists postulated a unit called the morpheme. Take for example the word boys. This can be divided into two constituents –boy and –s. Let us call these constitutents as 'morphemes'. So in this word boys there are two morphemes –boy and –s. Similarly unhappy is made of three morphemes – un–, happy and –ly. Thus we can define a morpheme as the following :

A morpheme is a minimal meaningful unit in the grammatical system of a language.

In doorbell there are two morphemes – door and bell, because door has a meaning and bell has a meaning and the word doorbell derives its meaning from the meanings of door and bell. On the contrary, carpet, has a single morpheme. Though it can be broken into car and pet, its meaning is not derived from the meanings of these two morphemes. Going back to our earlier word boys, we can say it has two morphemes –boy and –s, because boy is a meaningful unit and –s is another meaningful unit which has the meaning 'more than one'.

Now compare the notion of morpheme with that of phoneme. You already know that 'a phoneme is a minimal distinctive unit in the sound system of a language'. Both the phoneme and the morpheme are smallest units – the phoneme is the smallest unit in the sound system whereas the morpheme is the smallest unit in the grammatical system. But while the phoneme is a 'distinctive' unit, that is, it can bring about a change in meaning but it does not have a meaning of its own, the morpheme is a meaningful unit. The morpheme /p_x t/ has a meaning but the phonemes in it –/p/, /$_x$/ and /t/ – do not have any meaning though they are combined to have the meaningful unit /P_x t/ which is a morpheme.

1.1.1 Review Questions 1 :

Write down the morphemes in the following English words :

1. wanted .....
2. disconnected .....
3. mysteriously .....
4. dehumanisation .....
5. undemocratic .....
6. irrepairable .....
7. bespectacled .....
8. blackboards .....
9. impossible .....
10. schoolmasters .....

Review Questions 2 :

What is the difference between phonology and morphology ? Give your answer with adequate illustrations. (50 words)

1.2 Free morphemes and Bound morphemes

A morpheme as a minimal meaningful grammatical unit can be of two broad categories – Free and Bound. A free morpheme is a morpheme which can independently occur in the language. For example, boy, good, girl, school –are all free morphemes as each one of them can occur on its own without the support of any other morpheme. On the other hand, a bound morpheme cannot occur on its own; it needs the support of a free morpheme. For example, –ly, –ness, –ity, –logy or pre–, un–, dis–, be–, etc. need to depend on other morphemes for their occurrence in the language as in happily, goodness, electricity, zoology, prefix, unfair, disallow, before. To distinguish between a free morpheme and a bound morpheme, we can say

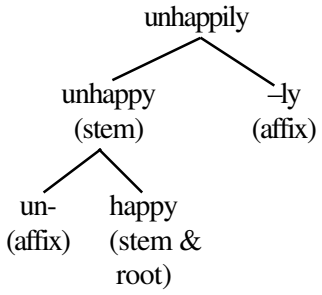
He is hapy ('happy' is a free morpheme, so it can occur on its own).

but we cannot say

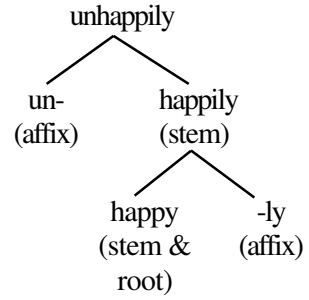
* He is –ly (–ly can never occur on its own as a free form)

Bound morphemes are called affixes. An affix, therefore, is attached to a free or independent form which we call a stem. For example, in the word unhappily, the affix –ly is attached to the stem unhappy. Then again, un– is attached to the stem happy. But this stem happy cannot be split any further, that's why we call it a 'root'. A root, therefore, is a free morpheme.

Let us have a diagrammatic representation of what we have just said.



Alternatively, we can also capture it in the following way :



Please note here that these are the two possible and acceptable ways capturing the interrelations between the stems and the affixes in the structure of the word unhappily (Ignore the spelling variations like happy and happily.) For the sake of your convenience we have used tree diagrams where the branches of the tree will help you understand the hierarchicat interrelations between a stem and its affix.

1.1.3. Suffix, prefix and infix

Affixes can be divided into three categories depending on their positions within the structure. Affixes which are attached to the stem at the beginning of the stem are called prefixes (the name is self-explanatory). For instance, un– in undo is a prefix. An affix which occurs at the end of a stem is called a suffix. –ly in happily is, therefore, a suffix. Look at the following sets of words :

A	B
incorrect	correctly
account	counting
behind	wanted
impossible	Marxism
encourage	courageous

You can easily find out that the affixes in the words under set A (in–, a–, be–, im–, and en–) occur at the beginning of the stems. On the contrary, the affixes in the words under Set B occur at the end of the stems (–ly, –ing, –ed, –ism and –ous are the suffixes). So under set A we have prefixes and under set B we have suffixes. You will have noticed that when written in isolation, Prefixes have a hyphen after them and suffixes have a hyphen before them.

There are some languages in which an affix is inserted somewhere in the middle of a stem. Such an affix occurring in the middle of a stem is called an infix (the name, again, is self-explanatory). Languages like Arabic, Tagalog and Charu have infixes. For example, Tagalog has a word / Pumi : lit / which means "one who takes effort". It has the stem /pt : lit/ (effort) which receives the infix / –um– / (one who does).

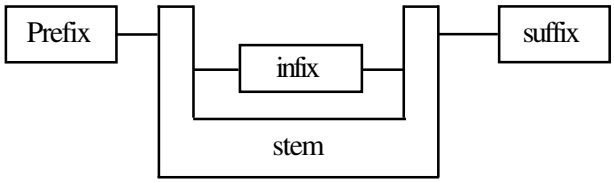
In Tagalog /–um–/ as an infix is also used as a Past tense form attached to a verb. For example,

/ lakad / → /lumakad/

'walk' 'walked'

Yet another example may be given from Latin :

The word /rump/ ('break') consists of the root/rup/ and the imperfective infix /–m–/



The positional occurrence of the prefixes, suffixes and infixes are shown above in the diagram.

In English, however, there is no infix. It has only prefixes and suffixes.

1.1.4. Inflectional affixes and Derivational affixes

As on the dimension of their position or occurrence in a stem we divided the affixes into prefixes, suffixes and infixes, on another dimension of their functional status we can classify affixes into inflectional affixes (or inflections) and derivational affixes (or derivations).

It is difficult to define and distinguish between inflections and derivations. Most textbooks on linguistics and grammar hold that inflections change the form of a word. For example, win, wins, won, winning are different forms of the same word win. So the affixes here attached to the stem win change the form of the word win. Thus these are inflections attached to the stem win change the form of the word win. Thus these are inflections attached to the stem and they serve to capture various grammatical relations such as tense, number, gender, etc. (In wins, for instance, –s is an inflection indicating Tense Present).

Derivation is said to be a process of word formation. While inflections change the form of a word, derivations create new words. (But this is not a satisfactory definition as the difineiotn of a word is itself unsatisfactory). According to this line of differentiation, disallow and allow are different words and, therefore, dis– is a derivation. But allow and allowed are two different forms of the same word allow and, therefore, –ed is an inflection (Tense past).

As this way of defining inflections and derivations are not quite satisfactory, we will try to define and describe them in terms of word paradigms.

A paradigm is a set of related items. The paradigm for the word eat would be

eat – eat + Tense Present (∅)
eats – eat + Tense Present (–s)
ate – eat + Tense Past (Vowel Change)
eating – eat + Present Participle (–ing)
eaten – eat + Past Participle (–en)

But within this paradigm of eat we cannot have eater (eat + er), because with the suffix –er eater has a paradigm of its own. So –er is not functioning within the paradigm of eat but –er has instead created a new paradigm. The paradigm of eater has the following forms :

eater – eater + Singular Number (∅)
eaters – eater + Plural Number (–s)
eater's – eater + Possessive case (–'s)
eaters' – eater + Plural + Possessive (–s) + (–´)

In modification of our earlier definition we can now say that inflections function within a paradigm but derivations create new paradigms.

The major inflectional affixes (suffixes) in English function within the paradigms of verbs, nouns and adjectives :

Noun	Verb	Adjectives
boys (–s) (Number)	writes (–s)	Sharper (–er) Degree
	writing (–ing)	
boy's (–'s) (Case)	wrote (Past Tense)	Sharpest (–est) Degree
	written (–en)	

1.1.5 Review Questions 3 :

Identify the root, prefix, suffix and stem in the following. You can use tree diagrams.

1. mathematical	2. nationalization	3. imperfection
4. humanity	5. antiestablishment	6. nonsensical
7. women	8. characteristic	9. scientific
10. endangering	11. hopelessly	12. predominantly

Review Questions 4 :

How would you distinguish between an inflection and a derivation ? Give the answer in your own English using your own examples from English. (100 words).

Review Questions 5 :

What are the dimensions on which we have classified affixes ? Write very briefly on these classifications. (60 words).

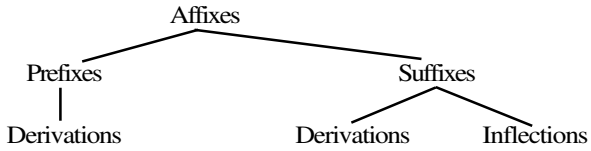
1.2 Class-Maintaining & Class-changing derivations

Derivational affixes in English can be both prefixes and suffixes. In the word unfaithful un– is a derivational prefix and –ful is a derivational suffix. But inflections in English are suffixes as they are categories like Tense (Past and Present), Case (Possessive and non-possessive) Number (Plural) and Degree (Comparative & Superlative).

We can, therefore, formulate a rule now :

(i) All inflections in English are suffixes are not inflections.

(ii) All prefixes in English are derivations but all derivations are not prefixes.



It should be mentioned here that inflections do not change the 'part of speech status' of the stem to which they are attached. The verb want remains a verb in wanted after the inflection (–ed) has been attached to it.

In the same way the noun remains a noun after it receives the plural inflection or the possessive inflection. So inflections are class-maintaining affixes as they function within the same paradigm.

On the other hand, derivations can be either class-maintaining or class-changing. This means some derivations do not change the part of speech status of the stem. See the following derivational prefixes which are class-maintaining :

impossible	dehumanize
incorrect	unnatural
irrational	disproportionate
illegitimate	biweekly

Class-changing derivational prefixes :

encorage – (noun becomes verb)

before – (noun/adjective becomes preposition)

confront – (noun becomes verb)

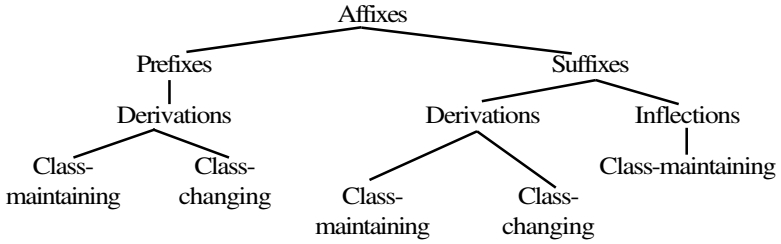
Class-maintaining derivational suffixes :

greenish	friendship
cowardice	zoology
brotherhood	citizen
kingdom	womarhood

Class-changing derivational suffixes :

beautiful	selective	performance
singer	collector	courageous
frighten	figher	sincerity
devilish	motionless	referential

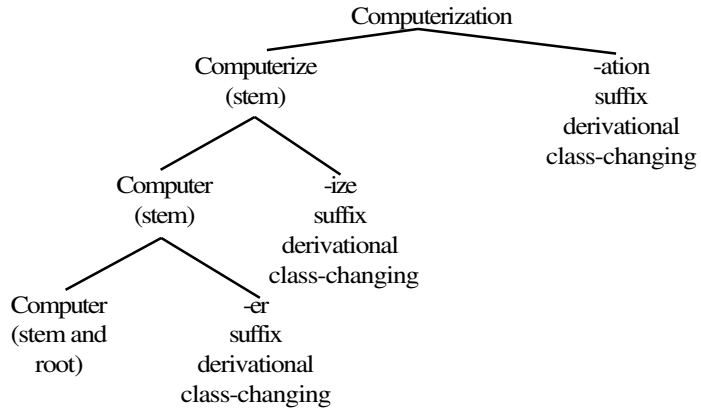
We can now modify our previous diagram on English affixes :



In order to capture the morphological structures of words these positional and functional properties or features of stems, roots and affixes will have to be clearly shown to bring out the hierarchical and linear interrelations between them.

The morphological analysis of some English words is given below. Study their structures to look into the interrelations at the morphological level.

1.



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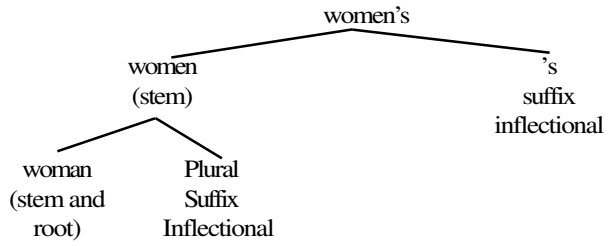

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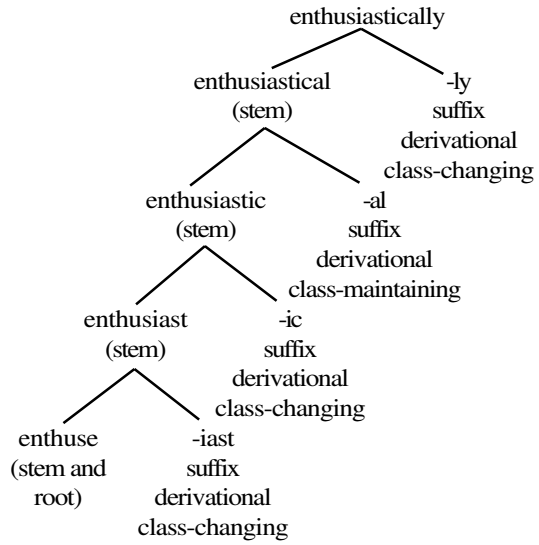

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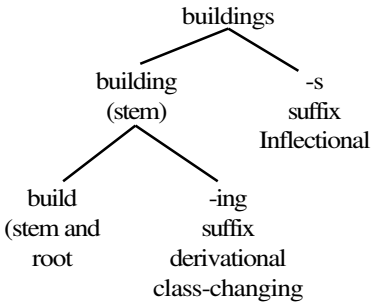
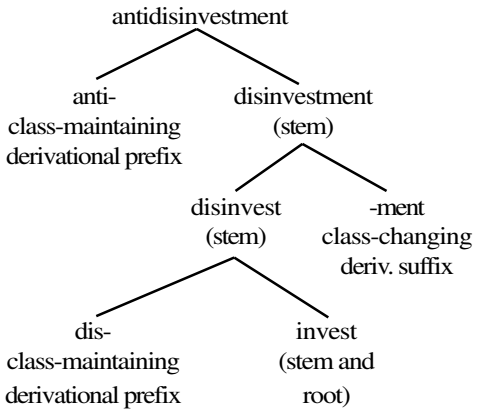


Notice that '–ing' here is derivational though it would be inflectional in building in a structure like :

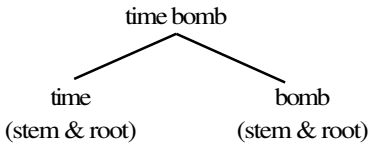
He is building a house (Present Continuous form of the verb).

5.



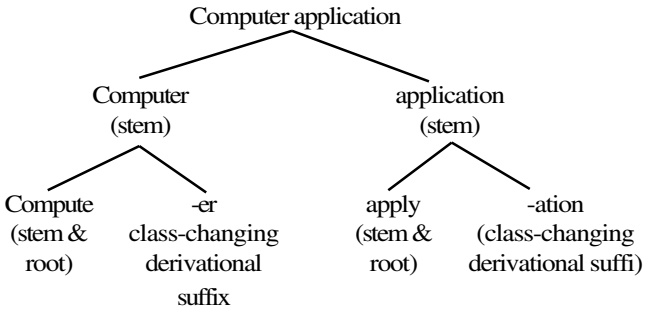
You may have noticed that in the examples given above we captured the interrelations between stems and affixes. This is known as the process the affixation where a stem receives affixes hierarchically one after another and ultimately we move up or down to the level of the root.

A second kind of word building process in morphology is also possible where two (or more) stems are combined with-one another. For example.



This process is called compounding. Traditional grammarians referred to it as compoind words. In all human languages, therefore, such processes of compounding and affixation lead to what we call linguistic creativity. Please study the structure of the following English words/ compounds.

6.



In this structure, we have compounding at the first level and then affixation at the second level.

7.

Notice that here you cannot have compounding first – dry and cleaner – because semantically a dry cleaner is one who dry cleans clothes and not a cleaner who is dry. Any linguistic description, needless to say, has to be syntactico-semantically valid because the meaning of an utterance is derived out of the way we understand the structural interrelations in the utterance. This is why language is called structure-dependent.

1.2.1. Review Questions 6 :

Give morphological analysis of the following English words with the help of tree diagrams :

1. personified
2. salesman
3. illogicality
4. convertibility
5. characteristically
6. theatricality
7. Photographer
8. software

1.3. Some other word-building processes

You have already seen that affixation and compounding are two major creative word-building processes and it is fascinating to see how a network of these two processes leads to create words and coinages in English. But there are also a few other morphological processes of word-formation. We will now look into some of these processes.

1.3.1. Reduplication

In many languages of the world it is a very common practice of repeating the entire root/ stem, the repetition or reduplication adding to the meaning of the root/stem. This process, therefore, adds material like any other form of affixation but the identity of the added material is determined by the stem/root.

Examine the following examples :

Turkish	:	/ t ʃ abuk /	/ t abuk t abuk /
		quickly	very quickly
Bangla	:	/ hire /	/ d̪ hire d̪ hire /
		slowly	quite slowly
Indonesian	:	/ kursi /	/ kursi kursi /
		chair	chairs
Hindi	:	/ ahis t̪ a /	/ ahis t̪ a ahis t̪ a /
		slowly	very slowly

1.3.2. Word-building by <u>modification of the base</u>

In human languages sometimes new words are created by bringing about certain kinds of phonological change in the base. Consider the following pairs of English nouns and verbs.

(i)	Sheath / ʃ i : θ /	Sheathe / i.ð̠ /
	Noun	Verb
(ii)	grease / gri : s /	grease / gri : z /
	Noun	Verb
(iii)	wreath / ri : θ /	wreathe / ri : θ̪ /
	Noun	Verb

These examples show that a voiceless consonant changes into its voiced counterpart in the verb form.

A similar and more common phenomenon is seen in various kinds of vowel mutation like <u>ablaut</u> or <u>umlaut</u>. In <u>ablaut</u> the vowel in the base is changed into an altogether different vowel.

English	:	abide	–	abode
		sing	–	song
		write	–	wrote
Icelandic	:	ber	–	bar
		'I carry'	–	'I carried'

In <u>umlaut</u> the vowel in the base is changed into its corresponding front vowel in the derived structure.

English	:	mouse	mice
		goose	geese
Icelandic	:	son.ur	syn.ir
		'son'	"sons"

1.3.3. Word-building without any change of form

In many languages, including English, derivational or inflectional affixes do not bring about any change in the form of the words in many cases. That is, after affixation the base remains unchanges. This is called <u>zero derivation</u> or <u>zero affixation</u>.

English	:	deer	deer
		(singular)	(plural)
		put	put
		(Present Tense)	(Past Tense)
Yoruba	:	gigun	gigun
		(long)	(length)

1.3.4. Shortening of bases

Sometimes in human languages a multisyllabic base is shortened to create a new word. In English we have a number of words like Prof. for Professor, lab for laboratory and doc for doctor. This process is called clipping.

1.3.5. Acronyms

Acronyms are made of the initial letters or sounds of a string of words as in the name of an institution or organisation or in the title of a scientific or technological expression.

WHO – World Health Organisation.

SAARC – South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation.

Please remember that in acronyms the initial letters are pronounced not as letters but as a new word created out of the initials.

1.3.6. Blends

Blends are created from parts of existing lexical items and they pass on as new words in the lexicon of a language.

motel	←	motor + hotel
brunch	←	breakfas + lunch
smog	←	smoke + fog

This process of combining parts of two or more words and their meaning to create new words is also known as portmanteau words.

Both acronyms and blends are, therefore, alphabet based forms.

1.3.7. Back formation

It is "a process of word formation where a new word is formed by removing an imagined affix from another word". A word whose form is similar to that of a derived form undergoes a process of deaffixation. For example

resurrection	→	resurrect	(through back formation)
editor	→	edit	,,
donation	→	donate	,,

It is fascinating to note that while convenor is derived from convene through affixation, edit is derived from editor through back formation (a reverse process of Reaffixation).

1.3.8. Cranberry morphs or unique morphs

There are some morphs which occur in fixed phrases or expressions only. Sometimes they look like free morphemes, as in kith and kin (kith is not used independently) and sometimes they look like bound morphemes, as in lukewarm (luke is not a prefix in the language). Their

morphological status is not distinctly captured by linguists. These are called cranberry morphs because of the example cran in cranberry.

Sometimes some new words are formed from names. Xerox is used as a generic term though it is derived from a brand name. And words like watt are derived from names of scientists.

1.3.9. Review Questions ? :

(i) Give two examples of compounding from your mother tongue.
(ii) Give five example of zero derivation/zero affixation from English.
(iii) Give five examples of reduplication from your mother tongue.
(iv) Explain with illustrations (a) Alphabet based formation (b) clipping (c) Blends.

1.4. Morphophonemics

Morphophonemics or morphophonology is a branch of morphology which deals with the interrelations between morphemes and their allomorphs. In other words, it is concerned with the various phonological realisations of morphemes. In your lesson on phonology you have been told about the notion of the phonemes and their allophones which is comparable to that of the morphemes and their allomorphs within the structuralist framework of phonology and morphology.

1.4.1 Morphemes and allomorphs

Let us consider the plural morpheme -s in the following English words

cat	/k æ t/	–	cats /kæts/
dog	/d ɔ g/	–	dogs /dɔgz/
bus	/b ʌ s/	–	buses /'bʌsɪz/

The plural suffix in all these three words has the same meaning of 'plurality' or 'more than one'. But it is phonologically realized differently in them –/ -s /, / -z / and / – ɪz /.

By studying English data in relation to the plural morpheme, the structural linguists have formulated certain rules about the occurrence of these three phonological forms.

(i) /-ɪz occurs when it is attached to the stem ending in any one of the six sibilants -/s, ʃ, t ʃ, z, ʒ / and / dʒ /. In other words, the plural suffix will be realized as /– ɪz. when it is preceded by a sibilant. (Of the six sibilants, four are fricatives –/s, ʃ , z/ and / ʧ / and two are affricates – / t ʃ / and / d ʒ /). For example,

church	–	churches	/ʧ ɜ : ʧ ɪz/
judge	–	judges	/dʒʌdʒɪz/
cause	–	causes	/k ɔ: zɪz/
rose	–	roses	/rəʊzɪz/
bush	–	bushes	/bʊ ɪz/
fac	–	faces	/feɪsɪz/
case	–	cases	/keɪsɪz/

garage – garages /gɒra : ʒ IZ/

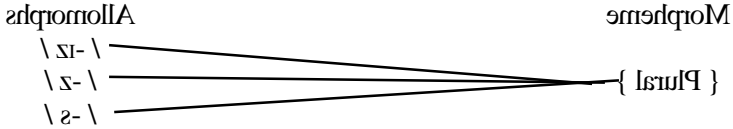
(i) The /–z/ allomorph occurs when it is preceded by voiced sounds other than the three voiced sibilants –/z, / and /d ʒ. See the following examples :

dog – dogs /d ɒ gZ/
law – laws / l :z/
bill – bills /bilz/
cow – cows /kauz/

The /–s/ allomorph occurs when it is attached to a stem ending in (i.e. it is preceded by) voiceless sounds other than the three voiceless sibilants–/s, ʃ /and /t /. For examples,

cap – caps / k χ p s/
mat – mats /mχt s/
book – books /buk s/
path – paths /pa : θ s/

Thus we can say that /–ɪz/, /–z/ and /–s/ are the allomorphs of the plural morpheme. Allomorphs are, we repeat, the phonological realizations of the morpheme. Allomorphs belonging to a morpheme are like members belonging to a family. This is once again comparable to the notion of allophones belonging to a phoneme.



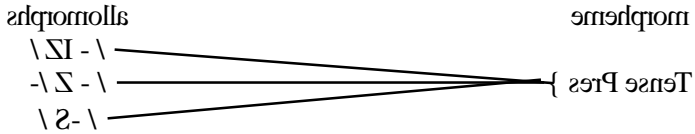
(Please notice that a morpheme is represented within braces { } and an allomorph is put between slant bars / /.)

If you look into the distribution of the allomorphs carefully you will find that these three allomorphs of the plural morpheme are in complementary distribution with each other. That is to say, they occur in mutually exclusive environments. Where /–ɪz/ occurs /–z/ and /–s/ will never occur; /–z/ will never occur where /– ɪz/ and /–s/ occur and in the same way /–s/ will not occur in the environments of /– ɪz/ and /–z/.

It is fascinating to note that the distribution of the allomorphs of the morpheme Present Tense (–s in comes) and the possessive morpheme ('s in man's) are absolutely similar to the distribution of the allomorphs of the {PI}. For example.

catch – catches /kɤ t ɪz/
wash – washes /w ʃ ɪz/
eat – eats /i:t s/
go – goes /gɒu z/
and
Keats – Keats' /ki:tsiz/
Shakespeare – Shakespeare's / se/kspɪɒz/
Eliot – Eliot's /eliɒts/

We can capture the similarities between these three morphemes the same way.



These similarities between these elements and their distribution indicate that human language is highly systematic and organized and it also proves that there is an inherent drift towards simplification in every language.

Let us now consider another case of allomorphic variations in English. The past Tense morpheme –ed is realized as \ –Id\, \–d\ and \–t\.

The rules of distribution of these allomorphs are as follows.

(i) \–Id\ occurs when it is attached to a stem ending in (i.e.when it is preceded by) \–t\ or\–d\. For example,

board	–	boarded	/b : d ɪd/
hund	–	hunted	/hʌnt ɪd/
guard	–	guarded	/gɑ:d ɪd/
wait	–	waited	/we t ɪd/

(ii)\–d\occurs when {Past} is preceded by voiced sounds other than\–d\.For example,

dive	–	dived	/daɪv d/
sigh	–	sighed	/sa ɪd/
sign	–	signed	/saɪn d/
mail	–	mailed	/meɪl d/
show	–	showed	/ʃ ǝʊ d/
love	–	loved	/lʌvd/

(iii) \–t\ allomorph of the {Past} will occur when it is preceded by voiceless sounds other than \–t\. Here are some examples :

face	–	faced	/feɪst/
like	–	liked	/laɪkt/
cash	–	cashed	/kχ t/
laugh	–	laughed	/la:ft/
wash	–	washed	/w ɒ t/

1.4.2. Irregular allomorphs

So far we have talked about the major and regular allomorphs of the morphemes {Plural}, {T pres}, {Case Poss} and {T past}. But there are also a number of irregular allomorphs of these morphemes. For example, the {plural} morpheme has a number of irregular variants.

(i) man – men /men/

Here the vowel /x \ in the stem is replaced by the vowel /e\. This is what we have already referred to as the morphological process of 'word-building by modification of the base'. This is also called process allomorph.

(ii) child – children /t ldrən/

Here the allomorphic variant is more complex; we have process + the allomorph /–rən\.

(iii) sheep – sheep / i:p/

The {plural} does not have any visible phonological realisation here. We may call it/∅/ allomorph (zero allomorph). This we have already called the morphological process of 'word-building without any change of form.'

Such irregular allomorphs of the other morphemes also occur.

(i) {T Pres} has ∅ (zero) allomorph when it is marked on the modal auxiliaries. {Past} is marked on the modals as process allomorph but {Present} does not have any phonological realisation. For example,

{can} + {Pres} – can
{shall} + {Pres} – shall
But {can} + {Past} – could
{shall} + {Past} – should

(ii) {Tense Past} has \ ∅ \ allomorph in structures with the stems cut, put, etc.

{cut} + {Past} – cut

But past morpheme has process alomorphs in structures with the stems like the following :

catch – caught /k : t/
flight – fought/fɔ :t/
run – ran /rʌn/
bring – brought/brɔ : t/

Now that we have already looked into the morphophonemic features of some affixes (or bound morphemes), let us look into the structure of some free morphemes now. Like the affixes, the free morphemes also have allomorphic variations. Some free morphemes in English have only one allomorph but some others may have more than one. For example, {bus} and {boy} have one allomorph each but morphemes like {leaf} and {house} have two allomorphs.

Let us look at the following forms :

Here are some more English free morphemes which have more than one allomorph.

1.4.3 Review Questions 8 :

Given below are some sentences from a hypothetical language. Identify the morphemes.

1. / nepukuneedigi/ – I ate a banana.
2. /nepukunulik/ – I liked the banana.
3. /sepukuneedigi/ – She ate a banana.
4. /sepukunuselu/ – She stole the banana.

Review questions 9 :

How would you describe and distinguish between morpheme, morph and allomorph ?

(You can answer this question keeping in mind the similar notions in phonology – phoneme, phone and allophone.) (100 words).

1.5. Some morphophonemic processes in English

1.5.1. Assimilation : When morphemes are combined (as in 'Sandhi' rules in Bangla, Sanskrit, etc.) the neighbouring phonemes become phonologically more like each other. For example,

/ɪ n/ + /'pɪ sibi/ = /ɪ m̲'pσ sibl/

Here /n/ becomes /m/ in the environment of or under the influence of /p/. That is to say, the alveolar nasal becomes a bilabial nasal in the environment of the bilabial sound /p/.

Here are some more examples.

English : en+courage – /n/ – /ŋ/ in the environment
of /k/ (alveolar becomes velar)
in + correct – same 1 [illegible]

Bengali : / pãc̄ / + /jon/ – / jjon/– voiceless palatal
becomes voiced palatal

1.5.2. Syncope : Syncope is a process of elimination of medial vowel(s) or consonant(s).

Hindi : / / + /i :/ – δsli: (real)

English

(colloquial) : /ju:/ + /hδv/ – /ju:v/

/ju:/ + /wud/ – /ju:d/

1.5.3. Addition of phoneme or Epenthesis : When two or more morphemes are combined together a new phoneme may be added in the process. For example,

/strσ ŋ/ + /δ/ – /strσŋgδ/

/g/ is added here

/slδm/ + /aiz/ – /sσlδm n̲aiz/

/n/ is added in the structure

1.5.4. Loss of phoneme : A phoneme is lost in the basic allomorph when two morphemes are combined. This process is the opposite of 'Addition of phoneme'. Let us consider these examples.

/l̲n̲–/ + /'mσdist/ – /l'mσdist/

Here/n/ in/ in–/ is lost.

/l̲n̲/ + /rɪ ʃ δnδl/ – /l'rɪ δnδl/ – Here again /n/ is lost.

1.5.5. Stress-shift : It sometimes happens that when an affix is attached to a stem, the stress is shifted from one syllable to another.

'photograph	–	pho'tography	–	photo'graphic
'president	–	presi'dential		
'hesitate	–	hesi'tation		
'electric	–	elec'tricity		
'demonstrate	–	demons'tration		
'theatre	–	the'atric – theatri'cality		

Please go back to your phonetics lesson once again and study the stress rules in English to see how affixation brings about stress-shift in English.

1.5.6. Summary : In this unit on English morphology we have tried to look into (i) the morphological structure of words and (ii) how morphemic units are phonologically realized in English. In order to do so we have tried to explain various notions like morpheme, word, compound, derivation, inflection, word paradigm, etc. in morphology and morpheme – morph – allomorph interrelations in morphophonemics. We have also seen some important word-building processes and certain morphophonemic processes. We have referred to some data of other languages wherever felt necessary. The chief objective of this unit was to acquaint you with the linguistic facts and phenomena at this level of linguistic representation called morphology the way you were acquainted in the previous module with linguistic phenomena at the level of phonology.

1.5.7. Review Questions 10 :

Study the morphophonemic processes in English and try to find out how many of them will apply to your mother tongue. Try to discover some new process(es) of morphophonemics in your own language, if you can.

[For the review questions (1 – 10) you need not look for any reference book. You can answer them if you study the lessons very carefully. Since many of the concepts we have dealt with here are new to you they might appear to be difficult but if you work hard and start finding interest in them you will find the issues fascinating and the tasks exciting. For answering these questions, therefore, you need to go back to the relevant portions of the lesson time and again. You will find it rewarding and this exercise is essential for students like you who are doing the course through the distant education mode.]

1.5.8. Books Recommended :

1. CIEFL PGCTE Course Materials : Introduction to Linguistics Block II Units 5-6. Dept of Distance Education CIEFL.

2. University of Burdwan : M.A. Part II English Study Material Paper VII option - C. Directorate of Correspondence Courses, B.U.

3. O'Grady, et. al. (1991) : Contemporary Linguistics : An Introduction. St. Martin's Press, New York. Chapter IV (PP 111-155).

4. Verma, S. K. et al. (1989) : Modern Linguistics : An Introduction. OUP Madras (Section III, Units 18-21, PP 58-78).

Unit 4 ❑ English Syntax

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2.0. Introduction

In Module II and Unit 1 of Module III we have talked about linguistic units like phoneme, syllable, morpheme and word. You have also been made aware of how these elements function within the overall framework of a linguistic system. The various linguistic processes at different levels of linguistic reality which involve these linguistic units in a complex and creative network of functioning have also been introduced to you. And we hope that you must be getting more and more fascinated in discovering the various levels of linguistic – communicative operation in a human language which we use and understand so easily and which is so easily taken for granted.

The moment we take a serious look into this apparently simple human entity called language we begin to realise how complex this system is and how creative and communicatively effective this mechanism is.

After phonology and morphology we will now move upto the next higher level of syntax. At this level our concern is with the way words are organized into higher units like phrases, clauses, and sentences. At this level we will have to explain issues like linear relations between constituents of sentences along with the hierarchical interrelations between constituents. We will have to answer questions like why 'Poor John ran away' is a possible sentence in English but * John poor away rain' is not a sentence.

In this course on syntax we will try to capture the structure of phrases (like Noun phrases, Adj. phrases, Adverb phrases, Prepositional phrases, Verb phrases, Verbal groups, etc.) and clauses as well as sentences (like the simple sentence, the complex sentence and the compound sentence). And in doing so we will present the models of syntactic analysis of all the three paradigms of language study – the traditional, the structural and the transformational generative.

2.1. The Traditional School of Linguistics

The term traditional in linguistics today is used as almost a blanket term covering about 2500 years of language study beginning with the pre-Socratic philosophers till the beginning of the 20th century, i.e. the time of Ferdinad de Saussure. During this vast span of language study we had the Greeks, the Romans, the thirteenth century scholastic philosophers / speculative grammarians, the 17th century Port Royal Grammarians in France, the great 18th century grammarians Leibuiz and Sir William Jones due to whom we had the famous 19th century brand of linguistics known as comparative philology. Alongside this scholarly tradition of traditional linguistics we also had a tradition of school grammars which tried to capture the structural essence of linguisitc configurations in human languages. When we refer to traditional grammars and their limitations we precisely mean this school tradition of grammars.