MORPHOLOGY AND SYTANX

(ENG509)

**Notes based on
Short Question
Lesson 1 to 15**

Q Define the term Morphology.

The term morphology was first coined by Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749– 1832). It is derived from Greek: morph- means 'shape, form', Morphology is the study of form or forms.

In linguistics "morphology refers to
The mental system involved in word formation

Or

Branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed.

According to **Fabregas&Scalise** (2012):

Morphology is the part of linguistics that studies grammatical properties of words and how words relate to each other in a language.

Q What are morphemes?

In English grammar and morphology, a morpheme is a meaningful linguistic unit consisting of a word such as *dog,* or a word element, such as the -s at the end of *dogs,* that can't be divided into smaller meaningful parts.

Morphemes are the smallest units of meaningin a language. They are commonly classified as either free morphemes, which can occur as separate words or bound morphemes, which can't stand alone as words.

Many words in English are made up of a single free morpheme. For example, each word in the following sentence is a distinct morpheme: "I need to go now, but you can stay." Put another way, none of the nine words in that sentence can be divided into smaller parts that are also meaningful.

Other definitions.
- ✓ The smallest linguistic pieces with a grammatical function
- ✓ A morpheme may consist of a word, such as hand
- ✓ A meaningful piece of a word, such as the -ed of looked
- ✓ A pairing between sound and meaning

Q Define morph.

In linguistics, a *morph* is a word segment that represents one morpheme (the smallest unit of language that has meaning) in sound or writing. It's a written or pronounced portion of a word, such as an affix (a prefix or suffix). For example, the word *infamous* is made up of three morphs—*in-, fam(e), -eous*—each of which represents one morpheme. The word has two affixes, both a prefix (*in-*) and a suffix (*-eous*) attached to a root word.

Q What is stem?

'A stem is a base unit to which another morphological piece is attached.

Q What is Root?

A root is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach, but the term refers only to morphologically simple units.

For example, disagree is the stem of disagreement,.
Disagree: agree is both the stem the root of the entire word.

Q What are Affixes?

An affix is a morpheme that is attached before, after or within to a word stem to form a new word. Affix is a grammatical part that is combined with a word, stem, or phrase to create copied and modified forms. Most English words are made up of the base word known as *root* which contains the heart of the meaning of the word. The affix added at the beginning of the root is known as prefix while that at the end of a word is suffix. The process of attaching these affixes is referred to as ***affixation.***

Q What are the Kinds of Affixes?

Affixes are divided into many categories, depending on the position, while Prefix and suffix are extremely common terms. The other terms are uncommon. Such as:

1. **Prefix** - occurs at the beginning of a root. Ex: ***Un***happy
2. **Suffix** - occurs at the end of a root. Ex: Happi***ness***
3. **Infix** - occurs inside a root
4. **Circumfix** - occurs in two parts on both outer edges of a root.
5. **Simulfix** - replaces one or more phonemes in the root. Ex: M***a***n + *plural* = **Men, Tooth** becomes **Teeth**, **Eat** becomes **Ate**.
6. **Suprafix** - Overlap on one or more syllables in the root as a supra-segmental. Ex: stress in the words ***produce***, *noun* and ***pro'duce***, *verb.*

Q What are novel words (Morphology in Action)?

If something is so new and original that it's never been seen, used or even thought of before, call it **novel**. Whereas new is a Germanic **word** coming from Old English, **novel** is based on Latin novellus "new, young, fresh."

Novel words and word play

All human beings have this capacity for generating and understanding novel words. Sometimes someone creates an entirely new word, as J. R. R. Tolkien 'hobbit'. But more often than not, we build new words from pre-existing pieces, as with unbreak and uncry, or as with hobbitish and hobbit-like, built by adding suffixes to the stem hobbit. We could easily go on to create more words on these patterns. Novel words are all around us.

Q What are the some of our foundational beliefs about linguistics and linguistic methodology? (Background & Beliefs)

First, we believe that languages differ from one another. Second, that language, which we can write with a small l, is different from Language; with a capital L. Individual languages have features that are not characteristic of Language in general. Linguists need to pay equal attention to both small-l language and capital-L Language. Morphology is a distinct component of languages or grammars. We also have something that pertains to methodology. The first is that we should take an attitude of skeptical realism. Albert Einstein said that a physicist must be both a realist and a nominalist. Our other methodological belief can be summed up as a motto: anything goes (Paul Feyerabend, a twentieth-century philosopher).

Q What is Morphological Analysis?

Morphological Analysis (MA) can also be referred to as 'problem solving'. It is visually recorded in a morphological overview, often called a 'Morphological Chart'. The method was developed in the 1960s by Fritz Zwicky, an astronomer from Switzerland.

This analysis is about exploring all possible solutions to a complex problem. It is used when exploring new and different ideas. Morphological Analysis provides a structured inventory of possible solutions. It is a question of splitting the problem into partial problems and looking at possible options for each part of the problem. In this way, all aspects of a problem are thoroughly investigated. This makes Morphological Analysis a relatively simple technique that produces good, useful results.

With Morphological Analysis, different solutions to a complex problem can already be found in the design phase. Fritz Zwicky applied Morphological Analysis to astronomical research and development of jet engines and missiles. A complex problem has the following characteristics:

- **Multidimensional**

  Each problem has multiple angles that need to be treated as a whole.

- **Quantifiable**

  The various aspects of a problem are quantifiable and expressed in numbers. They are also constantly changing, which must be included in the search for possible solutions.

- **Subjective**

  The right solution to the problem is a matter of opinion. The best solution does not exist, but there are better or worse solutions.

Steps

When using Morphological Analysis, there is a **Morphological Chart**. The following process steps are necessary to get a useful model:

1. Problem Description

The problem is defined in a short and clear description; what it is, what it's not and what it should be. A problem definition can now be formulated. Suppose a manufacturer of luxury wine glasses is looking for a beautiful gift box. Based on a number of conditions (safety, sturdiness etc.) the manufacturer indicates what the packaging should include.

2. Identify dimensions

This phase determines what is important for solving a problem. The problem is divided into different dimensions. These perspectives provide potential parameters that can solve the problem. The first dimension in the above example is the shape of the package, the second dimension is the colour of the package and the third dimension is the chosen materials. Multiple dimensions can also be chosen.

3. Properties

By looking for as many features as possible for the different dimensions, many options for solutions are created. Creativity is offered here. For example, the shape may be round, triangular, square or rectangular. The colour may be black, green or red and the choice of materials may be wood, cardboard, glass or plastic. The more properties are included, the more options there are.

4. Combining

By making arbitrary combinations, there are many solutions that may be applied. From this, a **Morphological Chart** or **Morphological Overview** can be made, which is visualised as a **matrix**. For each dimension, all possible conditions are summarised and it is possible to look at what new ideas this creates.

5. Evaluation

Finally, the possible solutions should be evaluated. Which solution is feasible and consistent and which will absolutely not be used? If a solution is not consistent or is unusable, then a cross will appear in the appropriate field of the matrix. That solution is excluded.

6. Implementation
The desired solution identified in the morphological overview can be chosen and implemented.

Q What is a word?
In linguistics, a **word** is the smallest element that can be uttered in isolation with objective or practical meaning.

This contrasts deeply with a morpheme, which is the smallest unit of meaning but will not necessarily stand on its own. A word may consist of a single morpheme (for example: *oh!, rock, red, quick, run, expect*), or several (*rocks, redness, quickly, running, unexpected*), whereas a morpheme may not be able to stand on its own as a word (in the words just mentioned, these are *-s, -ness, -ly, -ing, un-, -ed*). A complex word will typically include a root and one or more affixes (*rock-s, red-ness, quick-ly, run-ning, un-expect-ed*), or more than one root in a compound (*black-board, sand-box*). Words can be put together to build larger elements of language, such as phrases (*a red rock*, *put up with*), clauses (*I threw a rock*), and sentences (*He threw a rock too, but he missed*).
The term *word* may refer to a spoken word or to a written word, or sometimes to the abstract concept behind either. Spoken words are made up of units of sound called phonemes, and written words of symbols called graphemes, such as the letters of the English alphabet.

Q What are the types of words?
Words may be defined in different ways from different perspectives, with each perspective picking out a somewhat different object. Linguists distinguish words as
1. phonological words,
2. grammatical words
3. lexemes.

Q Write a note on Grammatical words.
A Grammatical word (or empty word, or function word) has little or no identifiable meaning but has one or more grammatical functions. It can not be defined, and looking for an equivalent in another language if often pointless. English e.g. of, the, and, have who, if (some are borderline e.g. in, with, we, this, for)
Grammatical word (morphosyntactic word_ is a word that plays a distinct grammatical role within an utterance. Distinct grammatical words can belong to a single lexeme. Example The grammatical words dance and dances both belong to the same lexeme dance.
Grammatical words are different forms of a single word that occur depending on the syntactic context. This is why chair and chairs that are tokens of the same word must be treated as two different grammatical words as the first occurs in context appropriate for singular noun and the second in context appropriate for plural noun.
Words like e.g. and, into, lovely, with, for have one form only but despite this they are treated as grammatical words.
Grammatical word:
- is distinguished from larger units such as phrase and clause and also smaller units like e.g. morpheme.
- Is identified by criteria drawn from grammar.

[From a category of Function words we can distinguish Grammatical words for they are borderline, they have grammatical function but also some identifiable meaning]

Q Write a note on Phonological words.

A Phonological word is a piece of speech which behaves as a unit of pronunciation according to criteria which vary from language to language. In English the most useful criterion is that a phonological word contains only the main stress.

[The rest] [of the books'll] [have to] [go] [here]

The main stress is falling on the segments in brackets, therefore this sentence contains 5 phonological words.

Phonological word- a word, string of sounds that behaves as a unit of certain phonological processes, including stress assignment and accent.

In English every phonological word has a main stress and elements that are written as separate words but do not have their own stress are not phonological words in English.

E.g. the hot dogs ran for the lake. The sentence has 7 words but only 4 word stresses. There is no stress on the or for . Prepositions like for sometimes have stress, but as often as not are also included in the stress domain of the following word. Therefore it can be said that the string for the lake is a single phonological word.

Items like the, for that are phonologically dependent on adjacent words are called clitics. They can not usually stand alone phonologically.

Phonological word:

- is distinguished from the phoneme and the syllable as smaller units and also from larger units which might be set up as domains of international features.

- is a word established ultimately by phonological criteria.

Q Write a detailed note on Lexemes.

A lexeme is the smallest or minimal unit of lexicon in a language that bears some "meaning". A lexeme has a morphological form, semantic content (or meaning) and a syntactic category. Lexeme is basically an abstract notion used in linguistic morphology, the concrete realisation of which is a word.

One lexeme can take up more than one inflection to form a set of many words known as inflected variants. For example, the lexeme PLAY can take up many forms like *play, playing*, *plays,* and *played.* All of these word forms have the same basic meaning (which is denoted by an action) and, hence, will be categorised under the same lexeme. The word *playing* is the participle form of the verb that is used to denote the same action in continuous aspect. Likewise, the word *played* is used to denote the past form of the action, the word *play* when the subject of the verb is present first and second person or third person plural, the word *plays* when the subject of the verb is present third person singular in English (subject-verb agreement).

All the inflectional manifestations of the lexeme will still belong to the same syntactic category (in our example case, it is the "verb"). Note, however, that the word *player* won't belong to the same lexeme PLAY. This is because the word *player* is a derived (and not inflected) form of *play* that has a different syntactic category (in this case, it is Noun).

Lexeme is not equivalent to a word or morpheme in a language. Sometimes, one lexeme can be formed of more than one word and morpheme also. For example, the lexemes like *take off* and *put up with* consist of two and three words respectively. The meaning of these lexemes can be determined by taking the constituents together, and not from the individual words taken separately.

Lexemes are the headwords that you find listed separately in a dictionary, under which all the inflected variants are included.

Q What is Empirical Tests for Wordhood

Difficult to come up with a definition that tells us whether something is a word, Empirical tests that can tell us whether something is or isn't a word.

1. **Fixed order of elements:** We can't change the order of elements within a word in the same way that we can with sentences

"I see what I eat"

"I eat what I see,"

"I like what I get"

"I get what I like"

When we change the order of morphemes in a word, we generally end up with something ungrammatical. In English we cannot change the order of words in a sentence any way and still have a grammatical result. *get like I what I.

2. **Non-separability & integrity:** Words cannot be broken up by the insertion of segmental material (non-separability). Syntactic processes cannot apply to pieces of words (integrity). Non-separability and integrity diagnostics tell us that compounds like *doghouse*, *greenhouse*, and *school bus* consist of a single word, rather than a pair of words. Words differ from larger units, such as phrases, in that they cannot be broken up by the insertion of segmental or phrasal material

A shirt

A *white* shirt

Integrity

Likewise, syntactic processes cannot be applied to pieces of words.

a. *Possible, it'sim-. * Which school did you see bus?

Stress

The diagnostics given in the preceding section, non-separability and integrity, establish that hot dog (the edible kind) is a compound.

The hot dog you are eating is hotter than mine,

*You were eating a hotter dog

*very hot dog.

Q Define with examples Inflection & Derivation.

Inflection involves the formation of grammatical forms – past, present, future; singular, plural; masculine, feminine, neuter; and so on – of a single lexeme. The use of these grammatical forms is generally dictated by sentence structure. Thus is, are, and being are examples of inflected forms of the lexeme **be**,. Regular verb lexemes in English have a lexical stem, which is the bare form with no affixes (e.g., select) and three more inflected forms, one each with the suffixes -s, -ed, and –ing. Noun lexemes in English have a singular and plural form. Adjectives,

adverbs, prepositions, and other parts of speech typically have only one form in English. Inflection can be realized through affixes.

Examples of words + inflectional morphemes

Nouns: wombat + s ox + en

Verbs: brainwash + es

Derivation involves the creation of one lexeme from another. Compounding is a special type of derivation, since it involves the creation of one lexeme from two or more other lexemes. Bookshop,
greenhouse
Derivation generally results in a change in lexical meaning or the lexical category of a particular word, while inflection does not.

Q Write a note on Item-and-Arrangement & Item-and-Process. (Two Approaches to Morphology)

Hockett (1954) distinguishes between two basic approaches to morphology, which he calls item-and-arrangement and item-and-process. Both are associated with American structuralist linguistics, codified by Bloomfield (1933), but continue to be important today. Item-andarrangement and item-and-process represent two distinct points of view. Item-and-arrangement proceeds from a picture of each language as a set of elements and the patterns in which those elements occur. The item-and-process picture gives no independent status to the items, which arise instead through the construction of the patterns

In the "Item and Arrangement" model there are variant stems or affixes. Words are built up of arrangement of morphemes, which are the base units and are arranged linearly. Morphology is the arrangement of these morphemes into a particular order or structure. For example, books results from the concatenation of the two morphemes book and -s.

I&P is an approach in which complex words result from the operation of processes on simpler words. In the "Item and Process" model the structure of a word is specified by a series of operations. I & A is more linear; I & P is more sequential. Both models involve morphemes. Working in an I&P model, we might say that 'books' results when the lexeme book undergoes the function 'make plural'

With word analysis, using techniques for breaking words down into their component morphemes, which are the items. In regular cases, this function will add the segment /-z/ (cf. photos, lions), which is realized as /-s/ after most voiceless segments (cf. giraffes), and as /e z/ after sibilants and affricates (cf. roses). Everything you can express in I&A can be expressed in I&P and almost anything you can express in I&P can be expressed in I&A.

Additive functions like this one are easily recast in the I&A model.

Agent Noun

Verb → -er   Noun→ work

A simple English example of a lexical function within the item-and-process model, which we happen to be most comfortable with is below. The following function creates agent nouns from verbs:

Examples: (X]V er]N)

- think]V er]N,
- runn]V er]N,
- fli]V er]N,
- hunt]V er]N

Agent noun

Verb -er Teacher, then, is represented as follows

Teach -er This tree illustrates how the affix -er attaches to the stem work to form the agent noun Teacher.

Q Define Lexicon with appropriate examples.

Greek lexikós '**p**ertaining to words' and often designates a book containing a list of words in a language along with their definitions. Linguists use the term in particular to refer to the mental dictionary. Within linguistics, lexicon has taken on multiple definitions.Two widely accepted views of the lexicon.

- **According to one, the lexicon is a list of the indivisible morphological units, or morphemes, in a language.**
- **The second (Bloomfield 1933), is a list of irregular or arbitrary forms. As irregular or arbitrary, they must be memorized**

It would be an error to assume that the first definition is equivalent to the second and that the list of irregular forms is a list of morphemes, which is to say a list of indivisible units.But where natural language is concerned, this position is too extreme. Evidence suggests that even morphologically complex forms are present in a speaker's lexicon.

Representative

re-,present, and -ative

Most words ending in -ative are adjectives. "Meaning of a complex word is the sum of the meaning of its parts, because the difference between the meaning that we expect a word to have on the basis of the meanings of its parts and the meaning that it actually has is quite subtle. The lexicon contains more than words. Affixes, such as English re-, can be assumed to be in the lexicon. Speakers know and understand such affixes and readily attach them to new stems. Some affixed inflected forms, like says, must also be in a lexicon. We know this because says is an exception to the general rule "Add /-z/ to the basic stem of a verb to form the third person singular present." Say say and says out loud: say [sei] has a tense vowel, but says [sɛz] has a lax one.

Q What are relationship among Morphology and Phonology?

Some of the many interactions that take place between morphology and phonology. These interactions and the grammar that describes them are often called morphophonology or morphophonemics. By looking at phonological processes such as assimilation and the effect they have on the shapes of morphemes. Consider limitations on the phonological shape of morphological entities such as words and stems. Move on to two general types of affixes that are distinguished, in part, by phonological criteria. Their phonological behavior reveals details about their underlying structure and the point at which they attach to their bases. A look at secret languages in which morphology and phonology interact to disguise the shapes of words. Readers to have the rudimentary knowledge of linguistics. You need to know three terms that are often not introduced in such courses:

onset, nucleus, and coda

Q Define Allomorphs?

In phonology, an *allomorph* is a variant form of a morpheme. (A morpheme is the smallest unit of a language.) For example, the plural in English has three different morphs, making plural an allomorph, because there are alternatives. Not all plurals are formed in the same way; they're made in English with three different morphs: /s/, /z/, and [əz], as in kicks, cats, and sizes, respectively.

For example, "when we find a group of different morphs, all versions of one morpheme, we can use the prefix *allo-* (= one of a closely related set) and describe them as allomorphs of that morpheme.

"Take the morpheme 'plural.' Note that it can be attached to a number of lexical morphemes to produce structures like '*cat* + plural,' '*bus* + plural,' '*sheep* + plural,' and '*man* + plural.' In each of these examples, the actual forms of the morphs that result from the morpheme 'plural' are different. Yet they are all allomorphs of the one morpheme. So, in addition to /s/ and /əz/, another allomorph of 'plural' in English seems to be a zero-morph because the plural form of *sheep* is actually '*sheep* + ∅.' When we look at '*man* + plural,' we have a vowel change in the word...as the morph that produces the 'irregular' plural form *men*." (George Yule, "The Study of Language," 4th ed. Cambridge University Press, 2010)

Q What is Prosodic Morphology?

Prosodic morphology deals with the interaction of morphology and prosodic structure. Prosodic structure is particularly concerned with the timing units of languages, for example, the word and syllable, and vowel length. From this general category we present three phenomena: phonotactic constraints, root-and-pattern morphology, and reduplication.

Q Define 'Phonotactic constraints' with examples.

Phonotactics is a branch of phonology that deals with restrictions in a language on the permissible combinations of phonemes.

Phonotactic constraints

twelfths /twɛlfθs/

s/ + /t/ + /j/ (not in most accents of American English)

/s/ + /p/ + /j ɹ l/

/s/ + /k/ + /j ɹ l w/

At their most basic, phonotactic constraints determine the minimum length of content words in particular languages. For example, in Mohawk, each content word contains at least two syllables (Michelson 1988, cited by Hayes 1995: 47). Other languages require that content words consist of at least a heavy syllable. In Mayan languages, roots are predominantly of the shape CVC and in Bantu they are generally CVCV. In Semitic languages, roots consist of three consonants: CCC.

Q Define 'Root-and-pattern morphology' with examples.

In Semitic languages such as Hebrew and Arabic, roots generally consist of three consonants.

To form words, vowels are superimposed on this consonantal pattern. We call this type of 'morphology root-and-pattern'.

Triconsonantal root, M-L-K./k/ is realized as the fricative [x].
 M-L-K:
melex 'king' malkah 'queen'
malax 'he reigned'
yimlox 'he reigns, he will reign'
malxut 'royalty, royal power, reign, kingdom'
mamlaxah 'kingdom, sovereignty,

Q write a note on Primary and Secondary Affixes.

Over the years, our knowledge of morphological structure has been enhanced by work in phonology.

By observing the phonological processes that take place or do not take place within particular sets of morphologically complex words.

One distinction that has come out of work that pairs morphology and phonology is between primary and secondary affixes, known as level 1 and level 2 affixes or class 1 and class 2 affixes. In English, this distinction is intimately connected with language history.

affixes in English are often of Latin-Romance origin, **secondary affixes** are often of native Germanic origin. The primary–secondary distinction is a living process, regardless of its history, and in English, as in other languages of the world, it cannot be explained away as etymological residue.

Some examples from Kiparsky (1983) of words bearing -(i)an, a primary affix and ones bearing -ism, a secondary affix. Primary affixes cause a stress shift, while secondary affixes do not. If primary and secondary affixes both occur in the same word, we can make a second prediction. The primary affix will occur closer to the stem than the secondary affix. Traditional usage among morphologists is to use the symbol '+' to mark the juncture between a stem and a primary affix and to use '#' to mark the juncture between a stem and a secondary affix.

Q Explain Linguistic Exaptation.

Exaptation: Exaptation is a diachronic process whereby morphological material that has become functionless is used for some new function that is quite different from its original function.

Origin: The term was first used in linguistics by Lass (1990) (originally 1988). It was adopted from Gould & Vrba's (1982) biological term *exaptation*, a variation on *adaptation*.

Explanation: Exaptation (Stephen Jay Gould and Elisabeth Vrba's proposed replacement for what he considered the teleologically-loaded term "**pre-adaptation**" and the related term co-option describe a shift in the function of a trait during evolution. For example, a trait can evolve because it served one particular function, but subsequently it may come to serve another. Exaptations are common in both anatomy and behaviour. Bird feathers are a classic example: initially they may have evolved for temperature regulation, but later were adapted for flight. Interest in exaptation relates to both the process and products of evolution: the process that creates complex traits and the products (functions, anatomical structures, biochemicals, etc.) that may be imperfectly developed.

History:The idea that the function of a trait might shift during its evolutionary history originated with Charles Darwin (Darwin 1859). For many years the phenomenon was labeled "preadaptation", but since this term suggests teleology in biology, appearing to conflict with natural selection, it has been replaced by the term exaptation.

The idea had been explored by several scholars[when in 1982 Stephen Jay Gould and Elisabeth Vrba introduced the term "exaptation". However, this definition had two categories with different implications for the role of adaptation.

> (1) A character, previously shaped by natural selection for a particular function (an adaptation), is coopted for a new use—cooptation.
> (2) A character whose origin cannot be ascribed to the direct action of natural selection (a nonaptation), is coopted for a current use—cooptation. (Gould and Vrba 1982, Table 1)

The definitions are silent as to whether exaptations had been shaped by natural selection after cooption, although Gould and Vrba cite examples (e.g., feathers) of traits shaped after cooption. Note that the selection pressure upon a trait is likely to change if it is (especially, primarily or solely) used for a new purpose, potentially initiating a different evolutionary trajectory.

To avoid these ambiguities, Buss et al. (1998) suggested the term "co-opted adaptation", which is limited to traits that evolved after cooption. However, the commonly used terms of "exaptation" and "cooption" are ambiguous in this regard.

Q Write a brief note on Leveling, and Analogy.

The tendency for languages to prefer regular paradigms over irregular ones sometimes leads to leveling, the elimination of sound alternations that do not signal important differences in meaning.

Hock gives the example of English plurals. It is because of four-part analogy that the plural of cow is cows, replacing the earlier form kine. The new plural cows generalizes the plural formation familiar from other words, such as stone, stones. stone :

stone-s cow : X = cow-s

Leveling and analogy are powerful forces in the development of languages over time driven by a seemingly innate preference in speakers for phonological and morphological similarity between members of a paradigm or a class of words.

Q How Speakers go from the existing language to the secret language?

Secret languages are found around the world and have been attested in English, French, Spanish, Dutch, Thai, Cuna (Sherzer 1970), and Haitian Creole, to name only a few.

Examples of creative language use

Speakers go from the existing language to the secret language through the regular application of phonological rules-a morphological derivation. Secret languages also exploit notions that are independently motivated in phonology and morphology, notably the syllable and onset. One secret language is Pig Latin. In one variation, words that start with vowels are suffixed with way [wej].

Q Write a note on Saussurean Sign.

Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913), one of the first modern linguists, believed that language was a system of signs. He defined a linguistic sign as an arbitrary pairing between what he called the *signifiant 'signifier'*, a particular sequence of sounds, and the *signifié 'signified'*,

the concept that is denoted by the sound sequence. These three terms, sign, signifier, and signified, are still standard in linguistics. Saussure (1969) distinguished between motivated and unmotivated signs. A sign is motivated to the extent that by inspection you can get clues as to what it means. A walk signal at a crosswalk is an example of a motivated sign, because the stylized image of a person walking indicates whether you should or should not cross the street. A stop sign is partially motivated. Signs can lose their motivation: consider the name of the basketball team, the Los Angeles Lakers. Motivation is not all-or-nothing, and signs can be partially motivated.

Q What is Motivation and Compositionality?

Motivation is related to the logical notion of composition or compositionality. We say that something is logically compositional if it is defined entirely in terms of its parts. 'Doghouse'. Its meaning is derivable from its two components
A set of English words in light of partial motivation and compositionality:
behead 'to remove someone's head'
 befriend 'to make yourself a friend to someone'
 besiege 'to lay siege to'
 bewitch 'to place under one's power as if by magic'

Q Define Zero-derivation.

Zero derivation, is a kind of word formation involving the creation of a word (of a new word class) from an existing word (of a different word class) without any change in form, which is to say, derivation using only zero. Zero-derivation changes the lexical category of a word without changing its phonological shape. A word formed by zero-derivation or any other productive derivational process becomes lexicalized:
The English verbs: chair, leaf, ship, table, and weather.
Mail from the French is another example:*I'm going to mailbox this parcel.

Q Write a detailed note on different types of word formations.

Word formation processes are basically how new words are created and become part of the language. There are some word formation processes**:**
Compounding
Compounding is simply the joining of two or more words into a single word. Example: Cannot, Baseball, Fireworks, Grandmother, Elsewhere, Upside, Together, Sunflower, Crosswalk, Become, Basketball, Moonligh, Football, Railroad, Anybody, Weatherman, Skateboard, Earthquake
Derivation
Derivation is the forming of new words by combining derivational affixes or bound bases with existing words. Derivational morphology studies the principles governing the construction of new words, without reference to the specific grammatical role a word might play in a sentence. In the formation of drinkable from drink, or disinfect from infect, for example, we see the formation of new words, each with its own grammatical properties."
Invention
Now and then new words are totally invented like Kodak and Goof. Few of them find their way in the common vocabulary.

Echoism

Echoism is the formation of words whose sound suggested their meaning. Example: Splash, Meow, Roar, Quack, Ouch, Cuckoo

Clipping

Clipping means cutting off the beginning or the end of a word, or both, leaving a part to stand for the whole. Example:

1. Advertisement(ad): In sentence (All company's spend a lot of money on ads).

2. Hamburger(burger): In setence (Burger does not suit old people).

Acronymy

Acronymy is the process whereby a word is formed from the initials or beginning segments of a succession of words. Example:

1. RADAR - Radio detecting and ranging

2. LASER - Light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation.

3. NATO - The North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Blending

Blending is the fusion of two words into one, usually the first part of one word with the last part of another. Example: bash (bat + mash), camcorder (camera + recorder), clash (clap + crash)

Back-Formation

Backformation is the formation of new words by the removal of an affix. It may be defined as the formation of word from one that looks like its derivative. Example:

If affixation means forming a word by adding an affix then back-formation is essentially this process in reverse: it adapts an existing word by removing its affix, usually a suffix (e.g. sulk from sulky, proliferate from proliferation, back-form from back-formation).

Folk Etymology

Folk etymology is changing a word, in part or in whole, to make it more understandable and more like familiar words. Example:

Woodchuck and Cockroach "Examples: Algonquian otchek 'a groundhog' became by folk etymology woodchuck; Spanish cucaracha became by folk etymology cockroach.

Antonomasia

Antonomasia is the formation of a common noun, a verb, or an adjective from the name of a person or place. Example: Imagine that you have a friend who is a fantastic chef, and you want to say hello.

Normal sentence: "Oh, look! Dian's arrived!"

Sentence with Antonomasia: "Oh, look! The great chef has arrived!"

Here, the use of antonomasia allows you to greet your friend with a nickname which also reveals something about his character: she's a great chef.

Reduplication

Reduplication is the process of forming a new word by doubling a morpheme, usually with a change of vowel or initial consonants. Example: Pooh-pooh, Tiptop, Hanky-panky, Tiny-winy, Zig-zag

Q Describe words, grammatical words and lexicon relationships.

Some complex words have meanings that are so predictable that they do not have to be listed in a dictionary. Such words illustrate the fact that a word need not be a lexical item. They

are merely *grammatically conditioned variants of a word* that is more basic, in some sense –and which itself may or may not be listed, depending on whether its meaning is predictable or not. We need a new term for the more abstract kind of word of which the word forms performs, performed and perform are all inflectional variants. Let us call this more abstract kind of word a lexeme. We can now say that performs, performed and perform are all inflected forms of the lexeme *perform*, and we can describe the grammatical function of performed by calling it the past tense form of the verb *perform*. Being abstract in this sense, a lexeme is not strictly speaking something that can be uttered or pronounced. Only the word forms that belong to it can be. We refer to lexemes in English by means of their bare, unaffixed forms. Two words can be pronounced the same but spelled differently in English, and vice versa It follows that the same word form can belong to two quite different lexemes, as does rows in: There were four rows of seats. One person rows the boat. One lexeme may be represented by more than one word form, and one word form may represent more than one lexeme. What links a word form with a lexeme in a given context is the grammatical word that the word form expresses there.

Q What is regular inflection?

Inflection, the way we change a word's form to reflect things like tense, plurality, gender, etc., is usually governed by consistent, predictable rules. This is known as regular inflection. For example, we usually create the past simple tense of verbs by adding "-d" or "-ed" (as in heardor walked, which also function as the verbs' past participles), and we normally create plurals by adding "-s" or "-es" to the ends of nouns (as in dogs, cats, watches, etc.).

Q What is irregular inflection?

However, there are many instances in which the way a word is inflected doesn't seem to follow any rules or conventions at all—this is known as irregular inflection. For example, the past simple tense of the verb go is went (rather than goed, as regular inflection would suggest), and its past participle is gone.
Irregular inflection affects nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and (most commonly) verbs.

Q Describe the forms of nouns.

Most countable nouns in English have two word forms: a singular and a plural. Inflectionally, for any noun lexeme X, there are just two grammatical words, 'singular of X' and 'plural of X', contrasting in number. Lexeme cat ☐cats, Root and suffix –s The suffix -s is the regular suffix for forming plurals. Irregular suffixes expressing plurality include-i, -ae and -a found Latin or Greek;
The suffix -(r)en in oxen, children and brethren;
The Hebrew -im in cherubim and kibbutzim.
Some countable nouns that express their plural with no suffix at all but with a change of the vowel of the root like the (teeth, men) – or, more precisely, an allomorph of the root with a different vowel from the singular. Also some whose plurals display not even a vowel change: for example, sheep, fish, deer, trout. How can we tell whether they are singular or plural? The answer is: according to the syntactic context.

- A deer was visible through the trees.
- Two deer were visible through the trees.

The class of nouns unchanged in the plural (called 'zero-plural' or carrying a 'zero suffix') could conceivably be just as random as the class of those with vowel change (tooth, man, etc). Nouns have plural forms that refer to entities that are countable like cats and pianists, but not *astonishments or *rices – except perhaps in contexts interpreted as denoting countable entities, such as astonishing events or varieties of rice. Not all nouns referring to countable entities have both singular and plural forms.

Few nouns such as scissors and pants which exist only in an -s-plural form, and which appear only in plural syntactic contexts. This idiosyncratic lack of a morphological singular form (except in compounds such as scissor factory) creates a problem in contexts where the syntax seems to require such a form, as when the noun is preceded by the indefinite article a or an. We can say neither *a scissor nor *a scissors, and likewise neither *a pant nor *a pants. For these lexemes, there is a conventional circumlocution or periphrastic form: pair of pants and pair of scissors.

Q write a detailed note on forms of pronouns and determiners.

In morphology we are mainly concerned with the behaviour of words which belong to open classes, namely nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Their membership can be added to as new words come into use. By contrast, in English a new pronoun or a new preposition is not added. Determiners deserve a mention as some like nouns, display a singular–plural contrast as Pronouns. We have already encountered the distinction between this and these, as *in this pianist* and *these pianists*. These are the singular and plural forms of the determiner lexeme *this*. Other determiners include the, *a* (*an*) and *some*, but only one other determiner exhibits a singular–plural contrast: that, with singular and plural forms *that* and *those*. The determiners *that* and *this* demonstrate that number contrasts can have a grammatical effect inside noun phrase as well as between subject noun phrases and their accompanying verbs.

> *This* table is…
> *That* table is…

In many languages, the distinction that English expresses by word order in:

> 'John loves Mary'
> 'Mary loves John'

is expressed by inflectional means on the words corresponding to *Mary* and *John*. In English, the same technique is used for one small closed class of lexemes, namely *personal pronouns*. If one replaces John and Mary with the appropriate pronouns in these two examples, the outcome is as in following (1 & 2):

> (1) He loves her.
> (2) She loves him.

He and *him* are sometimes said to contrast in **case.** This kind of inflection has only a marginal role in English, being limited to pronouns; but, if we treat (say) *he* as a lexeme, we must recognise it as having two forms: *he* and *him*. Relationship between nominative and accusative forms is consistently suppletive, as in *I/me*, *she/her*, *we/us*, and *they/them*, except that for *you* the two forms are identical (you). This is consistent with the fact that pronouns are very common, and suppletion affects only very common words such as *go*. If *he* and *him* are forms of the lexeme he , and *we* and *us* are forms of we, what are we to say about corresponding words with a possessive meaning: *his* and *our*, as well as *my*, *her*, *your* and *their* ? Syntactically and semantically, these words fulfil just the same role as noun phrases with the apostrophe-s :*his bicycle* means '*the bicycle belonging to him*' just as that man's bicycle means 'the bicycle

belonging to that man'. One possibility is to say that these are pronoun forms belonging to a third case, the genitive or possessive, which stand in for apostrophe-s forms in noun phrases that consistently of a personal pronoun. Another is to classify these words as determiners, because they perform a determiner-like role and cannot be combined with other determiners (we cannot say *the my hat any more than we can say *the that hat). But these are issues of syntax rather than morphology. For present purposes, we need merely note how *his*, *our* and the rest behave, while leaving their exact grammatical classification undecided.

Q What are the forms of Verbs?

Already discussed some forms of English verbs such as performs, performed and perform. In English, a verb lexeme has at most five distinct forms, as illustrated here with *give*: The contrast between present at (a) and past at (b) is a contrast of tense. The other dimensions of contrast manifested in (a) are person (third person versus the rest) and number (singular versus plural, just as for nouns and pronouns). However, because only one word form (gives) exhibits these contrasts, they play a much smaller inflectional role in modern English verbs than in Old English verbs. For the form labelled 'perfect or passive participle', two examples are given, because perfect and passive contexts can be distinguished clearly, However, it is a peculiarity of English verb morphology that the corresponding forms are always the same. Another way of putting this is that, for any verb V, the grammatical words 'perfect participle of V' and 'passive participle of V' are expressed by the same word form.

A verb lexeme has at most five forms. In fact, most verbs have only four forms, the past tense and the perfect (or passive) participle forms are the same. When two grammatical words that are distinct for some lexemes are systematically identical for others, as here, these forms are said to be *syncretised*, or to exhibit *syncretism*. The same syncretism also occurs with some irregular verbs, such as d*ig* and *sting* (past = perfect participle *dug*, *stung*) and all those that use the suffix -t, such as bend, feel, and think (bent, felt, thought).

In all, 150 or so verbs are irregular in that they do not use the *-ed* suffix. The study of these irregularities belongs to grammar rather than to word formation. Other verbs or verb-like words whose behaviour belongs to grammar rather than word-formation are the auxiliaries, such as be and have, and modals, such as can, must, may. Instead of the usual verbal maximum of five forms, modals distinguish only two (e.g. can, could) or even just one (e.g. must), while be distinguishes eight (am, is, are, was, were, being, been, be).

Q What are the forms of adjectives?

Many English adjectives exhibit three forms, for example *green* here:

Grass is *green*.
The grass is *greener* now than in winter.
The grass is *greenest* in early summer.

The grammatical words that green, greener and greenest express are the positive, comparative and superlative of green, contrasting on the dimension of comparison. All these exhibit a regular pattern of suffixation with -er and -est, except for better and best, which are superlative comparative and superlative forms of adjectives belong to inflectional rather than to derivational morphology In some grammatical contexts in which comparative or superlative adjectives are unavoidable, anything else being ill-formed:

Should every adjective lexeme possess a comparative and a superlative form (or, at any rate, every adjective denoting a property that can be present to a greater or lesser degree). It is striking that many adjectives lack these forms:

*Curiouser !
*This field is fertiler than that one.
*The fertilest fields of all are here.
We use periphrastic forms with more or most
More and more curious!
This field is more fertile than that one.
The most fertile fields of all are here.

Broadly speaking, the suffixes -er and -est appear on adjectives whose basic form has one syllable, or two provided that the second syllable ends in a vowel (e.g. tidy, yellow), while longer adjectives usually require the periphrasis.

Q Write a note on relationships between lexemes.

Perform: perform, performs and performed are grammatically conditioned variants of one lexeme perform, but *performance* was not one of these variants. The reason was that, whereas there are grammatical factors that determine the choice between perform, performs and performed (in appropriate contexts), there is no grammatical factor that requires specifically the presence of -*ance*on performance. The contexts determine where –s, -ed or –ing appear. No contexts where, if a noun appears, it must carry the suffix -ance. The suffix -ance is not one of the small class of suffixes (so-called 'inflectional' suffixes) whose use is tightly determined by grammar. What sort of suffix is it, then? A short answer: not being inflectional, it must be derivational, since the term 'derivation' is used for all aspects of word-structure involving affixation that is not inflectional. Let's see how derivation works in English. Since performance is not a variant of the lexeme perform, it must belong to some other lexeme, which may itself have more than one form. What lexeme could this be? performance, there is a performances(plural form). Just as cat and cats are the two forms (singular and plural) of the lexeme cat, It makes sense to regard performance and performances as the two forms of a lexeme performance. This tells us something about the relationship between perform and performance: it is a relationship not between word forms but rather between lexemes. In typographical convention, it a relationship between perform and performance. Thus derivational morphology is concerned with one kind of relationship between lexemes. Many ways in which lexemes can be related.

Q Write a note on affixation (Word class changes)

Below is something said by the daughter (three years old at the time) of Greg Myers, an academic in the Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language at Lancaster University. She was clearly cross when she said it!:

I'm not joking, I'm <u>realing</u>.

This is the kind of remark which parents remember with amusement, and proudly embarrass their children with for the rest of their lives. The child is being very inventive, in this case turning the adjective 'real' into an intransitive verb, and saying the rough equivalent of 'I really mean this' in a way which forces a vivid opposition between the two clauses of her sentence.
The inventiveness is what makes what is said both striking and memorable. However, the fact that 'real' is not a verb in English also explains the amusement. The child had mastered the how

to form present participles of verbs but had not yet internalised completely which words normally function as verbs. When very young children, or foreign learners of English, do things like this they are usually called mistakes. But if people acknowledged to be good writers do the same sort of thing they are praised for their inventive use of language!

Below, for example is how a journalist in *The Guardian* described how Margaret Thatcher, the first woman Prime Minister of the UK and a very formidable woman (who was known for her anti-European Union views and who usually carried a fairly large handbag) got her own way in an argument in a meeting of European heads of state:

<div align="center">She <u>handbagged</u> her European counterparts.</div>

Here the noun 'handbag' is changed into a transitive verb, which therefore suggests dynamic and purposeful action from Mrs Thatcher towards her colleagues. And given the combative context of the meeting, it leads to the image of Mrs Thatcher hitting her opponents in the argument over the head with her handbag, much in the way that old ladies who lose their tempers are often humorously portrayed in cartoons and films.

Q Write a detailed note on conversion? How word change classes?

"The word class to which a lexeme belongs is mainly determined by its meaning". That belief is however incorrect. Verbs are 'doing words', while nouns are 'thing words' and adjectives 'describing words'. The trouble with these meaning-based definitions is that, if one takes them seriously, they require us to lump together lexemes whose grammatical behaviour is quite different, and distinguish between ones whose grammatical behaviour is similar. Lexeme perform, which looks like a prototypical 'doing word', denoting something that actors and musicians do.

- The lexeme performance denotes the same activity, surely.
- Does that mean that perform and performance belong to the same word class?
- Perform has four forms: perform, perform, performing and performed
- Performance has two: performance and performances

This classification can be made, solely on the basis of their syntactic and inflectional behaviour, with no appeal to meaning

- So to identify verbs as 'doing words' risks misleading us into neglect of the syntactic and inflectional parallels that justify classifying not only perform but also resemble as a verb.

Q How Adverbs are derived from adjectives

This also illustrates a widespread though not universal characteristic of derivational processes: unlike inflection, they can change the word class of the bases to which they apply. According to introductory treatments of English grammar all adverbs end in -ly. If that were true, it would be an unusual word class, all of its members being derived. In fact, simple or monomorphemic adverbs, though few in number, very common words (often, seldom never, soon). Some other adverbs are morphologically complex without containing -ly(nowhere, everywhere, today, yesterday,). Also, there are common adverbs that are formed by conversion: fast (as in The car was driven fast) and hard (as in They worked hard), derived from the adjective fast (as in a fast car) and hard (as in hard work).

Q How Nouns are derived from Adjective?

Not all derivational processes change word class. Many of them have unpredictable meanings (a cigarette is not merely a small cigar, and a booklet is not merely a small book; brotherhood means not 'the state of being a brother' but rather 'secret or semi-secret society').Why is there a word actress (albeit less used now than formerly), but there has never been a word 'writress' to designate a woman writer?

Here are some suffixes used to derive nouns from adjectives:
- -ity, e.g. purity, equality, ferocity, sensitivity
- -ness, e.g. goodness, tallness, fierceness, sensitiveness
- -ism, e.g. radicalism, conservatism

Some of these nouns are formed from bases other than the free form of the corresponding adjective, e.g. ferocity from feroc- (not ferocious), conservatism from conservat- (not conservative).

- The ferocity pattern is fairly general for adjectives in -ious (compare rapacity, capacity alongside rapacious and capacious) but not absolutely general (for example, to delicious and specious there correspond dioeciouness and speciousness,not 'delicity or specity).

This gappiness is a reason for counting all nouns in -ity as lexical items. Affixation is most common way in which lexemes are derived in English, but is not the only way. English makes of vowel change is minimal. Languages that exploit it much more consistently are members of the Semitic family, such as Arabic and Hebrew.

Q How Adjectives are derived from adjectives?

In adjective prefixes predominate. The only suffix of note is -ish, meaning 'somewhat X', as in greenish, smallish and remotish 'rather remote'. By contrast, the prefix un- meaning 'not' is extremely widespread: unhappy, unsure, unreliable undiscovered. Being common, most dictionaries do not attempt to list all un- adjectives.

Another negative prefix is in-, with allomorphs indicated by the variant spellings il-, ir- and im-, as intangible, illegal, irresponsible and impossible.

The pairs of more or less synonymous adjectives, one negates with un- and the other with in- or one of its allomorphs:
- eatable/uneatable
- edible/inedible
- readable/unreadable
- legible/illegible
- lawful/unlawful
- legal/illegal

Some of the processes that derive adjectives from verbs overlap the divide between derivation and inflection. We met the suffixes -ed, -en and -ing, and vowel change, in passive and progressive participle forms of verbs.

Suffixes that form adjectives from nouns are more numerous. Generally seen, adjectives in -ful and -less tend to come in pairs, although the correspondence is not exact: we have slothful, slothless but 'penniless but not pennifull. This confirms again that, even when the meaning of a potential word may be easily guessable:a 'slothless' person would be hardworking, and a 'penniful' person would be well off, the existence of the word is not guaranteed.

Q How Verbs are derived from verbs?

Let's discuss some unusual affixes that are prefixes. Most prominent are re- and the negative or 'reversive' prefixes un-, de- and dis-, as in the following examples: The prefix re- has relationship between morphemes and meaning. Semantically, the examples are mostly straightforward, although those with de- are less so: to decompose is not to undo the creative work of a musical composer! The transitive verbs are all causative, that is they mean 'cause to. X', where X stands for the meaning of the corresponding intransitive. Causative verb-pairs nearly all involve conversion, as in rather than either affixation or the kind of vowel change

- a. Jill boiled the water.
- b. The water boiled.

The examples represent a residue of a vowel-change pattern that was more widespread at an earlier stage of the language.

Q How Verbs are derived from other word classes?

Verbs derived from nouns and from adjectives are numerous.
verbs from nouns are:

- de-, debug, deforest, delouse
- -ise, organise, patronise, terrorise
- -(i)fy, beautify, petrify

There are also some common verbs that are derived by replacing the final voiceless consonant of a noun with a voiced one, perhaps with some vowel change too:

- Nouns   Verbs
- Bath   bathe
- Breath   breathe
- Wreath   wreathe

These verbs have either an intransitive meaning, 'become X', or a transitive one, 'cause to become X'. The adjectives that can constitute bases for such verbs share an unusual characteristic, some verbs in -en that are imaginable, yet do not occur:*greenen, narrowen, strongen, tallen. With strong we get round this restriction by adding -en instead to the corresponding noun, strength(which ends in a fricative sound), so as to yield strengthen.

Q Differentiate Compounds versus phrases?

Compounds: words formed by combining roots,
Phrasal words: items that have the internal structure of phrases but function syntactically as words.

Q How can we tell, then, whether a pair of such roots constitutes a compound word or a phrase that is a unit of sentence structure rather than a complex word?

A definite answer is not always possible, but there are enough clear cases to show that the distinction between compounds and phrases is valid.

- a green □house,

with its literal meaning,

- a □greenhouse,

It is characteristic of phrases in English to be stressed on the last word, unless some contrast is being stated or implied. Apart from stress, a second criterion traditionally used for distinguishing compounds from phrases is semantic.

A compound tends to have a meaning that is more or less idiosyncratic or unpredictable. This criterion must be treated with caution, however, because, being semantically unpredictable does not correlate exactly with being a word. It is true that words are more likely to be lexical items than phrases are, so treating semantic idiosyncrasy as an indicator of compound status will not often be misleading.

Q Define Compound verb*?*

In English grammar, a *compound verb* is made up of two or more words that function as a single verb. Conventionally, verb compounds are written as either one word ("to *housesit*") or two hyphenated words ("to *water-proof*"). Also called a *compound* (or *complex*) *predicate*.
Similarly, a compound verb can be a phrasal verb or a prepositional verb that behaves either lexically or syntactically as a single verb. In such cases, a verb and its particle may be separated by other words ("*drop* the essay *off*"). This structure is now more commonly known as a *multi-word verb*.
The term *compound verb* can also refer to a lexical verb along with its auxiliaries; in traditional grammar, this is called a *verb phrase*.

Q Define Compound Nouns and headed and headless compounds.

In English grammar, a compound noun (or nominal compound) is a construction made up of two or more nouns that function as a single noun. With somewhat arbitrary spelling rules, compound nouns can be written as separate words like tomato juice, as words linked by hyphens like sister-in-law or as one word like schoolteacher.
A compound noun whose form no longer clearly reveals its origin, such as bonfire or marshall, is sometimes called an amalgamated compound; many place names(or toponyms) are amalgamated compounds — for example, Norwich is the combination of "north" and "village" while Sussex is a combination of "south" and "Saxons."
One interesting aspect of most compounds nouns is that one of the origin words is syntactically dominant. This word, called the headword, grounds the word as a noun, such as the word "chair" in the compound noun "easychair."

Q What is The Function of Compound Nouns?

Creating a compound noun, or compounding inherently changes the meaning of the parts of the new word, typically as a result of their tandem usage. Take for instance again the word "easychair" wherein the adjective "easy" describes a noun as being without difficulty or being comfortable and "chair" means a place to sit — the combined new word would mean a comfortable, hassle-free place to sit.
In this example, too, the form of the word easy changes from an adjective to a noun, based on the part of speech the headword (chair) functions as. This means that unlike an adjective-plus-noun phrase, a compound noun serves a different function and meaning altogether in a sentence.
James J. Hurford uses the compound noun tractor driver as compared to the adjective-plus-noun phrase careless driver to emphasize the difference between the two usages in "Grammar: A Students Guide." A careless driver, he states, "is both careless and a driver, while a tractor driver is a driver but certainly not a tractor!"

Q Define Endocentric Compounds?

They are compounds containing a "head" that carries the semantic load of the whole compound, making them semantically transparent. A word like darkroom is an endocentric compound word, whose head is "room".

Q Define Exocentric Compounds?

They are compounds with no clear head inside them, giving rise to semantic arbitrariness and opaqueness. It is thought that the head and underlying semantics lies somewhere outside the compound or is generally absent. For this reason, Exocentric compounds are called as headless compounds. For example, lazy-bone is not a bone, but a person who is lazy. But from looking at the compound word itself, one cannot make assumptions about its semantic properties.

Q Describe Compounds containing bound combining forms.

Most of the compounds that we have looked at so far involve roots that are free forms. But the vocabulary of English, especially in scientific and technical areas, includes a huge repertoire of compounds that are made up of bound roots, known as combining forms.

Here are just a few:
anthropology, sociology, cardiogram, electrocardiogram, retrograde, retrospect, plantigrade. The meaning of the whole is clearly determinable from that of the parts: for example, anthrop(o)- 'human' plus -(o)logy 'science or study' yields a word that means 'science or study of human beings', and planti- 'sole (of foot)' and -grade 'walking' yields a word meaning 'walking on the soles of the feet'.
This semantic predictability is crucial to the coining of new technical terms using these elements.

Q What is morphological structure? Explain it in datail.

The meaning of a word is not obtained just by adding the individual meaning of each morpheme. The way they are combined provides aspects of the word's semantics in a compositional way. This is what is called a structure. A structure is defined as a set of units organized in a particular way. A prerequisite for having a structure is identifying a set of units that can be organized

Consider the following:

undecidable three units ; Prefix Un-, a verbal root, decid(e), a suffux, -able

Let us derive the meaning step by step. Undecidable roughly means: 'cannot be decided. Why the meaning of the word is 'cannot be decided' and not 'can be not decided'?

In the first case we refer to an entity that, in any case and not matter how hard one tries, cannot be decided; In the second case, we refer to something that can be decided, but which does not need to be. The way in which a speaker uses the word undecidable is the first and never the second. How can we account for this? The way the units are combined with each other. We need to represent how the units are organized inside the word, the structure of the word. The position of the un- morpheme is a decisive factor.

In the first case it modifies the suffix – able and in the second it relates to the verb.

```
          A
         / \
        /   \
       V     A
     decid   -able
```
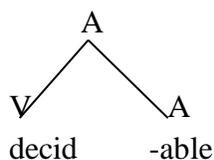
In second step the complex word combines with the negative prefix un• A
Prefix

```
        A
       / \
      /   \
     V     A
  undecid(e)  -able
```
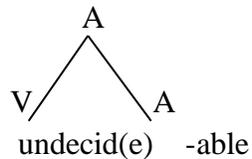
Once we have decomposed the meaning of the word and associated it with each one of its units, we can establish the correspondence in the following:

• The prefix un- combine with adjective, decidable not verbal root decid(e). This account for the meaning of the whole word.

• Negation affect the combination of verb and –able not just the verb decid(e).

The formal properties,

the structure shows several things:

A) The grammatical properties of the whole word. The whole structure is an adjective as in undecidable.

B) The units that are responsible for the fact that the word belongs to that particular category are called HEADS

C) It is the combination of the units that produces possible words, and explains that the prefix has a certain meaning as un- has a negative, and not reversative meaning in the word undecidable.

Q What are the Properties of Morphological Structure?

Any structure is different from a linear series of combined units. All relationships between units are identical, while in the Linear series there is always a unit which stands in a privileged position inside the structure that imposes its properties on the whole word called Head. In the word un-decid(e)-able, the head is the suffix –able, as it transmits a number of properties to the whole word.

a)The grammatical category. The word undecidable is an adjective, and the affix –able is responsible for this categorization. Words ending in –able are normality adjectives.

b) The semantics. The word undecidable denotes a quality, the quality of being unable to be firmly established or refuted. This meaning contribution is associated with affix –able, as all words ending in –able (or -ible) denote the quality of being able to undergo a particular process (demonstrable, deducible, inexpressible…)

Q What is Head? Define its role in sentence.

In any sentence structure consisting on grammatical unit, there is always a unit which stands in a privileged position inside the structure that imposes its properties on the whole word called Head

The head inside a morphological structure is identified because of the properties of the whole word are the same properties that the morpheme itself contain. The properties by the head are crucial in determining the behaviour of the word. The grammatical category is crucial in syntactic context, for determining what kind of other words it can combine with, The meaning of

the word determines it semantic behaviour. A third class 'formal' or morphological', in this sense its members do not affect the syntactic distribution of the word or its semantic behaviour. The head in morphology is frequently a bound morpheme which cannot stand alone without having been combined with other morpheme. As in government –ment cannot stand alone. Thus syntactic criterion is not followed by morphology.

Q What are the morphological properties of the word?

The morphological properties of the word include its gender, its conjugation class or whether its inflection is regular or irregular. Consider the English verb undersell. It consist of two units under- and –sell   the unit –sell is the head. It imposes it grammatical category and meaning. This unit is also responsible for irregular inflection. In syntactic analysis a head is the only unit in a structure which can stand alone. In the phrase 'The big boy' the head is 'boy' and whose absence will make an ill-formed sentence. *The big failed the examination.

Q What is A-Morphous Morphology?

In A-Morphous Morphology, Stephen Anderson presents a theory of word structure which relates to a full generative grammar of language. He holds word structure to be the result of interacting principles from a number of grammatical areas, and thus not localized in a single morphological component. Dispensing with classical morphemes, the theory instead treats morphology as a matter of rule-governed relations, minimizing the non-phonological internal structure assigned to words and eliminating morphologically motivated boundary elements. Professor Anderson makes the further claim that the properties of individual lexical items are not visible to, or manipulated by, the rules of the syntax, and assimilates to morphology special clitic phenomena. A-Morphous Morphology maintains significant distinctions between inflection, derivation, and compounding, in terms of their place ina grammar. It also contains discussion of the implications of this new A-Morphous position analysis of word structure.

Stephen Anderson is well-known as a scholar in linguistics and the cognitive sciences. His current interests are morphology and also phonology, including American Sign Language phonology

Morphology as a subject area within linguistics is receiving revived attention. Anderson here offers his own new theory which breaks with classical morphology and is more holistic in linguistic structural terms

This is not a survey of the different positions on morphology, but an important new theory, expansively explained, with discussion of its implications for other issues in linguistics

Q Define Exocentricity?

The most important unit of a structure is the head that imposes its properties. Exocentricity is a situation in which none of the units that can be segmented inside the word is responsible for the properties that the word exhibits. So the lack of a head makes is doubtful whether there is an underlying structure in that object. Exocentricity has been studied especially in the domain of compounding, so we will concentrate on these cases here.

• To grandstand

• A pick pocket

The case is exocentric because the unit that seems to impose its grammatical category (verb-stand) on the whole object does not impose the rest of its properties on the word:

Grandstood   grandstanded

This case is to be contrasted with understand, derived from stand by the prefix under The compound in (to grandstand)is exocentric in the sense that none of its elements can explain the semantics of the word:

A pick pockets

Williams (1981) proposed that these objects are created through exocentric rules, that is transform the properties of the object, but do not add any new unit that introduces these properties. However, accepting exocentric rules amounts in practice to accepting that some words do not have a complete morphological structure. As we can see, Exocentricity is used in practice to label all the situations where the properties that an object has are not the immediate reflection of the properties of one of its units. For this reason, it seems appropriate to classify that the different kinds of Exocentricity depends on the kind of property that shows the mismatch. We will discuss, in turn, category features, semantic features, and morphological features such as whether a verb is irregular or regular, or to which gender it belongs

Q Define Bracketing Paradoxes.

A crucial property of a structure is that both the formal and the semantic properties of the word need to be represented in the structure. For this reason, the situations where the semantic and the formal properties of an object do not coincide are problematic for the idea that words have internal structure. These situations are known as BRACKETING PARADOXES (Williams 1981, Beard 1991).

Q What are the different kinds of bracketing paradox?

There are three kinds of bracketing paradox

1.One kind of bracketing paradox is the situation in which the formal properties of one of the units requires it to combine with a particular base, but the meaning of the word suggests that it combines with a unit smaller than the base.Take the word international. The formal properties of the word require the prefix inter- to combine with the adjective national, as the word *internation does not exist in English

2.   Another kind of paradox comes when a unit combines with a word but semantically modifies not only the word, but a bigger structure in which the word is included. Consider the expression Vulgar Latinist. This does not refer to Latinist who happens to be Vulgar, but to someone who studies Vulgar Latin

3.   Last kind of paradox take into account phonological factors. In the case unhappy, there is a paradox in the sense that the meaning of the adjective (more unhappy) require the suffix –er to combine with the trisyllabic adjective unhappy.

It is known that generally trisyllabic adjective take the adverb more in the comparative. Avoiding this phonological infraction implies proposing that –er combines with happy and then un- is combines with happier. This gives the wrong semantics as it mean; not more happy' which the speaker does not interpret. There is no analysis for bracketing in the general case which cover the three paradoxes

Q What is binary branching?

Binary branching hold the point that two morphemes can be combined never triplet or bigger sets. Non-binary branching was rejected before on the grounds that when more than two units are combined at a time the relationship which is established between them is not clearly stated

Q Define Parasynthesis with an example.

Parasynthesis is the situation where two different affixes normally a prefix and a suffix - seem to be added simultaneously to the same base. One example of this is the Spanish verb engrandecer 'to enlarge', from the adjective grande 'big.'

Example from English is downhearted which is as down-heart-ed.

It is crucial in Parasynthesis that the combination with only one of the two affixes does not produce an existing word in the language. In other words, English discontented is not a case of Parasynthesis, because the root and the prefix form an existent word (discontent); equally, the root and the suffix form one (contented).

Topic: 050: The Polysemy Problem

Polysemy is the coexistence of many possible meanings for a word or phrase. Most words of the English language are polysemantic. Highly developed polysemy is one of the characteristic features of the English language. The
system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or outcome of them. We say that the word is polysemantic when it has many meanings. In the word the main and the secondary meanings are distinguished. Thus,
the word is polysemantic in the language but in actual speech it is always monosemantic, that is, it has only one meaning. It is in the context that makes the polysemantic word monosemantic. The researches of polysemy are also significant in grammar, as most grammatical forms are polysemantic. Even a single
Examples of polysemy
- They lost their passports;
- Jake lost his job;
- Sarah lost her husband to cancer;

- I lost my temper;
- we both lost ten pounds.

Q What are the types of polysemy?

There are many types of polysemy.

      (1)mass/count distinction

      a. I love watermelon. (mass)

      b. I sold three watermelons. (count)

      (2) Figure–ground reversal

      a. Hugh broke the window.

      b. The kids climbed through the window.

      (3) Container– contained alternation

      a. A hot glass put under cold water will shatter.

      b. Franny downed the glass in two seconds flat.

      (4) Place–people alternation

      a. The president and his family live in the White House.

      b. The White House announced yesterday that the peace talks will continue.

Q What are Derived Lexemes?

A Derived Lexeme is a Lexeme that is derived from a Morphological Root by means of a Derived Word Generation Process.

- **AKA:** Derived Word, Derived Base Word, Derived Word Form.
- **Context:**
  - It can be based on the application of a Derivational Rule.
  - It can include:
    - a Derivational Suffix, e.g. *-er*.
    - a Derivational Preffix, e.g. *non-*.
  - It can have a Derived Word Stem which indicates the Head Word (e.g. "*teach*" in "[*teach*]er").
- **Example(s):**
  - "*teacher*" <= TEACH + -ER.
  - "*noncombatant*" <= NON- + COMBAT + -ANT

Q Write a note on Affixation in English.

Affixation is the morphological process in by which bound morphemes are attached to a roots or stems to mark changes in meaning, part of speech, or grammatical relationships. Affixes take on several forms and serve different functions. In this tutorial, we will be looking specifically at affixation in Standard English.

Affixes

An **affix** is a bound morpheme that attaches to a root or stem to form a new word, or a variant form of the same word. In English we primarily see 2 types. **Prefixes** precede the root or stem, e.g., *re-cover*, while **suffixes** follow, e.g., *hope-ful*. A third type of affix known as a circumfix

occurs in the two words *en-ligh-en* and *em-bold-en,* where the prefix *en/m–* and the suffix *–en/m* are attached simultaneously to the root.

There are those who claim that **infixation** is also used as an emphasis marker in colloquial English. This occurs when an expletive is inserted into the internal structure of a word, e.g., *un-fricking*-believable.

Derivational affixes derive new words by altering the definitional meaning or the grammatical category of a word, whereas **inflectional** affixes show grammatical relationships between words or grammatical contrast. In English, both prefixes and suffixes can be derivational, but only suffixes can be inflectional.

Prefixes

Prefixes are abundant in English. Some are more commonly used (productive) than others. As mentioned above, prefixes are only used to derive new meaning or part of speech. Below is a list of those that are more common.

Prefix	Meaning	Example
de-	undo	derail
ex-	non, out	ex-president, extend
in-	negate	incapable
anti-	negate	anti-social
pre-	before	predate
sub-	under, below	subway
un-	negate	undo
dis-	negate	disengage
mis-	wrongly	mistreat
non-	negate	nonsense
pro-	for	proclaim
re-	again, repeat	reread
trans-	across	transatlantic
bi-	two, twice	bilingual
co-	along with	co-author

Table 1 Commonly used prefixes in EnglishCLICK PHOTO FOR LARGE VIEW

Suffixes

Suffixes can either be derivational or inflectional. Below is a list of common derivational suffixes.

Suffix	Meaning	Example
-ness	like	happiness
-ly	in the manner of	likely
-able	to have the ability or quality	floatable
-er	person carrying out action	writer
-ful	having the quality of, full of	hopeful
-ment	result of	development
-less	negate	fruitless
-ous	having the quality of	joyous
-tion	to carry out	education
-age	result of	outage

Table 2 Commonly used derivational suffixes in EnglishCLICK PHOTO FOR LARGE VIEW

In English there are 8 inflectional suffixes. As you will see, these are limited to showing some type of grammatical function.

Suffix	Meaning	Example
-s	plural	horses
-s	third person singular verbal inflection	likes
-'s	possession	Mary's
-ed	past tense	walked
-en	past participle	eaten
-ing	progressive verbal inflection	reading
-er	comparative	brighter
-est	superlative	brightest

Table 3 Inflectional suffixes in EnglishCLICK PHOTO FOR LARGE VIEW

You may have noticed that *-er* appears as both a derivational and inflectional morpheme. Although they share phonological form, they are two separate morphemes, having 2 separate functions and must not be confused. *-er* attached to a verb causes the derivation: verb noun, e.g., *write writer*. *-er* attached to an adjective shows inflection, i.e., the comparative form of an adjective: *nice nicer*. This is also true for *–ing* and *–en*. A verb + *-ing* can derive a noun or inflect a verb for past or present progressive.

set + ing = noun

The setting of the sun was covered by clouds.

set + ing + progressive verb

I was setting the table when the phone rang.

verb + *-en* = past participle (*freeze + en*)

The low temperatures had frozen all the crops.

noun + *-en* = verb (*light + en*)

Mary decided to lighten her hair.

Infixes

There is question as to whether the limited usage of infixation in English actually a morphological process since the word being inserted is not itself an **infix**, as it is free-standing and not a bound morpheme. Furthermore, there is no resulting derivation or inflection. Only expletives are used as infixes and in only a limited number of words. For example, infixes are only permitted when the expletive is flanked by stress. This means that only words with initial stress (trochees and not iambs) will be candidates for infixation.

un-expletive-believable but *unbe-expletive-lievable

Clitics

Clitics are unstressed reduced units of meaning that attached to a limited number of host words. They generally are not considered a type of affix since they do not meet specific minimal phonological requirements (which will not be discussed here). Proclitics attach to the beginning of a root, e.g., *'tis* for 'it is', *'dyou* for 'do you'. Enclitics are attached word finally, e.g., *what's* for 'what is'.

Rules of Formation

Although a speaker may generally count on intuition in forming complex words in terms of which affixes may be attached to which roots, underlying rules of word-formation actually account for the process. Our intuition allows us to attach 'un-' to 'productive' but not to 'fish'. We can attach the suffix '-ly' to 'kind' but not to 'sky'.

un + 'productive'   but not   **un* + 'fish'

'kind' + *ly*   **'sky' + *ly*

This distribution of affixes leads us to believe that there are rules of word-formation to which we intuitively adhere. So let's break this down.

Productivity

Certain affixes are more productive than others, meaning that they can be added to a large number of words without obstructing meaning. An example of a productive suffix in English would be –*ness* which we regularly use to derive nouns from adjectives.

adjective + *ness* = noun
happy　+ *ness* = 'happiness'

In fact, some affixes are so productive that they can be attached to almost any stem creating nonce words in which meaning is transparent. Take –*ish* for example in English. This suffix can be attached to almost any noun or adjective to communicate like –*ness*. If a soup broth is not thick, it could be described as 'thin'-*ish* and there would be no ambiguity as to this non-word's meaning. All listeners would agree on the interpretation of 'thin'-*ish*.

Unproductive morphemes, on the other hand, are not frequently used. An example would be the suffix –*th* as in 'warmth'.

adjective + –*th* = noun
'warm'　+ –*th* = 'warmth'

-*th* can only be attached to a small number of words. No English speaker would consider using the word 'thinth' to describe soup broth that is not thick.

So back to rules.

As we have seen, there are rules that govern the process of affixation (3).   Furthermore, we know that when specific suffixes are attached to one part of speech, they derive another. –*ly* will derive an adverb from an adjective.

Q What is Zero Derivation?

In linguistics, **conversion**, also called **zero derivation** or **null derivation**, is a kind of word formation involving the creation of a word (of a new word class) from an existing word (of a different word class) without any change in form,[1] which is to say, derivation using only zero. For example, the noun *green* in golf (referring to a putting-green) is derived ultimately from the adjective *green*.

Conversions from adjectives to nouns and vice versa are both very common and unnotable in English; much more remarked upon is the creation of a verb by converting a noun or other word (e.g., the adjective *clean* becomes the verb *to clean*).

Conversion is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form without

any changes to spelling or pronunciation. For example, the noun *email* appeared in English before the verb: a decade ago I would have sent you an email (noun) whereas now I can either send you an email (noun) or simply email (verb) you. The original noun *email* experienced conversion, thus resulting in the new verb *email*. Conversion is also referred to as zero derivation or null derivation with the assumption that the formal change between words results in the addition of an invisible morpheme. However, many linguistics argue for a clear distinction between the word formation processes of derivation and conversion.

Q Define agent noun.

In linguistics, an **agent noun** (in Latin, ***nomen agentis***) is a word that is derived from another word denoting an action, and that identifies an entity that does that action. For example, "driver" is an agent noun formed from the verb "drive"

Usually, *derived* in the above definition has the strict sense attached to it in morphology, that is the derivation takes as an input a lexeme (an abstract unit of morphological analysis) and produces a new lexeme. However, the classification of morphemes into derivational morphemes (see word formation) and inflectional ones is not generally a straightforward theoretical question, and different authors can make different decisions as to the general theoretical principles of the classification as well as to the actual classification of morphemes presented in a grammar of some language (for example, of the agent noun-forming morpheme).

An **agentive affix** is commonly used to form an agent noun from a verb. Examples:

- English: "-er", "-or", "-ist".

Q What are the categories of agent noun?

The four basic categories of agent noun are listed below:

Persons: baker, dancer, gambler, driver
Animals: pointer, retriever, warbler, trotter
Material objects: blotter, eraser, fertilizer, shutter
Immaterial objects: reminder, clincher, thriller, eyeopener

These nouns can be further divided into their habitual and nonhabitual uses.
Habitually: He is a gambler. we usually mean that he gambles regularly.
non-habitually: All ticket-holders may enter

Q What are the analyses of agent nouns?

There are two possible analyses of agent nouns, both of which are reasonable. We won't try to choose between them here.

One is the strategy to assign the derivation a sparse semantic rule. So an agent noun is 'someone or something connected with what the base denotes', or alternatively, 'somebody or something whose function or characteristic is to perform a particular act'. For now we assume the latter. It permits the categories person, animal, material object, and immaterial object, as well as a habitual or nonhabitual interpretation.

The other method which linguists might use to account for possible meanings of X-er agent nouns involves prototypes, also called archetypes. The idea is that not all members of a given category are equal. Reasonably the prototypical agentive is a person who habitually performs a particular type of action. So the prototypical agentive is a word like baker, dancer, gambler, or driver, in the habitual sense. These reflect the core meaning of this particular formation. Other forms, like retriever, blotter, or clincher, involve relaxation of the core meaning. We use them to distinguish one specimen from other members of its class.

• A pointer

• A retriever

When we claim that persons are the prototypical members of the category of agentive nouns, we can also argue that some other members of the category – material objects like screwdrivers, for example – aren't agents at all. Instead, they are instruments, because they don't have will. In short, the second method of analyzing agentives is to establish a central case, the prototype, and to work out from that to get the others.

Q What is regular inflection?

Inflection, the way we change a word's form to reflect things like tense, plurality, gender, etc., is usually governed by consistent, predictable rules. This is known as **regular inflection**. For example, we usually create the past simple tense of verbs by adding "-d" or "-ed" (as in *heard*or *walked*, which also function as the verbs' past participles), and we normally create plurals by adding "-s" or "-es" to the ends of nouns (as in *dogs, cats, watches*, etc.).

Q What is irregular inflection?

However, there are many instances in which the way a word is inflected doesn't seem to follow any rules or conventions at all—this is known as **irregular inflection**. For example, the past simple tense of the verb *go* is *went* (rather than *goed*, as regular inflection would suggest), and its past participle is *gone*.

Irregular inflection affects nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and (most commonly) verbs.

Q What is inflection?

The inflection is from Latin root flect- means 'bend' but this bending is now become altering the shape of the word to fit in a particular sentence. Every sentence is a syntactic frame with positions for a series of words. This _____ is clever. Noun   In order to fill one of those positions, you take a lexeme from the lexicon and bend it to fit. In this way, inflectional morphology is determined by syntax.

Inflection, formerly **flection** or **accidence**, in linguistics, the change in the form of a word (in English, usually the addition of endings) to mark such distinctions as tense, person, number, gender, mood, voice, and case. English inflection indicates noun plural (*cat, cats*), noun case (*girl, girl's, girls'*), third person singular present tense (*I, you, we, they buy; he buys*), past tense (*we walk, we walked*), aspect (*I have called, I am calling*), and comparatives (*big, bigger, biggest*). Remnants of the earlier inflectional system of Old English may also be found (*e.g., he, him, his*). Changes within the stem, or main word part, are another type of inflection, as in *sing, sang, sung* and *goose, geese.* The paradigm of the Old Icelandic *u*-stem noun *skjǫldr* ("shield"), for example, includes forms with both internal change and suffixation; the nominative singular form is *skjǫldr,* the genitive singular is *skjaldar*, and the nominative plural is *skildir*. Many languages, such as Latin, Spanish, French, and German, have a much more extensive system of inflection. For example, Spanish shows verb distinction for person and number, "I, you, he, they live," *vivo, vives, vive, viven* ("I live," "you live," "he lives," "they live"). A number of languages, especially non-Indo-European ones, inflect with prefixes and infixes, word parts added before a main part or within the main part. Inflection differs from derivation in that it does

not change the part of speech. Derivation uses prefixes and suffixes (*e.g., in-, -tion*) to form new words (*e.g., inform, deletion*), which can then take inflections.

The terms inflecting and inflectional are sometimes used more narrowly in the typological classification of languages to refer to a subtype of synthetic language, such as Latin. All synthetic languages have inflection in the broader and more widespread sense of the term

The inflection is from Latin root flect- means 'bend' but this bending is now become altering the shape of the word to fit in a particular sentence. Every sentence is a syntactic frame with positions for a series of words. This _____ is clever. Noun   In order to fill one of those positions, you take a lexeme from the lexicon and bend it to fit. In this way, inflectional morphology is determined by syntax.

Q What kinds of things do lexemes express through inflection?

In general we speak of inflection expressing morphosyntactic information: syntactic information that is expressed morphologically. This includes the abstract syntactic categories of, tense, aspect, number, and case. Since the syntax provides the morphology with morphosyntactic features, the job of the morphology must be to get from there to the actual phonological realization:

The answers to that question. Exponence: refers to the realization of morphosyntactic features via inflection. In seas, the morpheme[z] is the exponent of the morphosyntactic feature plural, In sailed, [d] is the exponent of past tense or past participle In both cases there is a one-to-one relationship between form and meanings, since one morpheme realizes one morphosyntactic feature, a situation that Matthews calls simple exponence. Lastly, inflection for case, number, and gender in many Indo-European languages involves cumulative exponence. like Latin -o: in am-o: 'I love',

Q Differentiate Context-free and context sensitive inflection.

Context-free inflection: when there is a simple directional mapping between a morphosyntactic feature and a particular phonological string. as /-iŋ/, refers to context-free inflection: All present participles in English bear the same suffix. Inflection for past tense in English is **context sensitive** in the sense that the feature [past] is realized as many things depending on the lexeme it attaches to, with /-d/ suffixation being the default case. Inherent vs. assigned inflection Nouns and pronouns are marked as having a particular gender in the speaker's mental lexicon. For them, gender is inherent.

For any other lexical category that reflects the gender of nouns and pronouns, such as adjective and verb, gender cannot be inherent. It must be assigned.

Q What are Inflectional categories?

While most languages have morphological inflection of some sort, the actual inflectional categories can differ quite widely across languages. In this section, we briefly survey both the most common categories and some of the ways languages may differ. It is convenient to make a

first broad cut **into nominal and verbal categories**, though the nominal categories often appear on adjectives and verbs through concord. The most common nominal categories are number, gender and case.

Q Differentiate inflection and. Derivation.

Within a lexeme-based theory: derivation gives new lexemes, and inflection gives you the forms of a lexeme that are determined by syntactic environment. What exactly does this mean, and is there really a need for such a distinction? The first question about the distinction is whether there is any formal basis for distinguishing the two types of morphology. Can we tell them apart because they do different things to words?

Distinction between inflectional and derivational morphemes

• Inflection does not change the core lexical meaning or the lexical category of the word to which it applies. Derivation does the former and may do the latter.

• Inflection is the realization of morphosyntactic features, i.e., those that are relevant to the syntax, such as case and number. Derivation is not.

• Inflectional morphology is more productive than derivational morphology.

• Derivational morphology tends to occur closer to the root or stem than inflectional morphology.

• Derived lexemes are more likely to be stored in the lexicon than inflected forms.

Despite the generalizations made above, the morphological form that inflection and derivation may take is very similar. Cross-linguistically, both can be expressed through prefixal, suffixal, or non-segmental means. The difference between inflection and derivation is therefore not so much a difference in form as a difference in function – what they do and what they tell us.

Q What is Apophony?

In some cases affixation is supplemented or replaced by apophony, or vowel changes within a root, as shown below for English and the Bernese dialect of Swiss German: (14) a. sing, sang, sung b. drive, drove, driven

• a. suuffe [suːf e] 'drink (inf)'gsoffe [°gs ɔ f: e] 'drunk (past part)'

• b. schwimme [ʃʋim: e] 'swim (inf)'gschwomme [°qʃʋʊm: e] 'swum'

• c. pfyffe [pfiːf e] 'whistle (inf)'pfiffe [pfif: e] 'whistled (past part)'

Other terms for apophony are internal change and, particularly when referring to English and other Germanic languages, ablaut. All three of these terms are sometimes applied to the vowel changes that apply to roots in Semitic languages. In the context of Germanic linguistics, ablaut is often reserved for apophony in verb paradigms, as seen. A second term, umlaut,is used to describe the apophony found in singular–plural noun pairs like goose~geese or foot~feet.

Umlaut is a phonologically conditioned alternation in which a vowel assimilates in part to a succeeding vowel. The term is used even when the succeeding vowel has been lost. For instance, goose, geese and foot, feet resulted from vowel harmony with a high vowel in the plural suffix, which has since disappeared.

Q What is Reduplication in morphology?

A *reduplicative* is a word or lexeme (such as *mama*) that contains two identical or very similar parts. Words such as these are also called *tautonyms*. The morphological and phonological process of forming a compound word by repeating all or part of it is known as *reduplication*. The repeated element is called a *reduplicant*.

"Items with identical spoken constituents, such as *goody-goody* and *din-din*, are rare," wrote David Crystal in the second edition of "The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language." "What is normal is for a single vowel or consonant to change between the first constituent and the second, such as *see-saw* and *walkie-talkie*.

"Reduplicatives are used in a variety of ways. Some simply imitate sounds: *ding-dong, bow-wow*. Some suggest alternative movements: *flip-flop, ping-pong*. Some are disparaging: *dilly-dally, wishy-washy*. And some intensify meaning: *teeny-weeny, tip-top*. Reduplication is not a major means of creating lexemes in English, but it is perhaps the most unusual one." (Cambridge Univ. Press, 2003)

Q What is Suppletion in Morphology?

In morphology, *suppletion* is the use of two or more phonetically distinct roots for different forms of the same word, such as the adjective *bad* and its suppletive comparative form *worse*. Adjective: *suppletive*.

According to Peter O. Müller et al., the term "*strong suppletion* is used where the allomorphs are highly dissimilar and/or have different etymological origins," as in the adjective forms *good* and *best*. "We speak of *weak suppletion* if some similarity is discernible," as in the words *five* and *fifth*.

Examples and Observations

"*Bad - worse* is a case of **suppletion**. *Worse* is clearly semantically related to *bad* in exactly the same way as, for example, *larger* is related to *large*, but there is no morphological relationship between the two words, i.e. there is no phonetic similarity between them." *(J.R. Hurford et al., Semantics: A Coursebook, 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press, 2007)*

"**Suppletion** is said to take place when the syntax requires a form of a lexeme that is not morphologically predictable. In English, the paradigm for the verb *be* is characterized by suppletion. *Am, are, is, was, were*, and *be* have completely different phonological shapes, and they are not predictable on the basis of the paradigms of other English verbs. We also find suppletion with pronouns. Compare *I* and *me* or *she* and *her*. Suppletion is most likely to be found in the paradigms of high-frequency words. . .."

Q What is Syncretism in morphology?

Syncretism is a surprising yet widespread and poorly understood phenomenon in natural language. Given a regular distinction such as present versus past, as in English help/helped, work/worked, laugh/laughed, we might not expect to find instances like bid, which can be present or past (we now bid five pounds, though yesterday we bid ten pounds). The form bid, is said to be an instance of syncretism, a single form fulfilling two different functions. Thus syncretism is found even in English, whose inflectional morphology (system of different word-forms) is simple in comparison with many languages. The proposed project will document the phenomenon and offer a theoretical account.

In this project we looked at a range of languages of different types (some languages, for instance, have thousands of (inflectional) forms of a single word, unlike the very few which are possible in English). We developed a database of the different instances of syncretism in

these various languages. This became both the stimulus and the control for a theory of syncretism, constructed within the general framework of Network Morphology, developed in Surrey Morphology Group. Network Morphology theories are encoded in the lexical knowledge representation language DATR, which means that they can be checked computationally to ensure that they are indeed consistent with the data they claim to explain.

Q What are the historical aspect of lexical source of English word formation?

England was ruled for a long period after 1066 by a monarch and a nobility whose native language was a variety of French; This ruling group gradually switched to English for everyday purposes; French a language of law, administration, and culture every educated person learnt it. It is not surprising, then, that the vocabulary of English contains a high proportion of words borrowed from French than other Germanic languages. French is one of the so-called Romance languages, descended from Latin, along with Portuguese, Spanish, Italian and Romanian. Latin has had a more direct influence too. Official language of the western half of the Roman Empire and the vehicle of a huge and varied written literature, second only to Greek. The liturgical language of all West European Christians until the Protestant Reformation 16 century, and of Catholics till1970s. Many words were adopted into English from Latin directly, rather than by way of French. The Romans preferring instead to create new Latin terms to translate Greek ones. The possibility of direct Greek influence on English did not arise, however, until 16 c Western Europeans began to learn about Greek culture for themselves in the fifteenth century. In word formation, influence of Greek has been in the invention of scientific and technical words. The variety of the sources that have contributed to the vocabulary of English came in whole or in part, from the same ancestral morpheme in the extinct Proto-Indo-European language from which Greek and the Romance and Germanic languages .

Q What is The rarity of borrowed inflectional morphology?

If English borrows a foreign pattern of word formation, it should be expected to borrow inflectional affixes that conform to that pattern, as well as roots and derivational affixes. English does not use French or Latin inflectional affixes on verbs borrowed from those languages. A language acquires lexemes through borrowing rather than individual word forms.

If English speakers import a new verb V from French, they will not import just its past tense form since we expect to be able to express in English not only the grammatical word 'past tense of V' but also the grammatical words 'third person singular present of V', 'perfect participle of V', and so on

It is much more convenient to equip the new French-sourced verb with word forms created in accordance with English verbal inflection – specifically, the most regular pattern of verbal inflection (suffixes -s, -ed and -ing).

The only condition under which English speakers are likely to borrow foreign word forms along with the lexemes if the grammatical words are few in number(not hard to learn), and if their functions in English and the source language correspond closely. This condition is fulfilled with nouns.

The foreign plurals are all vulnerable, however.

Q What are the characteristics of Germanic and non-Germanic derivation?

The inherited Germanic root heart is free while the cognate roots cord- and card-, borrowed from Latin and Greek, are bound, and the same applies to inherited bear by contrast

with borrowed *-fer*and *-pher*. If this kind of contrast is general, then it has implications for inherited and borrowed affixes too.

We will expect that native Germanic affixes should attach to free bases, while the affixes that attach to bound bases should generally be borrowed. And this turns out to be correct.

An example is the suffix -ment, as in development, punishment, commitment, attainment – though it is sometimes found with a bound base, as in the nouns compliment and supplement.

Another example is the prefix de-, as in deregister, and decompose.

This tolerance for free bases is surely connected with the fact that, in the terminology de- is formally and semantically rather regular, and can readily be used in neologisms (e.g. de-grass in The courtyard was grassed only last year, but now they are going to de-grass it and lay paving stones

For an affix restricted to bound bases, such a neologizing capacity would be scarcely conceivable in a language where, as in English, most bases are free.

Q What is Morphological productivity?

A given morphological pattern is more productive than another is to say that there is a higher probability of a potential word in the first pattern being accepted in the language than there is of a potential word in the second pattern. English nouns make their plural in a number of different ways, as can be seen in the following set of words.

The suffix -th creates nouns from adjectives (e.g., deep → depth, wide → width). a meaning that is similar to -ness. Length means the same thing that longness would mean; decidedth ,mean the same thing as decidedness. But only-ness can be called productive. Studying productivity, we study phenomena and distinctions like these. One question we need to ask about productivity is whether it is part of linguistic competence. Competence is Chomsky's (1965) term for the knowledge that speakers and hearers have of their language. Some people would say that productivity is not part of linguistic competence either, because, in order for something to be considered part of competence, it must be structural and 'all or none'. Productivity is a probabilistic notion, and some linguists believe that if something is probabilistic, it is not structural and hence is not part of the grammar. Under this view, productivity would have to be treated as a phenomenon that is related to a speaker's competence, but not part of it.

Q Write a note on Negative Prefixes in English.

Productivity can tell us something about language structure: the more productive a morphological derivational process is, the more likely it is to have a compositional one whose meaning is transparently predictable from the meaning of its input. The converse is also true: the less productive a derivational process, the more likely it is to result in a non-compositional, semantically idiosyncratic, non-transparent output. To illustrate this point, consider negative prefixes in English.

Zimmer (1964) looked at three of them, *non-*, *un-*, and in-, and discovered that the most productive of the set, non-, also has the most semantically transparent derivatives.

This is shown by the contrast between the two:

non-Christian unchristian
non-human inhuman

What's the difference? Non-Christian means 'not Christian'. unchristian can mean same and 'not behaving in a Christian manner' or even 'uncivilized and barbaric'. Likewise, non-human simply means 'not human', while inhuman refers to the absence of human qualities like pity or kindness. A person can be both human and inhuman, but not human and nonhuman.

The non-words in general simply negate their bases, the in- and un- words have the meaning 'completely opposite to X', where X is the meaning of their bases, in the way that east and west or long and short are opposed. To put it in a more technical way, non- is a logical or contrary negator. Using logical notation, we could represent non-Christian as in, where ¬ means 'not':

- ¬ Christian

Un- and in- are contradictory negators, whose addition to a word X results in a new word meaning 'opposite of X'. Zimmer's observation extends to other derivational affixes. The suffix -ness is more productive in English than -ity (Aronoff 1976).

Consider the pair collectivity~collectiveness. While both may mean 'the quality or condition of being collective', only collectivity has the additional meaning 'the people considered as a body or whole'. Overall, when we compare many such pairs, the -ness derivative has more transparent semantics. Sometimes the -ity derivative sounds or looks odd, while the -ness derivative is pretty much always acceptable. Compare conduciveness with conducivity.

Most English speakers would say that the former is more acceptable than the latter. We can even go beyond morphology to make the observation that syntax, which is always productive, is by definition compositional.

Q What is the relation between morphology (inflection) and syntax?

Already seen, inflection and syntax are intimately related to one another. Inflection is the realization of morphosyntactic features through morphological means. Morphosyntax deals with the relationship and interactions between morphology and syntax. A variety of topics in morphosyntax, includs morphologists' and syntacticians' definitions of inflection, structural constraints on morphological inflection, inflection and universal grammar, and grammatical-function-changing morphology.

According to the traditional view, the relation between morphology and syntax is the following: while morphology builds up word forms—typically by combining roots with other roots and with affixes, but also by applying other operations to them.

- Syntax takes fully inflected words as input and combines them into phrases and sentences.
- The division of labour between morphology and syntax is thus perfect: morphology only operates below the word level whereas syntax only operates above the word level.

These two components of grammar are ordered in strict sequence, such that the syntax takes over after the morphology has done its work.

Q Differentiate Morphological and Syntactic Inflection.

We begin by distinguishing between two applications of the word inflection, one found chiefly in the morphological literature and the other in syntactic literature.

For a morphologist, the presence of inflectional morphology in a language depends on the existence of multiple forms of a lexeme. If a lexeme has only one form, then there can be no morphological inflection. In syntax, there is no such requirement. Chinese lexemes have only one form, abstracting away from phonologically determined alternations (mostly changes in tone). While Chinese has a few clitics or particles, including one that expresses past tense, these are generally not considered affixes

From a syntactician's point of view, whether or not Chinese and Vietnamese have inflection is an entirely different matter. Even if a language does not express a particular notion such as number or case, it is typically assumed to be present in the syntax. Likewise, a syntactician may argue that a verb always agrees with its subject in an abstract sense. This abstract agreement is considered just as real in Chinese, where the verb form never depends on its subject, In Russian, where the form of the verb changes depending on the person (first, second, third) and number (singular or plural) of the subject

Another difference between the morphological and syntactic usage of the term inflection is that morphologists speak of inflection only when dealing with bound forms. The reason for this is clear inflection informally is as "bending" of a lexeme.

English has a syntactic category of modals, or modal auxiliaries used to accompany other verbs to indicate that the action or state described by the sentence is something other than simple fact. Should we consider these models to be morphological inflection? No. In order to be classified as morphological inflection, a syntactic category must be expressed through bound forms. In the case of the English modals, we are not dealing with bound forms, but rather with separate words.

Again, syntacticians differ from morphologists on this point. Most would treat auxiliaries as part of the inflectional system of a language. Morphologists are not denying the validity of this treatment, only distinguishing the full word modals (i.e., syntactic inflection) from morphological inflection.

Differences between morphological and syntactic inflection	
Morphological inflection is realized overtly.	Syntactic inflection may or may not be overt.
• In order to be classified as morphological inflection, morphosyntactic properties must be expressed by bound forms or other morphophonological means (e.g., ablaut, suppletion).	Syntactic inflection may be realized by free forms (e.g., auxiliaries).

Q What is the relation among Inflection and Universal Grammar?

Universal Grammar is the theory developed by Noam Chomsky that states that all languages are identical at some level of analysis. Tremendous influence on the field of linguistics, and most linguists agree with Chomsky that language has an innate component. A key phrase in the definition of Universal Grammar that we have provided is "at some level of analysis." What is the level of analysis at which languages are identical? At which

levels do languages differ? More specifically, are inflectional categories universal? In one sense, inflectional categories are universal. A mistake to say that the realizations of inflectional categories are stable cross-linguistically.

Examples of inflectional categories
Nominal Verbal
• case (e.g., nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative, ergative, absolutive)
• tense (e.g., past, present, future)
• aspect (e.g., perfective, imperfective)
• mood (e.g., indicative, subjunctive, optative)
• voice (e.g., active, passive)
• subject and object agreement • number (e.g., singular, plural, dual, trial, paucal) • gender (e.g., masculine, feminine, neuter; animate, inanimate)

Q Write down the number of gender in the languages of the Atlantic family.

Gender is highly problematic from a Universalist point of view. The number of noun classes in languages of the Atlantic family varies widely.

- Kujamaat Jóola 19,
- Gombe Fula   25,
- Serer   16,
- Wolof   10,
- Manjaku   14,
- Balanta   07,

Some Atlantic languages have multiple dialects, and dialects do not necessarily share the same number of noun classes. To other language families of the world, we find variation not only in the number of genders but also in the entire organization of the gender system. Despite differences between gender systems some similarities do emerge. German has three genders called masculine, feminine, and neuter: Masculine Feminine Neuter. Mann 'man' Frau 'woman' Parlament 'parliament' . Masculine, feminine, and neuter are obligatory inflectional categories of German. This means that every noun in the language, including borrowings like Parlament 'parliament', must belong to a gender. A noun cannot be genderless. Furthermore, gender is obligatory in that a noun cannot simply carry it around: its gender category must be expressed through agreement.

In many languages gender is an obligatory inflectional category. Every noun must have a gender, and that gender must be expressed in the morphology. The gender categories themselves and the number of them are completely different. Many languages, have certain types of inflectional categories appear over and over again. For example, nouns are regularly inflected for case, number, and gender. For verbs, the picture is similarly limited. Verbs might inflect for tense, aspect, mood, voice, or agreement, but you generally do not find languages where verbs inflect for other categories. Although the inflectional categories themselves may not be universal, universal principles govern what is inflectionally possible and what is not.

Q How Grammatical Function Changes?

If we look at the languages, we often find that the passive, causative, and other types of grammatical-function-changing phenomena are associated with particular morphology. Grammatical function change refers to "alternations in the grammatical encoding of referential expressions," to use the definition presented by Baker (1988: 1). We see that the agent can be encoded as a subject or object, depending on the form of the verb used: broke or was broken.

Passive, causative, and other phenomena are grammatical-function changing phenomena because they can be seen as triggering the encoding change. There are various types of grammatical-function-changing phenomena that are found cross linguistically.

The governor broke the law.

The law was broken by the governor.

The law was broken.

Solomon made the governor break the law

The governor broke the law for Smith

We could also :

The governor has broken the law(which is active).

Q What are the phenomena causing productivity in Syntax?

Passive, causative, and other phenomena are grammatical-function changing phenomena shows productivity of syntax. We do not analyze them, beyond presenting basic definitions, because to do so would require us to go too deeply into syntax. Grammatical-function-changing phenomena involve morphology–syntax interactions at their most intimate.

Passive: Construction in which a grammatical subject of the verb is subjected to or affected by the action of the verb. The verb's agent may be expressed as an adjunct (in English, a by phrase). Example: His memoirs were written by a ghost writer.

Antipassive: Construction in which the object of the verb is expressed in an oblique case or becomes null. The following is an example of the antipassive voice:

- Mary-erg eats pie-abs." → "Mary-abs eats."

"He-erg is speaking the truth-abs." → "He-abs is speaking

Causative: Construction in which the subject causes an event. The causative may be an auxiliary verb or an inflectional morpheme attached to a verb, but the term is also applied to verbs that inherently express a relationship whereby the subject causes a given event (to kill is to cause to die).Sam makes us smile.

Applicative: Construction in which the addition of a morpheme allows a verb to take an additional object. This object is often understood as benefiting from or being adversely affected by the action of the verb. English does not have a dedicated applicative prefix or suffix. However, prepositions can be compounded with verbs for an applicative effect. For example, from

- Jack ran faster than the giant,

Noun incorporation Morphological construction: Construction in which a noun stem is compounded with a verb stem and yields a derived verb stem. Example: Siberian Koryak qoya- 'reindeer' combines with the verb stem -nm- 'to kill', yielding the derived form qoyanm- 'to reindeer-slaughter. Although incoroporation does not occur regularly, English uses it sometimes: breastfeed, and direct object incorporation, as in babysit.

Q How morphological knowledge is represented in mind?

How morphological knowledge (knowledge of complex words and of morphological rules) is represented in the human mind and how it is used in language processing. This is an important topic because the mental representation of morphological knowledge is a battle ground for different theories about the nature of linguistic rules. A related topic is the balance between storage and computation. Knowledge in a particular domain of human cognition always comprises both storage of information and the ability to compute new information. Morphology may therefore be qualified as a window on the human mind. The empirical domains of psycholinguistic research will be reviewed:

The mental lexicon ('the dictionary in your head'),

The acquisition of morphological knowledge,

The role of this knowledge in language perception and production.

There are a number of ways in which we can find out how morphological knowledge is represented in the mind and used in language processing: by studying naturalistic data (corpora of language use, speech errors, effects of language impairment, etc.) and experimental data (lexical decision tasks, production tasks, etc.). Morphology is a battlefield for competing models of linguistic knowledge, and for discussion on the nature of linguistic rules. The frequency of words in actual language use correlates with their activation level in the mental lexicon. Statistical and probabilistic data are therefore relevant for adequate models of morphological knowledge.

Q What is the difference between dictionary and individual lexicon storage in mind?.

Lexical knowledge of a native speaker does not have the format of a dictionary.

First, the number of lexical entries in a good dictionary is much higher than that in our individual mental list of words. There are many words that most speakers do not know. The **passive vocabulary**, the number of words that you understand. The **active vocabulary**, the set of words one uses in language production is much smaller. A dictionary is conservative by nature, and hence it will contain words from the past that nobody uses any more. Mental lexicon will always be ahead of the dictionary, and contains a substantial number of words that are not listed in dictionaries. New words (neologisms) are coined continuously, and dictionaries always lag behind.

A **second** difference between a dictionary and the mental lexicon is that words in the mental lexicon bear a number of relationships to each other. Words with similar meanings or similar phonological forms appear to be related in the mental lexicon, as can be concluded from speech errors. Someone talking about the sympathy of a musical conductor used the word symphony instead of sympathy.

In a dictionary, semantic relations between words are usually not expressed directly. The mental lexicon as a multidimensional web of words, with all kinds of connections between those words: semantic similarities, phonological similarities, and morphological relationships.

In a dictionary, words have one type of relationship only, that of alphabetical ordering. This ordering is based on the degree of orthographical similarity between words.

A **third** difference between a dictionary and a mental lexicon is that the latter also stores information about the frequency with which you come across a word. Linguists may compute the frequency of words on the basis of large corpora of actual language use..

Q Write a note on acquisition of morphology.

How does a child acquire the morphological system, the set of morphological rules of his or her mother tongue? Morphological rules have to be discovered on the basis of words that are formed according to these rules.

The first stage: the acquisition of individual complex words. The child uses morphologically complex words correctly without making use of morphological knowledge, by retrieving them from memory. **Next**, he may discover certain recurring properties e.g. plural nouns in English, the ending -s (with the allomorphs [s], [z], and [ɪz]) to the stem. Rules with exceptions go a further refinement.

Three stages of morphological acquisition (Berko,1958).

- Firstly, children learn a number of past tense forms of English verbs by rote producing correct past tense forms of both regular and irregular verbs (asked, went).
- Secondly, children acquiring English have discovered the rule for past tense forms, but will also apply the rule to the class of irregular verbs. They will produce the correct form asked, but the incorrect form goed instead of the correct went, a case of overgeneralization.
- third stage, both the rule and the set of exceptions have been acquired, correct *asked* and *went*.

So the learning process has the shape of a U-curve:
the number of correct past tense verbs in stage I decreases in stage II, and increases again in stage III. This learning curve has been found for many languages.

In the domain of word-formation children discover the building principles for complex words quite soon. Able to coin new words themselves at a very early age. Children coin words for concepts for which there are already established words. For adults, established words have priority above new coinings, in accordance with the principle of conventionality that gives priority to established words, and thus blocks the creation of new words that are synonymous to existing ones. Since children discover morphological processes on the basis of the words they are exposed to, they must be able to compare and analyse words, and assign them morphological structure if possible.

Q What is the role of direct root and indirect root in morphological processing?

The insight that complex words are often stored as such in the lexicon raises the question of how they are processed. There are two ways in which a complex word can be processed, the **direct route,** and the **indirect route**.

When perception of complex words is involved, the direct route means that we do not first parse the complex word, but go directly to its representation in the lexicon, in order to access its meaning. The indirect route means that a complex word is parsed into constituent morphemes, and that its meaning is computed after we have gained access to its constituent morphemes and their meanings. There are data that might be interpreted as showing that language users try to parse wods into morphological sub-constituents.

Q What are the internal causes of language of language change?

Middle English as used in Chaucerian time is different from Modern English. If we assume that it is still the same language, English, we have to conclude that languages can change. The statement that languages change is in fact metaphorical in nature. It presupposes that we conceive of a language as an organism that grows, changes, and sometimes dies. Languages have a mode of existence outside their users.

A language primarily exists in the minds of its speakers. That is why we say that a language has died when its last speaker has died. So it is speakers that change their language while using it in language perception and production.

Why do language users change their language? In fact, 'change' is not always the appropriate word for what is going on. It would be better to speak of construction or innovation of language. **The change of the lexical norm consists following steps.**

- The main reason for changing the lexical norm of a language is that language users need expressions for new concepts, or new things
- Borrows one from another language. Dutch, for example, has borrowed many words from English recently e.g. printer
- One way of meeting this need is extending the meaning of existing words
  - ✓ mouse

- ✓ hard disk
- ✓ anti-virus-program

Q What are the external causes of language of language change?

Language change may also be effected by external causes, in particular language contact. This is called external change. Language contact may lead to borrowing of words from other languages. Most Germanic languages borrowed many words from French, of culture, science, and diplomacy. English was influenced much earlier and more strongly by French due to the Norman conquest of 1066. Borrowing had its impact on the morphology of Germanic languages. In Dutch, a number of affixes of French origin are used productively in combination with non-native stems, and sometimes even with native stems (as in flauw-iteit "silly joke" derived from the native adjective flauw "silly").

Language contact as a source of loss of inflectional morphology can be observed in the development of Afrikaans: mother language Dutch. Afrikaans has an extremely simple kind of inflectional morphology, with a present tense form that is identical to the stem, without person and number marking. Morphological change is the erosion of inflectional systems in the Germanic and Romance languages, referred to as deflection. English has the poorest inflectional system of all. Most Germanic languages have lost their case system and the three-gender system. Language change is obviously not restricted to the morphological system of languages. Quotation above from Chaucer also shows phonological, syntactic, and semantic changes. Phonological change is exemplified by the loss of the final vowel of *roote* that has become root in Modern English. The word order noun–adjective in *shoures soote* corresponds with the Modern English word order adjective–noun: *sweet showers*. An example of semantic change is that the present-day meaning of liquor is no longer "liquid", but denotes alcoholic liquids only.

Q What is the source of historical sources of Morphology?

Morphological systems not only erode, they may also arise. An example is the emergence of nominal compounding in Germanic languages that arose from noun phrases of the type:
- [N-GEN N]NP
- Harry's book : The pre-nominal noun with genitive case functions as a modifier of the head noun.

Such noun phrases were reinterpreted as compound nouns.

Univerbation, the reinterpretation of phrases as words, does not necessarily lead to language change. In linguistics, univerbation is the diachronic process of combining a fixed expression of several words into a new single word.

Some English examples include *always* from all [the] way (the *s* was added later),
- *onto* from *on to*,
- *albeit* from *all be it*,
- and colloquial *gonna* from going to.

These changes imply the addition of lexemes to the lexicon, but do not affect the morphological system. Although this kind of univerbation did not lead to new morphological rules, : when a

word is multi-morphemic, this does not necessarily imply that it has been created by a morphological process.

The frequency plays a role in grammaticalization: defined as 'the process by which a frequently used sequence of words or morphemes become automated as a single processing unit' (Bybee 2003: 603). [G]rammaticalization is that subset of linguistic changes through which lexical item in certain uses becomes a grammatical item, or through which a grammatical item becomes more grammatical' (Hopper and Closs Traugott1993: 2).

An example of the change from lexical to grammatical item is the development of verbs into auxiliaries. In English the verb *to have* not only functions as a main verb, with the meaning "to possess", but also as an auxiliary in perfect tense forms.

The verb *can* has lost its status as lexical verb completely, and functions as a modal auxiliary only. In these examples grammaticalization does not create morphology. This does happen if a (lexical or grammatical) morpheme becomes an affix.

The phenomenon of degrammaticalization has raised the question whether grammaticalization is subject to the condition of unidirectionality. Can a grammatical morpheme become less grammatical, or even lexical as well. This depends on one's definition of grammaticalization. If unidirectionality is one of its defining properties, changes into the opposite direction simply require another descriptive term, for instance degrammaticalization.

The reinterpretation of the English genitive case morpheme -s as a clitic is a restricted form of degrammaticalization. It is a restricted case because the suffix does not end up as a full lexical word. In Early Modern English it has also been interpreted as the weak form of the possessive pronoun his, that is, as a full word. Shakespeare writes: the count his galleys "the count's galleys".

This change is related to the fact that English lost its case system and this made a reanalysis of the genitive suffix –s necessary.Degrammaticalization is restricted in nature, Grammaticalization is a pervasive phenomenon in natural languages.

This change is related to the fact that English lost its case system and this made a reanalysis of the genitive suffix –s necessary. Degrammaticalization is restricted in nature, Drammaticalization is a pervasive phenomenon in natural languages.

Q What are the changes in Morphological Rules:

Erosion of inflectional morphology has taken place in most Germanic and Romance languages. This means that some inflectional rules have disappeared from the grammar of those languages. Dutch, for instance, has lost its morphological cases. The case system has only survived in a number of fixed expressions, prepositional in origin. The prepositions in these phrases govern a particular case.

Some of these frozen expressions are considered as words, others are still spelt as phrases. The case endings are in italics.

- te-gelijk*er*-tijd "at the same time, simultaneously
- "met d*ien* verstande "with that understanding

- "in di*er* voege "in such a manner"

An interesting case of change in inflectional morphology is that of adjectival inflection in Afrikaans.

In Dutch, adjectives in attributive position are inflected according to the following rule: 'add the suffix -e [ə] tothe adjectival stem unless the NP in which it occurs carries the features[indefinite], [neuter], and [singular

Quite a complex system for many non-native speakers. No wonder this system broke down in Afrikaans, a creolized variant of Dutch.

In the new system, the adjectives are divided into two classes: either they always carry the inflectional schwa in attributive position, or they never do. The adjectives that do take the schwa are morphologically complex adjectives, and simplex adjectives that exhibit stem allomorphy. For instance, the adjective sag "soft" has the stem allomorph sagt, as shown in the inflected form sagte.

Hence, it will have the form sagte in attributive position, whereas sag is used in predicative position. What we can learn from these facts is that relics of a previous stage of the language, "historical junk" in the words of Lass (1990), might be kept, and even re-used in a different way. That is, these words have lost their morphological structure.

Another type of possible change in derivational rules is a change in the category of the base words to which they apply. Very productive rules tend to extend their domain of application to new categories.

The productive diminutive suffix -tje of Dutch, for instance, is no longer restricted to the domain of nouns, but also attaches to adjectives, verbs, and adverbs:

- strijk "to stroke" strijk-je "small string orchestra" blond "blond" blond-je "blond girl" uit "out" uit-je "outing"

The changes of the French suffix -age also illustrate category change (Fleischmann 1977). The suffix -age entered many European languages through borrowing of French words in -age. English has extended its use to native, Germanic nominal, and verbal stems.

- base N: foot-age, front-age, mile-age, shipp-age, wreck-age, yard-age
- base V: break-age, brew-age, cover-age, drain-age, leak-age, sew-age.

The word shortage shows that -age has even been extended to adjectival bases. In Dutch we find both denominal and deverbal nouns in -age; as in English, it has also been attached to native stems, an indication of its productivity

Q Write a note on Changes in Word Structure?

Complex words, once they are coined, may be subject to reanalysis and reduction. In reanalysis, words receive a different structural interpretation. A classical example is the reinterpretation of the word *hamburger*. This word, derived from the base noun Hamburg, and denoting a specific kind of food originating from that city, received the following structural reanalysis:

- [[hamburg]er] > [[ham][burger]]

Reanalysis can only be observed when the reanalysed structure serves as a model for new words. Many new words in -burger have been coined, such as *beefburger*, *cheeseburger*, *fishburger*,.

- *turkeyfurter* on the model of *frankfurter*

The piece burger itself has been reinterpreted as a noun, witness the brand name Burger King. So in fact we cannot conclude that a new suffix -burger has developed in English. Burger is a new noun denoting a particular kind of fast food, and can be used as the head of nominal compounds. Semantic reinterpretation may also lead to a new set of words. This has been the case for -gate, as used in Watergate (the name of an apartment building in Washington, DC, that was burglarized by order of President Nixon).

The morpheme -gate received a new interpretation, "political scandal", thus leading to many new words such as Monicagate and Irangate.

This suffix also acquired the more general meaning of "scandal",.

Reanalysis may also have the effect of a sequence of affixes becoming an affix. A morphological structure [[[x]A]B] can be reinterpreted as [[x]AB].

An example from Dutch is the suffix *-erij*, originally a combination of the suffixes -er and -ij: base noun in -er noun in -ijbak "to bake" bakk-er "baker" bakk-er-ij "bakery" > bakk-erij.

This phenomenon of two affixes becoming one is referred to as affix telescoping. Prefixes may also lose their morphological status. This is quite clear in English borrowings from Latin such as abortion and adoption. prefixes ab- and ad- respectively. The syllabifications these words are a.bor.tion and a.dop.tion respectively. The Dutch prefix ge-, as in geloof "to believe" is no longer productive as a verbal prefix. In Afrikaans, the verb geloof has become a simplex verb, glo, with deletion of the schwa

Q Write a note on grammar in historical prospective.

The word grammar is derived from Greek, which means "art of letters", from γράμμα (gramma), "letter", itself from γράφειν (graphein), "to draw, to write". The same Greek root also appears in graphics, grapheme, and photograph. In linguistics, grammar is *the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language*. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes phonology, morphology, and syntax, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

Speakers of a language have *a set of internalized rules for using that language* and these rules constitute that language's grammar. Native language – acquired not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers. Much of this work is done during early childhood; learning a language later in life usually involves a greater degree of explicit instruction.

Grammar is the cognitive information underlying language use. The term "grammar" can also be used to describe the rules that govern the linguistic behaviour of a group of speakers. The term "English grammar" may have several meanings. The whole of English grammar, that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language. Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common

to the grammars of all, or of the vast majority of English speakers (such as subject–verb–object word order in simple declarative sentences). Or it may refer to the rules of a particular, relatively well-defined variety of English (such as standard English for a particular region).

A specific description, study or analysis of such rules may also be referred to as a grammar. A reference book describing the grammar of a language is called a "reference grammar" or simply "a grammar". A fully explicit grammar that exhaustively describes the grammatical constructions of a language is called a descriptive grammar. This kind of linguistic description contrasts with linguistic prescription, an attempt to discourage or suppress some grammatical constructions, while promoting others.

John Dryden, objected to it leading other English speakers to avoid the construction and discourage its use.Outside linguistics, the term grammar is often used in a rather different sense.it may be used more broadly, including rules of spelling and punctuation, which linguists would not typically consider to form part of grammar, but rather as a part of orthography. In other respects, it may be used more narrowly, to refer to prescriptive grammar only and excluding those aspects of a language's grammar that are not subject to variation or debate. Jeremy Butterfield claimed that, for non-linguists, "Grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to."